

ANGER, FEAR, AND EMOTIONAL COMRADES AGAINST SUPERVISOR
MISTREATMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

By

Kyoungjo Oh

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ABSTRACT

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Negative affect (e.g., mood) is generally assumed to be toxic to both employees and organizations. Research also indicates that the majority of negative emotions employees experience at work are evoked from interpersonal mistreatment from supervisors (e.g., Herscovis & Barling, 2010). Despite how negative emotions are highly central to this phenomenon, extant studies to date have taken a broad and over simplified approach (e.g., PA/NA) to understanding how negative emotions influence the workplace. In this dissertation, I draw on appraisal theory to examine the behavioral implications of discrete negative emotions of fear and anger. By doing so, I provide a more fine-grained investigation of when employees experience fear versus anger, and how each emotion can lead to a wide range of organizational outcomes that are both positive and negative. Further, as individuals make inferences based on the emotional cues from those around them, I also hypothesize the influences of a collective emotional orientation, collective fear and anger. A multi-source field sample is utilized to test my hypotheses.

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INTRODUCTION

It is not uncommon for employees to experience negative emotions at work. In an organizational environment, emotions are adaptive mechanisms that help individuals navigate relationships with others (Ekman, 1992; Smith & Lazarus, 1990; Tooby & Cosmides, 1990). Emotional experiences arise from the employee's appraisals of work events (Lazarus, 1991; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and are responses to a variety of stressors, including interactions with supervisors, coworkers, and subordinates, and the work itself (i.e., Hershcovis et al., 2007). Understanding how negative emotions affect employees is important because they not only shape social interactions in the workplace but provide important implications about a number of intricate organizational phenomena, such as leadership, motivation, and conflict (e.g., Ashkanasy, 2003; Van Kleef, 2009). Although employees may experience a variety of negative workplace emotions (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Brief & Weiss, 2002), anger and fear are the two most fundamental discrete emotions that are likely to be salient when employees are confronted with workplace stressors (Jack, Garrod, & Schyns, 2014; Kemper, 1987).

Historically, anger has been associated with fight or approach behaviors (Carver, & Harmon-Jones, 2009) and fear with flight or avoidance behaviors (Frijda, Kuipers, & ter Schure, 1989). In general, anger and fear, both of which are negative emotions, are seen to have detrimental organizational effects and translate into negative behavioral actions such as counterproductive or uncivil behavior (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999), while also hindering employees' efforts toward organizational improvement (e.g., Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004; Spector & Fox, 2002).

The potential negative effects of anger and fear are well documented in previous research. However, given that both emotions involve high activation and are associated with implicit goals and motivational energy that strongly drive behavioral responses (Lazarus, 1991; Frijda et al., 1989), it may be that they are not always detrimental to employees and organizations. In fact, anger and fear may signal a need to change the status quo, and may thus mobilize responses that translate, counter-intuitively, into more adaptive outcomes for both employees and organizations (Elfenbein, 2007). That is, in certain circumstances the motivational aspect of the natural behavioral tendencies of anger (fight or approach) and fear (flight or avoidance) may induce individuals to behave in ways that are actually functional for organizations.

Further, the notion that individuals read others' emotional cues in their organizational context lacks attention in the literature. The predominant conceptualization of anger and fear in the literature is at the individual level. This has led researchers to focus on relationships at the individual level and to overlook the existence of discrete emotions at higher levels of the organization. Given how anger and fear differ in their idiosyncratic nature, examining discrete emotions at the collective level can reveal important facts and further our knowledge of how people understand emotions in the workplace. Without considering discrete emotions at multiple levels of the organization, several questions will remain unanswered and our knowledge of how emotions unfold in the workplace will remain limited as we continue to overlook the notion of how emotions prevail at all levels of the organization.

In this dissertation, I take a discrete emotional perspective to examine how anger and fear arise from active (abusive supervision; hereafter referred to as *abuse*) and passive (supervisor ostracism; hereafter referred to as *ostracism*) forms of supervisor mistreatment. In doing so, I

explore the possibility of how core self-evaluations (CSE) may play an important role in producing responses of anger versus fear. Furthermore, this dissertation seeks to examine how such negative discrete emotions affect various employee behaviors that may be indicative of adaptive or maladaptive workplace outcomes (i.e., work effort, work performance, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, turnover intention). Finally, going beyond how much of the emotions research focuses on examining phenomena at the individual level, I conceptualize and explore the effects of collective anger and collective fear.

This study makes several important theoretical and practical contributions. First, it advances beyond the traditional aggregated approach of negative affect (i.e., state or dispositional trait, mood) by focusing on the discrete emotions of anger and fear to provide a more fine-grained understanding of phenomena associated with negative emotions in an organizational context. Second, as anger and fear are generally lumped together and conceptualized under the broader construct of negative emotions, this study not only distinguishes anger from fear, but it also introduces CSE as a boundary condition to which employees experience anger versus fear in the workplace. Third, contrary to how negative emotions are generally thought to be harmful to organizations (e.g., Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Fox & Spector, 1999; Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009), this dissertation explores the possibility to which anger and fear produces outcomes that are less detrimental and perhaps even adaptive to employees and the organization (Keltner & Gross, 1999). Specifically, I investigate how the high motivational energy of anger and fear, despite their negative character, produces adaptive behavioral outcomes as a means of self-protection in the context of supervisor mistreatment. Fourth, this dissertation contributes to the emotions literature by going beyond the

individual perspective and taking into account the social context in which emotions arise at work. Most of the extant research on emotions has focused either on how individuals experience emotions or on how emotions affect individual behavior. As a result, scholars have largely overlooked the fact that employees not only assess the event or situation itself, but also take into consideration the assessments of others around them by attuning to the emotions they express. Therefore, by theorizing and examining the influences of collective anger and fear, I address this lack of consideration and account for how employees experience emotions in social context. Finally, while CSE has been examined with workplace stressors and various stimuli (e.g., Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012), there has been very little research that investigates CSE within the emotional context. Thus, this dissertation contributes to the CSE literature by introducing it as a key moderator in experiencing anger versus fear.

This dissertation proceeds as follows. First, I begin with a literature review of research on organizational affect. In this section, I highlight the importance of understanding affect in the workplace, and discuss why I focus specifically on discrete negative emotions of anger and fear throughout this dissertation. I also discuss the way in which affect first became of interest to organizational researchers, how the literature has developed over time, and how the literature generally conceptualizes organizational affect.

The next section focuses on the key constructs of anger and fear. In this section, I first discuss how each discrete emotion consists of a unique cognitive pattern of appraisals and describe the general processes of how such appraisals translate into negative discrete emotions. Next, I review the antecedents of anger and fear. In this section, I discuss how research recognizes perceptions of injustice and supervisor mistreatment (abusive supervision and supervisor ostracism) to be the most common source of employee workplace stress that evoke

negative discrete emotions of anger and fear. Following this section, I review the research on the negative and positive consequences of anger and fear in the workplace. In the final section of the literature review, I discuss current limitations of the literature and opportunities for future research. Following the literature review, I introduce and provide a brief overview of appraisal theory (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1991) before developing the formal hypotheses. I then present the results of my hypothesis testing followed by the supplementary analyses section and conclude with the discussion section.

Affect and Emotions

Much of the organizational research to date has taken a cognitive perspective in understanding organizational phenomena. While organizational researchers first began to examine affect in the workplace in the 1930's, this early work was supplementary to understanding the causes of job satisfaction as a function of organizational work conditions (Weiss & Brief, 2002). Driven by a growing interest in understanding the way in which mood and emotions evolve and function in organizations, it was not until the mid-1980's did organizational researchers really begin to explore affect in the workplace (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Contemporary research conceptualizes affect in the workplace according to two categories. The first views affect as a dispositional trait, a stable tendency to feel and act in a certain way (Watson & Clark, 1984). This view conceives affect to be a person's predisposition toward perceiving the world around him/her positively or negatively (Lazarus, 1991; Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986). Alternatively, scholars also conceptualize affect as a state or short-term affective experience. Affect as a state can be further broken down into two other sub-categories: emotions and moods. According to Barsade and Gibson (2007, p. 37), emotions are distinct from moods, in that "Emotions are elicited by a particular target or cause, often include physiological

reactions and action sequences, and are relatively intense and short-lived (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). In contrast, moods are more diffused, take the form of a general positive (pleasant) or negative (unpleasant) feeling, and tend not to be focused on a specific cause (Frijda, 1986; Tellegen, 1985).”

Another distinction between moods and discrete emotions is that discrete emotions include specific emotional states, such as anger, fear, sadness, and happiness (Ekman, 1992; Elfenbein, 2007), while mood is conceptualized to be either positive or negative (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Compared to discrete emotions of anger and fear, negative moods lack awareness of the eliciting stimulus, and can be triggered by relatively low intensity stimuli. In addition, negative moods can arise from negative emotions that fade, so that the initial antecedent is no longer salient (e.g., Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Elfenbein, 2007).

For the purposes of this dissertation, I focus exclusively on the discrete negative emotions of anger and fear for the following reasons. First, when confronted with workplace stressors, it is generally unlikely for employees to experience positive emotions (e.g., happiness). Second, from an evolutionary perspective, anger and fear are the most fundamental and primary mechanisms for survival, as they mobilize our bodies to address threatening stimuli (stressors) (e.g., Kemper, 1987; LeDoux, 1996; Tooby, & Cosmides, 2008). Thus, anger and fear are most likely to be most salient in the context of a negative event. Third, anger and fear are strong motivators of work behavior (e.g., Lebel, 2016). Both emotions incorporate the motivation to take action, and therefore should strongly influence important employee and organizational outcomes. For such reasons, I specifically focus on discrete negative emotions of anger and fear throughout the manuscript.

The Importance of Understanding Emotions in the Workplace

Understanding how negative emotions affect employees in the workplace is important for several reasons. First, negative emotions reflect employees' well-being in the workplace. As employees have become increasingly interdependent in their work, the modern workplace has become an intensely evocative context for stimuli (Kelly & Barsade, 2001) and a context where employees experience a gamut of emotions from a variety of events. Understanding negative emotions in a workplace context is important because employees allocate more attention to negative stressors that threaten their well-being than to positive emotions (e.g., Kemper, 1987). Negative emotions are also more influential because they tend to affect employees longer periods of time (e.g., Dasborough, 2006). For example, the effects of negative events on employees' mood have been found to be five times greater than those of positive events (Miner, Glomb, & Hulin, 2005). Thus, given how negative emotions are highly associated with employee stressors and strains (e.g., Chen & Spector, 1991), establishing a better understanding of how negative emotions operates can help us promote employee well-being in the workplace.

