The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

College of the Liberal Arts

BAD TO THE BONE: EMPIRICALLY DEFINING AND MEASURING

NEGATIVE LEADERSHIP

A Dissertation in

Psychology

by

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

August 2009

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ABSTRACT

Research on negative leadership has grown in popularity in recent years. This proliferation is not surprising given the frequency with which instances of negative leadership occur and the severity of its consequences. Despite the increased attention given to the topic however, the area still suffers from a lack of attempts to define and measure negative leader behavior as a broad-level construct. The present research project addressed both issues through four studies. In Study 1, a comprehensive inventory of negative leader behavior was generated. Using multidimensional scaling, in Study 2, three dimensions were found to underlie the inventory of behaviors, including "organization-directed/subordinate-directed," "insidiously-damaging/immediately-damaging," and "norm-violating/rule-violating" dimensions. Study 3's confirmatory factor analysis identified three negative leader behavior factors, including "subordinate-directed," "organization-directed," and "sexual harassment" factors. Finally, in Study 4, evidence of the construct and criterion validity of the new measure of negative leader behavior was obtained. Based on findings across the four studies, the similarities and differences between negative leader behavior, as a broad-level construct, and other forms of leader and non-leader-specific negative workplace behavior are discussed, along with implications of the project for future research and potential practical applications.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Rick Jacobs for being a great advisor and friend, Sam Hunter and

Jim Farr for their help throughout the project, my parents Ken and Marilyn for supporting

me through graduate school, my friends for not making me talk about my dissertation

when I didn't want to, my fur daughter Emma and fur son Tommy for being fun to spend

time with, and April for marrying me when I didn't have much besides my dissertation.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Although research has traditionally focused on positive aspects of leader behavior (Kelloway, Mullen, & Francis, 2006; Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007), several authors have suggested that many people in leadership and managerial positions may not only be ineffective but may be destructive or toxic toward the work environment. DeVries and Kaiser (2003) estimated that half of all managers may qualify as incompetent. According to people in subordinate positions, this number may be even greater; Hogan and Kaiser (2005) cited statistics showing that 65% to 75% of workers from the general population consider their bosses to be the worst part of their job. Certainly, leadership research should take negative leader behavior into consideration.

The prevalence of "incompetent" individuals in leadership positions is not surprising given the quality of the procedures that many organizations use to select individuals for those positions and how they are evaluated once there. Often, organizations make decisions to promote people into leadership positions based on factors other than their ability and skill in leading and managing others. According to the "Peter Principle" (Peter & Hull, 1996) organizations tend to promote people through managerial ranks until they reach a "level of incompetence" and are unable or unprepared to meet the demands of a job. Consequently, many individuals in supervisory positions lack an understanding of how to manage people (Lloyd, 2006). Compounding the problem, organizations are often reluctant to remove underperforming employees from leadership positions due to the high costs of hiring and training new workers (Bell & Smith, 1991).

Characteristics of the Behaviors of Interest to the Present Study

Before further discussion of issues related to negative leader behavior, it is useful to first provide some background on the behaviors upon which the present study will focus. Research suggests that a distinction can be made between behaviors committed intentionally and those committed unintentionally. Kellerman (2004) argued that negative leader behavior ranges from incompetent to purposefully evil. For example, unintentional behavior includes the managerial decision making errors discussed by Nutt (e.g., Nutt, 1999; Nutt, 2004). On the other hand, intentional behavior includes actions like verbal abuse, taking credit for a subordinate's work, and intentionally withholding important information (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Tepper, 2000). The present study will focus on the latter type of behavior, those committed intentionally or that are likely to be perceived as so by others.

Another characteristic of the behaviors of interest to the present study is that they are in some way negative for followers and/or the organization. Behaviors that are in some way negative include those that are likely to result in negative outcomes and/or are likely to be perceived as inherently deviant, harmful, or inappropriate by others. Within a comprehensive inventory of such behaviors, the present proposes to identify the factorial structure of the negative leader behavior construct and to create and validate a measure of the behaviors.

Explanations for the Prevalence of Negative Leader Behavior

Now turning back to a more general discussion of negative leadership, besides the organizational policies already mentioned that promote incompetent leadership, there are several reasons why leaders engage in negative behavior. First, such behavior is often

encouraged by others. In many organizations, leaders who engage in behaviors that intimidate or threaten individuals in subordinate positions are regarded as "tough" or "courageous" organizational employees who fight for their organizations and develop strong followers (Bell & Smith, 1991; Lloyd, 2006). Consequently, even abusive, threatening, and self-serving leaders and managers may be evaluated positively by organizational members other than their followers.

Second, some of the strategies that help individuals to reach leadership positions, such as impression management and manipulation of information, may engender negative outcomes once individuals reach those positions (Conger, 1990). For example, exaggerating the importance of achieving one's vision (Conger, 1990) may lead to the conferral of leadership status by drawing others' attention and respect in something like a leaderless group discussion, but the same behavior enacted by someone already in a leadership position may lead to confusion and disillusionment among followers. As another example, research shows the trait of dominance to positively predict the extent to which individuals are perceived as leaders by others (Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986). However, once in a leadership position, expressions of dominance, through actions like not sharing power in decision-making processes, are associated with negative group outcomes (*Top 10 Mistakes that New Managers Make*). Thus, in some cases, the strategies that individuals use as a means of acquiring a leadership position do not become truly negative or counterproductive until a leadership position has been reached.

Finally, leaders often rely on their own management strategies or use out-dated strategies (Lloyd, 2006) and may see value in using negative behavior as a motivational technique. This tendency seems to be a symptom of a lack of accurate and meaningful

feedback given to people in leadership positions as well as a lack of an emphasis on the successful development of people in leadership positions. In many cases, leaders may adhere to management strategies that promote aggressive and/or bullying behavior because they are unaware that those behaviors are likely to have negative outcomes.

As explanations for the prevalence of negative leader behavior imply, leaders' decisions to engage in negative behaviors can likely be explained by an expectancy decision-making framework. According to Vroom's (1964) VIE (valence-instrumentality-expectancy) model, people are motivated to engage in a behavior to the extent that they believe expending effort will result in a desired level of performance, that the performance level will result in a specific outcome, and that the outcome is valuable. Expectancy refers to the first relationship, the perception that engaging in a behavior will result in a given level of performance. Issac, Zerbe, and Pitt (2001) applied expectancy theory to leader-follower relationships and argued that the leaders have expectations that engaging their followers in a certain way will lead to a desired level of performance among followers. Applied to cases of negative leader behavior, based on encouragement from others, learned strategies for advancement, and their own leadership strategies, leaders who engage in negative behavior likely do so because they expect those behaviors to lead to greater follower performance.

The Importance of Studying Negative Leader Behavior

Regardless of why leaders engage in negative leader behavior, such behavior is likely to have negative outcomes for followers and organizations. Research shows leader behavior to account for a significant amount of variance in individual-follower, group, and organizational outcomes. Regarding follower outcomes, evidence for the importance

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of leader behaviors comes from four sources, including research on substitutes for leadership, leadership style, dimensions of leader behaviors, and the nature of leader-follower relationships. Leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership, defined as situational variables that can substitute for, enhance, or neutralize the effects of leader behaviors (e.g., subordinate ability, task feedback, and group cohesiveness) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996) have been primarily studied by Podsakoff and colleagues. In studies that compared the validity of leader behaviors and leadership substitutes in predicting follower outcomes, both Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams (1993) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) found aggregate leader behaviors to account for more variance in follower job performance than substitutes. Also, in both studies, although not as strongly as substitutes for leadership, leader behaviors significantly predicted follower organizational citizenship behaviors, role conflict, job satisfaction, commitment, and role ambiguity.

Research on leadership styles also shows leader behavior to have a strong effect on follower outcomes. A meta-analysis by Judge and Piccolo (2004) found large effect sizes between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction and motivation as well as between contingent reward leadership and follower job satisfaction and motivation. A great deal of other research has also found strong relationships between leadership style and follower affective, attitudinal, and performance-based outcomes (e.g., Pillai & Williams, 2004; Whittington, Goodwin, & Murray, 2004).

Such research is consistent with findings from large-scale quantitative reviews of the outcomes of leader behavior. A meta-analysis by Judge, Piccolo, and Ilies (2004) found significant effect sizes between leader consideration and follower job satisfaction

and between consideration and follower motivation. Leader initiation of structure had a significant effect size with follower job satisfaction and follower motivation. In addition, Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2006) found strong effect sizes between leader contingent and non-contingent reward and punishment behavior and a wide range of follower outcomes.

Lastly regarding the relationships between leadership and follower outcomes, research shows that the nature of leader-follower relationships shapes a large extent of followers' overall work experience. The quality of leader-follower relationships has been found to relate to a wide range of follower outcomes. A meta-analysis by Gerstner and Day (1997) found significant effect sizes between leader-member exchange quality (LMX) and follower job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, role conflict and clarity, and turnover intentions. LMX has also been linked to follower citizenship behavior (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Additionally, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found significant effect sizes between followers' trust in their leaders and follower job performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), intentions to quit, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Such research on the quality of leader-follower relationships suggests that, as Gerstner and Day argued, individuals' relationships with their leaders can be thought of as a lens through which their entire work experience can be viewed and are predictive of a wide range of affective, attitudinal, and performance outcomes.

Negative leader behavior is likely to affect follower job performance and attitudes by violating the perceptions of justice of victims of the behaviors. A study by Tepper (2000) found a negative relationship between abusive supervision and followers' justice

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perceptions, which in turn, have been found to predict job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and job performance by Tepper's study and others (e.g., Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Among the different categories of justice perceptions (distributive, procedural, and interactional), negative leader behavior may be most likely to come at a cost of interactional justice, which refers to the nature of individuals' interpersonal relationships at work and has been linked to a variety of outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001). Thus, negative leader behavior is likely to result in a wide range of negative outcomes for followers, including engagement in negative behavior by followers themselves (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Such research on the implications of leader-follower relationships, along with research on the validity of leader behaviors and styles shows that leadership has significant implications for follower outcomes.

Leadership is also an important predictor of group and organizational outcomes. Regarding the former, previous research has found significant relationships between leadership variables, such as style and behaviors, and group outcomes, performance-related and otherwise (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Keller, 2006; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007). Regarding organizational outcomes, research on top executives shows that leaders can have a substantial impact on organizational performance. In studies of executive succession, comparing organizational performance before and after successions among top-level leaders, Lieberson and O'Connor (1972) found an effect size of 0.15 between leadership succession and organizational financial measures, and Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) found an effect size of 0.16 between succession and municipal government financial outcomes. Thomas (1988) found the

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length of time that top executives were in office to explain 61.4% of variance in organizational profit, 66% of variance in sales, and 51.2% of variance in profit margin not explained by year, industry, or company in a sample of retail organizations from the United Kingdom. After reviewing studies on executive leadership and organizational performance, Day and Lord (1988) stated that executive leadership consistently explains 20-45% of variance in organizational outcomes. A later study by Barrick, Day, Lord, and Alexander (1991) that applied a utility analysis to executive leadership found that, over their tenure, effective top executives can provide approximately $25 million more to their organizations than less effective executives. In summary, as Hogan and Kaiser (2005) argued, leadership is a key determinant of organizational effectiveness.

Given the impact that leaders can have on their followers, groups, and organizations, it is not surprising that Hogan and Kaiser (2005) also argued that bad leaders, by perpetrating "terrible misery" on others, are likely to cause substantial negative outcomes. Because people attend to, store, and recall negative events from social interactions more so than positive events (Baumeister, Bratlavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001), negative leader behavior should more strongly affect the same outcomes than positive leader behavior. In support of this claim, the previously mentioned meta-analysis by Podsakoff et al. (2006) on leader contingent and non-contingent reward and punishment behavior found the strongest effect sizes to be associated with the most negative behavior, non-contingent punishment behavior. Not surprisingly, Hogan (2006) wrote that bad leadership has a negative impact at multiple levels, including follower and organizational levels, by making follower turnover, withdrawal, sabotage, and retaliation

more prevalent issues. In summary, the serious outcomes of negative leader behavior alone make the topic worth understanding.

<div align="center">Existing Research Relevant to Negative Leadership</div>

Although researchers have relatively recently begun to acknowledge the importance of studying negative leader behavior, there are three main deficiencies with the state of research on the topic. First, research has sometimes conceptualized bad leadership as merely a lack of positive leadership. Second, there is a focus on constructs that represent relatively limited sets of behaviors (e.g., abusive supervision) rather than working toward an understanding of negative leadership in general. Finally, existing research features a lack of systematic investigations into constructs related to negative leadership, as shown through an absence of attempts to identify the factor structures of those constructs or to validate measures of the constructs.

<div align="center">*Research on Positive Leader Behavior*</div>

Until recently, leadership research has overwhelmingly focused on positive leader behavior and has tended to conceptualize negative leader behavior as simply a lack of positive behavior (Ashforth, 1994; Kelloway et al., 2006; Padilla et al., 2007). According to Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007) however, leadership that is positive for both the organization and followers is only one possibility, as leadership may be positive or negative for followers, the organization, or both. Furthermore, studies on constructs related to negative leader behavior show leaders to sometimes actively engage in behaviors like bullying, sabotage, and corruption, rather than simply failing to engage in positive behaviors. Just as counterproductive and organizational citizenship behaviors

represent different sets of behaviors rather than opposite ends on the same continuum (Dalal, 2005), so do negative and positive leader behaviors.

Importantly, although Kellerman (2004) argued that leadership inherently involves positive behaviors and outcomes, Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007) argued that positivity and negativity should not be criteria for defining leadership. According to Padilla et al., most people in leadership positions engage in both positive and negative behavior in order to accomplish their goals. Also, consistent with LMX theory, the same person may engage in negative behavior toward one follower and positive behavior at another and still be considered a leader. Thus, leaders can and do engage in both positive and negative behavior.

Constructs Related to Negative Leader Behavior

Existing research has studied constructs related to negative leader behavior under a variety of labels, each of which represents specific types of behaviors. The state of research on negative leadership is similar to the state of research on general negative workplace behavior before studies began assessing the construct at a general level. According to Gruys and Sackett (2003), prior to the 1980's, research focused on specific counterproductive behaviors (e.g., theft), but there was not an accepted general framework of counterproductive behaviors. Studying counterproductive behaviors in a more general manner provided a greater understanding of the underlying structure of CWB, including its dimensions and the specific behaviors comprising those dimensions (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). Studies such as Robinson and Bennett (1995) and Bennett and Robinson (2000), which determined the dimensions and factors of general workplace deviant behaviors and the behaviors included in those dimensions and factors, provided a

better understanding of the nature of general worker deviance and counterproductive behaviors than could be provided by lines of research on specific types of behaviors.

Both Neuman and Baron (2005) and Sackett (2002) argued that current research has still not given adequate attention to examining negative workplace behavior at the most general level and has continued to focus on either individual behaviors or constructs that represent limited ranges of behavior, such as withdrawal. Sackett (2002) and Sackett and DeVore (2002) argued that negative behavior can be organized according to a hierarchy with specific behaviors at the bottom, constructs representing bundles of those behaviors at the next level, and larger constructs at higher levels. Sackett went on to write that studying constructs at higher levels is important for research and practical reasons. For research, examinations at higher levels allows for a greater understanding of relationships among more specific constructs and their potentially distinct antecedents and outcomes. For practice, Sackett wrote that organizations are more likely to be concerned with not selecting people who are likely to engage in intentionally negative behaviors in general, rather than specific forms of those behaviors. For these reasons, Sackett suggested that future research work toward developing an understanding of intentional, negative behaviors at higher hierarchical levels.

Neuman and Baron (2005) similarly argued that focusing on more specific constructs at the sake of broader concepts impedes the advancement of theory and practice involving negative workplace behavior for reasons similar to those of Gruys and Sackett (2003). As will be shown, the same criticisms can be made of the current state of research on constructs related to leader deviance. The present study will address issues with research on negative leader behavior by determining the full-range of negative

leader behavior, the factors underlying those behaviors, and the correlates of those factors. In so doing, the study will also develop a measure of the general construct of negative leader behavior

Laissez-Faire Leadership and Management-by-Exception

Laissez-faire leadership was introduced by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939). The style of leadership, defined as an inactive or absent form of leadership, was included in Bass's (1985) model of leadership along with charismatic leadership and in Bass and Avolio's (1990) full-range leadership model along with dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership. Research has consistently found negative relationships between laissez-faire leadership and outcomes such as follower job satisfaction, motivation, and performance (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, and Hetland (2007) found laissez-faire leadership increased conflict between coworkers, role conflict and ambiguity, psychological distress, and exposure to bullying. Based on results of the study, Skogstad et al. argued that laissez-faire leadership may be more of a counterproductive leadership style than a form of zero leadership, in that followers of leaders who provide no leadership are subject to high levels of stress and interpersonal conflict.

Management-by-exception (MBE) was also included in Bass's (1985) model of leadership and characterizes leaders who interact with followers only in response to failures or problems. MBE can be classified as active or passive (Hater & Bass, 1988). With both forms of MBE, failures and problems are the focus of leadership. MBE-active leaders scan the environment and their followers' work to detect any deviations from expectations in order to prevent those deviations from resulting in more serious problems

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(Howell & Avolio, 1993). MBE-passive is characterized by leaders who wait until assignments are completed by followers, scan those completed assignments and tasks for errors, and then respond with criticism or reproof to any errors that are detected. Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, and Huber (1984) suggested that MBE-active may be associated with positive or negative outcomes depending on the extent to which a leader's pre-emptive criticism is seen as fair, clarifies performance standards, or modifies poor performance in such a way as to avoid aversive outcomes. MBE-passive, however, they argued is likely to result in poor follower effort and performance. Consistent with Podsakoff et al.'s argument, across follower, group, organizational, and leader outcomes, Judge and Piccolo's (2004) meta-analysis found a positive effect size associated with MBE-active and a negative effect size associated with MBE-passive.

Despite the negative outcomes of laissez-faire leadership and MBE-passive and Skogstad et al.'s (2007) argument for the counterproductivity of laissez-faire leadership, the motivation underlying use of these styles is not consistent with the intentionality of the negative leader behavior of interest to the present study. Although laissez-faire leadership and MBE-passive are likely to cause harm, the extent to which leaders intend to engage in the behaviors characteristic of the styles is not clear. Thus, laissez-faire leadership and MBE-passive will not be included in the conceptualization of negative leader behavior.

Dark and Personalized Leadership

Conger (1990) discussed three areas in which charismatic leaders may engage in "dark" activities in order to reach their goals. According to Conger, problems can arise in charismatic leaders' implementation of a strategic vision if the vision is not realistic

given available resources or does not match the values and needs of constituents. Regarding the second area of communication and impression-management skills, charismatic leaders may resort to manipulating information communicated to followers and may over-exaggerate the importance and details of their vision. Finally, in managing followers, charismatic leaders may alienate followers, create rivalries, alternate between idealizing and demeaning others, and remove themselves from daily operations in order to achieve their goals. Conger's paper is important because it was one of the first to discuss ways in which leaders, especially those considered charismatic, may engage in "dark" behaviors in pursuit of their goals.

Luthans, Peterson, and Ibrayeva (1998) applied "dark" leadership to the national level in discussing reasons for the rise of "dark" leadership in post-communist countries. According to the authors, at the national level, "dark" leaders demand unconditional loyalty and commitment from followers, desire heroic recognition without blame, and have a high need for visibility. Luthans et al. argued that people tend to become blinded to the negative actions of "dark" leaders as they emphasize their positive characteristics and minimize their negative ones. More recently, Hogan and Hogan (2001) organized eleven personality variables into three dimensions, including moving away from people (e.g., excitable, cautious, reserved, skeptical, and leisurely), moving against people (e.g., mischievous, bold, colorful, and imaginative), and moving toward people (e.g., diligent and dutiful), that predict "dark" leadership and manager derailment, defined as the failure to reach potential. This line of research on "dark" behaviors is important because it established the importance of examining how and why some leaders engage in behaviors that engender negative outcomes for other individuals and their organizations.

Similar to the self-serving nature of "dark" leaders, researchers have also made a distinction between socialized and personalized leaders. House and Howell (1992) described socialized leaders as those who empower subordinates and are motivated to maximize the achievement of organizational goals without regard for personal needs. Personalized leaders, on the other hand, use manipulation, threats, and punishment and are aggressive, exploitative, and self-aggrandizing (Bass & Rigio, 2006; House & Howell, 1992; Popper, 2002). In a biographical study of historical leaders, O'Connor, Mumford, Clifton, Gessner, and Connelly (1995) found personalized leadership to be associated with high need for power and narcissism and the existence of negative life themes. By discussing leaders who intentionally cause harm to followers, research on personalized and socialized leadership comes closer to assessing deviant behaviors on the part of leaders.

Petty Tyranny, Abusive Supervision, and Supervisor Undermining

The relatively recently introduced constructs of petty tyranny, abusive supervision, and supervisor undermining are directly related to the negative leader behavior to be investigated by the present study. The three constructs have several features in common. Foremost is that they represent a specific subset of negative leader behaviors, those directed at subordinates and that are low in severity. Consequently, the constructs provide a limited understanding of the nature of negative leader behavior at a broad-level. These are limitations that the present study will address.

Petty tyranny. Petty tyranny represents the tendency of leaders to over-control followers and treat them in an uncaring, punitive, and arbitrary manner (Ashforth, 1994). Ashforth (1994) characterized tyrannical leaders by close supervision, distrust, cold and

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impersonal actions, severe and public criticism, condescension, coercion, boasting, emphasizing authority and status, rigidity and inflexibility, taking others' credit, failing to consult with others, and obstructing others' development. Based on previous research and analysis of critical incidents provided by a student sample, Ashforth (1987) developed a measure of petty tyranny that included 47 items organized around six dimensions. The dimensions included arbitrariness and self-aggrandizement, belittling subordinates, lack of consideration, a forcing style of conflict resolution, discouraging initiative, and non-contingent punishment.

There are two main limitations associated with Ashforth's (1987) measure. First, petty tyranny has been included in only two empirical studies. In addition to the Ashforth (1987) study, Ashforth (1997) found neither supervisor dispositional variables, including self-esteem and tolerance for ambiguity, nor contextual variables, including institutionalized norms, power, and stressors to predict petty tyranny. The low frequency of use of the petty tyranny measure may be due to the availability of the measure and information about its reliability and validity. The measure was presented in a conference paper, and the full measure has not been published for public use. Along with this, the measure has not undergone validation testing and information about the reliability and item characteristics of the measure are not easily accessible to the public.

The second limitation of the measure also concerns its development. Although the petty tyranny measure includes a wider range of behaviors than measures of abusive supervision and supervisor undermining, the list of behaviors were obtained from a student sample alone, in addition to existing research on leader behaviors. Whether the measure represents a full-range of negative leader behaviors is questionable, as people

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with more working experience are likely to have observed different examples of negative leader behavior than people with less working experience. Also, because the measure was not subjected to a formal validation study, how the measure and its dimensions share convergent and discriminant validity with other measures and the extent to which they predict individual and organizational-level outcomes are unknown. As will be shown, these limitations are also characteristic of measures of abusive supervision and supervisor undermining.