Second, emotions are highly relevant to important workplace behaviors. One of the main functions of emotions is to mobilize individuals to respond appropriately to interpersonal encounters (Ekman, 1999). Negative emotions, in particular, are effective mechanisms for guiding people through interpersonal relationships in the organizational context of the work environment, especially when coping with unwanted or unexpected situations (Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994). Understanding how discrete emotions affect employees at work can thus provide meaningful insight into important employee and organizational outcomes.

Third, the existing knowledge base of affect in the workplace is unbalanced. This is because much of the research has operationalized affect as moods or dispositional traits (Brief &

Weiss, 2002). As a result, the extant research has developed in a manner that over emphasizes mood (e.g., PA/NA) and dispositional traits at the expense of specific discrete emotions such as anger or fear. This is problematic because conceptualizing negative emotions under a broad overarching construct limits us from establishing a more thorough understanding of affect in the workplace. Lazarus (1991, p. 63-64) specifically states:

“Much of the value is lost by putting these [emotional] reactions into dimensions, because the simplifying or reductive generalizations wipe out important meanings about person-environment relationships, which the hundreds of emotion words were created to express. If we want to know what makes people or any given person angry, for example, the task is not facilitated – in fact it is actually undermined – by a pre-occupation with the so-called underlying response dimensions, which supposedly transcend emotion categories. Anger, then, becomes only a kind of unpleasant activation, when in reality it is a complex, varied, and rich relational pattern between persons.”

Furthermore, a discrete emotional perspective can clarify inconsistent predictions about the effects of positive and negative affect on performance. While much of the affect research suggests positive affect to be beneficial and negative affect to be detrimental, studies have shown that this may not always be the case. For example, in contrast to Johnson, Tolention, Rodopman, and Cho’s (2010) study, which positive affect enhance citizenship behavior, Lee and Allen (2002) found that negative affect, specifically fear, to be the primary driver of citizenship behavior.

Research on creativity has also produced mixed findings with respect to positive and negative affect. For example, in an experimental study in which they induced positive affect by having participants watch a comedy film or receive a small bag of candy, Isen, Daubman, and

Nowicki (1987) showed that positive affect increased creative performance outcomes. Similarly, using both quantitative and qualitative longitudinal field data from employees' daily diaries, Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, and Staw (2005) provided evidence that positive affect enhanced creativity.

By contrast, using field data from supervisor and subordinate samples, George and Zhou (2007) demonstrated that negative mood was positively associated with creativity under the boundary conditions of supervisor support and positive mood. Fong (2006) also showed that both positive and negative affect enhanced creativity. In examining emotional ambivalence, the simultaneous experience of positive and negative emotions, Fong demonstrated that experiencing both positive and negative affect via emotional ambivalence was an important factor for predicting organizational creativity. As such, the traditional approach of conceptualizing affect as simply positive or negative may be too broad. Applying a discrete emotional perspective may therefore help us address such inconsistencies by providing a fine-grained explanation of how individuals are influenced by emotions at work.

Finally, because employees experience emotions in the presence of others, emotions are not restricted to the individual level and can permeate across different levels of the organization (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Kelly & Barsade, 2001). Examining discrete emotions at the higher levels of the organization may provide interesting implications as the idiosyncratic characteristics of discrete emotions at the collective level may have different affect compared to those at the individual level. As such, expanding the discrete emotional perspective to higher levels of the organization can help reveal relationships or influences that need further investigation.

LITERATURE REVIEW: DISCRETE EMOTIONS OF ANGER AND FEAR

Eliciting Anger and Fear

When an individual perceives a potential threat or disturbance in their everyday well-being, a corresponding implicit goal to restore personal well-being naturally emerges (Frijda et al., 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Physiologically, negative emotions (i.e., anger, fear) are the body's natural mechanism that signals a need for an effective response (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000; Elfenbein, 2007). Anger and fear, both of which are negative emotions, are unpleasant feelings that represent intense, relatively short-lived emotional states of high activation (Remington, Fabrigar, & Visser, 2000; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Both emotions are relatively narrow and event-specific compared to negative moods or traits (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Despite such similarities, anger and fear are very distinct from each other. Cognitive appraisal theorists argue that anger and fear form via a particular set of cognitive appraisals and corresponding motivational, physiological, and behavioral action tendencies to maintain or change a situation, especially in the face of a potential threat (e.g., Ellsworth & Sherer, 2003; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

What is anger? According to appraisal theorists (e.g., Lazarus, 1999, 2001; Roseman, 2013), anger is experienced through appraisals of blame and high situational control (coping potential). It is also associated with goals that mobilize the individual to take direct action against the stimulus (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). More specifically, anger is elicited when individuals attribute blame to a specific agent and sense high situational control (high coping potential) to effectively address and cope with the disturbance (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Anger is typically derived from disturbance that generates a sense of unfairness or perceived wrong (Roseman et al., 1994; Lebel, 2016). In addition, anger is a targeted emotion because as it involves cognitive appraisals in which individuals attribute blame to a specific agent other than the self (Roseman, 2013). Furthermore, the appraisals of high situational control (high coping potential) foster a sense of confidence in one's ability to engage in direct behaviors to cope with the stressor. Together, these appraisals and the implicit goal to restore one's well-being, creates a unique process that motivates and mobilizes a behavioral tendency to take direct action against the disturbance or potential threat (Averill, 1973; Frijda et al., 1989; Morris & Keltner, 2000; Roseman et al., 1994). Such reasoning is consistent with the notion of how anger is associated with the basic instinct to respond with "approach" or "fight" behaviors when threatened (Cannon, 1932; Frijda, 2009).

What is fear? Fear is experienced when individuals perceive imminent threat to their well-being and senses low situational control (low coping potential or uncertainty) in effectively responding to a perceived threat (e.g., Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Reeve, 2014). When experiencing fear, attributions of blame are less of a factor than are appraisals of low situational control (low coping potential). According to appraisal theory (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), fear is experienced primarily because of an appraisal of low certainty and a lack of situational control (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Roseman, 2013). This does not imply that attributing blame is not accounted for. Moreso, the uncertainty in attributing blame to an agent or target actually contributes to sensing low situational control and low coping potential (e.g., Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Roseman et al., 1994). This is because the absence of an agent or target to attribute blame to makes it more difficult to formulate a coping response and effectively respond to the disturbance or stressor. As such, regardless of whether there is an

agent to attribute blame to, the emotional experience of eliciting fear is highly dependent on the employee's perception of sensing low situational control (low coping potential) (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, 1988a, 1988b; Roseman, 2001).

Like anger, fear is associated with the goal of restoring personal well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, fear is associated with an appraisal of low situational control (low coping potential) and an action tendency to avoid or take flight (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003). While fear functions to motivate individuals to restore a state of personal well-being against potential threats (Smith & Lazarus, 1990), it does so by facilitating an action tendency to avoid or escape the perceived threat as a function of sensing low situational control (Frijda, 1986, 2009, 2010). This notion is in line with how fear is associated with the basic instinct to respond with "avoidance" or "flight" behaviors when threatened (Cannon, 1932; Frijda et al., 1989).

Antecedents of Anger and Fear

As discussed above, anger and fear are evoked by stress provoking events that are perceived to be harmful to the individual's well-being (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Among the wide range of possible antecedents in the workplace, research has identified interpersonal interactions with supervisors as the primary source in which employees experience negative emotions (Herscovis & Barling, 2010). For example, studies have indicated mistreatment in the form of interactional injustice to be the strongest predictor of violent behavior in the workplace (Bies, 2005; Le Roy, Bastounis, & Poussard, 2012). Porath and Erez (2009) demonstrated that mistreatment (rudeness) in the workplace generated negative affect, which led to reduced performance, creativity, and citizenship behaviors and increased aggression. Meta-analytic studies also have identified workplace mistreatment or interpersonal conflict (e.g., social

undermining, incivility, abusive supervision, and ostracism) as causal factors that generate anger and fear amongst employees in the workplace (e.g., Hershcovis, 2011; Williams, 2007).

In the following section, I review the antecedents of anger and fear. I first focus on situational factors of perceived injustice or unfairness, followed by a section on active (abuse) and passive (ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment.

Injustice. Employees' perceptions of injustice and unfairness have been recognized as a common situational trigger for anger and fear (e.g., Cropanzano, Weiss, Suckow, & Grandey, 2000; Gibson & Callister, 2010; Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998). Several studies have implied that injustice or unfairness is associated with negative emotions (Mikula et al., 1998). Specifically, research has suggested interpersonal injustice to be the predominant sub-dimension of justice for eliciting anger and fear (e.g., Harlos & Pinder, 2000). According to the social interactional theory of emotions (Kemper, 1987), people experience anger and fear because of perceptions of injustice, especially when their interactions do not have the results they expect.

The notion to which perceptions of injustice or unfairness plays a crucial role in evoking anger and fear is well documented in the literature. For example, using survey data from a field sample of 187 insurance employees, Le Roy et al., (2012) found that anger and fear mediated the effects of interpersonal justice on CWB. Specifically, they found that anger mediated the relationships between interpersonal justice and active CWB ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$), while fear mediated the relationships between informational justice and passive CWB ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$). Using survey data collected from 147 employees, Zoghbi Manrique de Lara (2006) showed that injustice indirectly predicted deviant behaviors, such as cyber-loafing, via fear (of formal punishment) (indirect effect, $\beta = -.12, p < .05$).

While only a handful of studies have provided evidence for the link between employee perceptions of injustice and fear, several studies have examined the relationship between injustice and anger. According to these studies, employees often experience anger when they experience a violation of expected interpersonal norms (e.g., insults, false accusations, broken promises) in their social exchanges. For example, studies have found that interpersonal justice violations to provoke strong negative emotional responses such as anger and moral outrage (Bies, 1987; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999). Daly (1991) found that merger and acquisition negotiators experienced anger when they observed other negotiators violating interpersonal norms of social exchange (e.g., misrepresentation, insults, false accusations, broken promises). In addition, using qualitative data from interviews, Fitness (2000) showed that disrespect, arrogance, and rude behavior, all of which qualify as unjust behaviors and violations of interpersonal norms in the workplace, triggered employees' anger. Consistent with more general studies on prototypical anger-eliciting events, Fitness found that 44% of the participants experienced anger because a supervisor, coworker, or subordinate treated them unjustly. Domagalski and Steelman (2005) also showed that employees' perceptions of unfair treatment led to emotions of anger. Drawing on active events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), they demonstrated that interpersonal incivility and unjust treatment triggered employees' anger, which in turn, led to subsequent manifestations of aggression (indirect effect, $\beta = .26, p < .05$) toward others (indirect effect, $\beta = .23, p < .05$). Finally, as already mentioned above, Le Roy et al., (2012) found anger to mediate the effects of interpersonal justice on CWB.

Abusive supervision. Given the hierarchical nature of the leader-subordinate relationship, leaders can shape the way individuals feel at the workplace, especially those of their subordinates (Dasborough, 2006; Tiedens, 2001). A number of recent studies have shown that

employees are highly likely to experience negative emotions such as anger or fear when subordinates are mistreated or abused by supervisors.

In the abusive supervision literature, several studies have conceptualized or examined abusive supervision as an antecedent of negative emotions (Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013; Tepper, 2007). For example, Chan and McAllister (2014) proposed that abusive supervision causes fear among subordinates via the experience of paranoia arousal. Recent studies, such as that of Oh and Farh (2015), elaborated on this by theorizing that employees have a general standard of deontic morality when it comes to treating others humanely (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2003). Leaders are in general expected to engage in moral and humane supervisory and interpersonal interactions with subordinates (e.g., treating them with respect, honesty, propriety, and sensitivity) despite being in higher positions (Goffman, 1967). When leaders violate this expectation and abuse their subordinates, employees experience anger and fear which mobilizes a corresponding response or action tendency to cope with the abusive situation (Oh & Farh, 2000).

Other empirical studies have shown anger and fear to mediate the relationships between abusive supervision and negative behavioral responses. For example, in a longitudinal study (6 waves) of 244 employees, Simon, Hurst, Kelley, and Judge (2015) showed that the relationship between abusive supervision and counterproductive behavior was partially driven in part by anger, ($\beta = .03, p < .01$), whereas the relationship between abusive supervision and avoidance behavior was partially driven in part by fear ($\beta = .31, p < .05$). Similarly, using a two-wave field sample of 257 respondents, Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen, and Fatimah (2016) examined whether victims of workplace mistreatment engaged in CWBs characterized by approach or avoidance behaviors. According to their results, anger mediated the indirect effects of abusive supervision

($B = .10, p < .01$) on approach oriented CWBs, whereas anxiety (fear) mediated the indirect effects of workplace ostracism on avoidance-oriented CWBs ($B = .20, p < .01$), respectively.

Ostracism. Defined as being overlooked, excluded, or ignored by other individuals or groups in the workplace (Williams, 1997, 2001), ostracism is a passive form of social exclusion (compared to abusive supervision) that can lead to a variety of negative outcomes, including anxiety, depression, reduced self-esteem, aggressive behavior, and disengagement. Research to date provides sufficient evidence to infer how being ignored, rejected, or feeling unwanted can be stressful and cause employees to experience anger and fear in the workplace (see Williams, 2007 for review).

For example, with respect to anger, Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, and Stucke (2001) demonstrated that people behaved more aggressively when they felt socially excluded. In a study comparing the levels of aggression participants experienced when exposed to bogus feedback (experiment 1), Twenge et al. found that student participants assigned to the condition that provided participants with negative feedback indicating that they would end up alone in life were more aggressive compared to those in other conditions (negative feedback indicating that they would have misfortune, negative feedback but informed to have future belongingness). In a subsequent study that manipulated social exclusion via peer rejection (versus acceptance) (experiment 4), they found similar results as participants in the social exclusion condition showed more aggression than did those in the inclusion condition. Kupersmidt, Burchinal, and Patterson (1995) also found similar findings. In a longitudinal study of elementary and middle school students, they showed that social rejection not only predicted aggression, but it was associated with increased aggression over time. Finally, in an examination of U.S. school shootings, "...acute or chronic rejection...in the form of ostracism, bullying, and/or romantic

rejection” was suggested to be a possible causal factor in 87% of cases (Leary, Kowalski, Smith, & Phillips, 2003, p. 202).

With respect to fear, various studies have provided indirect support for how fear may result from social exclusion or rejection in the workplace. For example, according to the social exclusion theory of anxiety, Baumeister and Tice (1990) proposed that anxiety comes from experiencing emotions of fear. More specifically, given that anxiety is akin to fear and panic, they proposed that anxiety arises from the fear of being excluded from social groups. In one of the few experimental studies examining the behavioral reactions to rejection, Williams, Cheung, and Choi (2000) found that ostracism was associated with avoidance behaviors. Testing whether ostracized participants continued to participate in an internet game, they found that the more the participants were ostracized, the more likely they were to discontinue playing. As such, given the direct/indirect support explained thus far, we can expect individuals to experience anger and fear as the result of feeling ignored rejected, or unwanted by others in the workplace.

In summary, a number of several different literatures suggest situational factors of injustice and unfairness, and leader related interpersonal factors such as abusive supervision and ostracism (reviewed above) to be key antecedents of experiencing anger and fear in the workplace. Interestingly, these factors (injustice, abusive supervision, supervisor ostracism) share in common that the anger and fear employees experience in the workplace often occur as a function of the injustice violations of interpersonal norms with other people.

Negative Consequences of Anger and Fear

In general, negative emotions are believed to harm both employees and organizations. Meta-analytic studies have shown that negative emotions adversely affect work performance (-.15), OCB (-.08), CWB (.25), withdrawal intentions (.14), and occupational injury (.17) (Kaplan,

Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009). Given that anger and fear are both representative of negative affect, until most recently, researchers have presumed anger and fear to be associated with similar consequences. As mentioned earlier, anger and fear are similar in the sense that both mobilize a person's psychological and physiological internal resources to take action (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000). However, they are different in terms of their implicit goals and signature action tendencies (Frijda et al., 1989; Roseman et al., 1994).

Several studies provide correlational evidence that anger is associated with dysfunctional consequences for both individuals and organizations. At the individual level, studies have found anger to pose serious health risks. For example, when we elicit anger, our bodies produce a surge in stress hormones, adrenaline, and cortisol, which leads to increased heart rate and blood pressure. This can trigger cells to release heart-damaging fat and cholesterol into the bloodstream (Doner, 1996). A substantial number of large-scale longitudinal studies have shown that individuals who constantly feel angry tend to suffer hypertension (high blood pressure), are more likely to develop heart diseases, and are likely to express higher levels of hostility (Begley, 1994; Harvard Mental Health Letter, 1997).

Research has also shown anger to influence perceptions of risk. For example, Lerner and Keltner (2000) found that individuals who experience anger make more optimistic judgments and risk-seeking choices than those who experience fear. In a study that examined how anger influenced the escalation of commitment, Tsai and Young (2010) found that angry people tend to perceive less risk and are more likely to make risk-seeking judgments via an escalation of commitment, which in turn led to more unfavorable consequences from overlooking the risks. Similarly, other studies have found that anger causes individuals to underestimate the risks associated with alcohol consumption, tobacco use, and poor compliance with medical treatment

(Almada et al., 1991; Suinn, 2001; Lee, Mendes de Leon, Jenkins, Croog, Levine, & Sudilovsky, 1992).

Studies also have found anger to be associated with counterproductive or deviant behaviors (Fox & Spector, 1999) and decreased productivity (Jehn, 1995). In a qualitative study using data from structured interviews and questionnaires of 74 employee experiences of specific incidents of workplace aggression, Glomb (2002) found that employees experienced decreased job satisfaction, increased job stress, and a greater tendency to engage in withdrawal behaviors. Rodell and Judge (2009) examined how anger mediated the relationship between workplace stressors (challenge and hindrance) and CWBs. Using an experienced sampling methodology in which full-time employee participants were asked to complete daily surveys during a 10 period, they showed that hindrance stressors such as role ambiguity, role conflict, and being hassled predicted counterproductive behaviors via anger (indirect effect of hindrance stressors to counterproductive behaviors via anger, $B = 0.10$, $p < .05$).

Anger can also generate subsequent anger provoking a vicious cycle of aggression. Scholars have found that employees who experience anger tend to retaliate with similar behavior. For example, Andersson and Pearson (1999) argued that anger plays a critical role in what they refer to as the “incivility spiral,” a consecutive and intensifying exchange of uncivil behaviors between two parties. According to Andersson and Pearson, one party’s negative or threatening action can trigger continued exchanges of anger and counterproductive behavior that intensifies with each exchange. Other studies have shown that angry employees engaged in interpersonal revenge. As briefly mentioned before, Porath and Pearson (2012) found evidence showing that victims of aggression reciprocated with more direct aggression towards the instigator.

Finally, studies have shown that leaders engage in abuse when they experience anger (Mawritz, Folger, Latham, 2014), which trickles down to evoke anger in subordinates (Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012). Other studies have also shown anger at the supervisory or leadership level to hurt team performance and coworker support and enhance supervisor deviance (Mitchell, Vogel, Rolger, 2015; Van Kleef et al., 2009).

Like anger, fear causes physical changes in our bodies. In extreme cases, our bodies can undergo physical changes, including “sweaty palms, shaky legs, queasy stomach, trembling muscles, and even disrupted vision” (Despres, 1997). Fear embeds the implicit goal of avoiding the emotional stimulus and is therefore associated with avoidance-oriented responses (Bossuyt, Moors, & De Houwer, 2014). Several studies have demonstrated that employees generally seek protection via withdrawal behaviors when they experience fear (e.g., Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989). For example, Porath and Pearson (2012) showed that individuals engaged in absenteeism and exit behaviors when they experienced fear. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) showed that uncertainty appraisals, a major factor in fear, mediated the relationships between perceptions of change and avoidance behavior (turnover intentions).

Given their supervisory role in the workplace (Bass, 1985), leaders have been suggested to instigate fear, which translates into unfavorable consequences in employees. For example, Nifadkar, Tsui, and Ashford (2012) showed that newcomers’ negative experiences with supervisors predicted avoidance behaviors via fear. Similarly, scholars have theorized about how abusive supervisors can generate fear, which then motivates subordinates to avoid them (Chan & McAllister, 2014; Oh & Farh, 2017). Simon et al. (2015) demonstrated that when employees repeatedly experience abuse from supervisors, they tend to engage in avoidance behaviors via fear.

Fear can also harm organizations as by suppressing voicing behaviors. Van Dyne, Soon, and Botero (2003) suggested that fear induces employees to withhold voicing behaviors (to be silent) as a means of self-protection. Morrison and Milliken (2000) posited that employees' fear can significantly hinder a climate of speaking up. Other studies have shown that participants are discouraged from engaging in voice behaviors or remain silent because they are afraid of the negative consequences that may arise from speaking up. Ryan and Oestrich (1998) reported that of the 260 participants they interviewed, at least 70% indicated that they were hesitant to speak up because they were afraid of some sort of repercussion. Milliken, Morrison, and Hewlin (2003) reported similar results in their study as they found that the majority of the participants interviewed indicated that they felt unable to raise an issue or concern with their bosses even though they felt the issue was important. In a study of over 40,000 high tech employees, Detert (2003) reported that more than 50% of the participants in the study did not agree that it was safe to speak up at work (see Kish-Gephart et al., 2009 for review).