Abusive supervision. Of the concepts related to negative leader behavior, abusive supervision has received the most attention. According to Tepper (2000), abusive supervision represents workers' perceptions that their supervisors engage in sustained and hostile verbal and non-verbal behavior, excluding behaviors that involve physical contact. Tepper (2000) reviewed research on abusive personal relationships and managerial abuse to develop a measure of abusive supervision. The measure includes items that reflect behaviors such as ridiculing, demeaning subordinates in front of others, being invasive, not crediting subordinates for their effort, being rude, and lying.

As with Ashforth's (1987) measure of petty tyranny, there are limitations associated with the measure of abusive supervision. Mainly, the measure represents a limited bundle of negative leader behavior; it does not include behaviors such as threatening with job loss and withholding information, which Keashley (1998) argued should be included in abusive supervision, nor does it include behaviors related to coercion, though Bies (2000) suggested that it should.

Other studies on abusive supervision have supplemented the Tepper (2000) measure by combining it with items from other measures. Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy

(2002) combined eight items from Tepper's measure with six items from Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon's (2002) measure of supervisor undermining in order to broaden the range of behaviors included in the measure and make it more appropriate for a military sample. Tepper, Duffy, Henle, and Lambert (2006) used the same supplemented measure as Duffy et al. That researchers have added items from other measures to the measure of abusive supervision suggests that the latter does not capture the full range of negative leader behavior.

Despite the limited focus of abusive supervision, as reflected by Tepper's (2000) measure, research on abusive supervision confirms the importance of negative leader behavior as a predictor of subordinate and group outcomes. Tepper (2000) found abusive supervision to positively predict turnover, work-family conflict, and depression and to negatively predict job and life satisfaction and organizational commitment, with the relationships mediated by perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Tepper, Duffy, and Shaw (2001) found perceptions of abusive supervision to interact with subordinate conscientiousness to predict subordinates' constructive and dysfunctional resistance to their supervisors. Similarly to Tepper's (2000) results, Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002) found procedural justice to mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinate organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Using structural equation modeling, Aryee, Chen, Sun, and Debrah (2007) found abusive supervision to negatively predict subordinates' perceptions of interactional justice, which were positively related to subordinate OCB and organizational commitment. Abusive supervision has also been negatively linked to subordinate job performance (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007). Harris, Kacmar, and Zivnuska (2007)

found abusive supervision to interact with subordinates' perceptions of their work as meaningful to predict job performance. Abusive supervision has also been found to interact with subordinates' trait positive affect and use of ingratiation to predict job tension, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions (Harvey, Stoner, Hachwater, & Kacmar, 2007). Finally, abusive supervision has been linked to individual-level follower deviance as well as group-level counterproductivity (Detert, Treviño, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Research has also begun to examine abusive supervision as an outcome, mainly of perceptions of justice. Tepper et al. (2006) found subordinate trait affect and supervisors' perceptions of procedural justice and depression to predict abusive supervision. Additionally, supervisors' perceptions of interactional justice has been found to negatively predict abusive supervision for supervisors high in authoritarian leadership but not for those low in authoritarian leadership (Aryee, Chen, Li-Yun, and Debrah, 2007).

Supervisor undermining. Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002) developed a measure of supervisor undermining by reviewing research on undermining in non-work relationships and antisocial workplace behavior in addition to asking a sample of Slovenian police officers to provide examples of supervisor undermining. Social undermining was defined as "behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and a favorable reputation." Duffy et al. distinguished undermining from other forms of deviance, such as abusive supervision, by arguing that the effects of social undermining are more insidious and are realized with multiple enactments of those behaviors rather than with one or two enactments. Despite any conceptual distinctions between supervisor

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undermining and abusive supervision, the items included in Duffy et al.'s measure are highly similar to those included in Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision measure. Both mainly refer to subordinates' perceptions that their supervisors ridicule, demean, and personally insult them. Thus, there is substantial overlap between the measures of supervisor undermining and abusive supervision.

The same limitations associated with research on petty tyranny and abusive supervision arise in research on supervisor undermining. Mainly, the construct does not reflect a wide range of negative leader behavior. Furthermore, the measure was developed and tested in isolation from similar measures (e.g., abusive supervision), despite its similarity with other measures.

Destructive Leadership

Two papers published in a recent issue of *Leadership Quarterly,* Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007) and Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007), introduced "destructive leadership." According to Einarsen et al., "destructive leadership" refers to "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." Leadership can be destructive for subordinates, the organization, or both.

Padilla et al. (2007) went on to discuss other characteristics of "destructive leadership." According to the authors, "destructive leadership" can be defined in terms of its target, which could be toward oneself or toward the organization and its members and stakeholders. Padilla et al. listed five features of "destructive leadership."

"Destructive leadership," they argued, is not necessarily entirely destructive, emphasizes coercion and control instead of commitment and persuasion, has a selfish orientation, negatively affects the quality of life for organizational constituents, and has outcomes that depend on the susceptibility of followers and the conduciveness of the environment to "destructive leaders." Padilla et al. further discussed characteristics of leaders (e.g., their charisma, personalized power, narcissism, negative life themes, and ideology), followers (e.g., unmet needs, maturity, and values, and the environment, including stability, cultural values), and organizational checks and balances that increase the likelihood of "destructive leadership."

The main distinction between "destructive leadership" and the negative leader behavior of interest to the present study is in defining what is considered destructive or negative. Padilla et al. (2007) argued that "destructive leadership" should be defined according to group outcomes. The present study, on the other hand, does not define negative leader behavior in terms of its outcomes; instead, a stipulation for the inclusion of a behavior in the present study is that it is likely to be committed voluntarily and that it is likely to be perceived as negative in some way for followers or the organization. The present study contends that, although negative leader behavior is likely to cause negative outcomes, behaviors such as threatening with job loss or personally insulting a follower should be considered inherently negative regardless of their effects on individual, group, or organizational outcomes. Despite any issues related to requiring that a behavior be likely to be committed intentionally, mainly that people tend to judge the intentionality of the same behavior differently (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), not including the requirement of intentionality could make classifying behaviors as negative even more

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problematic. In a discussion of workplace aggression, Neuman and Baron (2005) argued that by not including a requirement of intentionality, mistakes that occur without intent to harm would be considered aggressive, and acts that are intentionally deviant but fail to cause harm would not be considered aggressive. Thus, intentionality is a difficult but necessary requirement for negative leader behavior.

Summary of Research on Constructs Related to Negative Leader Behavior

There are several conceptual similarities across the three constructs most closely related to negative leader behavior, petty tyranny, abusive supervision, and supervisor undermining. As mentioned earlier, the constructs are intended to reflect specific types of negative leadership rather than negative leadership at a general level. For example, supervisor undermining was proposed to be slightly distinct from abusive supervision (Duffy et al., 2002) but neither reflects the entire range of negative leadership. The constructs also overlap in that they reference behaviors of a similar severity. Each includes behaviors that would be considered low in severity (e.g., giving the silent treatment, not defending a follower, being overly critical, not showing consideration for followers, and being absent from leadership duties), relative to more violent potential forms of negative leader behavior, such as physical intimidation or abuse or threatening with job loss. Thus, the constructs represent bundles of negative leader behaviors that have a similar severity.

Figure 1 illustrates the state of existing research. The figure presents each of the constructs reviewed according to the range of behaviors included in each. The range was determined by examining measure(s) of each construct. Consistent with existing research (e.g., Kellerman, 2004) and for the sake of organization, the figure distinguishes

constructs that represent behaviors committed unintentionally, such as management-by-exception, laissez-faire leadership, and decision-making errors, from those that represent behaviors committed intentionally, such as supervisor undermining, abusive supervision, and petty tyranny. The present study focuses on the right side of the diagram, behaviors enacted intentionally or that are likely to be perceived as such. As depicted in Figure 1, "dark" leadership, personalized leadership, and "destructive leadership" all reference some behaviors that are likely to be committed intentionally and others that are likely to be committed unintentionally (e.g., mistakes or accidents).

Another distinction across constructs is that they reflect at least slightly unique ranges of behaviors. "Destructive leadership" features the largest range of behavior among those reviewed because it includes any behavior resulting in a negative outcome. However, because "destructive leadership" occurs only if negative outcomes are also found, it would not include behaviors that are negative in nature but do not always lead to negative outcomes; therefore, "destructive leadership" does not include all possible manifestations of negative leader behavior. Among constructs that reflect intentionally committed behavior, petty tyranny is associated with the greatest range of behaviors, and abusive supervision and supervisor undermining include a more limited range of behavior. Although, to a large extent, petty tyranny, abusive supervision, and supervisor undermining overlap, they do not include identical sets of behaviors.

Figure 1 also shows the degree to which existing constructs, even if considered together, fail to address the entire range of negative leader behavior. The next section will review research on forms of negative workplace behavior that are not specific to leaders in order to provide examples of behaviors that could be included in the present

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study's conceptualization of negative leader behavior but are not included in existing constructs.

Non-Leader-Specific Negative Workplace Behavior

Negative behaviors committed by leaders are likely to be distinct from negative behaviors committed by non-leaders in terms of both their specific manifestations and correlates. Leaders have access to rewards, punishments, and other resources that are likely to be involved in their manifestations of negative behaviors (e.g., threatening to fire a subordinate) that are unavailable to people not in leadership positions. Negative leader behavior may also have different predictors and outcomes than non-leader negative behavior. Leader behaviors are likely to have a greater impact on outcomes for other individuals and the organization than non-leaders' behaviors. Thus, similar behaviors enacted by leaders and non-leaders may have different consequences. Despite these differences, it is worth reviewing research on forms of negative behavior that are not leader-specific in order to expand on the list of possible manifestations of negative leader behavior.

Workplace Aggression

Neuman and Baron (2005) provided a comprehensive review of workplace aggression, defined as, "any form of behavior directed by one or more persons in a workplace toward the goal of harming one or more others in that workplace (or the entire organization) in ways the intended targets are motivated to avoid." In their review, Neuman and Baron created categories of workplace aggression (presented in Table 1, along with behavioral examples of each) by crossing each of Buss's (1961) proposed dimensions of aggressive behavior and applying them to a work setting. According to

Buss, aggressive behaviors may be verbal or physical, direct (which directly harm a target) or indirect (which harm a target's values or something a target cares about), and active (which entail an actor actively trying to harm a target) or passive (which involve withholding something in order to harm a target).

Although Neuman and Baron's (2005) list of aggressive workplace behaviors is the most comprehensive of such lists, the most commonly used measure of workplace aggression is Greenberg and Barling's (1999) measure. The measure was based on Straus's (1979) Conflict Tactics Scale, which represents the use of reasoning, verbal aggression, and violence in families. Greenberg and Barling's measure includes twelve psychological aggression-related items (e.g., having argued with, yelled at, gossiped about, and having been rude with others) and ten violence-related items (e.g., having thrown something at, swore at, and pushed others), with the distinction that violent behaviors are physical in nature and psychologically aggressive behaviors are non-physical. Despite Greenberg and Barling's recommendation that future research build a more comprehensive inventory of aggressive and violent workplace behaviors to expand on their own measure, studies have relied primarily on Greenberg and Barling's original measure (e.g., Dupré, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hoption, 2006; Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005).

Several behaviors included in Neuman and Baron's (2005) measure are not found in measures of previously researched constructs related to negative leader behavior. Aggressive behaviors that are physical in nature are especially under-represented on measures of those constructs. Behaviors such as glaring at, making hostile gestures, excluding others from social gatherings, preventing a target from expressing him or

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herself, arriving late to meetings hosted by a target, failing to protect a target's welfare, denying a raise or promotion without a valid reason, and harassment are behaviors that leaders may engage in but are not included in constructs related to negative leader behavior. The same is true of behaviors that are more verbal in nature, such as taking credit for others' work, not showing sympathy, and failing to warn a target about impending danger.

Bullying

Workplace bullying is a relatively recently developed construct, having been initially developed by researchers in Europe in the 1990s (Rayner & Keashly, 2005; Zapf & Einarsen, 2005). Although the construct of workplace bullying derived from research on mobbing (Zapf & Einarsen, 2005; Leymann, 1996), the two are distinct in that the latter involves workers grouping together to bully a target at the same hierarchical level (Rayner & Keashly, 2005); whereas, the former takes place on a dyadic level. Possibly because bullying has received less attention than other forms of negative behaviors at work (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2006), there is still a lack of clarity as to what constitutes workplace bullying (Rayner & Keashly, 2005). Researchers do, however, agree on core elements of bullying. First, bullying involves the occurrence of multiple, repetitive, negative acts directed at an individual, rather than a one-time occurrence (Lutgen-Sandvik, et al., 2006; Einarsen & Hoel, 2001). In most cases, bullies engage in a variety of negative acts directed at a target (Lutgen-Sandvik, et al., 2006).

A second core element is that bullying is more likely to occur across imbalances of power than mobbing (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003; Lamertz & Aquino, 2004). Neuman and Baron (1997) suggested that approximately half of people labeled as

bullies occupy higher positions than their targets. Among European samples, Rayner and

Keashly (2005) have found managers to comprise a greater percentage of bullies than

among American samples.

Ferris, Zinko, Brouer, Buckley, and Harvey (2007) argued that leaders may

engage in bullying directed at followers as an influence tactic, as "strategic bullying."

The goal of strategic bullying is to enhance the submissiveness of targets, thereby

reinforcing the leader's power and making followers more susceptible to influence and

control. Furthermore, with strategic bullying, leaders have long-term goals in mind as a

reason for using bullying as an influence strategy, rather than engaging in bullying

reactively, or for short-term ends.

Although such research and arguments suggest that leaders are more likely to

engage in bullying than peers or subordinates, similar to the definition of workplace

bullying, the specific behaviors that constitute the construct are unclear (Rayner &

Keashly, 2005). Bullying is most commonly measured by the Negative Acts

Questionnaire (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001), or a modified version of that measure (e.g.,

Agervold, 2007; Fox & Stallworth, 2005). The NAQ asks people to rate how many times

in a given time span (typically six months) they have been subject to behaviors such as

having had important information withhold from them, exposure to an unmanageable

workload, excessive monitoring of one's work, and humiliation or ridicule.

A characteristic of the NAQ that differs from behaviors included in constructs

related to negative leader behavior is that several NAQ items refer to using workload and

assignments as a means of harming others. The NAQ suggests that leaders may

intentionally provide followers with an excessively demanding and/or unreasonable

workload that includes impossible-to-achieve task deadlines. Leaders may also assign

demeaning tasks to followers or ones that are generally unpleasant as a form of

punishment. Such behavior should be considered as potential manifestations of negative

leader behavior.

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) and Deviance

The constructs of CWB and workplace deviance have been the subject of research

since Hollinger and Clark (1983) collected a list of counterproductive behaviors from

9175 employees across 47 organizations and three industries (Gruys & Sackett, 2003).

Hollinger and Clark proposed that the behaviors could be categorized as "property

deviance," involving misuse of employer assets, or "production deviance," involving

violation of norms about how work should be accomplished. Production deviance

included behaviors related to not being present on the job as scheduled, such as absence,

tardiness, and taking long breaks, and behaviors that detract from on-the-job production,

such as intentionally slow and sloppy work and alcohol and drug use.

CWB. The constructs of CWB and deviance have diverged slightly following

Hollinger and Clark's (1983) study. According to Spector and Fox (2005), deviance

refers to behaviors that violate organizational norms and cause harm to the organization

or its employees; whereas, CWB refers to behaviors that may cause harm but do not

necessarily violate norms. Spector and Fox defined CWB as volitional acts that harm or

are intended to harm an organization or its members. Sackett (2002) defined CWB as

intentional behaviors undertaken by an organizational member that are considered to be

contrary to its legitimate interests. Although these definitions diverge slightly, each

references behaviors committed intentionally and that are likely to cause harm or be

considered negative in some way. Similarly to the present study's negative leader behavior, CWB is defined in terms of the inherent characteristics of a behavior rather than its outcomes (Gruys & Sackett, 2003).

CWB includes several dimensions. Gruys (1999) identified eleven CWB categories. The categories include theft and related behaviors, destruction of property, misuse of information (e.g., falsifying records and revealing confidential information), misuse of time and resources (e.g., wasting time at work), unsafe behavior (e.g., failure to follower safety procedures), poor attendance, intentionally poor-quality work, alcohol use, drug use, inappropriate verbal actions (e.g., harassment and arguing with customers), and inappropriate physical actions (e.g., physically attacking others and making a sexual advance toward a coworker). A confirmatory factor analysis by Gruys and Sackett (2003), using a sample of college alumni, confirmed the existence of Gruy's eleven factors. Gruys and Sackett also performed a multidimensional scaling analysis, using the same sample, and found two dimensions, one reflecting a distinction between individual and organization-targeted deviance and another reflecting the task relevance of a behavior. Martinko, Gundlach, and Douglas (2002) categorized CWB as self-destructive, including behaviors such as drug and alcohol abuse, absenteeism, and passivity, or retaliatory, including instances of aggression, violence, sabotage, theft, and harassment. Finally, Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, and Kessler (2006) proposed five dimensions of CWB, including abuse against others, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal and found that each dimension had different patterns of relationships with antecedents.

A commonly used measure of CWB is Fox, Spector, and Miles's (2002) CWB-Checklist. The measure has five sub-scales, corresponding to Spector et al.'s (2006) dimensions of CWB. Examples of the sabotage sub-scale include purposely damaging equipment and purposely wasting materials and supplies; the abuse sub-scale includes making fun of someone's personal life, spreading rumors, blaming someone else for one's own error, threatening with violence, looking at someone's private mail or property without permission, and insulting; purposely failing to follow instructions and purposely doing work incorrectly are examples of production deviance; withdrawal includes coming to work late and leaving early without permission; taking supplies without permission is an example of theft. Within the abuse sub-scale, expressions of invasiveness (e.g., looking through someone else's private materials) seem particularly relevant to a conceptualization of negative leader behavior, as individuals in leadership positions have the authority and resources to excessively monitor followers' work.

Deviance. Workplace deviance has been defined as, "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and, in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organization or its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The most well cited studies of deviance are by Bennett and Robinson. Robinson and Bennett (1995) noted that, similarly to the current state of research on constructs related to negative leader behavior, there was a lack of comprehensive and systematic research on workplace deviance as an overarching concept that could lead to a greater understanding of deviance and the development of related theories. To remedy this problem, Robinson and Bennett generated a list of deviant workplace behaviors and, using a multidimensional scaling analysis, found two dimensions to underlie those behaviors based on the severity and

target of a behavior. By crossing the two dimensions, the researchers created four categories of deviance, including production deviance (of minor severity and an organization-focus), political deviance (of minor severity and targeted at individuals), property deviance (serious behaviors aimed at an organization), and personal aggression (serious behaviors targeted at individuals). Several of the categories included behaviors undertaken by leaders that are not included in constructs related to negative leader behavior, such as a leader leaving his or her own work for follower to do (production deviance), asking employees to work beyond their job descriptions, blaming employees for one's own mistakes, and showing favoritism (political deviance), refusing to give employees their earned benefits and pay, unjustifiably firing employees, and inflexibly following rules (personal aggression).

In a later study, Bennett and Robinson (2000) developed a measure of workplace deviance. Through three studies, including item generation, factor analysis and reliability analysis, and validation, eighteen items loading on two factors were generated. Examples of behaviors loading on an interpersonal deviance factor include saying something hurtful and publicly embarrassing to someone. The organizational deviance factor includes theft, putting little effort into work, and arriving to work late and leaving early without permission, among others. More recent studies have supported the distinction between deviance and CWB directed at individuals and organizations (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Dalal, 2005; O'Brien & Allen, 2008; Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczo, 2006). Besides the specific behaviors mentioned in Robinson and Bennett's (1995) study, research on workplace deviance suggests that there may be a distinction between negative leader behavior directed at followers and those directed at the organization.

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Incivility

Andersson and Pearson (1999) defined workplace incivility as, "low intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect." Incivility differs from other forms of antisocial behavior at work in that the latter tend to include relatively more severe behaviors or a mix of low and high severity behaviors whereas the former focuses on less severe behaviors. Examples of uncivil behaviors are eavesdropping on a telephone conversation, littering at work, neglecting to say thank you, sending rude emails, being excluded from a meeting or social event, and having loud and boorish telephone conversations at work (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2005; Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001). Another characteristic of incivility is that any intent to harm a target is ambiguous. Uncivil behaviors may be intentional or unintentional (Pearson et al., 2000), but they have rudeness, discourteousness, and a lack of regard for others in common (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson et al., 2005).

Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout (2001) developed a measure of incivility for use in a department of the federal court system. Based on interviewing a sample of representatives from the department, seven items were generated that ask subjects to report whether they have been subject to each form of incivility in the past five years. Requirements for the items were that they represent instances of disrespect, rudeness, or condescension and that an intention to harm an individual or organizational target was not readily apparent. Example of items include having been put down or condescended to, having been ignored, having had one's judgment doubted on a matter in which one had responsibility, and having been addressed in unprofessional terms.

Although the measure was intended only for use in the judicial department sample, Cortina et al.'s measure provides an example of specific types of uncivil workplace behaviors.

According to Pearson, Andersson, and Porath (2000), hierarchical status plays a role in the enactment of uncivil behaviors. They estimated that instigators of incivility are three times more likely to be of a higher status than targets. Leader-relevant uncivil behaviors include publicly admonishing a subordinate, delaying response to a request (seemingly intentionally), and avoiding answering subordinates' questions. Pearson, Andersson, and Porath (2005) wrote that uncivil behaviors are similar in severity to less severe behaviors included in conceptualizations of petty tyranny and abusive supervision and that incivility, petty tyranny, and abusive supervision have in common a lack of consideration for others. For the present study, the most important contribution of workplace incivility may be to reinforce the relevance of including behaviors that reflect a range of severities in an inventory of negative leader behavior.

Workplace Violence

Whereas research on incivility suggests that low severity behaviors should be included in a conceptualization of negative leader behavior, research on workplace violence suggests that more severe behaviors should also be included. Workplace violence refers to "an illicit behavior or action which reduces the actual or perceived security of employees, patrons, and the organization itself" (Howard, 2001). Neuman and Baron (1998) described workplace violence as, "efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organizations in which they are presently, or were previously, employed." Violence is distinguishable from workplace aggression

in that the former represents only physical behavior (Neuman & Baron, 1998).

According to Neuman and Baron (2005), workplace violence would be classified as

physical, active, and direct under Buss's (1961) typology, and most instances are nonfatal

(Scalora, Washington, Casady, & Newell, 2003). The violence sub-scale of Greenberg

and Barling's (1999) measure of aggression includes behaviors such as throwing

something at, threatening to hit, swearing at, pushing, shoving, and hitting another.

Although these behaviors may be associated with a low base-rate (Baron & Neuman,

1996; Neuman & Baron, 1998), they are behaviors that should be considered as forms of

negative leader behavior.