Like anger, fear can influence perceptions of risk. Lerner and Keltner's (2000) appraisal tendency framework suggests that, fearful people are more than angry people likely to make pessimistic judgments of future events. In a subsequent study, opposite to how angry people perceive less risk, Lerner and Keltner (2001) showed that fearful people perceive more risk. Finally, in a separate study that examined the way how anger and fear influenced perceptions of risk judgments and policy preferences towards terrorism, Lerner, Gonzalez, Small, and Fischhoff (2003) found that risk estimates and plans for precautionary measures increased with fear, but decreased with anger.

Positive Consequences of Anger and Fear

The research to date implies that negative emotions can produce an array of consequences both positive and negative for employees and organizations (e.g., George, 2011). This has led scholars to defer concluding whether negative emotions, including anger and fear, are beneficial in organizations (Amabile, 1996). This paradoxical nature continues to intrigue researchers to continue examining how negative emotions, including anger and fear, unfold in organizations.

From a broader standpoint, scholars have found paradoxical effects of negative affect, especially with respect to creativity. For example, scholars have deferred on concluding on the effects of negative emotions (Amabile, 1996). Similarly, Vosburg and Kaufmann (1999) indicated that “The research findings...are highly discrepant and do not seem to lead to any kind of straightforward link between mood and creativity (p. 32)”.

For example, in an experimental study with 92 student participants, Kaufmann and Vosburg (1997) used video clips to manipulate positive and negative mood and examine how mood influenced creative problem solving. They found that participants assigned to the negative mood condition showed to be more creative compared to those assigned to the positive mood condition. Interestingly, participants assigned to the positive mood condition showed a significant negative relationship with creatively solving the task. Other studies have also found similar findings. Using a mood-as-input model, George and Zhou (2002) found that negative moods to be positively related to creative performance under specific boundary conditions. With a sample of 67 workers in an organizational unit charged with developing creative designs and manufacturing techniques, they found that negative moods to be positively related creative performance under conditions of high perceived recognition and rewards for creative

performance and clarity of feelings ($\beta = 8.29, p < .05$). In a separate study, George and Zhou (2007) found similar results using field data from an oil field services company. In their study, negative mood had a strong, positive relationship with creativity when supervisors provided a supportive context for creativity and positive mood was high (developmental feedback, $\beta = 3.21, p < .05$; interactional justice, $\beta = 5.52, p < .05$; trust, $\beta = 9.19, p < .05$), with creativity being the greatest when the context was supportive and both positive and negative moods were high.

Scholars have also found adaptive consequences associated with other outcomes. For example, Alloy and Abramson (1979) found evidence of a positive relationship between negative moods and cognitively efficient information processing. In their experiment examining the degree of contingency (accuracy) between participants' responses (press/not press a button) and environmental outcomes (onset of a green light), they showed that student participants who were randomly assigned to the depressed condition were more accurate in their cognitive information processing than were those in the non-depressed condition. Forgas (1995) also found that individuals who experienced negative emotions were more vigilant in monitoring their environments. In a series of experiments, he examined how feelings influence the extent to which individuals perceived and remembered atypical (mismatched) versus typical (matched) couples. In this study, the results showed that details of atypical couples were better remembered (recall performance) by subjects in the sad group ($F(2, 48) = 14.78, p < .01$) compared to the subjects in the control group ($F(1,34) = 5.57, p < .05$) or the happy group ($F(1,34) = 6.42, p < .05$) (Experiment 2). As such, the research to date provides sufficient evidence for us to infer that negative emotions have variable effects and lead to consequences that are less detrimental or even adaptive for employees and organizations.

In the light of discrete emotions, scholars have indicated fear to be a strong driver of behavioral responses. Fear is an emotion of high arousal (e.g., Watson & Tellegen, 1999) and is conceptualized as a positive force that can trigger actors to transition from automatic to conscious processing (Ashkansay, 2003). For example, in a series of experiments that tested how participants detected a discrepant fear-relevant stimulus against a background of fear-irrelevant stimulus, Öhman, Flykt, and Esteves (2001) showed that participants detected the fear-relevant targets among fear-irrelevant distractors more quickly than in the converse situation.

In recent studies, scholars have conceptualized fear and anger as mechanisms that drive proactive behaviors and increased work effort. Lebel (2016) theorized that anger and fear to spark proactive behavior by signaling a need to change the status quo. Similarly, in the abusive supervision literature, Oh and Farh (2015) argued that abused employees may be motivated to engage in behaviors that can be adaptive for employees and organizations. More specifically, they posited that rather than following the natural tendency to engage in avoidance behaviors, abused subordinates self-regulate to engage in prevention-focused work efforts that adhere to organizational standards in an attempt to alleviate the abuse. Lee and Allen (2002) provided empirical support for this, as they found that fear was a primary driver of increases in OCBi.

Fear has been suggested to stimulate an avoidance-orientation toward perceived threats and pessimistic judgments, which in turn, can function to protect individuals from potential risks and unfavorable outcomes. For example, in a study designed to assess how sensing certainty (uncertainty) and control (lack of control) influenced risk seeking tendencies, Lerner and Keltner (2001) found that participants who experienced fear avoided uncertainty, ($\beta = -.19, p < .05$), while those who experienced anger were more likely to embrace risks ($\beta = 0.24, p < .05$).

Given how anger facilitates avoidance-related behavior in the recipient, studies have found people to strategically use anger to produce favorable outcomes. For example, in the negotiations literature, Adler, Rosen, and Silverstein (1998) suggested anger to be beneficial in bringing about agreements because “it demonstrates intensity and sincerity of a specific position (Daly, 1991).” Geddes and Callister (2007) highlighted the pros and cons associated with anger. They stated that although anger tends to signal a provoking incident, it also allows the incident to be addressed early, before it leads to more unfavorable outcomes. Lerner, Gonzales, Small, and Fishhoff (2003) found that anger was associated with optimism. Examining how people felt about terrorism after the 9/11 terrorist attacks, they found that people who experienced anger from 9/11 were more optimistic and expected fewer attacks in the future. People who experienced fear, however, were more pessimistic and expected more attacks.

Anger also has been associated with status. In a series of experiments examining the conferral of social status, Tiedens (2001) demonstrated that anger induced positive perceptions of the person who expressed it. The study’s results showed that individuals were more likely to assign higher status to people who expressed anger and lower status to those who expressed sadness. In addition, examining how people responded to Clinton’s grand jury testimony about the Lewinsky scandal (Study 1), participants in the anger condition (who were shown video clips in which Clinton appeared to be angry) responded more favorably ($M = 73.31$, $SD = 18.29$) than those in the sadness condition (shown clips in which Clinton appeared sad) ($M = 58.32$, $SD = 22.42$). In a separate experiment (Study 2), the results showed that politicians were viewed as more competent when they displayed anger than when they displayed sadness ($\beta = 0.42$, $p < .05$). In a job interview context (Study 3), the results were similar. Participants who appeared to be angry were perceived as more qualified for a higher-status position ($M = 18.19$, $SD = 5.28$)

than applicants who appeared to be sad ($M = 15.31$, $SD = 6.18$, $F(1,89) = 5.62$, $p < .05$). Tiedens also found that participants believed an angry applicant was more qualified to receive higher pay ($M = \$53,700/\text{year}$, $SD = 15,120$) than a sad applicant ($M = \$41,330/\text{year}$; $SD = 11,360$, $F(1, 89) = 19.70$, $p < .001$). Overall, the results of her set of studies suggest that individuals are likely establish positive attributions of being more competent and deserving of more compensation when they show emotions of anger versus other emotions.

Finally, anger has been found to provoke individuals to motivate them to engage in corrective actions by confronting situations and taking action to rectify moral injustice. For example, in an experiment with female participants that simulated a situation of sexual discrimination, Gill and Matheson (2006) found that participants in the anger condition perceived the greatest discrimination and were more likely to express their emotions compared to those in the sad or control conditions. Furthermore, the results showed that the participants who were primed to feel sadness were more likely to endorse normative actions to rectify the situation, while participants induced to feel anger were more likely to endorse collective actions to change the status quo. Finally, Goldman (2003) obtained similar findings in a study that examined the filing of discrimination lawsuits by terminated workers. He found that anger mediated the indirect effect of justice perceptions (interaction of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) on lawsuits, suggesting that taking legal actions in response to injustice is driven in part by emotions of anger.

Limitations and Opportunities for Future Research

Although the current knowledge base has contributed to our understanding of how affect influences employees in the workplace, it is not without limitations. Until recently, as alluded to before, much of the affect research in organizational psychology has examined negative affect as

a negative mood or negative dispositional state. Much of this is due to the conceptualization and operationalization of negative affect as a negative mood or negative state.

This approach is problematic. As Brief and Weiss (2002) highlighted, the emotions literature limits itself by an “overemphasis of the study of mood at the expense of discrete emotions” (p. 297). Conceptualizing emotions too broadly does not capture the idiosyncratic nature of each discrete emotion. As a result, this constrains us from fully exploring the unique relationships each discrete emotion influences the workplace. From a social psychologist’s perspective, the negative discrete emotions of fear, anger, guilt, and sadness are all distinct and are associated with different action tendencies (e.g., Frijda et al., 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Roseman et al., 1994). Thus, lumping such emotions under a simple umbrella term “negative emotions” masks the underlying unique characteristics of each discrete emotion. This is why extending the two dimensional perspective (PA/NA) and examining organizational affect through a discrete emotional lens has much value. And while recent studies (e.g., Ferris et al., 2016; Label, in press; Oh & Farh, 2017) have begun to examine the role of discrete emotions in organizations, more empirical and conceptual development in this direction are still in need.

Second, despite the recent progress in emotional research, organizational researchers have overlooked individual variability in emotional experiences. Where some people may experience fear, others may experience anger given the same situation (Frijda et al., 1989). As already mentioned, a great deal of emotion research has focused on using positive or negative mood or affective dispositional states as mechanisms to explain the relationships between cognitive constructs and organizational and attitudinal outcomes. While such studies contribute to furthering our understanding of affect in organizations (e.g., Dimotakis, Scott, & Koopman, 2011; Johnson et al., 2010), we have yet to explore the boundary conditions of when employees

experience different emotions in the workplace. In sum, further exploration of why and how employees experience one discrete emotion over another is necessary.