White Collar Crime

Research on white collar crime suggests that not all negative leader behavior is

likely to be directed at particular followers. Traditionally, white collar crime has been

conceived of as particular to high status positions within organizations. Sutherland

(1949) defined white collar crime as crime committed by people of respectability and

high social status in the course of their occupations. Status is involved in white collar

crime to the extent that people of higher status have greater access to power, influence,

and trust from others, allowing them to commit crimes for financial gain at work (Blickle,

Schlegel, Fassbender, & Klein, 2006; Collins & Schmidt, 1993). In support of the role of

status in white collar crime, research shows that although people of low organizational

status do commit such crimes (e.g., falsification of records and documents, insider

trading, and misuse of assets), there is generally a strong relationship between status and

commission of white collar crimes (Holtfreter, 2005; Szockyj & Geis, 2002). Although

white collar crimes are likely to be motivated by a desire for personal gain rather than to

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harm an organization, they are behaviors that are enacted intentionally, most likely by people in leadership positions. No construct related to negative leader behavior includes behaviors not directed at followers, and according to white collar crime research, this may be a deficiency in those constructs.

Summary of Research on Non-Leader-Specific Negative Workplace Behavior

The review of non-leader-specific constructs serves to highlight limitations associated with existing leader-specific constructs. Within each non-leader-specific construct, there are specific behaviors and sometimes groups of behaviors in which leaders are likely to engage that are not captured in existing leader-specific constructs. Also, in contrast to non-leader-specific constructs, research on constructs related to negative leader behavior has not identified the organizing categories of those behaviors.

Also, because research on non-leader specific constructs has more systematically investigated antecedents of negative behavior, it speaks to factors that may predict negative leader behavior, which future research should examine more closely. According to Bennett and Robinson (2003), there are three trends in research on the antecedents of negative work behaviors, including using reactions to work experiences as a predictor of negative behavior (e.g., using job satisfaction as a predictor), using personality as a predictor, and assessing negative behavior as a means of adapting to the social context of work (e.g., using perceptions of justice as a predictor). Regarding the first line of research, studies have found negative relationships between variables such as overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with pay and negative behaviors (Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupré, Inness, LeBlanc, & Sivanathan, 2007; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006).

Research on personality and individual differences shows emotional stability, agreeableness, conscientiousness, integrity, trait negative affect, trait anger and anxiety, and cognitive ability to be especially relevant predictors of negative behavior (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Dalal, 2005; Dilchert, Ones, Davis, & Rostow, 2007; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Hershcovis, et al., 2007; Lee & Allen, 2002; Mount, et al., 2006; Ones & Viswesvaran, 2001; Penney & Spector, 2002; Salgado, 2002). Recently, O'Brien and Allen (2008) found trait anger to be the strongest predictor of counterproductive behaviors targeted at individuals, among other individual difference and perception variables, and conscientiousness to be the strongest predictor of behaviors directed at the organization.

The third trend in research has primarily used social exchange theory to argue that individuals with low justice perceptions, who perceive a norm of reciprocity to have been violated, are likely to reciprocate the perceived violation by engaging in negative behaviors themselves (Colbert et al., 2004; Flaherty & Moss, 2007). Consistent with this hypothesis, studies have generally found employees' perceptions of justice to negatively predict their commission of negative behavior (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Colbert, et al., 2004; Flaherty & Moss, 2007).

Research on constructs related to negative leader behavior has begun to investigate justice perceptions as a predictor of those behaviors. As previously mentioned, Tepper et al. (2006) found supervisors' perceptions of procedural justice to predict subordinates' ratings of those supervisors as abusive. Similarly, Aryee, et al. (2007) found interactional justice to negatively predict abusive supervision for

supervisors high in authoritarian leadership but found no relationship for supervisors low in authoritarian leadership.

Finally regarding the antecedents of negative work behaviors, research suggests the behaviors can best be predicted by assessing interactions between individual difference and perceptions-of-the-work-environment variables (Colbert, et al., 2004; Diefendorff & Mehta, 2007; Folger & Skarlicki, 1998; Fox, et al., 2001). For example, Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick (2004) found a negative relationship between perceptions of organizational support and interpersonal deviance for people low in agreeableness but a positive relationship for people high in agreeableness.

Besides job satisfaction, justice perceptions, and individual difference variables, previous research also suggests variables that may be especially relevant for predicting negative behavior committed by leaders. Giacalone and Knouse (1990) found Machiavellianism to predict workplace deviance, and Penney and Spector (2002) found a positive relationship between narcissism and CWB. Machiavellianism and narcissism are especially relevant for predicting leaders' behaviors because individuals high in those traits are likely to be motivated to pursue leadership positions (O'Connor, Mumford, Clifton, Gessner, & Connelly 1995). Thus, there may be a greater proportion of individuals high in Machiavellianism and narcissism found in leadership positions than non-leadership positions, and, as a result of being in a position of power, those individuals may have fewer restraints on their behavior than those not in leadership positions. Although it is not the direct focus of the present study, future research should examine the extent to which the variables suggested by research on non-leader specific negative behavior, in addition to the factors described earlier, including organizational

norms and learned management strategies, predict the occurrence of negative leader behavior.

<div align="center">Potential Organizing Dimensions</div>

In addition to highlighting the types of behaviors in which leaders may engage but are not included in previously researched constructs related to negative leader behavior, previous research also suggests the dimensions or factors onto which those behaviors may be organized. Two recent papers applied Buss's (1961) dimensions of workplace aggression to leader behaviors. Einarsen et al. (2007) made a distinction between passive-indirect-physical behaviors directed at subordinates (e.g., failing to protect a subordinate's welfare in a risky environment) and passive-indirect-verbal behaviors (e.g., failing to provide a subordinate with important information or feedback). Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, and Barling (2005) also applied the active-passive dimension in discussing poor leadership. They argued that the active dimension would include behaviors like yelling, ridiculing, name-calling, and threatening with job loss or pay cuts; whereas, the passive dimension would include elements of laissez-faire leadership and management-by-exception.

Other potential dimensions may include the severity of a behavior and whether it is targeted at subordinates or the organization (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Behaviors may also be classified according to whether they have to be committed fewer (e.g., hitting) or more times (e.g., taking credit for others' work) before resulting in the same outcome (Duffy et al., 2002) and whether behaviors are motivated primarily by a desire to harm a target or to help the person engaging in the behavior.

Regardless of specific dimensional labels, research shows that there should be meaningful categories of behaviors within the construct of negative leader behavior.

Summary and Study Objectives

The major objectives of the present study are to generate a comprehensive inventory of negative leader behavior, determine the factors underlying those behaviors, create a measure of the behaviors, and to evaluate the validity of the measure. In pursuit of these objectives, the present study will generally comply with the scale development steps outlined by Timothy Hinkin (Hinkin, 1995; Hinkin, 1998). Hinkin (1995) reviewed scale development efforts in published research and outlined three stages of the process. First, a pool of items are generated using a deductive approach (involving a review of relevant existing research), an inductive approach (involving collecting subjects' descriptions of some variable or event), or both. The second stage, scale development, involves formatting the descriptions and examples gathered in the first stage into useable scale items, with concern for item wording, scale length, and response format. Also within the second stage of scale development, the scale should be administered to a relevant and representative sample of participants in order to conduct reliability and factor analyses of the scale. Providing evidence of the validity of a scale makes up the third of Hinkin's stages. In a later paper, Hinkin (1998) described similar scale development steps. The steps included item generation, questionnaire administration, initial item reduction, confirmatory factor analysis, testing for construct and criterion validity, and replication. Aside from replication, which occurs over multiple studies, the procedure of the present study will be based on Hinkin's scale development steps.

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Chapter 2

Study 1: Item Generation

The first study involved the building of a comprehensive list of negative leader behaviors. It is important to make four notes about the behaviors included in the present study. First, the term "leader" applies to anyone in a general leadership, supervisory, or managerial position and is not restricted to any specific organizational level; the behaviors of interest could be committed by anyone in such a position. Second, the present study focuses on behaviors committed voluntarily or that are likely to be perceived as such and that are likely to be perceived as negative, deviant, or inappropriate in some way for followers and/or the organization. Third, as mentioned earlier, because of the difficulty of characterizing behaviors as intentionally negative (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), although the behaviors of interest are negative and committed voluntarily, they are not restricted to intentionally harmful behaviors. Fourth, not all behaviors perceived to be negative will have negative outcomes and may sometimes have positive effects on certain outcomes (Fox, 2005). For example, threatening a follower with termination may increase the follower's motivation to perform well in the short-term but may also make the follower more likely to seek alternative employment or withdraw from work in some other way. Thus, the behaviors of interest are not restricted to those with an associated malice or that necessarily negatively affect all outcomes. This characteristic of the behaviors of interest to the present study is consistent with research on CWB, which focuses on the behavior itself rather than the results or consequences of the behavior (Gruys & Sackett, 2003).

Behaviors were drawn from three sources, including measures of constructs related to negative leader behavior (abusive supervision, petty tyranny, supervisor undermining, and personalized leadership), measures of non-leader-specific forms of negative work behaviors (e.g., aggression, deviance, CWB, bullying, white collar crime), and critical incidents collected from the sample described below.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited from three sources and reflect low, mid, and high hierarchical organizational positions. Personal contacts of the author were asked to complete a critical incidents survey and to ask contacts of their own to complete the survey (n = 26). In addition, undergraduates taking two upper level psychology classes (n = 113) and alumni of the Penn State Industrial/Organizational Psychology program were asked to participate (n = 71). Table 2 lists characteristics of the sample. Across the three sources, the 210 participants represent of a wide range of occupations.

Measures

Participants were asked to provide three examples of incidents in which a current or past leader, supervisor, or manager engaged in an act that participants consider deviant, harmful, or wrong. Participants were told that two of the incidents should stand out in their memory and could have occurred anytime during their career. In order to capture less severe behaviors as well, for the third incident, participants were asked to describe an incident that has occurred within the past month.

Analysis

After the incidents had been collected, each was rephrased into one or more concise behaviors. Redundant behaviors were then eliminated, such that only one version of each behavior remained. Seventy-two behaviors were generated and retained using this method.

To the list were added behaviors from measures of constructs related to leader and non-leader-specific forms of negative work behaviors (see Table 2 for a list of the constructs and measures). Behaviors were also drawn from examples of constructs for which there are no measures, including "dark" leadership and white collar crime. Based on Conger's (1990) article, "dark" leader behaviors relevant to the present study include manipulating the information that followers receive, deflecting responsibility for negative outcomes, alienating others, creating rivalries among followers, being overly controlling, alternating between idealizing and demeaning followers, and creating excessive dependence among followers. Regarding white collar crime, relevant behaviors include theft, misuse of company assets, use of personal influence to secure personal gains, falsifying records and documents, embezzlement, bribery, and forgery (Holtfreter, 2005). Each behavior collected from measures and examples of non-leader-specific forms of negative behaviors was rephrased to make a leader the source of the behavior. Twenty behaviors taken from leader and non-leader-specific measures and constructs were added to the list of negative leader behaviors.

Results & Discussion

Table 3 lists the ninety-two negative leader behaviors. The inventory includes several types of behaviors not found in existing measures, such as sexual harassment,

ways in which leaders may manipulate subordinates' task characteristics as a form of abuse (e.g., assigning demeaning tasks), behaviors of a physical nature (e.g., throwing things, making obscene gestures, and physically assaulting subordinates), and behaviors directed at the organization or that are likely to at least have greater consequences for the organization than for subordinates. Using the present inventory, the subsequent studies, which determined the dimensionality, factor structure, and outcomes of negative leader behavior, present a more comprehensive picture than could be provided by existing constructs.

Chapter 3

Study 2: Multidimensional Scaling Analysis

Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) was used to determine the dimensions underlying the inventory of leader behaviors and to serve as a basis for making predictions about factor loadings to inform Study 3's confirmatory factor analysis. MDS places objects (behaviors in this case) in a geometric space based on dissimilarities among the objects (Weinberg, 1991). The space has as many dimensions as are found in the objects. If objects are found to conform best to a two dimensional space, it would be concluded that two dimensions underlie the objects.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) described an analogy for MDS. They compared MDS to drawing a map of several cities on various dimensions, based on distances between the cities. A map with a single dimension would place the cities on a single line. A map with two dimensions could resemble a road map, and a map with three dimensions could provide additional information about elevation.

MDS was chosen over exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for three reasons. First, MDS analysis uses rated similarities among items as input rather than some other aspect of those items (e.g., frequency of commission), as does EFA (Weinberg, 1991). Choosing an inappropriate scale, which could have occurred given that there is not a clearly most appropriate aspect of negative leader behavior to use as a reference for a rating scale, could have led to misleading results.

Second, MDS analysis places fewer restrictions on data collection procedures than does EFA. The sample size requirement was an especially relevant distinction. Depending on characteristics of the underlying factors, EFA could have required 900

subjects, given the set of 92 behaviors, to be consistent with guidelines (Nunnally, 1978).

Finally, MDS was more consistent with the objective of the present study, to highlight the

conceptual underpinnings of the full range of negative leader behaviors rather than

evaluate the extent to which they function as a measure (Snell, McDonald, & Koch,

1991).

<div align="center">*Method*</div>

Participants

Twenty-six graduate students and faculty in Industrial/Organizational Psychology

and Organizational Behavior participated in Study 2's behavior sorting task. A sample of

subject matter experts was chosen because the ability of individuals from the general

population to both understand the task used in Study 2 and be willing to devote a

sufficient amount of time to its completion was questionable. In addition, researchers

suggest that accurate solutions can be obtained from a sample of 20-30 subject matter

experts, in instances in which a sorting task is used as input for MDS analysis, in contrast

to a sample of hundreds of individuals from the general population (Santos, 2006; Tullis

& Wood, 2004).

Measures

There are several ways to collect data for an MDS study. Ideally, participants rate

the extent to which each item within a set is dissimilar from all other items (Tsogo et al.,

2000); however, large sets of items make this strategy impractical. For example, to rate

dissimilarities between all pairs of ninety-two leader behaviors, participants would have

had to make 8464 ratings. An excellent review by Tsogo, Masson, and Bardot (2000)

discussed MDS data collection strategies that can be used with large sets of items.

Potential strategies to reduce the time-demands placed on participants by large sets of items include asking participants to complete an incomplete set of dissimilarity ratings (by randomly eliminating one-third of the dissimilarity ratings, for example), asking participants to sort items into groups of similar items, asking participants to rank-order items according to dissimilarities, and obtaining pairwise comparisons from participants (by asking participants to rate whether the dissimilarity between one pair of items is less or greater than the dissimilarity between another pair).

For the present study, the sorting task was deemed most appropriate, as the other strategies would still have placed considerable demands on participants. For example, reducing the 8464 dissimilarity ratings mentioned above by one-third would have left 5586 ratings for participants to make. By using the sorting task, on the other hand, the demands placed on participants were substantially reduced over the traditional MDS strategy. Also, according to Tsogo et al., the sorting task, among alternative strategies, most closely replicates the results of a traditional MDS data collection strategy.

To complete the sorting task, participants were given the set of 92 items and asked to sort behaviors they judged to be similar into the same group and those they judged to be dissimilar into different groups using an online spreadsheet-style survey. Participants were also asked to provide concise explanations of why they sorted behaviors into a particular group. The rationales for group assignments were later used to help interpret the dimensions.

Analysis

Analyzing participants' responses to the sorting task involved the creation of three matrices (Tsogo et al., 2000). For each participant, a matrix was created with rows

representing behaviors 1 through 92 and columns representing groups 1 through 13.

Participants were not allowed to assign behaviors to more than thirteen groups in order to

make their responses more manageable and easily interpretable. Entries '1' and '0' were

used to indicate whether each participant assigned a behavior to a group. Next, a

similarity matrix F was created by summing the individual-participant matrices. The

entries in F represented the frequency f_{ij} with which participants assigned behaviors i and

j to the same group. Finally, a dissimilarity matrix Δ was created with entries δ_{ij}, where

$\delta_{ij} = N$ (the number of participants) $- f_{ij}$. In other words, δ_{ij} represents the number of

participants who placed behaviors i and j into separate categories. Matrix Δ was then

used as input for an MDS analysis using SPSS's ALSCAL program.

<div align="center">

Results

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Determining the Number of Dimensions

To determine the most appropriate number of dimensions underlying a set of

items, researchers recommend comparing goodness-of-fit statistics associated with

solutions of different numbers of dimensions (Shepard, 1972; Snell, McDonald, & Koch,

1991). The goodness-of-fit statistic most commonly used in MDS analysis is Kruskal's

(1964) stress value, which represents the amount of unexplained variance in a data set

associated with a solution of a given number of dimensions. Lower stress values indicate

better fit.

Figure 2 presents a scree plot of stress values associated with solutions of one

through six dimensions. In addition, Table 4 lists the specific stress values and the

reduction in values as the number of dimensions increases. Both the figure and table

suggested that the stress values begin to level-off at three dimensions. Although the two-

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dimensional solution may also seem plausible, according to Kruskal (1964), a stress value of approximately 0.01 indicates fair model fit; whereas, a value of 0.02, which the two-dimensional solution came closer to, indicates poor fit.

Additionally, the interpretability of a set of dimensions can be used as a criterion for determining the most appropriate number of dimensions (Kruskal, 1964; Snell et al., 1991). In general, consistent with exploratory nature of MDS, if competing solutions have similar stress values and both offer interpretable dimensions, the solution with the greater number of dimensions should be accepted. In the present study, both the two-dimensional and three-dimensional solutions were interpretable. Thus, the three-dimensional solution was accepted.

Interpreting the Dimensions

Table 5 lists the scores of each behavior on each of the three dimensions. What seemed to distinguish behaviors at one end of Dimension 1 from the other end is the target. Behaviors at the positive extreme of Dimension 1 are targeted at the organization or have greater consequences for the organization. Behaviors at the negative extreme of the dimension are directed at subordinates.

Dimension 2 seemed to distinguish incompetent from malignant behaviors. Behaviors that scored most positively on Dimension 2 included trying to please everyone, avoiding addressing issues, putting little effort into work, and flip-flopping on decisions. The behaviors seemed to reflect a failure to fulfill the role of leader rather than malice. At the opposite end of Dimension 2 were behaviors that are clearly negative and likely to harm others, some intentionally so (e.g., physically assaulting subordinates and throwing objects at subordinates).

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Behaviors that scored most positively on Dimension 3 reflect violations of social norms (e.g., bringing inappropriate material to work, engaging in sexual or romantic relationships with others from work, gossiping, and making jokes at others' expense). In contrast, behaviors scoring most negatively on Dimension 3 reference violating rules and laws, theft, and endangering others' welfare. These behaviors are violations of rules that are likely to be clearly prescribed or agreed upon. Thus, Dimension 3 seemed to represent a violation of social norms versus violation of clear rules dimension.

To confirm the meaning of dimensions, several studies have used a regression method that comes closer to objectively applying labels to dimensions than relying on researchers' subjective interpretations alone (e.g., Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The method involves regressing dimension scores on subject matter experts' ratings of the extent to which a set of dimension labels characterizes a set of behaviors. Because the number of behaviors in the present study made a label-behavior rating survey impractical, it was judged that the behavior inventory should first be reduced to a set that could be used in a future measure of negative leader behavior before applying the most appropriate label to each dimension.

Creating a Reduced Set of Behaviors

To reduce the number of behaviors, first, eight categories of behaviors were created by crossing the three dimensions (Table 6). A total category score was calculated for each behavior by adding the absolute values of each behavior's scores across all three dimensions. These category scores along with behaviors' scores on each dimension and whether a behavior conceptually fit with other behaviors included in a category served as criteria for elimination. Behaviors that had low category scores, scored close to zero on a

dimension, and/or were not conceptually similar to other behaviors in a category were removed. This method of removing behaviors was chosen because it resulted in a set of categories that were clearly distinct. The method also increased the likelihood that each category's behaviors would hang together during subsequent studies that tested the factor structure of the measure of negative leader behavior by reducing correlations between categories and increasing category reliability. Forty items, five within each category, were retained (Table 7). The researcher and two professors of Industrial/Organizational Psychology reviewed and agreed upon the final list of behaviors.

Confirming the Dimension Labels

As the final step, to confirm dimension labels, the regression method of verifying dimension labels was employed using a sample of six graduate students and faculty in Industrial/Organizational Psychology. Participants rated the extent to which each of five dimension labels, derived from the most popular explanations that sorting-task participants gave for their sortings, described each of the forty behaviors. The label-behavior ratings were averaged across raters and used as a predictor of the absolute values of dimension scores. Table 8 shows that only one of the labels significantly and positively predicted scores on any dimension. Consistent with expectations, the "norm-violating/rule-violating" label predicted scores on Dimension 3 ($\beta = .40$, $p < 0.05$). Although the "malignant/incompetent" label also significantly predicted Dimension 3 scores, the negative beta coefficient indicated that as behaviors' scores on Dimension 3 increase, the label becomes less descriptive and appropriate.

Because the labels failed to significantly and positively predict scores on the other dimensions, the results of the regression analysis were interpreted in conjunction with a

visual inspection of behaviors' dimension scores in order to apply the most appropriate label to Dimensions 1 and 2. The regression analysis confirms expectations that the label "organizationally-directed/subordinate-directed" is most appropriate for Dimension 1 (β = .25). Regarding Dimension 2, contrary to expectations, the regression analysis showed the "malignant/incompetent" label to poorly predict dimension scores and the "severe/not severe" label to be the best predictor (β = .42). However, implying that some behaviors are severe and others minor may be misleading.   Ignoring important issues and requests and being absent from work may have outcomes just as severe as bribing and physically intimidating others under certain conditions.

Upon further inspection of Dimension 2 scores, what seemed to distinguish behaviors at one end of the dimension from those at the other end was the frequency with which a behavior occurs before it engenders negative outcomes. Throwing objects at subordinates is likely to have serious consequences immediately; whereas, discounting subordinates' input may also have serious consequences, but after repeated occurrences. Thus, an "insidiously-damaging/ immediately-damaging" label seemed appropriate for Dimension 2. This label is consistent with the regression analysis, as under most single situations, immediately-damaging behaviors should have more serious consequences than insidiously-damaging behaviors. The label is also consistent with Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon's (2002) argument that behaviors that produce negative outcomes after repetition should be distinguished from those that have negative outcomes after sole occurrences. Despite the inclusion of the term "damaging," it is noted that the damage is not restricted to subordinates' performance and could apply to other variables (e.g., commitment) instead.

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Discussion

In addition to enhancing the understanding of negative leader behavior, the results of Study 2 serve to organize existing research and provide a starting point for Studies 3 and 4's efforts to develop a measure of negative leader behavior. Table 9 illustrates the present study's contribution to research on negative leadership by mapping constructs related to leader-specific forms of negative behavior onto the eight categories of negative leader behavior identified in Study 2. Whether a construct maps onto a category was determined by comparing behaviors included in measures of those constructs to behaviors included in the categories of negative leader behavior. For example, "Gives me the silent treatment," from Tepper's (2000)'s measure, is similar to the present study's "Gives the silent treatment to express displeasure," from the subordinate-directed, insidiously-damaging, norm-violating behavior category. Thus, abusive supervision maps onto that category of negative leader behavior.