Finally, despite the call for exploring emotions at multiple levels of the organization (Ashkanasy, 2003), emotional research at the collective level is relatively scant (Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; Kelly & Barsade, 2001). According to Barsade and Gibson (1998), understanding emotion at the collective level is important because “it is a powerful force that can dramatically shape the feelings and behaviors of individuals in groups” (p. 83). Research has shown that the emotions of individual members permeate teams and organizations via what scholars refer to as emotional contagion (e.g., Kelly & Barsade, 2001). In a workplace setting, employees not only experience emotions themselves but also collect information by reading affective cues from multiple sources in their social context (Albarracin & Kumkale, 2003; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2001). Studies have also indicated that emotions at different levels of organization are important because they affect teamwork and how employees coordinate independent activities (Elfenbein, Polzer, & Ambady, 2007). As such, exploring discrete emotions at the collective level can provide insights and expand our understanding of emotions in the workplace.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: APPRAISAL THEORY

Why Appraisal Theory?

The appraisal theory of emotions provides a useful framework that can shed light on the ways in which discrete emotions affect an organization in many ways. First, unlike other theories, appraisal theory accounts for the various distinct emotions (e.g., anger, fear, joy, and sadness) employees may experience while at work. That is, it provides a theoretical perspective that goes beyond the contemporary two-dimensional approach of conceptualizing emotional experience as either positive or negative (Roseman & Smith, 2001). This makes it possible to take into account the differentiated nature of various emotions and their responses.

Second, appraisal theory allows researchers to separate the event or stimulus from the emotion itself. According to Roseman, Spindel, and Jose (1990), the appraisal framework allows scholars to “explain how an infinite variety of situations can elicit the same emotion and may also be able to explain the apparent variability across people and over time in emotional responses to the same event” (p. 899). That is, appraisal theory takes into consideration the way different situations can evoke similar emotions. One of the key underlying assumptions of appraisal theory is that emotions generate from a unique combination of appraisals (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 2001; Roseman et al., 1994). This implies that the emotional experience derives from individual appraisals of an event or stimulus rather than from the event or stimulus itself. This may be illustrated by how people experience sadness for many reasons, despite the fact that those reasons are unrelated to one another (Roseman & Smith, 2001). As such, appraisal theory provides a framework in which it is possible to experience similar emotions from any emotion-evoking event.

Third, appraisal theory provides a framework that allows researchers to explain how similar events or stimuli can evoke different emotional responses between and within individuals over time. As mentioned above, the theory posits that emotions are generated by a specific pattern of appraisals. Because of this, emotions are not bound to the event itself, and individuals can feel different emotions in response to similar events. For example, one person may feel angry after being mistreated at work and then feel sad later on, but another might first feel sad and then angry. This framework makes it possible to comprehensively examine emotions within and between individuals.

External elicitation. An individual's emotional experience depends on the idiosyncratic evaluation of the emotion-evoking event or stimulus. According to appraisal theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), individuals engage in a cognitive appraisal process when they encounter a stressor they perceive to threaten their well-being. A key premise of appraisal theory is that emotions are elicited by a unique pattern of evaluations of events and situations (Lazarus, 1999; 2001). Individuals will experience different emotions if they evaluate an event differently, but similar emotions if they appraise the event in the same way. These unique sets of appraisals then generate a specific emotional response that is associated with a unique implicit goal and action tendency that mobilizes the individual to take action to respond to a threat or negative stimulus (Lazarus, 1991; Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Roseman et al., 1994).

Primary and secondary appraisals. Appraisal theorists have conceptualized the appraisal process as consisting of two stages: primary and secondary appraisals. The key function of primary appraisals involves the initial evaluation or judgment of relevance. In this phase, individuals make positive or negative judgments of the event's relevance to one's well-being (e.g., Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). When events are evaluated as irrelevant, only primary

appraisals take place and there is no further processing as the event is evaluated irrelevant to one's interests. When events are evaluated as relevant and positive, it increases the likelihood of positive emotional arousal. However, when events are evaluated as relevant but negative (e.g., threats), such appraisals increase the likelihood of negative emotional arousal.

If primary appraisals involve appraisals are responsible for positive and negative emotional arousals, secondary appraisals involve a set of more specific evaluations. The evaluations made in the secondary appraisal phase are responsible for, and determine, the specific emotion that is experienced. Specifically, the secondary appraisal phase involves (a) appraisals of blame, the assignment of responsibility to an agent or target, (b) appraisals of certainty, the likelihood that the stimulus or event will recur, and (c) appraisals of situational control (coping potential), the individual's evaluation of his or her ability to respond effectively to the threat.

Empirical application. Smith and Ellsworth (1985) conducted one of the first studies to empirically test whether individuals actually engage in cognitive appraisals prior to their emotional experiences. Participants were asked to recall 15 different emotion-eliciting events and then answer questions addressing eight dimensions of appraisal (pleasantness, attention, control, certainty, perceived obstacle, legitimacy, responsibility, and anticipated effort) suggested by previous theoretical and empirical findings. They found support for six dimensions of cognitive appraisals that differentiated emotional experiences (pleasantness, anticipated effort, certainty, attention, responsibility, situational control) and concluded that people can evaluate emotional experiences reliably on at least of those six dimensions. These results were further confirmed by Frijda et al. (1989) who also found similar results in a later study using a similar design.

In a study with college students, Smith and Ellsworth (1987) examined how student participants felt before a midterm exam and immediately after receiving their grades. Similar to their previous study (i.e., Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), the results showed that the different emotions participants experienced immediately after receiving their grades were predictable by the patterns of cognitive appraisals prior to the experience.

Lerner and Keltner (2000) have also highlighted the notion that emotions are based on cognitive appraisals. In their initial conceptualization, they defined an emotion as a tendency to perceive events and objects in ways consistent with the original cognitive appraisal dimensions of the emotion and proposed a model of emotion-specific influences on judgment and choice. In a separate study examining how anger and fear influenced risk perceptions, Lerner and Keltner (2001) showed participants who experienced anger, which they theorized to be associated with a sense of certainty or control, made more optimistic risk estimates. However, they found participants who experienced fear, which they theorized to be associated with appraisals of uncertainty or lack of control, made more risk averse choices.

In a study investigating the ways in which the six different appraisals (unexpectedness, control, other-responsibility, self-responsibility, self-importance) shaped individual emotions, Siemer, Mauss, and Gross (2007) examined whether a single situation could generate different emotions in participants. They exposed participants to a stressful task that included ambiguous negative social feedback, in such a way that participants had no objective standard to judge whether the feedback was accurate or appropriate. Participants were asked to indicate their “guilt,” “shame,” “sadness,” “anger,” and “amusement” after the task. Consistent with appraisal theory (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1991) that suggests attributing blame to another person is a key factor in eliciting anger, their results showed that anger was predicted primarily

by the appraisal of other-responsibility. Appraisals of unexpectedness, low levels of experienced control, and high levels of self-importance predicted emotions of shame and guilt. Appraisals of self-responsibility also predicted shame, and appraisals of unexpectedness, low levels of control, and high levels of self-responsibility predicted sadness. As with anger, appraisals of other-responsibility predicted emotions of amusement, as did low levels of self-responsibility, and marginal levels of high control. Finally, high levels of control and marginal levels of other-responsibility and self-importance were shown to evoke pleasure. Overall, despite the fact that each appraisal dimension predicted more than one emotion, the results provided indirect support for how emotions were predictable by a unique pattern of appraisal dimensions.

Roseman et al. (1990) also provided indirect empirical support for the link between specific appraisals and emotions. In their experimental study, they attempted to specify whether particular appraisals of an event, such as appraisals of situational state (motive-inconsistent vs. motive-consistent), probability (uncertain vs. certain), power (weak vs. strong), and agency (blame attributed to the circumstance vs. another person vs. oneself) were associated with different discrete emotions. In support of appraisal theory, their results showed that discrete emotions could indeed be differentiated by the appraisals of a given event.

Finally, in a sales context, Yi and Baumgartner (2004) drew on appraisal theory to investigate how consumers manage stressful emotional experiences in purchasing situations. They examined the relationships among four negative emotions (anger, disappointment, regret, and worry) and eight customer coping strategies (planful problem solving, confrontive coping, mental disengagement, behavioral disengagement, positive reinterpretation, self-control, acceptance, and seeking social support). Their results showed that consumers' major strategy for managing anger was confrontive coping. Based on these results, they implied that angry

customers adopt this strategy because they attribute blame to another person and perceive that the situation was changeable. Such factors reflect appraisals of blame and of high control or coping potential in the secondary phase of appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991).

In summary, several empirical studies have provided direct/indirect evidence that supports the key premise of appraisal theory which suggests that individuals experience different emotions as a function of the appraisals they make. While scholars may slightly differ in the specific appraisal dimensions that goes into the appraisal process (e.g., Roseman et al., 1990), they share the core premise that discrete emotions results from a unique combination or pattern of specific appraisals.

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

CSE as Situational Control in the Context of Supervisor Mistreatment

Studies in organizational research have suggested that the most common source for experiencing negative emotions in the workplace is the interpersonal interactions with other people in the workplace, especially those with supervisors (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 2000; Dasborough, 2006; Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004; Mignonac & Herrback, 2004). When subordinates are mistreated by their supervisors, it is not surprising that they experience negative emotions.

Negative emotions signal a potential threat to an employee's organizational well-being. According to the appraisal theory, when employees are mistreated in the workplace, they engage in cognitive appraisals that elicit anger and fear (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Certain patterns of appraisals then translate into corresponding responses that attempt to address the potential threat or negative stimulus (Lazarus, 1991). Notably, several studies have demonstrated the relationship between leader mistreatment and anger and fear. Thus, I do not hypothesize the direct relationships between active (abuse) and passive (ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and anger and fear, respectively. Rather, the first part of the dissertation focuses on exploring CSE as a boundary condition under which employees feel anger rather than fear, or vice versa when mistreated by their leaders.

Both theoretically and empirically, a sense of situational control has been suggested to play an important role in the appraisal process. It has also been suggested as a key factor that influences whether one experiences anger or fear. Scholars have suggested that when employees feel they can effectively respond to a threatening interaction with leaders, they are more likely to

be angry than fearful (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For example, Oh and Farh (2015) suggested that when confronted with mistreatment from supervisors, employees experienced different emotions depending on whether they sensed high or low situational control. Empirically, Conner-Smith and Compas (2004) examined the ways different types of coping (situational control) moderated the relationship between reactivity and interpersonal stress, health status, and internalizing of problems. In an experiment investigating participants' responses to a standardized interpersonal stressor (anticipation of critical feedback about one's personality and social abilities), the authors examined the effects of different coping strategies. The coping strategies that examined included strategies of primary control engagement coping (e.g., problem solving, emotional regulation, and emotional expression scales); secondary control engagement coping (e.g., distraction, positive thinking, cognitive restructuring, and acceptance scales), and disengagement coping (e.g., avoidance, denial, and wishful thinking). Their results showed that all three coping strategies weakened the relationship between heart rate reactivity and health status. The results also showed that primary control coping weakened the relationship between self-reported arousal and health status, while secondary control coping weakened the relationship between self-reported arousal, health status, and internalizing of problems. Similarly, Riolli and Savicki (2003) found different coping styles to have different effects on the relationship between work resources and burnout. In a study of service workers, they found that coping styles involving control had a positive moderating effect, but those involving escape had a negative moderating effect on the relationships between work resources and emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. As such, appraisals of situational control (i.e., coping potential) can be expected to be an essential factor that strongly influences whether someone experiences anger versus fear.

A key dispositional trait that can be foundational to sensing high versus low situational control is CSE (Judge, Locke, Durham, 1997). Defined as “fundamental assessments that people make about their worthiness, competence, and capabilities” (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005, p. 257), CSE is the appraisals individuals make of themselves (Judge, et al., 1997). They involve viewing oneself in an array of positive ways that contribute to sensing situational control. Employees with high CSE have more favorable and positive self-concepts because they have a higher sense of self-worth, view themselves as capable of setting and achieving goals. Such individuals also view themselves as able to deal with and overcome stressful situations and are confident in managing and capitalizing on situations to their own benefit (Chang et al., 2012). Cozzarelli (1993) stated that “chronic beliefs about the self, control, and outcomes reflect key components of an individual’s view of the world and of his or her ability to function successfully in that world, and thus should be especially potent in shaping reactions to stressful life events” (p. 1224). Similarly, Judge, Van Vianen, and De Pater (2004) noted that “individuals with positive core self-evaluations appraise themselves in a consistently positive manner across situations; such individuals see themselves as capable, worthy, and in control of their lives” (pp. 326–27).

CSE is conceptualized as a higher order latent construct and is represented by the shared variance among four subordinate traits: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, emotional stability, and locus of control (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). Self-esteem is belief in one’s own worth; generalized self-efficacy is belief in one’s capacity to succeed; locus of control is the extent to which one believes that events are caused by internal or external forces; and neuroticism (or emotional stability) is the extent to which one focuses on negative or positive aspects of the self. Several studies have demonstrated the relation between CSE and situational

control. For example, studies have shown that people with high levels of CSE typically perform better at work (Judge & Bono, 2001), have more successful careers (Judge & Hurst, 2008), and are more satisfied with their jobs and lives (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Other studies have shown that people with high CSE report lower levels of stress and conflict (Harris & Kacmar, 2009), cope more effectively with setbacks (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott, 2009), and capitalize on advantages and opportunities better (Judge, 2009).

Recently, researchers have started to explore the possibility of integrating CSE theory with other motivational frameworks that to the motivational aspect of anger and fear (fight versus flight). For example, Chang and colleagues (2012) suggested that integrating the approach/avoidance framework with the CSE literature could provide a promising avenue for future research. They suggested that this integration would provide a comprehensive explanation of the processes by which CSE influences cognitive appraisals and behavioral reactions to events. Empirically, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, Djurdevic and Chang (2013) integrated implications from regulatory focus and approach/avoidance motivation theories to show how motivational orientations toward positive and negative stimuli (approach and avoidance motivation orientations) interacted with workplace success to mediate the relationship between CSE and job satisfaction.

Given CSE's relevance to workplace perceptions (job characteristics, fairness, and perceived support), environmental stimuli that are considered threatening and require coping efforts (workplace stressors), and approach/avoidance motivation (see Chang et al., 2012 for review), CSE could play an important role in the way employees experience anger or fear when exposed to supervisor mistreatment. Consistent with research on coping potential and appraisal theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1991), when employees perceive their

organizational well-being to be threatened by supervisor mistreatment, those with high CSE can be expected to feel more confident in their ability to cope with it. As appraisals of high situational control are key in eliciting anger (Lazarus, 1991), employees with high levels of CSE should therefore sense high situational control when mistreated by supervisors and experience anger in response.

On the other hand, employees with low CSE should feel the opposite. Such employees are less likely to feel confident in their ability to cope with stressful personal interactions. Given that appraisals of low situational control are key in eliciting fear, employees with low CSE should sense low situational control and be more likely to experience fear when mistreated by supervisors. On the basis of the conceptual arguments presented so far, I hypothesize the following:

H1: CSE will moderate the relationship between active (H1a: abuse) and passive (H1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and anger, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is high.

H2: CSE will moderate the relationship between active (H1a: abuse) and passive (H1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and fear, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is low.

Cross Level Moderators: Anger and Fear as a Collective

The social environment is a part of the appraisal process that is relatively under-emphasized in the emotions literature. However, the social context in which individuals are embedded in, such as work teams and groups, can play an important role that shapes behavior

because it can be an important source of information that influences the appraisals individuals make.

Emotions are informative (Tooby & Cosmides, 1990). They not only motivate people to behave in certain ways, but they also serve to communicate how others are assessing the situation (Parkinson, 1996; Parkinson, Fischer, & Manstead, 2005; Peters & Kashima, 2007). According to Parkinson (1997), the appraisals individuals make are socially shaped. Scholars have also suggested that individuals react not only on the basis of their own appraisals of an event, but also on the appraisals of others (e.g., Manstead & Fischer, 2001; Parkinson et al., 2005). For example, while anger reflects an individual's disapproval of an event, it also signals that the event should be disapproved by others as well (Parkinson, 1996). Sensing one person's anger can enlist collective support from others to resist the situation that is disapproved of (Thomas, McGarty, & Mavor, 2009a,b; Klandermans, 1997; Van Zomeren, Spears, Fischer, & Leach, 2004). Employees can also make inferences about specific appraisals (e.g., responsibility for a given situation) and what future actions to take by reading the emotions of those around them (e.g., Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2004a,b). As such, the emotional cues from others provide useful information that inform individuals of how others around them are assessing the situation.

The importance of the social context and the emotional cues elicited by others is well highlighted by social appraisal theory. Social appraisal theory (Manstead & Fisher, 2001) argues that the emotions of a given social context provides situational cues that validate subjective appraisals and provides guidance how individuals could or should adjust themselves in relation to a given situation. As it is the innate human tendency to seek information from others, employees look for consensual validation from others regarding their assessments of social

events, especially in a workplace setting. According to Manstead and Fisher (2001), people assess the social context in addition to the event itself is because “people are concerned with other people’s reactions because they need to refer to others in order to make sense of an emotional situation or because they want to maintain social bonds with others and keep their own reactions in harmony with those of others” (p. 226). They also claimed that “it is not only the event that is appraised in relation to the self; it is also very likely to be appraised in relation to the reactions of others (if they are afraid, it must be very dangerous) because the self is not an isolated construct but rather a self-in-relation-to-others” (p. 224). Thus, the extent to which individuals attend to the responses of others when assessing a social event may come naturally and may be somewhat automatic.

When individuals assess a shared emotional orientation with those around them, it can have strong influences on their subjective appraisals and reactions (Byrne, 1971). Employees who suffer from supervisor mistreatment and perceive their organizational well-being to be threatened search for information to help them cope with the threat (Clore, Schwardz, & Conway, 1994). As part of this process, emotional cues that indicate whether a collective emotional orientation exists in the social context (a consensus among group members on appraisals and emotions) can influence their subjective assessment of the situation and decisions about how to respond.

Collective anger. Collective anger is the emotional similarity or shared orientation of anger in a given social context (e.g., group, team). When collective anger is salient, individuals are more likely to perceive those around them as sharing similar appraisals and emotions of anger (Lazarus, 1999, 2001). Consequently, collective anger should facilitate the idiosyncratic action tendencies that arise from an individual’s subjective anger. This is consistent with the idea

that anger experienced by a collective (e.g., a crowd) tends to be stronger than that experienced by a single individual (Kim, 2016).

As has been iterated throughout, anger is associated with individual appraisals of high situational control and a tendency to approach or directly take action to address the negative stimulus (Frijda et al., 1989; Lazarus, 1991). According to social appraisal theory (Manstead & Fischer, 2001), knowing that those around oneself are experiencing similar anger can provide justification and validation for one's assessments, feelings, and responses to a situation. When an employee perceives a collective orientation of anger in other group members, he or she may sense more power and control over the situation. Accordingly, a collective emotional orientation or consensus in the form of collective anger should reinforce the individual's sense of subjective control and confidence. Thus, I predict the following:

H3: Collective anger will moderate the relationship between active (H3a: abuse) and passive (H3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and anger, such that the relationship is more positive when collective anger is high.

Collective fear. Emotional cues from the social environment can also help fearful employees assess the situation when mistreated by their supervisors. Individuals have a strong innate desire to avoid or reduce uncertainty (e.g., Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Lopes, 1987; Sorrentino & Roney, 1986), and this motivates them to seek emotional cues from their social environment, especially when uncertainty is prevalent. Bruder, Fisher, and Manstead (2014) noted that “people will be especially motivated to attend to others' emotions when they are uncertain about the emotional significance of an event. If people are unable to arrive at a complete pattern of appraisals for a given situation, or if they have low confidence in their own appraisals, they will

try to gain relevant information from others' expressions or validate their initial appraisals by reference to others expressions" (p. 147).

As with anger, emotional cues that signal a consensus of fear provide validation for individuals' thoughts and feelings. Scholars have suggested that when people contextually assimilate their emotional states (e.g., subjective fear) with a prescriptive prototype of their social context (e.g., the emotional orientation of those around them), it can consensually guide and validate their perceptions, cognitions, affect, and behavior (Hogg, 2000). Accordingly, knowing that those around oneself are also feeling fear can provide confirmation for one's subjective appraisals and feelings. For example, people are more likely to feel fear when they are alone than when they are with others. This is because knowing that those around you are also feeling fear provides both justification and reassurance of your subjective appraisals, feelings, and behavior.

Because fear is based on appraisals of uncertainty and low situational control (Frijda et al., 1989; Lazarus, 1991), the process of identifying with others who are fearful can reduce an individual's subjective uncertainty (e.g., Chattopadhyay, George, & Lawrence, 2004). In short, the emotional cues from others that indicate a shared consensus of fear can mitigate one's subjective uncertainty and reduce one's subjective fear. Given the arguments so far, I predict the following:

H4: Collective fear will moderate the relationship between active (H4a: abuse) and passive (H4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and fear, such that the relationship is less positive when collective fear is high.