The table makes two points. First, aside from one item from Popper's (2002) personalized leadership measure, existing constructs do not include behaviors directed at the organization or that have greater consequences for the organization than for subordinates. Consequently, existing measures do not address approximately half of all possible manifestations of negative leadership. Thus, Figure 1 may have underestimated the space in negative leader behavior not addressed by previous research.

Second, besides illustrating the types of behaviors not addressed by previous research, the table also shows the types of behaviors upon which research has focused. Most behaviors from previously researched leader-specific negative behavior constructs map onto the subordinate-directed, insidiously-damaging, norm-violating negative leader

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behavior category of negative leader behavior. Consistent with expectations, this finding emphasizes the point that previous research has focused on behaviors directed at subordinates and that are relatively less severe, in terms of a single commission. The two points made by the table underscore the idea that although the constructs of interest in previous research may be valid indicators of a specific type of negative leader behavior, they should not be considered representative of all types of negative leader behavior.

Chapter 4

Study 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The next step in the process of both empirically defining negative leader behavior

and developing a measure of the construct was to confirm the factor structure of the

reduced set of behaviors generated in Study 2 using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

In addition to being an initial step in evaluating the set of behaviors as a measure of

negative leader behavior, CFA should also provide further insight into negative leader

behavior as a construct. According to Long (1983), CFA is a necessary step in theory

and construct development, as it evaluates relationships among latent factors and their

indicators. The CFA resulted in a measure of negative leader behavior and its factors that

was subsequently evaluated in Study 4.

Method

Participants

Data for the CFA were collected from 410 participants. Participants were

recruited through a variety of means, including advertisements placed on work-oriented

websites (e.g., www.workrant.com) (n = 55), staff across all branches of the Pennsylvania

State University (n = 78), professional organizations (e.g., the Society for Human

Resource Management) (n = 53), employees of a small state government department (n =

12), adult contacts of undergraduates enrolled in upper level psychology courses (n = 97),

and the Study Response Project (n = 115), a participant recruitment service. Table 10

lists characteristics of the sample.

Measures

Participants were asked to rate the extent to which a very abusive, unethical, and/or damaging supervisor, manager, or leader with whom they currently work or worked with in the past engages or engaged in each of the 40 negative leader behaviors generated in Study 2. Ratings for each behavior were made on a 5-point scale, with "Never," "Seldom," "Occasionally," "Often," and "Very Often" serving as response options.

Results

LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2007) was used to perform the CFA. Because the data were not normal, Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square statistics (Satorra & Bentler, 2001) were used to compare the fit of the tested models. The Satorra-Bentler correction adjusts the chi-square test statistic associated with a model as well as individual parameter estimates according to item-level curtosis; it was used instead of a bootstrap analysis because, although relatively newly developed, Satorra-Bentler adjustments have been shown to be robust across different degrees of item-level curtosis as well as sample and model sizes (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; Herzog, Boomsma, & Reinecke, 2006).

CFA output was compared for eight models. The models were based on the eight categories of negative leader behavior found in Study 2 and included a one-factor model, three two-factor models, three four-factor models, and an eight-factor model. Table 11 details the goodness-of-fit statistics associated with each model. Among the two-factor models, one with subordinate-directed and organization-directed factors showed the best fit [Scaled χ^2 (739) = 2738.74; RMSEA = .09; CFI = .94; NFI = .92; SRMR = .11]. Among four-factor models, one made by crossing the subordinate-directed/organization-

directed and insidiously-damaging/immediately-damaging dimensions showed the best fit [Scaled χ^2 (734) = 2171.62; RMSEA = .07; CFI = .95; NFI = .93; SRMR = .11]. As shown in Table 11, the eight-factor model showed significantly better fit, in terms of a comparison of scaled chi-square statistics associated with each model, than any other model [Scaled χ^2 (712) = 1852.01; RMSEA = .07; CFI = .96; NFI = .94; SRMR = .09].

Despite the quality of the fit of the eight-factor model, an issue with the model called for attention. Several of the latent-variable factors shared high phi coefficients. These coefficients suggested that the four factors including behaviors directed at subordinates should be collapsed into one subordinate-directed behavior factor, as the coefficients among these factors ranged from .80 to .95. A coefficient of .87 between the organization-directed/insidiously-damaging/rule-violating and organization-directed/insidiously-damaging/norm-violating behavior factors suggested that the factors should also be collapsed into one organization-directed/insidiously-damaging behavior factor.

After making these modifications, the organization-directed/immediately-damaging/rule-violating factor did not show uniqueness from the newly created organization-directed/insidiously-damaging factor, in terms of a high phi coefficient of .91. Consequently, the factors were combined to create an organization-directed behavior factor.

Following these revisions to factors of the measure, modification indices showed problems with four behaviors. Two behaviors, "Makes obscene gestures at subordinates" and "Puts his own career ahead of what is good for his group or the organization" were removed due to high cross-loadings on factors that did not make theoretical sense.

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"Makes obscene gestures at subordinates" loaded on the organization-directed behavior and organization-directed/immediately-damaging/norm-violating behavior factors in addition to its predicted factor, the subordinate-directed behavior factor. "Puts his/her own career of what is good for his/her group or the organization" loaded on the subordinate-directed behavior factor in addition to its predicted factor, the organization-directed behavior factor. Additionally, two behaviors from the organization-directed/immediately-damaging/norm-violating factor ["At times appears to be under the influence of alcohol or recreational drugs while at work" and "Throws things (but not at others) or smashes things"] were reassigned to the organization-directed behavior factor. Because the three remaining behaviors in this factor reference types of sexual misconduct, the factor was judged to represent a sexual harassment behavior factor.

According to most goodness-of-fit indices, the final model showed adequate fit to the data [Scaled χ^2 (662) = 1876.83; RMSEA = .07; CFI = .96; NFI = .93; SRMR = .10]. Table 12 lists the behaviors included in each factor along with the factor loading of each behavior. Additional assessment showed each factor to have adequate reliability, judged in terms of internal consistency reliability. The subordinate-directed behavior factor had a reliability of .92; the organization-directed factor had a reliability of .88; lastly, the sexual harassment factor was found to have a reliability of .64. Finally, Figure 3 shows the loadings of each of the three factors on the general negative leader behavior factor and the correlations among the factors. The figure shows that although the factors seem to be unique, in terms of inter-factor correlations, the overall negative leader behavior factor explains at least a moderate amount of variance in each of the three sub-factors.

Discussion

Results of Study 3 show the structure of negative leader behavior to be similar to the structure of negative workplace behavior in general, though the specific manifestations of the behaviors differ. At a broad level, studies on negative workplace behavior tend to make a distinction between behaviors directed at specific individuals and those directed at the organization (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Study 3 shows that a similar distinction can be made among negative leader behaviors.

Also, though it may seem that subordinate-directed negative leader behavior and sexual harassment behavior should be included in the same factor, research on non-leader-specific negative behavior shows harassment to be somewhat distinct from negative interpersonal behavior in general. Using CFA, Lim and Cortina (2005) tested the extent to which sexual harassment and interpersonal incivility are unique. A model that treated the two as separate factors showed significantly better fit than one that included harassment and incivility behaviors in the same factor. Lim and Cortina argued that sexual harassment is unique from other forms of incivility because it is rarer and more severe than general incivility. Study 3 suggests that the same may be true of harassment and interpersonal negative behavior engaged in by people in leadership positions.

Despite the similarities, the measure of negative leader behavior is distinct from measures of non-leader-specific negative behavior in terms of its specific items. Thirteen of the thirty-eight behaviors included in the negative leader behavior measure are also found in measures of workplace deviance [using Bennett and Robinson's (2000) measure as a reference] or counterproductive work behavior [using Fox, Spector, and Miles's

(2001) measure as a reference]. Eleven of the thirteen overlapping behaviors are included in the organization-directed behavior factor. The fourth and final study will not only confirm the factor structure of the negative leader behavior measure but will also determine the outcomes of those factors.

Chapter 5

Study 4: Validation

As with any measure development effort, evaluating the validity of a measure is an important step (Hinkin, 1995). Study 4 will provide evidence of the criterion and construct validity of the negative leader behavior measure developed through the first three studies.

To determine the criterion validity of the negative leader behavior measure, outcome measures will be collected from followers using a concurrent design. From a follower's perspective, relevant outcomes of negative leader behavior include job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Research on abusive supervision and supervisor undermining has found followers treated negatively by their leaders to have less job satisfaction and be more likely to express a desire to leave an organization than followers treated positively (e.g., Duffy et al., 2002; Tepper, 2000). It is also likely that followers treated negatively by a leader will dislike that leader personally. Thus, similarly to a manipulation check, Study 4 will assess the relationship between negative leader behavior and liking for a leader.

Regarding the effects of the negative leader behavior factors individually, because the subordinate-directed behavior factor most closely resembles existing constructs, it should produce results similar to existing constructs. Studies on abusive supervision have typically found that, by violating followers' perceptions of justice, abusive supervisors create lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and higher levels of turnover, work-family conflict, stress, and depression among followers (Aryee et al., 2007; Harvey et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000). In addition, research on non-

leader-specific forms of negative workplace behavior shows victims of bullying and incivility to have less job satisfaction and greater stress and turnover intentions than non-victims (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2006). That followers of leaders who engage in negative behaviors should have more negative attitudes toward their organizations is not surprising given the extent to which leader-follower relationships affect how followers feel about their organizations (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Thus, subordinate-directed negative leader behavior should have negative relationships with follower job satisfaction and liking for a leader and a positive relationship with turnover intentions.

Sexual harassment should also negatively affect work attitudes. Quantitative reviews have found negative relationships between sexual harassment and job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervisors, and organizational commitment and a positive relationship between harassment and withdrawal (Chan, Lam, Chow, & Cheung, 2008; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). Because of the interpersonal nature of sexual harassment, it is likely that harassment leads to negative work attitudes by violating victims' perceptions of justice.

Organization-directed behavior is predicted to have effects similar to the other negative leader behavior factors but for a different reason. Studies that have found witnesses of interpersonal bullying to have less job satisfaction and greater stress and turnover intentions than non-witnesses have typically argued that witnesses have similar affective responses to negative events as victims or that witnesses have a negative reaction because they fear becoming victims of the same acts (Lim et al., 2007; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007; Vartia, 2001).

Organization-directed negative leader behavior is different than bullying or interpersonal incivility though in that particular individuals are not the direct targets of organization-directed behavior. Organization-directed behavior may still lead to negative follower attitudes toward work but for a different reason. People expect higher standards of behavior from people in leadership positions; they respond to positive forms of leadership, such as transformational (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), authentic (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), and ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2006), with more positive attitudes toward work and the organizations for which they work. Leaders who engage in negative behavior should then be less likely to be perceived as credible and trustworthy authority figures, as deviant behaviors are likely to be inconsistent with expectations for appropriate conduct in a leader. The lack of trust in a leader should then lead to more negative attitudes toward the leader and organization on behalf of followers. In support of this argument, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found unmet expectations of leaders to negatively predict trust in leaders, which, in turn, predicts follower turnover intentions and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1a: Negative leader behavior will negatively predict follower job satisfaction and liking for leader and will positively predict follower turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 1b: Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior will negatively predict follower job satisfaction and liking for leader and will positively predict follower turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 1c: Sexual harassment leader behavior will negatively predict follower job satisfaction and liking for leader and will positively predict follower turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 1d: Organization-directed negative leader behavior will negatively predict follower job satisfaction and liking for leader and will positively predict follower turnover intentions.

Another relevant outcome of negative leader behavior is the extent to which followers engage in negative behavior themselves. Previous studies show that people who are victims of negative behavior or are around others who commit negative behaviors at work are more likely to perform deviant behavior than those who have not been victimized by or witness to others' negative behavior (Fox & Stallworth, 2005; Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998).

As with negative leader behavior, there are different types of deviant follower behavior to consider in making predictions; Bennett and Robinson (2000) identified interpersonal and organizational deviance factors of overall workplace deviance. In a study relevant to the effects of subordinate-directed negative leader behavior on the specific types of follower deviance, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found subordinates of abusive supervisors to engage in more undermining behaviors with their families, outside of work. Using a "displaced aggression" perspective, Hoobler and Brass reasoned that victims of supervisory abuse are likely to attempt to harm others less powerful than their supervisors in order to vent their frustration but avoid incurring further abuse at the same time. Research on non-leader-specific negative behavior shows that, although victims of the negative behavior of those of higher status may not retaliate against those high-status offenders (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001), they are more likely to engage in aggressive behavior toward other individuals than non-victims (Glomb & Liao, 2003). Thus,

subordinate-directed negative leader behavior should lead to increased instances of follower interpersonal deviance.

Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior should also promote followers' organizational deviance. Detert et al. (2007) found abusive supervision to positively predict work-unit counterproductivity, operationalized as food loss within a sample of restaurants. The researchers proposed two explanations for the relationship: first, victims of abusive supervision retaliate against their organizations in response to violations of justice, and, second, abusive supervision leads to greater psychological distress, which leads to more frequent instances of carelessness and mistakes. A similar effect is expected for subordinate-directed negative leader behavior. Regarding leader sexual harassment behavior, because of the similarity in the interpersonal nature of subordinate-directed and harassment behavior, the latter should also lead to greater interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Concerning organization-directed negative leader behavior, because the behavior of people in leadership positions serves as a reference for how followers should behave at work (Detert et al., 2007), leaders who behave badly should be more likely to have followers who behave similarly. Similarly to leaders who behave unethically, although Detert et al. (2007) did not find ethical leadership to predict work-unit counterproductivity, those who engage in negative behavior directed at the organization are likely to send a message to followers that such behavior is acceptable (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Unlike subordinate-directed and sexual harassment behavior though, because followers are not true victims of organization-directed behavior, there should not be the same desire to enact vengeance upon less powerful coworkers. Thus,

organization-directed negative leader behavior should lead to follower organizational deviance but not interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 2a: Negative leader behavior will positively predict overall follower deviance, interpersonal deviance, and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 2b: Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior will positively predict overall follower deviance, interpersonal deviance, and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 2c: Sexual harassment leader behavior will positively predict overall follower deviance, interpersonal deviance, and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 2d: Organization-directed negative leader behavior will positively predict overall follower deviance and organizational deviance but will be unrelated to follower interpersonal deviance.

As a final outcome, if the negative leader behavior measure is functioning as it should, there should be a difference in follower ratings of leader effectiveness according to scores on the measure. Just as followers perceive leaders who engage in positive behaviors to be more effective than those who do not (Kim & Yukl, 1995), leaders rated highly on the negative leader behavior measure should be rated as less effective than those whom followers rate low on the measure. Regarding predictions for the overall negative leader behavior measure and the subordinate-directed and sexual harassment factors, followers who feel personally threatened by a leader should have less regard for the effectiveness of the leader than followers who do not feel threatened. This is because research on transformational leadership shows that leaders who fail to demonstrate individualized consideration, which refers to stimulating, coaching, and respecting followers, are likely to be evaluated poorly (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Regarding the effects of the organization-directed behavior factor, although followers may not feel personally threatened by the behaviors, the behaviors are likely to constitute a violation of followers' expectations for their leaders. As mentioned earlier, unmet expectations negatively predict trust in leadership, and leaders who are not perceived as trustworthy are judged as less effective than those who are (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007).

Hypothesis 3a: Overall negative leader behavior and its factors will negatively predict evaluations of leader effectiveness.

Hypothesis 3b: Among negative leader behavior factors, the organization-directed behavior factor will predict evaluations of leader effectiveness least well.

To further support the validity of the negative leader behavior measure, Study 4 will assess the incremental validity of the measure over abusive supervision. Because the negative leader behavior measure is more comprehensive than the measure of abusive supervision, it is predicted that the former will explain variance in each outcome beyond that explained by the latter. Similarly, among factors of the negative leader behavior measure, because the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors are most unique from the behaviors included in the measure of abusive supervision, those factors should show incremental validity over the abusive supervision measure.

Hypothesis 4a: Negative leader behavior will predict all outcomes over abusive supervision.

Hypothesis 4b: Among negative leader behavior factors, the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors will account for the greatest amount of incremental variance explained in each outcome over abusive supervision.

Finally, the construct validity of the negative leader behavior measure will be assessed by comparing its scores to those of the abusive supervision measure. Because of the similarity between several of the behaviors included in the measure of negative leader behavior and those included in the abusive supervision measure, there should be a positive relationship between scores on the two measures. Among negative leader behavior factors, as previously mentioned, the subordinate-directed behavior factor is most similar to the types of behaviors included in the abusive supervision measure. Thus, there should also be a positive correlation between the subordinate-directed behavior factor and abusive supervision. Regarding the relationships between abusive supervision and the other negative leader behavior factors, existing research shows factors of negative workplace behavior not to be orthogonal (Dalal, 2005). People who engage in one type of negative behavior are likely to engage in other forms of negative behavior; therefore, although the organization-directed and sexual harassment behavior factors are distinct from abusive supervision behaviors, there should be positive but moderate-strength correlations among abusive supervision and the factors.

Hypothesis 5a: Negative leader behavior will share a strong, positive correlation with abusive supervision.

Hypothesis 5b: Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior will share a strong, positive correlation with abusive supervision.

Hypothesis 5c: Organization-directed and sexual harassment negative leader behavior will share moderate, positive correlations with abusive supervision.

Method

Participants

Participants included 522 individuals recruited from the general population through several means. Sources of participants included MBA students from a small Midwestern university (n = 19), the Study Response Project (n = 191), undergraduates enrolled in two upper level psychology courses (n = 95), advertisements placed on work-relevant websites (n = 18), and professional organizations (n = 199). Because participants working in the education industry made up a disproportionately large portion of the sample, responses from 96 participants who reported working in education were removed at random, leaving a final sample size of 426. Characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 13. Among the 426 participants, 226 completed two versions of a survey according to the procedure described below, leading to a total of 692 completed surveys.

Measures

Negative leader behavior. To assess negative leader behavior, participants completed the 38-item measure resulting from Study 3. Before responses to the survey were involved in any analyses, steps were taken to confirm the factor structure and item loadings of the measure. Using LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2007), a confirmatory factor analysis with Satorra-Bentler adjustments showed the predicted 3-factor, 38-item model to have somewhat adequate fit [Scaled $\chi^2(662) = 3322.78$; RMSEA = .08; CFI = .98; NFI = .98; SRMR = .09]. To improve on the fit of the model and to make the negative leader behavior measure more concise, steps were taken to reduce the behaviors included in each factor to those that are most indicative of a factor. Decisions to remove

behaviors were based on three pieces of information, including item-factor loadings from Study 3 (Table 12), item-factor loadings and modification indices from the first CFA attempt of Study 4, and subject matter experts' reviews of the factors and their items. For the third method, ten graduate students and faculty in Industrial/Organizational Psychology were provided with descriptions of the three negative leader behavior factors and asked to rate the extent to which each behavior was representative of its predicted factor. Descriptive statistics results from this exercise were then reviewed.

Taking the three pieces of information into account led to the creation of the measure outlined in Table 14. The measure includes 28 items, 14 of which comprise the subordinate-directed factor, 11 are included in the organization-directed factor, and the sexual harassment factor includes 3 items. A notable revision to the measure is that, based on modification indices of the first CFA attempt of Study 4 as well as SMEs' reviews of the behaviors, the behavior "Ignores phone calls and/or email" was reassigned to the subordinate-directed behavior factor from the organization-directed behavior factor.

After making decisions to revise the negative leader behavior measure and before performing another CFA, the data set of 692 completed surveys was split into two separate data sets, with one set including two-thirds of the completed surveys (454). The other set included one-third of the completed surveys (224). The initial CFA, using the unrevised measure, was performed again on the data set of 454 completed surveys, and a CFA based on the revised measure was performed on the set of 224 surveys. The data set was split in this way to ensure that both CFA tests did not use the same data; in other

words, the sample was split to ensure that the CFA tests were based on independent data sets.

The unrevised measure again showed less than adequate fit to the data [Scaled $\chi^2(662) = 2357.23$; RMSEA = .08; CFI = .98; NFI = .97; SRMR = .09]. The revised measure showed better fit [Scaled $\chi^2(347) = 728.10$; RMSEA = .07; CFI = .99; NFI = .98; SRMR = .04]. Consequently, all remaining analyses in Study 4 featured the revised measure.

Participants responded to the negative leader behavior measure's items on the same 5-point response scale used in Study 3, with response options ranging from "never" to "very often." Coefficient alpha reliability was found to be 0.96 for the overall measure. The reliabilities of the subordinate-directed, organization-directed, and sexual harassment factors were found to be .96, .91, and .80, respectively.

Abusive supervision. Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision measure consists of fifteen items and represents the extent to which subordinates perceive their supervisors to engage in abusive behaviors. Responses to the items are made on a five point scale. Response anchors included: "I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me," "He/she seldom uses this behavior with me," "He/she occasionally uses this behavior with me," "He/she uses this behavior moderately with me," and "He/she uses this behavior very often with me". The measure showed a reliability of .94.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was assessed by four items drawn from scales developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) and Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979). The items were: "I am enthusiastic about my job," "I am satisfied with my present job," "I find real enjoyment in my job," and "I consider my job to be rather

pleasant." The 5-point response scale for the items ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The scale had a reliability of .94.

Liking for leader. A 4-item measure of liking developed by Engle and Lord (1997) was used to assess the extent to which participants like the leader they had in mind while completing the survey. The measure's items include: "To what extent do you agree that the person you have in mind would make a good friend?," "How much do you like this person?," "To what extent do you agree that you get along with this person?," and "To what extent do you agree that working with this person is a pleasure?" The reliability of the measure was found to be .92.

Turnover intentions. Three items were used to measure turnover intentions, including "I am seriously thinking about quitting my job" (Landau & Hammer, 1986), "How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year?" (Larwood, Wright, Desrochers, & Dahir, 1998), and "How strongly do you feel about leaving your job in the next year?" (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984). Responses to the items were made on a 5-point scale. The measure had a reliability of .89.

Follower Deviance. To measure the extent to which participants engage in their own forms of deviance, Bennett and Robinson's (2000) 19-item workplace deviance measure was used. The measure includes an interpersonal deviance scale, consisting of seven items (e.g., "Made fun of someone at work"), and an organizational deviance scale, consisting of the remaining items (e.g., "Taken property from work without permission"). Participants rated the extent to which they have engaged in each behavior while working with the leader in question on a 7-point scale. Response options included: "never," "once a year," "twice a year," "several times a year," "monthly," "weekly," and "daily." The

overall measure, interpersonal deviance factor, and organizational deviance factor had reliabilities of .90, .81, and .86.

Procedure

Participants were asked to think of two leaders, supervisors, or managers with whom they currently work or worked with in the past five years. One of the leaders should have been someone that participants consider to be ineffective as a leader or manager, and one should have been someone that participants consider to be effective as a leader or manager. Participants were told to judge effectiveness according to how well a leader performed typical duties, such as providing guidance and feedback to subordinates, administering rewards and punishments appropriately, keeping abreast of current events or issues at work, resolving conflicts, making good decisions about work, delegating and keeping track of subordinates' assignments, and keeping material resources (e.g., printers and paper) available. These examples were taken from Fleishman, Mumford, Zaccaro, Levin, Korotkin, and Hein (1991)'s taxonomy of leader behavior. Participants' distinctions between effective and ineffective leaders served as an assessment of participants' perceptions of the effectiveness of a leader.

Participants were told to only complete the effective-leader portion of the survey if they either work with someone who they consider to be effective at the above duties or worked with someone they would consider to be effective within the past five years. Similarly, they were told to only complete the ineffective-leader portion of the survey if they currently worth with someone they would consider to be ineffective or worked with someone they would consider to be ineffective within the past five years. For participants who completed either the effective or ineffective-leader portions of the

survey while thinking of someone they no longer work with, survey items were reworded

to assess participants' attitudes, behavior, and evaluations while working with the leader

in question (for example, the extent to which they engaged in interpersonal deviance

while working with the effective or ineffective leader). There were no significant

differences in responses to items according to whether participants completed one or both

versions of the survey.

Results

Correlational Analysis

Tables 15 and 16 present correlation matrices among the variables included in

Study 4. Table 15 presents Pearson product-moment correlations; whereas, due to

normality issues among responses to the negative leader behavior and abusive

supervision items, Table 16 presents Kendall's Tau correlations among variables, which

is a non-parametric statistic. The tables lead to similar conclusions. Consistent with

predictions, subordinate-directed, organization-directed, and sexual harassment negative

leader behavior, as well as overall negative leader behavior, share significant and

negative correlations with job satisfaction and liking for a leader and positive correlations

with turnover intentions. The correlations also provide preliminary support for the

hypotheses for follower deviance, aside from a significant, positive correlation between

organization-directed negative leader behavior and follower interpersonal deviance,

contradicting Hypothesis 2d.

Regarding the comparisons between scores on the negative leader behavior and

abusive supervision measures, there is a strong, positive correlation between scores on

each measure, consistent with Hypothesis 5a. Hypotheses 5b and 5c also received

support, as, among negative leader behavior factors, the subordinate-directed behavior factor shared the strongest correlation with abusive supervision, followed by the organization-directed behavior and sexual harassment factors.

Providing mixed support for Hypothesis 4a, the negative leader behavior and abusive supervision measures had similar correlations with the outcome measures. The correlations between abusive supervision and the attitudinal outcomes (job satisfaction, liking for leader, and turnover intentions) were somewhat greater than those for negative leader behavior; however, the correlations between negative leader behavior and follower deviance outcomes were somewhat greater than those for abusive supervision. Support was also mixed for Hypothesis 4b. Abusive supervision had consistently higher correlations with outcomes than the sexual harassment leader behavior factor. The organization-directed behavior factor did though have greater correlations with the follower deviance outcomes than did abusive supervision.

Regression Analyses

Tables 17-22 show the results of hierarchical regression analyses for the attitudinal and follower deviance outcomes. Each table shows the extent to which the three separate negative leader behavior factors and the overall negative leader behavior scores predict each outcome over relevant control variables. Consistent with Hypothesis 1a, overall negative leader behavior scores negatively predicted job satisfaction ($\beta = -.50$, $p < .01$) and liking for leader ($\beta = -.64$, $p < .01$) and positively predicted turnover intentions ($\beta = .48$, $p < .01$) (Table 17-19).

Regarding Hypotheses 1b-d, an inspection of Tables 17-19 shows that the standardized beta weights associated with the effects of the organization-directed and

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sexual harassment factors on follower job satisfaction, liking for leader, and turnover intentions are either non-significant or have the opposite signs as the zero-order correlations among those variables. The organization-directed factor did not significantly predict job satisfaction ($\beta = .08$, $p > .05$), liking for leader ($\beta = .09$, $p > .05$), or turnover intentions ($\beta = .03$, $p > .05$). Sexual harassment positively predicted follower job satisfaction ($\beta = .11$, $p < .05$), did not predict liking for leader ($\beta = .04$, $p < .05$), and negatively predicted turnover intentions ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .05$).

Discrepancies between the size and direction of the beta weights and those of the zero-order correlations indicated the presence of a suppression situation (Tzelgov & Henik, 1991). More specifically, because the beta weights for the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors, for the most part, have the opposite sign as the correlations among those variables, the results of the regression analyses seem to qualify as an example of negative suppression, a particularly rare form of suppression (Tzelgov & Henik, 1991). As a conceptual explanation for the suppression, the portions of the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors that negatively correlated with job satisfaction and liking for leader and positively correlated with turnover intentions were suppressed, most likely by some portion of variance in the subordinate-directed behavior factor. Consequently, the beta weights show the two factors to either fail to predict job satisfaction, liking, and turnover intentions or to predict those outcomes in the opposite direction as the factors do in reality.

The suppression situation affected the beta weights associated with the subordinate-directed factor as well. More consistent with the definition of absolute suppression (Tzelgov & Henik, 1991), results of the regression analyses suggested that

the portion of variance in the subordinate-directed behavior factor that did not correlate with job satisfaction, liking, and turnover intentions was suppressed by the other two leader behavior factors, inflating the validity estimates associated with the subordinate-directed factor.

Because of the finding of suppression, one should not consider the beta weights included in Tables 17-19 to be accurate estimates of the extent to which the three negative leader behavior factors predict job satisfaction, liking for leader, and turnover intentions (Tzelgov & Henik, 1991). Results of the regression analyses can however be interpreted according to the relative strengths with which the factors predict each of the three outcomes (Tzelgov & Henik, 1991). Consistent with the correlational analysis, Tables 17-19 show the subordinate-directed factor to predict follower job satisfaction (β = -.67, p < .01), liking for leader (β = -.78, p < .01), and turnover intentions (β = .55, p < .01) to a greater extent than the other two factors, as the largest beta weights are associated with the subordinate-directed factor.

Regarding follower deviance as an outcome, consistent with Hypothesis 2a, overall negative leader behavior scores positively predicted follower interpersonal deviance (β = .40, p < .01), organizational deviance (β = .49, p < .01), and overall follower deviance (β = .50, p < .01). Now considering the three leader behavior factors separately, the similarity between the direction and magnitude of the beta weights included in Tables 20-22 and those of the zero-order correlations among the variables did not indicate the presence of a suppression situation. The beta weights should therefore be considered accurate estimates of the extent to which each negative leader behavior factor predicts follower interpersonal, organizational, and overall deviance. Concerning those

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predictive relationships, subordinate-directed negative leader behavior was found to positively predict follower interpersonal deviance ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$), organizational deviance ($\beta = .31$, $p < .01$), and overall deviance ($\beta = .28$, $p < .01$). In support of Hypothesis 2d, organization-directed leader behavior positively predicted overall follower deviance ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$) and organizational deviance ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$); contrary to Hypothesis 2d, organization-directed behavior was the best predictor of follower interpersonal deviance ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$). Finally, as predicted, sexual harassment behavior also positively predicted follower interpersonal deviance ($\beta = .15$, $p < .01$), organizational deviance ($\beta = .10$, $p < .05$), and overall deviance ($\beta = .13$, $p < .01$).

Results for leader effectiveness as an outcome. To determine whether negative leader behavior predicted follower judgments about the effectiveness of leaders, a binary regression using the PROC GENMOD command in SAS was used (Table 23). As with the other outcomes, the effects of the overall negative leader behavior scores conformed to expectations. Unfortunately however, a suppression situation similar to that found for follower job satisfaction, liking for leader, and turnover intentions appeared again in the prediction of followers' leader effectiveness judgments. The negative regression coefficient associated with the subordinate-directed factor and the positive coefficients associated with the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors indicated the presence of suppression. As before, although the parameters included in Table 23 are not accurate estimates of the extent to which the three factors predict followers' leader effectiveness judgments, the subordinate-directed factor emerged as a more useful predictor of those judgments than the other two factors.

To provide a clearer picture of the effect of leaders' engagement in negative behavior on whether followers consider them to be effective, t-tests were performed to determine whether leaders judged as effective engaged in significantly more or fewer of each type of negative behavior than those judged as ineffective. In particular, Welch's t-tests were used because they do not assume independent samples to have equal variances in scores on a particular variable. Results of the t-tests showed that leaders classified as effective engaged in significantly fewer of each type of negative behavior than those classified as ineffective (Table 24), with the greatest difference found in scores on the subordinate-directed factor.

Incremental Validity of the Negative Leader Behavior Measure over Abusive Supervision

Tables 25-31 show the extent to which the negative leader behavior measure and its factors predicted each outcome over abusive supervision. According to the change in R^2 statistics, the overall negative leader behavior scores and the three negative leader behavior factors explained a significant amount of variance in each outcome beyond the amount attributed to abusive supervision, providing support for Hypothesis 4a. Overall negative leader behavior scores showed the greatest incremental validity in predicting overall follower deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, p < .01), follower organizational deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, p < .01), and follower interpersonal deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, p < .01) and the least amount of incremental validity in predicting follower job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, p < .01) and turnover intentions ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, p < .05). Overall negative leader behavior scores actually predicted follower interpersonal deviance better than abusive supervision [β = .35 (p < .01) vs. β = .06 (p > .05), respectively]; the same was true for follower

organizational deviance [$\beta = .39$ (p < .01) vs. $\beta = .12$ (p < .05), respectively] and overall follower deviance [$\beta = .41$ (p < .01) vs. $\beta = .11$ (p > .05), respectively].

The three negative leader behavior factors, considered separately, showed the greatest amount of incremental validity in predicting follower job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, p < .01) and liking for leader ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, p < .01), followed by overall follower deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .07$, p < .01) and follower interpersonal ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, p < .01) and organizational deviance ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, p < .01). The factors show the least incremental validity in predicting follower turnover intentions ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, p < .01), although their combined effect was significant. For each outcome, the negative leader behavior factors, entered as separate factors, provided greater incremental validity than an overall negative leader behavior score.

Also regarding the incremental validity of the three leader behavior factors, Table 28 shows the organization-directed factor to predict follower interpersonal deviance better than abusive supervision [$\beta = .17$ (p < .01) vs. $\beta = .13$ (p < .05), respectively], consistent with Hypothesis 4b. The subordinate-directed factor predicted follower organizational deviance better than abusive supervision [$\beta = .20$ (p < .01) vs. $\beta = .15$ (p < .05), respectively] (Table 29).

Structural Equation Model of the Predicted Relationships

To provide further support for the validity of the negative leader behavior measure, especially given the suppression situation that made interpreting results of the regression analyses for the attitudinal outcomes (job satisfaction, liking for leader, and turnover intentions) more difficult, a structural equation model (SEM) was tested. Because results of the CFA's from Studies 3 and 4 as well as the correlational and

regression analyses of Study 4 suggested that treating the negative leader behavior factors separately is more informative than as indicators of an overall negative leader behavior score, the model depicted in Figure 4 presents the standardized path coefficients between each negative leader behavior factor and each outcome, excluding the evaluation of leader effectiveness (due to the point that this variable was represented by non-linear single indicator), as well as between abusive supervision and each outcome.

Because the degree of intercorrelations among the negative leader behavior factors may have contributed to the suppression situations found in several of the regression analyses, the SEM included a constraint that did not allow the factors to correlate. As expected, not allowing the leader behavior factors to correlate resulted in a model of poorer fit [Scaled $\chi^2(2460) = 12100.45$; RMSEA = .08; CFI = .96; NFI = .95; SRMR = .15] than a model in which the factors were allowed to correlate [Scaled $\chi^2(2457) = 8765.41$; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .97; NFI = .97; SRMR = .13]; however, the low goodness-of-fit statistics were acceptable because the SEM analysis had an objective of evaluating the individual path estimates of predicted relationships, in light of the previous findings of suppression, rather than evaluating the overall fit of a model.

Results of the SEM analysis, presented in Figure 4, still suggested the presence of a suppression situation in the prediction of follower job satisfaction, liking for leader, and turnover intentions, as the direction of the path estimates between those outcomes and the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors are, for the most part, opposite of the direction of the zero-order correlations among the variables. The figure does though support the general conclusions from the correlational and regression analyses. First, among negative leader behavior factors, subordinate-directed behavior is most predictive

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of attitudinal outcomes, including job satisfaction, liking for leader, and turnover intentions. The size and direction of the effects of subordinate-directed negative leader behavior on the attitudinal outcomes is similar to the size and direction of the effects of abusive supervision.

Second, the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors appear to be important predictors of follower deviance. Results of the SEM analysis show that leaders' engagement in organization-directed negative behavior and sexual harassment behavior increases the likelihood that followers will engage in both interpersonal and organizational negative behavior themselves. Moreover, according to the SEM analysis, the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors have greater effects on follower deviance than does abusive supervision.

Chapter 6

General Discussion

Negative leadership has the potential to not only harm the psychological well-being of those both inside and outside of organizations (Hoobler & Brass, 2006) but has the potential to substantially hurt organizations financially as well. Bennett and Robinson (2000) estimated that negative workplace behavior in general, not tied to leadership positions, can cost organizations billions of dollars in legal, personnel, and property costs. Because of the status of and resources available to people in leadership positions, their performance of negative behavior is likely to be even more costly than similar behaviors committed by people in non-leadership positions (Tepper et al., 2006). Recent social events, especially within banking and mortgage industries, as well as financial oversight agencies, suggest the degree to which negative leadership is a destructive force and one that should be understood by organizational behavior researchers.

However, for reasons cited earlier, despite the importance of doing so, previous research has not taken a competent first step toward understanding negative leadership as a broad-level construct. Existing research provides several examples of why taking such a step is important. Bateman, O'Neill, and Kenworthy-U'Ren (2002) wrote that although researchers assumed culture to affect behavior, cross-cultural research was not characterized by a strong understanding of cultural types or accurate predictions of cross-cultural organizational behavior until Hofstede's (1980) identification of distinct cultural dimensions. Similarly, since Robinson and Bennett's (1995) and Bennett and Robinson's (2000) identification of two types of deviant work behavior, research has developed

theories and relatively accurate predictions involving those types of behavior (e.g., Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Deifendorff & Mehta, 2007; Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004; Mount et al., 2006). Such advancements in the topics of culture and deviance would likely not have occurred without the knowledge of the constructs that studies such as Robinson and Bennett's provided.

The examples underscore Fleishman and Quaintenance (1984)'s argument that empirical analysis of constructs at general levels allows researchers to know which portions of constructs have already been explored and which require further examination, provides a point of comparison for findings from future research, and serves as a starting point for theory development. Gruys and Sackett (2003) similarly stated that empirically defining constructs at general levels provides a greater understanding of relationships among specific forms of the constructs and their distinct antecedents and outcomes.

Investigating constructs at general levels also has utility for practice. Again according to Fleishman and Quaintance (1984), a better understanding of constructs at general levels allows for better job definition and analysis, training, performance measurement and enhancement, and personnel selection, placement, and human resource planning.

Similarly to the seminal studies on culture and workplace deviance, the present study should significantly advance the understanding of negative leadership. Through a comprehensive, empirical description of negative leader behavior and the development of a measure of the construct, the present research project has reached several conclusions regarding negative leadership, each of which is discussed below.

Conclusions Regarding the Structure of Negative Leader Behavior

The primary conclusion from the present research project is that negative leader behavior is a multidimensional construct. Through MDS analysis, Study 2 identified three dimensions underlying the full range of negative leader behavior, including subordinate-directed/organization-directed, norm-violating/rule-violating, and immediately-damaging/insidiously-damaging dimensions. Using a reduced set of behaviors, Studies 3 and 4 found a measure of negative leader behavior to include three factors referencing subordinate-directed, organization-directed, and sexual harassment behavior.

That Study 2 found evidence for different types of negative leader behavior than Studies 3 and 4 is not entirely surprising given the exploratory nature of MDS relative to CFA. Previous efforts at applying MDS and factor analysis techniques to the same construct have shown the two techniques to result in somewhat different sets of conclusions. For example, using MDS, Robinson and Bennett (1995) found that deviant behaviors can be organized according to two dimensions based on the target and severity of a behavior. Using CFA, Bennett and Robinson (2000) found two deviant behavior factors, interpersonal and organizational. Thus, there is precedence for the discord in the dimensions found through the MDS analysis relative to the factors found through the CFA analyses. Despite any discrepancies across the results of the MDS analysis and the CFA analyses of the present project, the analyses support the general conclusion that, at the broadest level, negative leader behavior can be organized around several conceptual dimensions, and that the negative leader behavior measure proposed here includes three confirmed factors.

Along with the MDS and CFA analyses, results of Study 4 also suggest that conceptualizing negative leader behavior as three separate factors is more informative than as a single negative leader behavior score. Study 4's analyses showed the factors to have different relationships with job-relevant criteria. Consistent with research highlighting the importance of leader-follower personal relationships in predicting followers' evaluations of and attitudes toward their organizations (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), the present study found subordinate-directed behavior to emerge as more predictive of followers' attitudes toward their organizations and the leaders for whom they work than organization-directed and sexual harassment behavior. Although individuals who are aware that people in leadership positions within their organizations have engaged in any type of negative behavior are less likely to be satisfied with their jobs, to like those leaders, and to perceive them as effective and are more likely to desire to turnover than individuals who are unaware of such behavior, the effects are strongest for the subordinate-directed behavior factor. Consistent with research on abusive supervision, as discussed in the introduction to Study 4, the pattern of relationships for the subordinate-direct factor can likely be explained by justice theory.

Whereas the subordinate-directed behavior factor appeared to be most valid as a predictor of attitudinal outcomes, the organization-directed behavior factor emerged as a strong predictor of overall follower deviance and follower interpersonal deviance. The findings for the organization-directed behavior factor showed that followers of leaders who act destructively toward the organization are more likely to respond by engaging in negative behavior directed at other individuals than at the organization. Similarly, the regression analyses showed subordinate-directed negative leader behavior to be more

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predictive of follower organizational deviance than interpersonal deviance. Thus, results of Study 4 suggest that individuals respond to exposure to subordinate-directed or organization-directed negative leader behavior by engaging in the other form of behavior themselves.

Although the results may seem counterintuitive, they are not entirely inconsistent with existing research. Findings from existing research support the notion that individuals treated abusively are more likely to retaliate against the organization than other individuals. Though the study did not compare follower organizational deviance to interpersonal deviance, Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, and Duffy (2008) found a positive relationship between abusive supervision and follower organizational deviance. Other studies have found positive relationships between interactional and interpersonal justice, which refer to the quality of treatment individuals receive from their supervisors (Bies & Moag, 1986), and organizational deviance but not between supervisor-focused justice perceptions and interpersonal deviance (Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Berry et al., 2007).

Because previous studies on negative leader behavior have not included behaviors directed at the organization, there are no prior studies to which the link between organization-directed leader behavior and follower interpersonal deviance found in Study 4 can be compared. The relationship may occur because leaders who engage in behavior such as stealing funds and property and violating organizational policies have failed as authority figures to the extent that followers do not feel restrained against acting aggressively toward others. Research does show individuals to be more likely to engage in deviance to the extent that they are less likely to be punished for doing so (Hollinger &

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Clark, 1983; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). In a relevant study, Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, and Hetland (2007) found a positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership and bullying among followers. Thus, leaders who engage in organization-directed negative behavior may indirectly promote interpersonal incivility and aggression through failing to create a safe working environment.

Regarding the sexual harassment factor, results showing the factor to have the weakest, though still significant, relationships with outcomes seem to be consistent with previous research. A study by Lim and Cortina (2005) found stronger correlations between interpersonal incivility and job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, withdrawal, and psychological well-being than between sexual harassment and the same outcomes. Similarly, a meta-analysis by Lapierre, Spector, and Leck (2005) found a greater effect size between nonsexual aggression and job satisfaction than between sexual aggression and satisfaction, especially among female victims. Lapierre et al. proposed that, because nonsexual aggression occurs more frequently, targets of sexual aggression are more likely to blame particular offenders for their victimization, as opposed to the organization, than victims of nonsexual aggression. The latter are more likely to at least partially blame an organization for their victimization. Such findings suggest that, in general, sexual harassment does not have consequences as severe as one might think.

Because previous research suggests that men and women perceive and react to sexual harassment differently (Rotundo, Nguyen, & Sackett, 2001), supplemental analyses were conducted to determine whether a different pattern of relationships between sexual harassment and outcomes would apply to men and women from Study 4. A comparison of Kendall's tau correlations among the variables for men and women

showed the only notable difference to occur in the relationships between harassment and the follower deviance outcomes, as the correlations among the variables were greater for men than for women [$r = .32$ ($p < .01$) vs. $r = .18$ ($p < .01$), for interpersonal deviance; $r = .27$ ($p < .01$) vs. $r = .18$ ($p < .01$), for organizational deviance; $r = .31$ ($p < .01$) vs. $r = .20$ ($p < .01$), for overall deviance]. Hierarchical regression analyses, however, did not show gender to moderate the relationships between sexual harassment and any outcome. Thus, the same pattern of relationships holds for both men and women in Study 4.

Finally regarding the sexual harassment factor, for future research using the measure of negative leader behavior, it may be beneficial to propose items to add to the factor to make it approximately equal, in terms of number of items, to the other two factors and to expand the range of harassment behaviors assessed by the factor. Studies on sexual harassment have most frequently used Fitzgerald, Shullman, Bailey, Richards, Swecker, Gold, Ormerod, and Weitzman's (1988) measure. Although Fitzgerald et al. initially intended the measure to address five categories of sexual harassment, subsequent studies have found three factors to reliably emerge from the measure, including gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion factors (Gelfand, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1995; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Glomb, Munson, Hulin, Bergman, & Drasgow, 1999).

The three sexual harassment factors are represented by the three items included in the harassment factor of the negative leader behavior measure. "Brings inappropriate material to work (e.g., pornography)" is indicative of gender harassment; "Engages in romantic and/or sexual relationships with others from work" of unwanted sexual attention; "Hints that sexual favors will result in preferential treatment" of sexual

coercion. For future research, additional items representative of each of the three

harassment factors should be added to the sexual harassment factor of the negative leader

behavior measure. From Fitzgerald et al.'s (1988) measure, "Treats subordinates

differently because of their gender" and "Makes sexually suggestive/sexist remarks,"

which reflect gender harassment, seem relevant to leadership positions. To represent

unwanted sexual attention, "Gives unwelcome sexual attention," "Attempts to touch

subordinates inappropriately," and "Makes unwanted attempts to establish a relationship"

are likely to be relevant leader behaviors. Finally, from the sexual coercion harassment

factor, "Threatens with negative consequences for not cooperating sexually" and "Treats

subordinates badly for not having sexual relations with the supervisor/leader" should be

included. Making the proposed additions to the sexual harassment factor should make it

more representative of all possible forms of harassment.

Conclusions Regarding Previous Research on Negative Leader Behavior

In addition to highlighting the complexities of the negative leader behavior

construct, the present study's findings emphasize the limitations of previous research.