Supervisor Mistreatment, Follower Emotions, and Employee Behaviors

Supervisor mistreatment. An important factor to consider when examining interpersonal workplace mistreatment is the nature of the relationship between the employee and the instigator. In an organizational context, the employee's relationship with a supervisor is more hierarchical than that with a coworker. By definition, supervisors are in positions of higher power and rank (Hollander, 1985; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977), have authority over subordinate employees, and are responsible for supervisory activities such as performance evaluations and promotion decisions. Consequently, subordinates are more vulnerable in their relationships with supervisors than with coworkers because they are structurally dependent on their supervisors for various organizational resources (e.g., evaluations, promotions; e.g., French & Raven, 1959).

Due to the nature of this relationship (Hochschild, 1983), violating interpersonal norms with supervisors can cause more harm than good. For example, Kipnis and Schmidt's (1988) study of different styles of upward influence (shotgun, tactical, ingratiation, bystander) demonstrated that employees who adopted a shotgun style of upward influence (e.g., assertive, forceful) were viewed less favorably by supervisors, earned less compensation, and experienced more job tension and personal stress than those who used a tactical style of upward influence (e.g., reason). As such, employees may unconsciously be induced to self-regulate and engage in surface-acting in a way that deviates less from the social and relational norms of the workplace (e.g., Feldman, 1984; Grandey, 2000).

Anger. Given how an individual's power may depend on the extent to which others mediate his or her goals (Emerson, 1962), angry subordinates can reduce their vulnerability and prevent mistreatment by increasing their power and attaining a sense of control (promotive efforts) over their relationships with supervisors. This may especially be the case when the

supervisor's goals are contingent on the support or cooperation of the subordinate. As the organizational rationale for the interpersonal exercise of power lies in the functional effects of job performance (Allen & Porter, 1983; Vredenburg & Brender, 1998), an employee can gain leverage over a supervisor by improving his or her performance. That is, subordinates who are high performers are less likely to be victims of supervisor mistreatment if the supervisor's goals depend on the subordinate's cooperation because supervisors are likely to be more cautious about mistreating employees they depend on.

This is particularly true when the subordinates have non-substitutable abilities. When supervisors rely on subordinates with unique abilities, such as specialized expertise, knowledge, or experiences, or who are central to the organization, they may feel less power over the subordinate than over others who lack such abilities, skills, and knowledge. For example, Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) showed that tacticians, employees who were involved in non-routine work and used expertise and knowledge to influence others, had more upward influence over their supervisors. Similarly, in a field study of 1,413 managerial, professional, and technical subordinates from all functions of the organization (e.g., accounting, manufacturing, sales), Wayne, Liden, Graf, and Ferris (1997) showed that the most effective method for influencing supervisors was via tactics based on logical arguments and factual evidence.

In sum, supervisors are less likely to mistreat subordinates who play a key role in achieving a team's mission, have strong influence in the organization, or have irreplaceable abilities (Barney, 1991; Ibarra, 1993). By contrast, employees who do not occupy central positions on the team or who lack inimitable expertise are more likely to fall victim to supervisor mistreatment (e.g., Grandey & Kern, 2004). Employees can therefore be expected to strategically

engage in anger-driven work effort (performance) as a way to increase their influence over supervisors, reduce their vulnerability to mistreatment, and mitigate future mistreatment.

Because individuals with high CSE are more likely to elicit anger (H1), I predict that the emotional effort associated with anger will translate into outcomes that are relatively functional for organizations and employees. As such, I hypothesize that supervisor mistreatment will trigger anger-motivated behavior (promotive efforts) in the form of increased work effort and performance as a means of preventing future mistreatment. On the basis of the arguments and evidence mentioned so far, I posit the following:

H5.1. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.1a: abuse) and passive (H5.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work effort via anger, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is high.

H5.2. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.2a: abuse) and passive (H5.2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work performance via anger, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is high.

Given the nature of the employee's interpersonal relationship with supervisors and the expected norms of the workplace (e.g., Feldman, 1984), the desire to prevent supervisor mistreatment can be expressed in several forms of workplace behavior, including organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs), and turnover intentions.

With respect to OCBs, studies have shown that negative emotions to reduce workplace citizenship behavior. For example, Miles, Borman, Spector, and Fox (2002) showed trait anger to

negatively predict OCB but positively predict CWB. In a meta-analysis of 41 studies, Dalal (2005) demonstrated that negative affect was an antecedent of both CWB and OCB. More specifically, the results showed that negative affect was negatively related to OCBs, ($\rho = -.08$) but positively related to CWBs ($\rho = 0.41$). Other studies have provided indirect evidence by demonstrating how rude behavior in the workplace reduced helpfulness and citizenship behaviors (e.g., Porath & Erez, 2007, 2009). The notion to which negative emotions hinder OCB is further supported with indirect evidence from meta-analytic findings of how OCB and CWB are negatively related ($\rho = -.32$, Dalal, 2005).

As briefly covered above, the link between anger and CWB is well established in organizational research (Fitness, 2000; Harmon-Jones & Allen, 1998; Glomb, 2002). For example, the abusive supervision literature has shown anger to mediate the relationship between supervisor mistreatment and deviant workplace behaviors (e.g., Martinko et al., 2013; Tepper, 2007). Ferris et al. (2015) demonstrated anger be predictive of CWB, as they found it to mediate the relationship between supervisor mistreatment and CWB. In a field study of whether victims of workplace mistreatment engaged in approach or avoidance CWBs, they showed a significant indirect effect of supervisor mistreatment on approach oriented CWBs via anger ($B = .10$, $p < .01$). Simon et al. (2015) found similar results. According to their study, repetitions of supervisor mistreatment had a significant indirect effect on CWB via anger ($\beta = .03$, $p < .01$).

Finally, a number of studies have provided direct or indirect evidence of how supervisor mistreatment is predictive of subordinate turnover intentions. For example, Tepper (2000) demonstrated that subordinates who perceived their supervisors to be abusive were more likely to engage in turnover. Harvey, Stoner, Hochwater, and Kacmar (2007) also demonstrated a positive relationship between supervisor mistreatment and employee turnover intentions under

conditions of low positive affect and low ingratiation. Other studies (e.g., Schyns & Schilling, 2013) have shown supervisor mistreatment to be associated with outcomes (e.g., justice perception, job satisfaction, stress, organizational commitment) that are also considered to be antecedents of negative emotions and turnover intentions (e.g., Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993; Griffeth, Horn, & Gaerner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Palanski, Avery, & Jiraporn, 2014).

However, despite the overall positive relationship between leader mistreatment and subordinate turnover intentions, employee turnover intentions may be driven by different affective motives. In other words, given the different motives underlying anger and fear (approach vs. avoidance), employees who are mistreated by their supervisors can engage in turnover intentions for different reasons. For example, mistreated employees who experience anger may proactively seek out new positions with better working conditions, given that they are capable and confident in their abilities (Tepper, 2000).

Drawing on appraisal theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), mistreated employees with high CSE should experience high situational control in their interpersonal relationships at work, and are thereby more likely to experience anger. As anger is relatively associated with more direct methods of addressing threats (Frijda et al., 1989), employees should engage in more approach-oriented behaviors (e.g., CWB) and less in indirect alternatives (e.g., OCB) to mitigate mistreatment (e.g., Ferris et al., 2015; Oh & Farh, 2017; Simon et al., 2015). Furthermore, in relation to employee turnover intentions, employees with high CSE who experience supervisor mistreatment can be expected to experience anger that motivates them to actively search for other employment opportunities. Accordingly, I predict the following:

H5.3. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.3a: abuse) and passive (H5.3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and OCBi via anger, such that the relationship is more negative when CSE is high.

H5.4. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.4a: abuse) and passive (H5.4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and CWBi via anger, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is high.

H5.5. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.5a: abuse) and passive (H5.5b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and turnover intention via anger, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is high.

Fear. Like those who experience anger, employees who experience fear from supervisor mistreatment may pursue similar behavioral outcomes. Drawing on the notion how fear generates an action tendency to engage in protective efforts (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000), employees may engage in work behaviors such as being more proactive, allocating more attention to a potential threat, and preparing to take defensive action as a way to prevent future abuse (Frijda, 1986; Izard & Ackerman, 2000; Lebel, 2016).

For example, Chan and McAllister (2014) discussed how supervisor mistreatment can generate paranoia, which includes fear. This can further induce employees to engage in behaviors that are consistent with the instigator's interests. Specifically, they state that, "individuals may ingratiate or comply with perpetrators in the hope of gaining their acceptance and favor and thus reducing the extent and likelihood of incurring harm (Freeman, Garety, & Kuipers, 2001, p. 54)." Consistent with this, Oh and Farh (2015) discuss how angry employees

can respond with promotion-focused efforts, while intimidated employees may respond with prevention-focused efforts as a means of preventing future mistreatment. As such, we can expect the behavioral responses driven by fear, under specific conditions, may actually be adaptive especially when they are adequately matched with the interests of the supervisor, team, or organization.

Based on the predictions of how individuals with low CSE will experience fear (H2), I expect the emotional effort associated with fear to translate into outcomes that are functional to employees and organizations. Accordingly, distinguished by underlying motives (promotive vs. protective efforts), I hypothesize supervisor mistreatment to trigger fear-motivated behavior (protective efforts) in the form of increased work effort and performance as a means to preventing future abuse. From the arguments and evidence mentioned so far, I posit the following:

H6.1. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.1a: abuse) and passive (H6.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work effort via fear, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is low.

H6.2. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.2a: abuse) and passive (H6.2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work performance via fear, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is low.

In line with how employees with low CSE experience fear and are motivated to engage in protective efforts to prevent mistreatment (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000), mistreated employees

who experience fear can be expected to engage in more OCBs and fewer CWBs to mitigate future abused or mistreatment.

Citizenship behaviors in the workplace, also referred as impression management (Rosenfeld, Giacalone, & Riordan, 1995), can be a tactical way to achieve favorable attributions from others (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984). That is, citizenship behaviors is a form of tactical ingratiation - a behavior in which an employee seeks to positively influence an instigator's feelings and behavior to do something (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Engaging in citizenship behaviors can be effective because, from the actor's perspective, establishing favorable attributions can mitigate mistreatment, as instigators will be less likely to mistreat someone of whom they think highly. Alternatively, from the instigator's perspective, receiving favors can burden the instigator to reciprocate by reducing mistreatment.