Because existing constructs, such as abusive supervision, do not assess behaviors directed

at the organization or sexual harassment behaviors, they address only a portion of the

possible manifestations of negative leader behavior. Given Study 2's finding that

existing constructs map almost entirely onto subordinate-directed leader behavior

categories and the relatively strong correlation between the subordinate-directed negative

leader behavior factor and abusive supervision in Study 4, it is not surprising that the

subordinate-directed factor and abusive supervision predict outcomes almost equally as

well. This is not to question the usefulness of previously developed constructs related to

negative leader behavior as indicators of the quality of the relationship between a leader and follower, but results of Study 4 show that types of negative leader behavior not included in petty tyranny, abusive supervision, and supervisor undermining may be more valid predictors of some outcomes (e.g., follower deviance).

Besides identifying the types of negative leader behavior not addressed by previous research, the present research project has two strengths relative to existing research. First is the incorporation of a traditional scale development methodology. The adoption of such methodologies is relatively rare in research on negative workplace behavior. Among non-leader-specific constructs, Greenberg and Barling's (1999) measure of workplace aggression was not subjected to a thorough scale development process. Regarding leader-specific constructs, neither measure of the most frequently cited constructs, abusive supervision and supervisor undermining, was developed through the steps involved in the preset project. For the present project, using such a methodology not only resulted in a description of negative leader behavior that is more comprehensive than previous efforts but provided a more reliable analysis of negative leader behavior than if the inventory of behaviors had been generated through a review of previous research alone and the resulting behaviors were not subjected to multiple rounds of dimension and factor analysis, both of which are characteristics of the steps taken to develop the measure of abusive supervision.

A second strength of the present project is that it provides a single source of behaviors representative of each type of negative leader behavior. The importance of this point can be illustrated by Figure 5. The figure depicts the overlap between the behaviors included in each of the three negative leader behavior factors and behaviors included in

measures of previously researched leader- and non-leader-specific (e.g., counterproductive work behavior) constructs. The figure shows that although most organization-directed and harassment behaviors overlap with behaviors included in measures of non-leader-specific constructs and that leader-specific constructs (abusive supervision, petty tyranny, and supervisor undermining) share the greatest degree of overlap with the subordinate-directed factor, no existing construct includes all of the behaviors included in the present project's measure of negative leader behavior.

As mentioned earlier, leader-specific constructs do not address organization-directed behaviors or those with sexually-themed content. Even within subordinate-directed behavior, measures of leader-specific constructs do not include instances of withdrawing from a leader-follower relationship (e.g., "Avoids addressing important issues," "Ignores phone calls and/or emails," and "Inadequately explains performance reviews") or specific aspects of managing the administration of rewards and punishments (e.g., "Denies subordinates of things they are entitled to"). Among individual measures, that of the most frequently researched existing construct, abusive supervision, overlaps with six of the fourteen subordinate-directed negative leader behaviors and does not address, as mentioned, withdrawal from a leader-follower relationship or the management of rewards and punishments.

Non-leader-specific constructs, in general, assess a wider range of different types of negative behavior than leader-specific constructs, but behaviors included in measures of the former do not reference actions taken by leaders and do not speak to activities specific to leadership positions (e.g., "Lets violations of company policy slide," "Denies subordinated of things they are entitled to," and "Shows no clear standards for

administering rewards and punishments"). That no single previously developed measure includes the range of behaviors included in the measure of negative leader behavior and that even if previously developed measures were combined, they would not address all of the behaviors included in the negative leader behavior measure underscores the importance of providing a single source of negative workplace behaviors relevant to leadership positions.

Implications for Future Research

Future research should work toward further evaluating the differences among all negative leader behavior factors. Differences could be highlighted through two means. One would be by gathering a wider range of criteria, obtained through multiple sources, against which to validate the negative leader behavior factors. Follower job performance and organizational performance are especially relevant criteria. Because subordinate-directed behaviors include actions like discounting follower feedback and effort, being inconsistent, and failing to adequately administer rewards and punishments, they should negatively affect follower performance. Subordinate-directed behaviors are also likely to negatively affect organizational performance partly because they should lead to greater turnover among employees.

The effects of the organization-directed and sexual harassment factors on follower performance may depend on other factors, such as how strongly followers disagree with negative behaviors directed at an organization, in the case of organization-directed leader behavior, and the nature of the relationship between a leader and follower, in the case of sexual harassment behavior. Regardless of their effect on follower performance, the two factors are likely to have a negative impact on organizational performance because, as

shown by Study 4, followers of leaders who engage in organization-directed negative behavior and sexual harassment behavior are likely to engage in their own forms of costly negative behavior.

A second source of information regarding the distinctiveness of the three negative leader behavior factors would be the extent to which they have unique sets of predictors. Research on non-leader-specific forms of negative behavior suggests that behaviors directed at organizations have somewhat different predictors than those directed at individuals (e.g., Colbert et al., 2004; Lee & Allen, 2002; O'Brien & Allen, 2008). Consistent with this research, conscientiousness may better predict organization-directed negative leader behavior than subordinate-directed behavior; whereas, agreeableness may better predict subordinate-directed behavior. Also, follower characteristics, such as affect, may predict subordinate-directed and sexual harassment leader behavior similarly to how they predict abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2006) but may not predict behaviors directed at the organization.

It is important to note that previous research provides few, to say the least, explanations regarding the effects of organizational policies on individuals' engagement in negative leader behavior. More specifically, existing research offers organizations no useful advice about characteristics of leader development programs that may make individuals less likely to engage in negative leader behavior or how job characteristics (e.g., job, time, and resource demands and degree of managerial oversight) enhance or reduce the likelihood that leaders will perform negative behaviors. To be truly relevant to the effective functioning of organizations, future research should investigate the impact

of specific organizational characteristics and programs on the frequency with which leaders engage in the different types of negative behavior.

Practical Implications

Given that negative leader behavior can be reliably and validly assessed, organizations should incorporate the construct in personnel selection, appraisal, and development efforts. To avoid selecting individuals into leadership positions, the negative leader behavior measure could be included as an outcome into criterion-validity studies. For appraisal purposes, the measure could be included in 360-degree evaluation programs. Knowledge of the extent to which employees in leadership positions have engaged in negative behavior would allow organizations to know when to intervene in cases of destructive behavior or when to terminate employees who have engaged in negative behavior and being able to do so with justification. Finally, reviewing the full-range of negative behaviors generated in Study 1 with individuals in leadership positions may reduce the likelihood that individuals will engage in negative behavior in the first place by making them aware of what is considered appropriate and inappropriate conduct.

Limitations

There are several limitations associated with the present study. First is the finding of suppression in the regression analyses of Study 4. Because suppression was found, the parameter estimates found in those analyses could not be considered accurate representations of the extent to which each of the three negative leader behavior factors explain variance in follower job satisfaction, liking for leader, and turnover intentions. However, two pieces of information support the argument that the suppression resulted

from issues related to the sample and/or data collection methods rather than the negative leader behavior measure itself. First is the rarity with which suppression occurs, especially a suppression situation in which the sign of a relationship between a predictor and outcome is reversed, as was found in Study 4; such suppression is more difficult to replicate than to fail to replicate (Tzelgov & Henik, 1991).

Second, as noted earlier, the regression models that included types of follower deviance as outcomes did not show evidence of suppression. The measure of follower deviance asked participants to report their behavior while working with the leader in question; this is different from the measures of the attitudinal outcomes, which asked participants to record their subjective impressions of and attitudes toward their organizations and leaders. The finding of suppression with some outcomes but not others suggests that collecting different kinds of criteria (e.g., attitudinal vs. behavioral) through different means (e.g., objective vs. subjective; self-report vs. peer or supervisor reports) may reduce the likelihood of the occurrence of suppression in the future and make estimates of the effects of negative leader behavior more accurate.

As a second limitation, on a related note, because the survey used in Study 4 was administered at a single time, common method bias may have inflated the magnitude of the relationships among variables. A single administration time was chosen because separating components of the survey across time would not have eliminated the tendency of participants to base their responses to the leader behavior measures at least partly on the general quality of their experience at work while with a particular leader. In addition, because participants did not have to complete Study 4's measures in response to their current leader, those who completed the survey in regard to someone with whom they

previously worked may have forgotten which leader they chose to complete the first portion of the survey in regard to before participating in future survey administrations. Thus, despite the potential issues associated with a one-time survey administration, it was judged to be the most appropriate method of collecting data for Study 4.

Another limitation tied to the method of collecting data across Studies 2, 3, and 4 is the inducement of variance in responses by referencing extremes of participants' experiences with leaders. This was done in order to make the distinct dimensions and factors of negative leader behavior and their relationships with outcomes more visible, especially given the low baserate-frequency of many of the behaviors of interest in the present study. As with common method bias though, inducing variability in scores can inflate estimates of the relationships between variables. Although the same general conclusions may apply to every-day working environments, in which extremes of effectiveness and ineffectiveness are rarer, the strength of the relationships found in Study 4 may not be as great. Future research should test the extent to which findings from the present study apply to a day-to-day working environment.

Finally, the lack of an organizational sample, especially for Study 4, made assessing the degree and effects of convergence among followers' ratings of the same leader impossible. Doing so would speak to the extent to which people in leadership positions engage in negative subordinate-directed and sexual harassment behavior on a dyadic leader-follower level versus engaging in the same behaviors consistently across groups of followers. Also, by creating a measure of convergence in followers' ratings, Study 4 could have assigned a more accurate number to leaders' engagement in each type of negative behavior relative to relying on reports from a sole follower. To date, only one

known study by Detert, Treviño, Burris, and Andiappan (2007) has investigated the effects of abusive supervision at a work-unit level. In the future, research should examine issues related to convergence in followers' ratings of negative leader behavior.

Summary

Despite the importance of understanding negative leadership, emphasized by the frequency with which it occurs and the destructive effects it has on individual and organizational outcomes, previous research has addressed the topic in a haphazard manner. Rather than working toward developing a better understanding of the general nature of negative leader behavior, existing research has focused on constructs that represent specific types of negative leader behavior. The present project intended to provide a starting point for studying negative leader behavior at a broad level by identifying the structure of the behaviors, creating a measure of them, and providing evidence of that measure's validity. Through accomplishing its objectives, the present study has reached important conclusions regarding negative leader behavior and has implications for future research and practice on the popular and important topic of negative leadership.

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Appendix: Tables and Figures

Table 1

Neuman and Baron's (2005) behavioral examples of aggression based on Buss's (1961) dimensions

Dimensions	Behavioral Examples
Physical, active, and direct	Nonfatal assaults Making hostile gestures
Physical, active, and indirect	Theft Destruction of resources needed by others
Physical, passive, and direct	Intentionally slowing down work Refusing to provide needed resources
Physical, passive, and indirect	Failing to protect a target's welfare Denying a raise without reason
Verbal, active, and direct	Making threats and insults Yelling at a target
Verbal, active, and indirect	Taking credit for others' work Spreading rumors
Verbal, passive, and direct	Giving the silent treatment Refusing requests
Verbal, passive, and indirect	Failing to defend a target Failing to provide a target with needed feedback

Table 2

Sample characteristics for Study 1

Characteristic	Personal Contacts & Program Alumni (N=97)	Undergraduates (N=113)
Age		
Mean	38.97	20.05
SD	10.93	1.90
Gender		
Male	51.1%	31.6%
Female	48.9%	68.4%
Ethnicity		
African-American	2.2%	5.1%
American Indian	-	1.3%
Asian	5.5%	6.3%
Caucasian	90.1%	77.2%
Hispanic	2.2%	5.1%
Other	-	5.1%
Years Worked		
Mean	19.65	-
SD	11.59	-
Years at Current Position		
Mean	4.97	1.86
SD	6.19	1.99
Hours Worked/Week		
Mean	41.29	23.63
SD	11.93	12.69
Industry of Work		
Healthcare	6.7%	4.2%
Manufacturing	2.2%	4.2%
Government	16.9%	5.6%
Agriculture, Mining, or Construction	2.2%	4.2%
Trade	6.7%	18.1%
Transportation & Utilities	3.4%	-
Information	9.0%	4.2%
Finance Activities	5.6%	2.8%
Professional & Business Services	20.2%	4.2%
Education	24.7%	12.5%
Leisure & Hospitality	2.2%	40.3%

Table 3

List of negative leader behaviors generated in Study 1

Accepts financial kick-backs	Fails to act on reports of sexual misconduct of subordinates	Leaves accidents/mistakes for others to clean up	*Sends signals or hints that subordinates should quit their job
Asks for sexual favors in return for preferential treatment	Fails to defend subordinates from attacks by others	Leaves own work for others to complete	Shows no clear standards for administering rewards and punishments
Assigns demeaning tasks	*Fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort	Lets violations of company policy slide	*Spends too much time on non-work activities while at work
Avoids addressing important issues	Fails to help subordinates when they need it	Lies	Steals company funds
Belittles others behind their backs	Fails to protect subordinates' welfare/personal safety	*Litters the work environment	Steals company property/resources
Breaks the law while at work	Fails to set goals for subordinates	*Looks through subordinates' private mail/property without permission	Steals from subordinates
Brings inappropriate material to work (e.g., pornography)	Falsely accuses or punishes subordinates for something they were not responsible for	Makes inappropriate comments of a sexual nature to others	Subverts subordinates' authority
Creates tension/conflict among subordinates	Falsifies documents (e.g., expense reports, billable hours)	Makes inappropriate physical contact	Swears at subordinates
Damages company property	*Flaunts his/her status over subordinates in a condescending manner	Makes jokes at the expense of others	Takes credit for others' work
*Demeans subordinates	Flip flops on decisions	*Makes obscene gestures (e.g., the finger) to subordinates	*Tells people outside the job what a lousy place he works for
Denies subordinates of things they are entitled to (e.g., lunch breaks, vacation time)	*Forges documents	Makes offensive remarks	Tells subordinates they are doing a good job and then gives them poor evaluations
*Disciplines for poor performance or rule infractions more than he praises good performance	Gives more rewards or punishments to some than others for the same work	Makes subordinates help the leader with a personal issue of his	Tells subordinates to do something and then criticizes them for their actions

Table 3 (continued)

*Disciplines subordinates a long time after the rule infraction occurs	Gives the most prized assignments to favorite employees	Makes threats, but not of a physical nature	Threatens with physical violence
Discounts feedback or advice from subordinates	Gives the silent treatment to express displeasure	Makes unreasonable demands of subordinates	Throws objects at subordinates
Discusses inappropriate personal information with others	Gossips	*Misuses employee discount privileges	*Throws things (but not at others) or smashes things
Does special favors for friends/family at the expense of the organization	Ignores phone calls and/or emails	Physically assaults subordinates (e.g., hitting, shoving)	Tries to please everyone
Drinks at work	Inadequately explains performance reviews	Punishes subordinates without explaining why	*Uses bribery
Encourages subordinates to violate company policy	Insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others	Pursues a career advancement opportunity at the expense of his/her current job	Uses company property for personal use
Endangers the physical well-being of subordinates	*Interrupts subordinates when they are speaking	Puts his own career ahead of what is good for his group or the organization	Uses drugs at work
Engages in romantic and/or sexual relationships with others from work	Invades subordinates' privacy	*Puts little effort into his work	Uses punishments that don't match the violation/error
*Exaggerates the size of subordinates' errors and weaknesses	Is away from work without sufficient justification	*Reminds subordinates of their past mistakes and failures	Violates company policy/rules
Excessively controls and/or monitors subordinates	Is confrontational when interacting with subordinates	Requires subordinates to compete for his/her attention	Withholds important information
*Excludes some subordinates from the social aspects of work without sufficient justification	Is rude to customers/clients	Says one thing and does another	Yells at subordinates

* Behaviors taken from existing measures or concepts.

Table 4

Stress values associated with dimensions 1 through 6

Number of Dimensions	Stress Value	Reduction in Stress Value
1	.3013	
2	.1617	.1396
3	.1091	.0526
4	.0895	.0196
5	.0720	.0175
6	.0605	.0115

Table 5

Behavior-dimension scores for the three-dimensional solution

Behavior	Dimension 1 Score	Dimension 2 Score	Dimension 3 Score
Accepts financial kickbacks	2.30	-1.16	-0.82
Asks for sexual favors in return for preferential treatment	0.77	-2.05	0.08
Assigns demeaning tasks	-1.51	-0.05	-0.13
Avoids addressing important issues	-0.52	1.91	0.07
Belittles others behind their backs	-0.68	-0.26	1.09
Breaks the law while at work	2.26	-0.82	-1.07
Brings inappropriate material to work (e.g., pornography)	0.67	-0.70	1.64
Creates tension/conflict among subordinates	-1.27	0.10	0.04
Damages company property	2.53	-0.57	-0.55
Demeans subordinates	-1.22	-0.49	0.20
Denies subordinates of things they are entitled to (e.g., lunch breaks, vacation time)	-0.69	-0.48	-0.46
Disciplines for poor performance or rule infractions more than he praises good performance	-1.41	0.55	-0.36
Disciplines subordinates a long time after the rule infraction occurs	-1.45	0.40	-0.59
Discounts feedback or advice from subordinates	-1.15	0.36	0.28
Discusses inappropriate personal information with others	-0.33	-0.41	1.34
Does special favors for friends/family at the expense of the organization	1.76	0.67	-0.72
Drinks at work	1.81	-0.01	1.13
Encourages subordinates to violate policy	0.96	-0.18	-1.28
Endangers the physical well-being of subordinates	0.02	-1.08	-0.98
Engages in romantic and/or sexual relationships with others from work	0.42	-0.72	1.62
Exaggerates the size of subordinates' errors and weaknesses	-1.30	0.00	0.28
Excessively controls and/or monitors subordinates	-1.40	0.11	-0.29
Excludes some subordinates from the social aspects of work without sufficient justification	-1.37	0.11	-0.05
Fails to act on reports of sexual misconduct of subordinates	0.13	-1.13	-0.31
Fails to defend subordinates from attacks by others	-1.13	-0.20	-0.46
Fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort	-1.47	0.47	-0.42
Fails to help subordinates when they need it	-1.11	0.49	-0.21

Table 5 (continued)

Behavior	Dimension 1 Score	Dimension 2 Score	Dimension 3 Score
Fails to protect subordinates' welfare/personal safety	-0.57	-0.29	-1.03
Fails to set goals for subordinates	-1.26	0.38	-0.74
Falsely accuses or punishes subordinates for something they were not responsible for	-0.94	-0.42	-0.55
Falsifies documents	2.31	-0.93	-0.89
Flaunts his/her status over subordinates in a condescending manner	-1.30	0.14	0.34
Flip flops on decisions	-0.79	1.63	-0.16
Forges documents	2.16	-1.07	-0.84
Gives more rewards or punishments to some than others for the same work	-1.44	0.39	-0.07
Gives the most prized assignments to favorite employees	-1.35	0.37	-0.37
Gives the silent treatment to express displeasure	-1.02	0.03	0.76
Gossips	-0.57	0.15	1.41
Ignores phone calls and/or emails	0.68	1.22	0.84
Inadequately explains performance reviews	-1.16	0.74	-1.07
Insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others	-1.23	-0.51	0.34
Interrupts subordinates when they are speaking	-1.30	-0.22	0.36
Invades subordinates' privacy	-0.89	-0.45	0.46
Is away from work without sufficient justification	1.83	1.25	0.00
Is confrontational when interacting with subordinates	-1.29	-0.55	0.24
Is rude to customers/clients	0.69	0.77	1.31
Leaves accidents/mistakes for others to clean up	0.11	0.94	0.75
Leaves own work for others to complete	0.05	1.35	0.17
Lets violations of company policy slide	1.30	0.79	-1.16
Lies	1.80	0.17	1.02
Litters the work environment	2.03	0.54	0.97
Looks through subordinates' private mail/property without permission	-0.31	-0.72	-0.32
Makes inappropriate comments of a sexual nature to others	0.01	-1.05	1.52
Makes inappropriate physical contact	0.19	-1.63	0.83
Makes jokes at the expense of others	-0.73	0.10	1.16
Makes obscene gestures (e.g., the finger) to subordinates	-0.48	-1.26	0.58
Makes offensive remarks	0.34	-0.24	1.38

Table 5 (continued)

Behavior	Dimension 1 Score	Dimension 2 Score	Dimension 3 Score
Makes subordinates help the leader with a personal issue of his	-0.86	-0.46	-0.29
Makes threats, but not of a physical nature	-1.12	-0.42	0.06
Makes unreasonable demands of subordinates	-1.28	-0.23	0.02
Misuses employee discount privileges	2.33	0.15	-0.44
Physically assaults subordinates (e.g., hitting, shoving)	0.26	-1.85	-0.65
Punishes subordinates without explaining why	-1.33	0.27	-0.42
Pursues a career advancement opportunity at the expense of his/her current job	1.60	1.40	-0.28
Puts his own career ahead of what is good for his group or the organization	1.20	1.40	-0.54
Puts little effort into his work	1.27	1.81	0.47
Reminds subordinates of their past mistakes and failures	-1.28	-0.20	0.08
Requires subordinates to compete for his/her attention	-1.20	0.24	-0.37
Says one thing and does another	-0.05	1.60	0.24
Sends signals or hints that subordinates should quit their job	-1.29	-0.28	0.04
Shows no clear standards for administering rewards and punishments	-1.44	0.71	-0.46
Spends too much time on non-work activities while at work	1.76	1.47	0.01
Steals company funds	2.48	-0.99	-0.97
Steals company property and resources	2.49	-0.94	-0.96
Steals from subordinates	1.22	-1.10	-0.58
Subverts subordinates' authority	-1.17	-0.11	-0.39
Swears at subordinates	-1.14	-0.42	0.18
Takes credit for others' work	-0.01	0.65	0.23
Tells people outside the job what a lousy place he works for	0.92	0.91	1.14
Tells subordinates they are doing a good job and then gives them poor evaluations	-1.27	0.21	-0.51
Tells subordinates to do something and then criticizes them for their actions	-1.28	0.19	-0.49
Threatens with physical violence	0.51	-1.62	-0.44
Throws objects at subordinates	-0.07	-1.86	-0.54
Throws things (but not at others) or smashes things	1.65	-0.22	0.96
Tries to please everyone	0.17	2.12	0.16
Uses bribery	1.67	-0.82	-0.63
Uses company property for personal use	1.94	0.36	-1.11
Uses drugs at work	2.13	-0.54	0.78

Table 5 (continued)

Behavior	Dimension 1 Score	Dimension 2 Score	Dimension 3 Score
Uses punishments that don't match the violation/error	-1.36	0.55	-0.11
Violates company policy/rules	1.73	1.15	-0.52
Withholds important information	-0.44	0.95	0.04
Yells at subordinates	-1.19	-0.56	-0.02

Table 6

Behaviors included in the eight negative leader behavior categories

Organization Directed				Subordinate Directed			
Insidiously-Damaging		Immediately-Damaging		Insidiously-Damaging		Immediately-Damaging	
Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating
Ignores phone calls/email	Does special favors for friends/family at the expense of the organization	Asks for sexual favors in return for preferential treatment	Accepts financial kickbacks	Avoids addressing important issues	Disciplines for poor performance or rule infractions more than he praises good performance	Belittles others behind their backs	Assigns demeaning tasks
Is away from work without sufficient justification	Lets violations of company policy slide	Brings inappropriate material to work (e.g., pornography)	Breaks the law while at work	Creates tension/conflict among subordinates	Disciplines subordinates a long time after the rule infraction occurs	Demeans subordinates	Denies subordinates of things they are entitled to (e.g., lunch breaks, vacation time)
Is rude to customers/clients	Misuses employee discount privileges	Drinks at work	Damages company property	Discounts feedback or advice from subordinates		Discusses inappropriate personal information with others	
Leaves accidents/mistakes for others to clean up	Pursues a career advancement opportunity at the expense of his/her current job	Engages in romantic and/or sexual relationships with others from work	Encourages subordinates to violate policy	Flaunts his/her status over subordinates in a condescending manner	Excessively controls/monitors subordinates	Exaggerates the size of subordinates' errors and weaknesses	Fails to defend subordinates from attacks by others
Leaves own work for others to complete			Endangers the physical well-being of subordinates		Excludes some subordinates from the social aspects of work without sufficient justification	Insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others	Fails to protect subordinates' welfare/personal safety
Lies	Puts his own career ahead of what is good for his group or the organization	Makes inappropriate comments of a sexual nature to others	Fails to act on reports of sexual misconduct of subordinates	Gives the silent treatment to express displeasure		Interrupts subordinates when they are speaking	Falsely accuses or punishes subordinates for something they were not responsible for
Litters the work environment				Gossips	Fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort		
Puts little effort into his work		Makes inappropriate physical contact	Falsifies documents	Makes jokes at the expense of others		Invades subordinates' privacy	Looks through subordinates' private mail/property without permission
Spends too much time on non-work activities while at work	Uses company property for personal use	Makes offensive remarks	Forges documents	Says one thing and does another	Fails to help subordinates when they need it		

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Table 6 (continued)

Organization Directed				Subordinate Directed			
Insidiously-Damaging		Immediately-Damaging		Insidiously-Damaging		Immediately-Damaging	
Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating
Tells people outside the job what a lousy place he works for Tries to please everyone	Violates company policy/rules	Throws things (but not at others) or smashes things Uses drugs at work	Physically assaults subordinates (e.g., hitting, shoving) Steals company funds Steals company property and resources Steals from subordinates Threatens with physical violence Uses bribery	Takes credit for other's work Withholds important information	Fails to set goals for subordinates Flip flops on decisions Gives more rewards or punishments to some than others for the same work Gives the most prized assignments to favorite employees Inadequately explains performance reviews Punishes subordinates without explaining why Requires subordinates to compete for his/her attention Shows no clear standards for administering rewards and punishments	Is confrontational when interacting with subordinates Makes obscene gestures (e.g., middle finger) to subordinates Makes threats, but not of a physical nature Makes unreasonable demands of subordinates Reminds subordinates of their past mistakes and failures Sends signals or hints that subordinates should quit their job Swears at subordinates	Makes subordinates help the leader with a personal issue of his Subverts subordinates' authority Throws objects at subordinates Yells at Subordinates

Table 6 (continued)

Organization Directed				Subordinate Directed			
Insidiously-Damaging		Immediately-Damaging		Insidiously-Damaging		Immediately-Damaging	
Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating	Norm-Violating	Rule-Violating
					Tells sub-ordinates they are doing a good job and then gives them poor evaluations Tells subordin-ates to do something and then criticizes them for their actions Uses punish-ments that don't match the violation/error		

Table 7

40-item measure of negative leader behavior created in Study 2

Ignores phone calls and/or email
Is rude to customers/clients
Litters the work environment
Puts little effort into his/her work
Tells people outside the job what a lousy place he/she works for
Does special favors for friends/family at the expense of the organization
Lets violations of company policy slide
Puts his/her own career ahead of what is good for his/her group or the organization
Uses company property for personal use
Violates company policy/rules
[a]At times appears to be under the influence of alcohol or recreational drugs while at work
Brings inappropriate material to work (e.g., pornography)
Engages in romantic and/or sexual relationships with others from work
[b]Hints that sexual favors will result in preferential treatment
Throws things (but not at others) or smashes things
Accepts financial kickbacks
Breaks the law while at work
Falsifies documents
Steals company funds
Steals company property and resources
Avoids addressing important issues
Discounts feedback or advice from subordinates
Gossips
Makes jokes at the expense of others
Says one thing and does another
Disciplines subordinates a long time after the rule infraction occurs
Fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
Fails to set goals for subordinates
Inadequately explains performance reviews
Shows no clear standards for administering rewards and punishments
Discusses inappropriate personal information with others
Insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others
Invades subordinates' privacy
Is confrontational when interacting with subordinates
Makes obscene gestures (e.g., the finger) to subordinates
Denies subordinates of things they are entitle to (e.g., lunch breaks, vacation time)
Fails to defend subordinates from attack by others
Fails to protect subordinates' welfare/personal safety
Falsely accuses or punishes subordinates for something they were not responsible for
Throws objects at subordinates

[a] Reworded from "Uses drugs at work" to make behavior more consistent with category
[b] Reworded from "Asks for sexual favors in return for preferential treatment" to make behavior more consistent with category

Table 8

Results of dimension label-dimension score regression analysis

Dimension Label Predictor	Outcome		
	Dimension 1 Scores	Dimension 2 Scores	Dimension 3 Scores
Malignant/Incompetent	-.16	-.12	-.52**
Organization-directed/Subordinate-directed	.25	-.24	.11
Physical/Verbal	-.50**	.00	.11
Serious/Not serious	.15	.42	-.05
Violation of formal, clearly prescribed rules/Violation of less clear norms for behavior	.17	-.17	.40*

Note. Numbers represent standardized beta coefficients
* p < .05
** p < .01

Table 9

Mapping of previously studied constructs onto the eight negative leader behavior categories

Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 3	Factors/measures that map onto category	Leader-specific constructs mapping onto category
Organization-Directed	Insidiously-Damaging	Norm-Violating	Personalized leadership; Abuse (CWBC); Misuse of time and resources (G&S); NAQ; Organizational deviance (R&B); Sabotage (CWBC); Physical, passive, & direct (Buss); Poor attendance (G&S); Verbal, passive, & direct (Buss); Withdrawal (CWBC)	Personalized leadership
		Rule-Violating	Theft (G&S)	No
	Immediately-Damaging	Norm-Violating	Abuse (CWBC); Alcohol use (G&S); Interpersonal deviance (R&B); Organizational deviance (R&B); Psychological aggression (WA); Verbal, active, & direct (Buss)	No
		Rule-Violating	Abuse (CWBC); Destruction of property (G&S); F&S; Inappropriate physical actions (G&S); Misuse of information (G&S); NAQ; Organizational deviance (R&B); Physical, active, & indirect (Buss); Sabotage (CWBC); Theft (CWBC); Theft (G&S); Unsafe behavior (G&S); Violence (WA)	No
Subordinate-Directed	Insidiously-Damaging	Norm-Violating	Abusive supervision; Supervisor undermining; Discouraging initiative (PT); Forcing conflict resolution (PT); Personalized leadership; Ethical leadership; Laissez-faire; Abuse (CWBC); F&S; Interpersonal deviance (R&B); Misuse of information (G&S); NAQ; Physical, active, & indirect (Buss); Physical, passive, & direct (Buss); Psychological aggression (WA); Verbal, active, & indirect (Buss); Verbal, passive, & direct (Buss); Verbal, passive, & indirect (Buss)	Abusive supervision, Supervisor undermining, Petty tyranny, Personalized leadership, Ethical leadership, Laissez-faire leadership
		Rule-Violating	Abusive supervision; Arbitrariness & self-aggrandizement (PT); Non-contingent punishment (PT); Laissez-faire; MBE-Active; F&S; NAQ; Physical, passive, & direct (Buss); Verbal, active, & direct (Buss); Verbal, passive, & indirect (Buss)	Abusive supervision, Petty tyranny, Laissez-faire, Management-by-exception (Active)

Table 9 (continued)

Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 3	Factors/measures that map onto category	Leader-specific constructs mapping onto category
Subordinate-Directed	Immediately-Damaging	Norm-Violating	Abusive supervision; Supervisor undermining; Belittling subordinates (PT); Abuse (CWBC); F&S; Inappropriate verbal actions (G&S); Interpersonal deviance (R&B); NAQ; Physical, active, & direct (Buss); Psychological aggression (WA); Verbal, active, & direct (Buss); Verbal, active, & indirect (Buss); Violence (WA)	Abusive supervision, Supervisor undermining, Petty tyranny
		Rule-Violating	Supervisor undermining; Belittling subordinates (PT); Lack of consideration (PT); Abuse (CWBC); NAQ; Physical, active, & direct (Buss); Physical, active, & indirect (Buss); Physical, passive, & indirect (Buss); Psychological aggression (WA); Verbal, passive, indirect (Buss); Violence (WA)	Supervisor undermining, Petty tyranny

Note. Abusive supervision = Tepper's (2000) measure; Buss = Buss's (1961) typology of aggressive behaviors, using the behaviors applied to work by Neuman and Baron (2005); CWBC = Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (Fox & Spector, 2002); Ethical leadership = Brown, Treviño, and Harrison's (2005) measure; F&S = Fox and Stallworth (2005); G&S = Gruys and Sackett (2003); Laissez-faire and MBE-Active items taken from example MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1990) items; NAQ = Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001); Personalized leadership = Popper's (2002) measure; PT = Petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1987); R&B = Bennett and Robinson (2000); Supervisor undermining = Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon (2002); WA = Strauss's (1979) workplace aggression measure

Table 10

Sample characteristics for Study 3

Characteristic	Statistic
Age	
Mean	39.67
SD	13.65
Gender	
Male	33.2%
Female	65.6%
Ethnicity	
African-American	1.7%
American Indian	0.5%
Asian	4.4%
Caucasian	86.3%
Hispanic	2.4%
Other	2.9%
Years Worked	
Mean	19.95
SD	13.19
Number of Years Participant Worked with a Focal Leader	
Mean	3.48
SD	4.02
Experience in a Supervisory Position	
Yes	70.7%
No	27.3%
Industry of Work	
Healthcare	8.5%
Manufacturing	5.9%
Government	6.3%
Agriculture, Mining, or Construction	3.9%
Trade	5.9%
Transportation & Utilities	2.2%
Information	6.1%
Finance Activities	4.9%
Professional & Business Services	14.9%
Education	20.7%
Leisure & Hospitality	7.8%
Military	1.0%
Currently Unemployed	9.0%

Table 11

Results of Study 3's CFA

Model	Scaled χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	SRMR	Δ df	Δ Scaled χ^2
Final, 3 factor model	1876.83**	662	0.07	0.96	0.93	.10		
8 factors	1852.01**	712	0.07	0.96	0.94	.09	22	319.61*
4 factors[a]	2171.62**	734	0.07	0.95	0.93	.11	5	567.12*
4 factors[b]	2574.85**	734	0.08	0.94	0.92	.11		
4 factors[c]	3993.42**	734	0.11	0.90	0.88	.11		
2 factors[d]	2738.74**	739	0.09	0.94	0.92	.11	1	1722.12*
2 factors[e]	4046.57**	739	0.11	0.89	0.87	.11		
2 factors[f]	4431.27**	739	0.12	0.88	0.86	.11		
1 factor	4460.86**	740	0.12	0.88	0.86	.11		

[a] Subordinate-directed/Insidiously-damaging, Subordinate-directed/Immediately-damaging, Organization-directed/Insidiously-damaging, Organization-directed/Immediately-damaging factors
[b] Subordinate-directed/Norm-violating, Subordinate-directed/Rule-violating, Organization-directed/Norm-violating, Organization-directed/Rule-violating factors
[c] Insidiously-damaging/Norm-violating, Insidiously-damaging/Rule-violating, Immediately-damaging/Norm-violating, Immediately-damaging/Rule-violating factors
[d] Subordinate-directed and Organization-directed factors
[e] Insidiously-damaging and Immediately-damaging factors
[f] Norm-violating and Rule-violating factors
Note. Scaled χ^2 = Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square test statistic; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual

Table 12

Factors, Behaviors, and Factor Loadings Resulting from Study 3's CFA

Subordinate-Directed Behavior (α=0.92)			
Avoids addressing important issues	0.61	Gossips	0.53
Denies subordinates of things they are entitled to (e.g., lunch breaks, vacation time)	0.61	Inadequately explains performance reviews	0.74
Disciplines subordinates a long time after the rule infraction occurs	0.72	Insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others	0.79
Discounts feedback or advice from subordinates	0.77	Invades subordinates' privacy	0.67
Discusses inappropriate personal information with others	0.57	Is confrontational when interacting with subordinates	0.69
Fails to defend subordinates from attacks by others	0.76	Makes jokes at the expense of others	0.56
Fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort	0.79	Says one thing and does another	0.76
Fails to protect subordinates' welfare/personal safety	0.64	Shows no clear standards for administering rewards and punishments	0.79
Fails to set goals for subordinates	0.55	Throws objects at subordinates	0.37
Falsely accuses or punishes subordinates for something they were not responsible for	0.77		
Organization-Directed Behavior (α=0.88)			
Accepts financial kickbacks	0.47	Litters the work environment	0.52
At times appears to be under the influence of alcohol or recreational drugs while at work	0.52	Puts little effort into his work	0.66
Breaks the law while at work	0.63	Steals company funds	0.77
Does special favors for friends/family at the expense of the organization	0.64	Steals company property and resources	0.85
Falsifies documents	0.74	Tells people outside the job what a lousy place he works for	0.51
Ignores phone calls and/or emails	0.52	Throws things (but not at others) or smashes things	0.53
Is rude to customers/clients	0.50	Uses company property for personal use	0.79
Lets violations of company policy slide	0.74	Violates company policy/rules	0.85
Sexual Harassment Behavior (α=0.64)			
Brings inappropriate material to work (e.g., pornography)	0.62	Hints that sexual favors will result in preferential treatment	0.99
Engages in romantic and/or sexual relationships with others from work	0.74		

Table 13

Sample characteristics for Study 4

Characteristic	Statistic
Age	
Mean	38.26
SD	14.05
Gender	
Male	42.2%
Female	57.8%
Ethnicity	
African-American	3.2%
American Indian	-
Asian	8.4%
Caucasian	78.6%
Hispanic	4.9%
Other	4.3%
Years Worked	
Mean	18.91
SD	13.31
Number of Years Participant Worked with a Focal Leader	
Mean	3.22
SD	3.40
Experience in a Supervisory Position	
Yes	69.9%
No	29.6%
Industry of Work	
Healthcare	10.1%
Manufacturing	8.1%
Government	9.0%
Agriculture, Mining, or Construction	1.4%
Trade	6.2%
Transportation & Utilities	3.0%
Information	6.9%
Finance Activities	4.2%
Professional & Business Services	16.0%
Education	13.0%
Leisure & Hospitality	9.0%
Military	0.7%
Currently Unemployed	11.3%
Completed Survey in Response to	
Effective Leader	48.4%
Ineffective Leader	51.6%

Table 14

Final measure of negative leader behavior used in Study 4

Subordinate-Directed Behavior	Factor Loadings
Avoids addressing important issues	0.62
Denies subordinates of things they are entitled to (e.g., lunch breaks, vacation time)	0.58
Disciplines subordinates a long time after the rule infraction occurs	0.57
Discounts feedback or advice from subordinates	0.63
Fails to defend subordinates form attacks by others	0.62
Fails to give subordinates credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort	0.65
Falsely accuses or punishes subordinates for something they were not responsible for	0.63
Ignores phone calls and/or email	0.56
Inadequately explains performance reviews	0.60
Insults or criticizes subordinates in front of others	0.63
Invades subordinates' privacy	0.62
Is confrontational when interacting with subordinates	0.63
Says one thing and does another	0.65
Shows no clear standards for administering rewards and punishments	0.64
Organization-Directed Behavior	
Accepts financial kickbacks	0.60
At times appears to be under the influence of alcohol or recreational drugs while at work	0.61
Breaks the law while at work	0.61
Falsifies documents	0.62
Lets violations of company policy slide	0.56
Litters the work environment	0.57
Steals company funds	0.67
Steals company property and resources	0.66
Tells people outside the job what a lousy place he works for	0.52
Uses company property for personal use	0.61
Violates company policy/rules	0.61
Sexual Harassment Behavior	
Brings inappropriate material to work (e.g., pornography)	0.71
Engages in romantic and/or sexual relationships with others from work	0.59
Hints that sexual favors will result in preferential treatment	0.63
CFA Output: Scaled $\chi^2(347)$=728.10 RMSEA=.07 CFI=.99 NFI=.98 SRMR=.04	

Table 15

Pearson correlation matrix for study 4 variables

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	38.26	14.05	-													
2. Work experience (years)	18.91	13.31	.90**	-												
3. Time with leader (years)	3.22	3.40	.32**	.29**	-											
4. Job satisfaction	3.53	1.11	.08*	.09*	.07†	(.94)										
5. Liking of Leader	3.38	1.12	-.05	-.05	.04	.64**	(.92)									
6. Turnover intent.	2.57	1.32	-.07†	-.05	-.02	-.59**	-.49**	(.89)								
7. Follower int. deviance	1.67	.89	-.21**	-.18**	.02	-.13**	-.12**	.19**	(.81)							
8. Follower org. deviance	1.87	.92	-.17**	-.16**	.05	-.31**	-.27**	.27**	.65**	(.86)						
9. Overall follower deviance	1.80	.83	-.20**	-.19**	.04	-.27**	-.24**	.26**	.85**	.95**	(.90)					
10. Abusive Sup.	1.69	.84	.06	.08*	.09*	-.52**	-.67**	.53**	.31**	.41**	.41**	(.94)				
11. Sub. NLB	2.10	1.07	.13**	.17**	.10**	-.52**	-.68**	.51**	.31**	.43**	.42**	.81**	(.96)			
12. Org. NLB	1.48	.70	-.01	.03	.12**	-.28**	-.39**	.32**	.41**	.45**	.48**	.62**	.68**	(.91)		
13. SH NLB	1.23	.61	-.07†	-.04	.13**	-.10*	-.19**	.13**	.37**	.36**	.40**	.35**	.40**	.68**	(.80)	
14. NLB	1.76	.79	.08*	.13**	.12**	-.46**	-.61**	.47**	.39**	.48**	.49**	.80**	.95**	.87**	.59**	(.96)

Note. $N = 670$. Follower int. deviance = Follower interpersonal deviance; Follower org. deviance = Follower organizational deviance; Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; NLB = Negative leader behavior
† $p < .10$
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 16

Kendall's tau correlation matrix for study 4 variables

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	38.26	14.05	-													
2. Work experience (years)	18.91	13.31	.76**	-												
3. Time with leader (years)	3.22	3.40	.27**	.26**	-											
4. Job satisfaction	3.53	1.11	.06*	.07*	.10**	(.94)										
5. Liking of Leader	3.38	1.12	-.03	-.03	.05†	.51**	(.92)									
6. Turnover intent.	2.57	1.32	-.05†	-.04	-.05†	-.45**	-.37**	(.89)								
7. Follower int. deviance	1.67	.89	-.10**	-.09**	.03	-.14**	-.15**	.15**	(.81)							
8. Follower org. deviance	1.87	.92	-.08**	-.08**	.01	-.25**	-.24**	.20**	.45**	(.86)						
9. Overall follower deviance	1.80	.83	-.10**	-.09**	.01	-.23**	-.23**	.21**	.64**	.85**	(.90)					
10. Abusive sup.	1.69	.84	.04	.05†	.04	-.41**	-.54**	.41**	.29**	.34**	.36**	(.94)				
11. Sub. NLB	2.10	1.07	.10**	.13**	.05†	-.38**	-.51**	.36**	.30**	.37**	.38**	.69**	(.96)			
12. Org. NLB	1.48	.70	.02	.06*	.05†	-.24**	-.34**	.27**	.35**	.40**	.41**	.50**	.58**	(.91)		
13. SH NLB	1.23	.61	-.03	-.03	.08**	-.11**	-.18**	.15**	.26**	.23**	.26**	.32**	.31**	.42**	(.80)	
14. NLB	1.76	.79	.08**	.10**	.05†	-.36**	-.49**	.35**	.34**	.41**	.42**	.67**	.90**	.70**	.39**	(.96)

Note. $N = 670$. Follower int. deviance = Follower interpersonal deviance; Follower org. deviance = Follower organizational deviance; Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; NLB = Negative leader behavior

† $p < .10$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 17

Follower job satisfaction regressed on control variables and negative leader behavior factors and overall scores

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2 (separate NLB factors)			Model 2 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.00	.01	-.04	-.01	.01	-.08	-.01	.01	-.14†
Work experience (years)	.01	.01	.10	.02	.01	.25**	.02	.01	.25**
Time with leader (years)	.01	.01	.04	.02	.01	.05	.03	.01	.09*
Sub. NLB				-.66	.05	-.67**			
Org. NLB				.08	.06	.08			
SH NLB				.11	.04	.11*			
Overall NLB							-.50	.04	-.50**
R^2		.01			.33**			.25**	
Adjusted R^2		.00			.33			.24	
$\triangle R^2$					.32**			.24**	
df (regression, residual)		3, 654			3, 651			1, 653	

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
† p < .10
* p < .05
** p < .01

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Table 18

Follower liking for leader regressed on control variables and negative leader behavior factors and overall scores

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2 (separate NLB factors)			Model 2 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.01	.01	-.11	-.01	.01	-.18**	-.02	.01	-.24**
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.03	.02	.01	.22**	.02	.01	.22**
Time with leader (years)	.02	.01	.06	.03	.01	.09**	.04	.01	.13**
Sub. NLB				-.78	.04	-.78**			
Org. NLB				.09	.05	.09†			
SH NLB				.04	.04	.04			
Overall NLB							-.64	.03	-.64**
R^2		.01			.49**			.41**	
Adjusted R^2		.00			.49			.40	
$\triangle R^2$					.49**			.40**	
df (regression, residual)		3, 654			3, 651			1, 653	

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
$\dagger$ p < .10
* p < .05
** p < .01

Table 19

Follower turnover intentions regressed on control variables and negative leader behavior factors and overall scores

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2 (separate NLB factors)			Model 2 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.01	.01	-.08	-.00	.01	-.02	.00	.01	.03
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.01	-.10	.01	-.13	-.01	.01	-.13
Time with leader (years)	.00	.01	.01	-.00	.01	-.01	-.01	.01	-.04
Sub. NLB				.54	.05	.55**			
Org. NLB				.03	.06	.03			
SH NLB				-.11	.05	-.11*			
Overall NLB							.48	.04	.48**
R^2		.00			.27**			.23**	
Adjusted R^2		-.00			.27			.22	
$\triangle R^2$					.27**			.22**	
df (regression, residual)		3, 654			3, 651			1, 653	

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
† $p < .10$
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 20

Follower interpersonal deviance regressed on control variables and negative leader behavior factors and overall scores

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2 (separate NLB factors)			Model 2 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.02	.01	-.26**	-.01	.01	-.14†	-.01	.01	-.17*
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.03	-.01	.01	-.09	-.01	.01	-.09
Time with leader (years)	.03	.01	.09*	.01	.01	.04	.02	.01	.05
Sub. NLB				.16	.05	.16**			
Org. NLB				.19	.06	.19**			
SH NLB				.15	.05	.15**			
Overall NLB							.40	.04	.40**
R^2		.05**			.22**			.20**	
Adjusted R^2		.05			.21			.20	
$\triangle R^2$					.17**			.15**	
df (regression, residual)		3, 649			3, 646			1, 648	

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
$\dagger$ $p < .10$
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 21

Follower organizational deviance regressed on control variables and negative leader behavior factors and overall scores

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2 (separate NLB factors)			Model 2 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.02	.01	-.21*	-.01	.01	-.10	-.01	.01	-.11
Work experience (years)	.01	.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.14†	-.01	.01	-.14†
Time with leader (years)	.03	.01	.11*	.02	.01	.05	.02	.01	.06†
Sub. NLB				.31	.05	.31**			
Org. NLB				.16	.06	.16**			
SH NLB				.10	.05	.10*			
Overall NLB							.49	.03	.49**
R^2		.04**			.27**			.27**	
Adjusted R^2		.04**			.27			.27	
$\triangle R^2$					.23**			.23**	
df (regression, residual)		3, 648			3, 645			1, 647	

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
† $p < .10$
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 22

Overall follower deviance regressed on control variables and negative leader behavior factors and overall scores

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2 (separate NLB factors)			Model 2 (general NLB factor)		
	B	SE	Beta	B	SE	Beta	B	SE	Beta
Age	-.02	.01	-.25**	-.01	.01	-.12	-.01	.01	-.14[†]
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.02	-.01	.01	-.13[†]	-.01	.01	-.13[†]
Time with leader (years)	.03	.01	.12**	.02	.01	.05	.02	.01	.06[†]
Sub. NLB				.28	.05	.28**			
Org. NLB				.19	.06	.19**			
SH NLB				.13	.05	.13**			
Overall NLB							.50	.03	.50**
R^2	.05**			.30**			.29**		
Adjusted R^2	.05			.29			.29		
$\triangle R^2$				.25**			.24**		
df (regression, residual)	3, 648			3, 645			1, 647		

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
† p < .10
* p < .05
** p < .01

Table 23

Binary regression of followers' leader effectiveness judgments on control variables and negative leader behavior factors and overall scores

Variables and Statistics	Step 1				Step 2 (separate NLB factors)				Step 2 (general NLB factor)			
	B	*SE*	Wald	Exp(B)	*B*	*SE*	Wald	Exp(B)	*B*	*SE*	Wald	Exp(B)
Constant	.24	.30	.64	-	2.91	.48	36.98**	-	4.14	.46	79.72**	-
Age	-.01	.01	.58	.99	-.03	.02	2.41	.98	-.03	.02	5.15*	.97
Work experience (years)	.01	.01	.22	1.01	.05	.02	7.68**	1.05	.04	.02	7.27**	1.05
Time with leader (years)	-.01	.02	.08	.99	.00	.03	.00	1.00	.03	.03	1.03	1.03
Sub. NLB					-2.40	.20	139.00**	.09				
Org. NLB					.60	.30	4.04*	1.83				
SH NLB					.74	.26	8.00**	2.10				
Overall NLB									-2.29	.19	141.97**	.10

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
† $p < .10$
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 24

Welch's t-tests of differences in negative leader behavior scores according to followers' leader effectiveness judgment

Variable	t-statistic
Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior	-20.76**
Organization-directed negative leader behavior	-8.83**
Sexual harassment negative leader behavior	-3.25**
Overall negative leader behavior	-16.94**

** p < .01

Table 25

Incremental validity of the negative leader behavior measure over abusive supervision in predicting follower job satisfaction

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3 (separate NLB factors)			Model 3 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.00	.01	-.02	-.00	.01	-.07	-.00	.01	-.06	-.01	.01	-.11
Work experience (years)	.01	.01	.10	.01	.01	.17*	.02	.01	.23**	.02	.01	.21**
Time with leader (years)	.02	.01	.04	.03	.01	.09**	.02	.01	.06*	.03	.01	.10**
Abusive supervision				-.71	.04	-.54**	-.38	.07	-.26**	-.39	.05	-.39**
Sub. NLB							-.46	.06	-.50**			
Org. NLB							.21	.09	.13*			
SH NLB							.17	.08	.11*			
Overall NLB										-.19	.06	-.19**
R^2		.01			.30**			.37**			.31**	
Adjusted R^2		.01			.29			.37			.30	
$\triangle R^2$					.29**			.08**			.01**	
df (regression, residual)		3, 635			1, 634			3, 631			1, 633	

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
† $p < .10$
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 26

Incremental validity of the negative leader behavior measure over abusive supervision in predicting follower liking for leader

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3 (separate NLB factors)			Model 3 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.01	.01	-.08	-.01	.01	-.14*	-.01	.01	-.16*	-.01	.01	-.19**
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.11	.01	.01	.19**	.01	.01	.17*
Time with leader (years)	.01	.01	.05	.03	.01	.11**	.03	.01	.09**	.04	.01	.12**
Abusive supervision				-.68	.03	-.68**	-.34	.05	-.35**	-.46	.05	-.46**
Sub. NLB							-.55	.05	-.55**			
Org. NLB							.16	.05	.16**			
SH NLB							.03	.04	.03			
Overall NLB										-.27	.05	-.28**
R^2		.01			.46**			.54**			.49**	
Adjusted R^2		.00			.45			.54			.48	
$\triangle R^2$					.45**			.08**			.03**	
df (regression, residual)		3, 635			1, 634			3, 631			1, 633	

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
† $p < .10$
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 27

Incremental validity of the negative leader behavior measure over abusive supervision in predicting follower turnover intentions

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3 (separate NLB factors)			Model 3 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.01	.01	-.11	-.01	.01	-.07	.00	.01	-.06	-.00	.01	-.04
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.04	-.00	.01	-.03	-.01	.01	-.07	-.01	.01	-.06
Time with leader (years)	.00	.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.04	-.01	.01	-.02	-.01	.01	-.04
Abusive supervision				.53	.03	.53**	.35	.06	.35**	.43	.06	.43**
Sub. NLB							.29	.06	.29**			
Org. NLB							-.03	.06	-.03			
SH NLB							-.08	.05	-.08†			
Overall NLB										.14	.06	.14*
R^2		.01			.29**			.31**			.29**	
Adjusted R^2		.00			.28			.31			.29	
$\triangle R^2$					.28**			.03**			.01*	
df (regression, residual)		3, 635			1, 634			3, 631			1, 633	

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
† p < .10
* p < .05
** p < .01

Table 28

Incremental validity of the negative leader behavior measure over abusive supervision in predicting follower interpersonal deviance

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3 (separate NLB factors)			Model 3 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.02	.01	-.28**	-.02	.01	-.25**	-.01	.01	$-.17^{\dagger}$	-.01	.01	-.19*
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.04	.00	.01	-.00	-.01	.01	-.07	-.01	.01	-.08
Time with leader (years)	.03	.01	.11**	.02	.01	.08*	.01	.01	.04	.02	.01	$.06^{\dagger}$
Abusive supervision				.33	.04	.33**	.13	.06	.13*	.06	.06	.06
Sub. NLB							.06	.07	.06			
Org. NLB							.17	.06	.17**			
SH NLB							.14	.05	.14**			
Overall NLB										.34	.06	.35**
R^2	.05**			.16**			.22**			.20**		
Adjusted R^2	.05			.16			.21			.20		
$\triangle R^2$				.11**			.06**			.04**		
df (regression, residual)	3, 635			1, 634			3, 631			1, 633		

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior

$\dagger$ p < .10

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 29

Incremental validity of the negative leader behavior measure over abusive supervision in predicting follower organizational deviance

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3 (separate NLB factors)			Model 3 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.02	.01	-.26**	-.02	.01	-.22**	-.01	.01	-.14†	-.01	.01	-.15†
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.05	.00	.01	-.01	-.01	.01	-.08	-.01	.01	-.09
Time with leader (years)	.04	.01	.13**	.03	.01	.09*	.02	.01	.06†	.02	.01	.07*
Abusive supervision				.42	.04	.42**	.15	.06	.15*	.12	.06	.12*
Sub. NLB							.19	.06	.20**			
Org. NLB							.13	.06	.13*			
SH NLB							.10	.05	.10*			
Overall NLB										.38	.06	.39**
R^2	.05**			.22**			.28**			.28**		
Adjusted R^2	.04			.22			.27			.27		
$\triangle R^2$				.18**			.06**			.05**		
df (regression, residual)	3, 634			1, 633			3, 630			1, 632		

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
$\dagger$ p < .10
* p < .05
** p < .01

Table 30

Incremental validity of the negative leader behavior measure over abusive supervision in predicting overall follower deviance

Variables and Statistics	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3 (separate NLB factors)			Model 3 (general NLB factor)		
	B	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta	*B*	*SE*	Beta
Age	-.02	.01	-.29**	-.02	.01	-.26**	-.01	.01	-.17*	-.01	.01	-.18*
Work experience (years)	.00	.01	.06	.00	.01	-.01	-.01	.01	-.09	-.01	.01	-.09
Time with leader (years)	.04	.01	.13**	.03	.01	.09*	.02	.01	.06†	.02	.01	.08*
Abusive supervision				.42	.04	.43**	.16	.06	.16**	.11	.06	.11†
Sub. NLB							.16	.06	.16*			
Org. NLB							.16	.06	.16**			
SH NLB							.13	.05	.13**			
Overall NLB										.40	.06	.41**
R^2	.06**			.24**			.31**			.30**		
Adjusted R^2	.05			.23			.30			.29		
$\triangle R^2$				.18**			.07**			.06**		
df (regression, residual)	3, 634			1, 633			3, 630			1, 632		

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior

$\dagger$ p < .10

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 31

Incremental validity of the negative leader behavior measure over abusive supervision in predicting followers' leader effectiveness judgment

Variable	Step 0			Step 1				Step 2				Step 3 (separate NLB factors)				Step 3 (general NLB factor)			
	B	SE	Wald	B	SE	Wald	Exp(B)	B	SE	Wald	Exp(B)	B	SE	Wald	Exp(B)	B	SE	Wald	Exp(B)
Constant	-.02	.08	.08	.24	.30	.64	-	3.62	.47	59.78**	-	3.26	.52	38.61**	-	4.48	.51	77.91**	-
Age				-.01	.01	.58	.99	-.02	.02	1.15	.98	-.02	.02	.74	.99	-.03	.02	2.74†	.97
Work experience (years)				.01	.01	.22	1.01	.02	.02	1.42	1.02	.04	.02	4.42*	1.04	.04	.02	4.18*	1.04
Time with leader (years)				-.01	.02	.08	.99	.02	.03	.31	1.02	-.00	.03	.00	1.00	.02	.03	.57	1.02
Abusive supervision								-2.20	.20	125.21**	.11	-1.01	.25	15.93**	.36	-1.26	.25	24.84**	.29
Sub. NLB												-2.11	.23	82.84**	.12				
Org. NLB												.86	.32	7.16**	2.36				
SH NLB												.79	.28	8.33**	2.21				
Overall NLB																-1.38	.26	28.41**	.25

Note. Sub. NLB = Subordinate-directed negative leader behavior; Org. NLB = Organization-directed negative leader behavior; SH NLB = Sexual harassment negative leader behavior; Overall NLB = Overall negative leader behavior
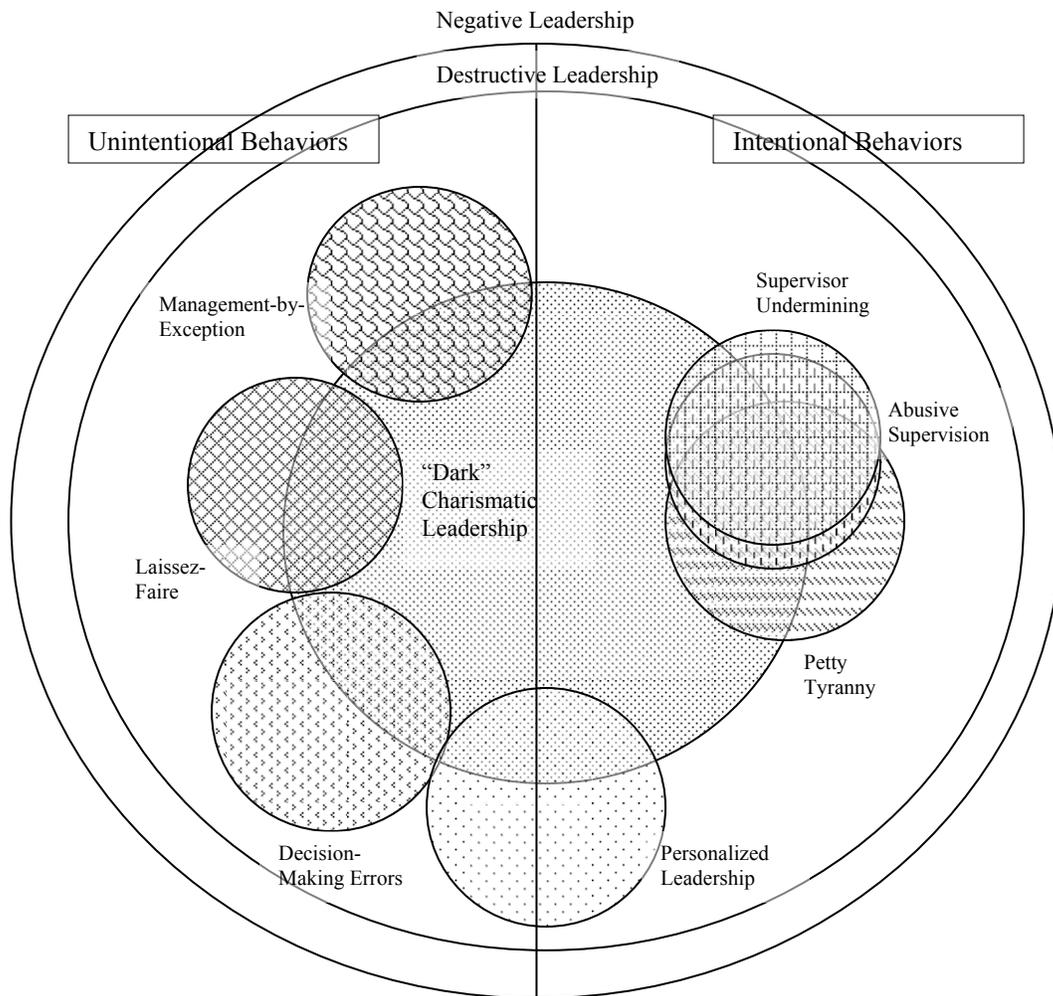† p < .10
* p < .05
** p < .01

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Illustration of the state of existing research on constructs related to negative leader behavior
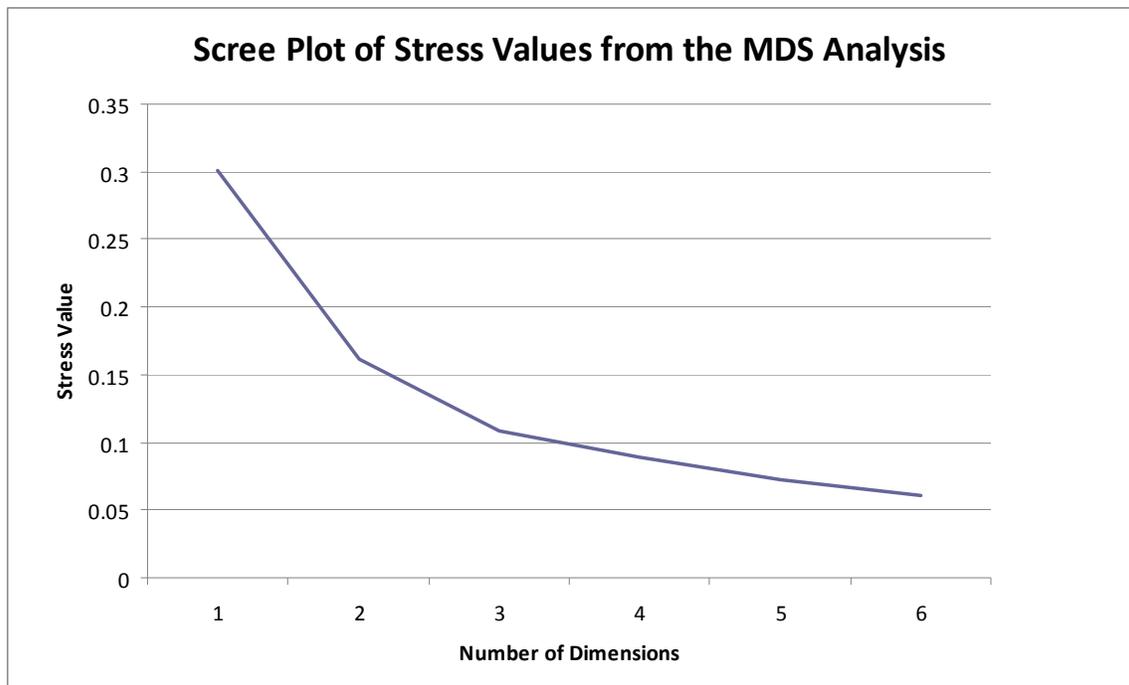
Figure 2. Scree plot of stress values for the MDS analysis

Figure 3. Factor structure of the negative leader behavior measure

Figure 4. Standardized path coefficients for the validation model

Figure 5. Overlap among negative leader behavior factors and other leader- and non-leader-specific constructs

Negative Leadership

Destructive Leadership

Unintentional Behaviors

Intentional Behaviors

Management-by-
Exception

Supervisor
Undermining

Abusive
Supervision

"Dark"
Charismatic
Leadership

Laissez-
Faire

Petty
Tyranny

Decision-
Making Errors

Personalized
Leadership

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Scree Plot of Stress Values from the MDS Analysis

Job
Satisfaction

Subordinate-
Directed NLB

Organization-
Directed NLB

Liking of
Leader

Turnover
Intentions

Interpersonal
Deviance

Sexual
Harassment
NLB

Abusive
Supervision

Organizational
Deviance

-.44**
-.64**
.29**
.09
.02
.20**
.20**
-.17**
.45**
.35**

.09*
.10**
.05
.32**
.38**
-.47**
-.39**
.47**
.19**
.19**

* p < .05 ** p < .01

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Subordinate-Directed Negative Leader Behavior
•38% overlap with leader-specific constructs
•43% overlap with non-leader-specific constructs

Organization-Directed Negative Leader Behavior
•0% overlap with leader-specific constructs
•73% overlap with non-leader-specific constructs

Sexual Harassment Negative Leader Behavior
•0% overlap with leader-specific constructs
•100% overlap with non-leader-specific constructs
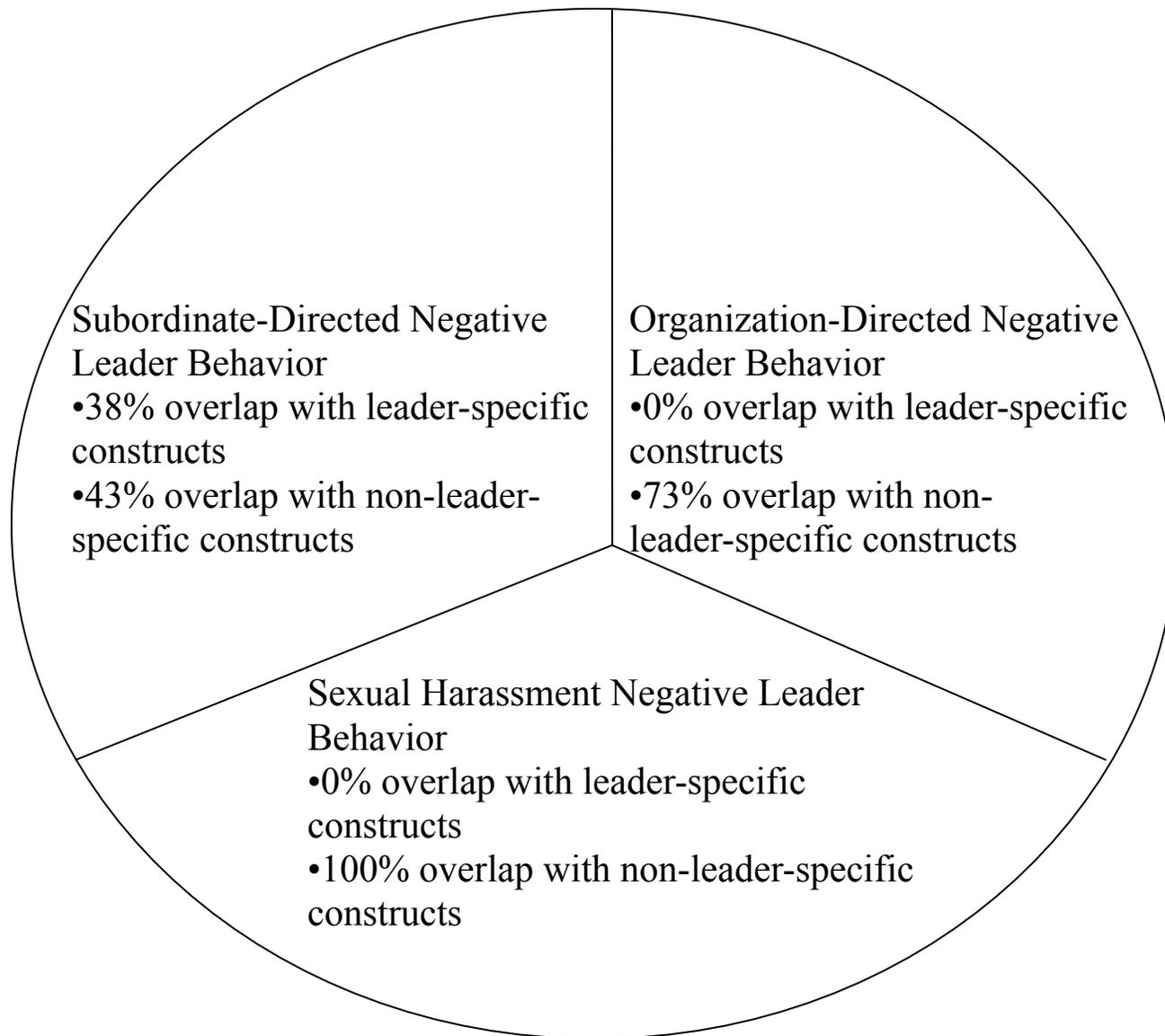
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SELECTED PUBLICATIONS AND CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS
Hunter, S. T., Tate, B. W., Dzieweczynski, J., & Bedell-Avers, K. E. (in press). Leaders
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