Several studies have found support for the relationship between fear and OCB. For example, in a field study with nurses, when decomposing negative affect into discrete negative emotions, Lee and Allen (2002) found that fear was primarily responsible for the increase in OCBs. Similarly, in a field study of 235 supervisor-subordinate dyads in a fast-food restaurant chain, Zellars, Tepper, Giacalone, Lockhart, and Jurkiewicz (2003) demonstrated that fear was positively associated with OCB (Model 2). Finally, in an experiment examining the relationship between emotional arousal and subsequent helping behavior, Amato (1986) found fear to be related to helping behavior. According to his results, when student participants were introduced to a real-life emergency scenario, those who experienced emotions of shock, terror, and horror were more likely to engage in helping behaviors (more donations) than those who did not experience such emotions.

In relation to turnover intentions, much like those who experience anger, mistreated subordinates who experience fear can be expected to show high turnover intentions, but for different reasons. As I have mentioned, employees who do not feel confident and capable in their abilities and self-worth (who have low CSE) are likely to experience fear when mistreated (Lazarus, 1991). Given that fear is naturally associated with a behavioral tendency to engage in flight or avoidance behaviors (Frijda et al., 1989), supervisor-mistreated employees who feel fear should engage in avoidance-related behaviors, which should be more salient in those with low CSE.

In sum, employees with low CSE are likely to perceive low situational control in their interpersonal relationships at work, and are therefore likely to experience fear when mistreated by supervisors. Unlike anger, fear is associated with indirect ways of addressing threats (Frijda et al., 1989). Thus, fearful employees can be expected to strategically engage in fear-driven citizenship behaviors as a tactical means to mitigate mistreatment (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984). Additionally, they are unlikely to engage direct attempts to mitigate mistreatment, such as CWBs, as these may do more harm than good. Finally, in relation to turnover intentions, employees with low CSE should want to leave the organization, driven by the avoidance orientation of fear. For the reasons mentioned so far, I posit the following:

H6.3. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.3a: abuse) and passive (H6.3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and OCBi via fear, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is low.

H6.4. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.4a: abuse) and passive (H6.4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and CWBi via fear, such that the relationship is more negative when CSE is low.

H6.5. CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.5a: abuse) and passive (H6.5b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and turnover intentions via fear, such that the relationship is more positive when CSE is low.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Collective Anger and Collective Fear

Collective anger. As mentioned earlier, collective anger refers to the emotional similarity or the collective emotional orientation of anger of a given social context (e.g., group, team). According to social appraisal theory (Manstead & Fischer, 2001), sensing a collective emotional orientation or consensus in the form of collective anger can be expected to reinforce the individual's sense of subjective control over a given situation. Because collective anger provides justification and validation towards one's assessments, feelings, and responses towards a situation or event, collective anger should amplify the indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment on employee behaviors via individual anger, such that the relationships are stronger when collective anger is high.

H7.1. Collective anger will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.1a: abuse) and passive (H7.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work effort via anger, so that the relationship is more positive when collective anger is high.

H7.2. Collective anger will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.2a: abuse) and passive (H7.2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work performance via anger, so that the relationship is more positive when collective anger is high.

H7.3. Collective anger will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.3a: abuse) and passive (H7.3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and OCBI via anger, so that the relationship is more negative when collective anger is high.

H7.4. Collective anger will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.4a: abuse) and passive (H7.4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and CWBI via anger, so that the relationship is more positive when collective anger is high.

H7.5. Collective anger will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.5a: abuse) and passive (H7.5b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and turnover intention via anger, so that the relationship is more positive when collective anger is high.

Collective fear. As aforementioned in H4, individuals seek out emotional cues from their social environment to reduce or avoid uncertainty (e.g., Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Lopes, 1987; Sorrentino & Roney, 1986). Because assimilating one's emotional states (e.g., subjective fear) with a prescriptive prototype (e.g., the emotional orientation of those around them) consensually guides and validates perceptions, cognitions, affect, and behavior (Hogg, 2000), knowing that those around oneself are also feeling similar emotions of fear provides justification and reassurance of one's subjective appraisals. In other words, the emotional cues from others' in the

form of collective fear validates a shared emotional consensus of fear which functions to mitigate an individual's subjective uncertainty to reduce the subjective fear experienced by the focal subordinate. Thus, collective fear should mitigate the indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment on employee behaviors via individual fear, such that the relationships are weaker when collective fear is high.

H8.1. Collective fear will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.1a: abuse) and passive (H8.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work effort via fear, such that the relationship is less positive when collective fear is high.

H8.2. Collective fear will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.2a: abuse) and passive (H8.2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work performance via fear, such that the relationship is less positive when collective fear is high.

H8.3. Collective fear will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.3a: abuse) and passive (H8.3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and OCBi via fear, such that the relationship is less positive when collective fear is high.

H8.4. Collective fear will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.4a: abuse) and passive (H8.4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and CWBi via fear, such that the relationship is less negative when collective fear is high.

H8.5. Collective fear will moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.5a: abuse) and passive (H8.5b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and turnover intention via fear, such that the relationship is less positive when collective fear is high.

METHODS

Procedure and Sample

Data for this dissertation were collected from five companies in East Asia. For the two that provided a list of participants and direct supervisors, the relevant Qualtrics survey links were distributed to each party (supervisor, employee) by email. For the three that did not disclose employee rosters, a single Qualtrics survey link was distributed via a company-wide email in which participants were asked to identify themselves as an employee or a supervisor at the beginning of the survey. Depending on their answer, participants were then redirected to the appropriate survey, which included questions asking supervisors to identify their team members and subordinates to identify their direct supervisors. This information was used to identify employees and direct supervisors.

Employee participants participated in three separate surveys administrated across three different time points, with approximately 2-week time interval between each survey. Participants were asked about their perceptions regarding passive and active forms of supervisor mistreatment during the last month and subjective emotions of anger/ fear, and collective anger/fear regarding during the past 2 weeks.

At Time 1, participants completed questionnaires measuring the following variables: demographics, LMX (leader-member exchange), perceptions of active (abusive supervision) and passive (supervisor ostracism) supervisor mistreatment, CSE (locus of control, self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy). At Time 2, participants were asked to fill out a second survey asking about the emotion variables (anger/fear, collective anger/fear), and personality variables (extraversion, openness to experience, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability). In the final survey at Time 3, participants filled out a third survey asking about

outcome variables of work effort and turnover intentions. Immediate supervisors were asked to evaluate participants at Time 3 on their work performance, OCBI, and CWBI.

The final sample consisted of 243 participants nested within 60 teams. In terms of industrial background, 62% of the participants worked in retail, 23% in construction, 12% in manufacturing, and 3% in R&D. In terms of demographics, the average age was 35.32 ($SD = 6.57$); 51% of the participants were male and 49% were female; 39.5% had high-school degrees, 44.7% college degrees, 2.6% master's degrees, and 13.2% other degrees. In terms of organizational rank, 19.4% were level 1 employees (e.g., junior, entry-level), 6.5% were level 2 (e.g., assistant manager), 23.7% were level 3 (e.g., manager), 17.2% were level 4 (e.g., deputy general manager), and 33.2% were level 5 (e.g., general manager). Participants' average tenure with their organization was 7.35 years ($SD = 5.57$), average tenure with their team was 3.93 years ($SD = 3.73$), and average tenure with their current leader was 3.04 years ($SD = 3.35$).

Measures

Given the sensitivity of the topic (i.e., supervisor mistreatment), I pilot tested the survey with several randomly selected full time employees to gauge the survey length and sensitivity of the survey items (i.e., abuse, ostracism, anger, fear).

Abusive supervision. I operationalized active forms of supervisor mistreatment using abusive supervision. To do this, I adapted 14 items from Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision scale to measure the employees' perceptions of active forms of supervisor mistreatment. With each item, participants were first asked to think about their immediate supervisor and their interactions with him or her in the previous month. Then they were asked to rate the extent to which they believed their supervisors to have engaged in the mistreatment described. The items included "Over the past month, my supervisor ridiculed me," ". . . told me my thoughts were

stupid,” and “. . . reminded me of my past mistakes and failures.” Additionally, I dropped item “...did not allow me to interact with my coworkers,” based on the recommendations of the pilot testing. I applied a 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for abusive supervision was .96.

Supervisor ostracism. I operationalized passive forms of supervisor mistreatment using supervisor ostracism. I adapted 7 items from Ferris, Brown, Berry, and Lian’s (2008) ostracism scale to measure employees’ perceptions of passive forms of supervisor mistreatment. Like abusive supervision, each item was introduced by asking participants to first think about their immediate supervisor and their interactions with him or her during the past month. Then, participants were asked to rate the extent to which they believed their supervisors to have engaged in each mistreatment behavior. Sample items included “Over the past month, my supervisor ignored me,” “. . . left the area when I entered,” and “. . . treated me as if I wasn’t there at work.” I dropped the item “...my supervisor shut me out of the conversation,” based on the recommendations of the pilot testing as participants of the pilot testing found the translated item to be sensitive and inappropriate. Additionally, I applied a 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often. All the items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for supervisor ostracism was .96.

Core self-evaluations (CSE). The higher order latent CSE construct was measured using the approaches suggested by Johnson, Rosen, and Levy (2008). Specifically, the higher order construct CSE created by aggregating the four sub-constructs that include self-efficacy, locus of

control, self-esteem, and emotional stability. Each CSE trait (self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability) was measured using already established scales from the literature.

Generalized self-efficacy was measured using 8-items adapted from Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) scale. Sample items included “I believe that I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself,” “When facing difficult tasks, I believe that I will accomplish them,” and “I believe that I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind to.” The Cronbach alpha for self-efficacy was .95.

Locus of control was measured using 6 items adapted from Goldberg’s (1999) IPIP scale. Sample items included “I believe that success depends on ability rather than luck,” “I like to take responsibility for making decisions.” The scale also included four reversed coded items, “I believe that unfortunate events occur because of bad luck,” “I believe the world is controlled by a few powerful people,” “I believe in the power of fate,” and “I believe that some people are born lucky.” The Cronbach alpha for the 6-items scale was .60. When dropping items “I believe that success depends on ability rather than luck” and “I like to take responsibility for making decisions,” the Cronbach alpha became .73. Thus, the final locus of control scale was created using only the reversed coded items (4 items).

Self-esteem was measured using 10 items adapted from Rosenberg’s (1965) scale. Sample items included “on the whole, I am satisfied with myself”, “I feel that I have a number of good qualities,” and “I take a positive attitude toward myself.” The scale also included several reversed items such as “At times, I think I am no good at all,” “I feel I do not have much to be proud of,” and “I wish I could have more respect for myself.” The Cronbach alpha for self-esteem was .83.

I measured emotional stability using 8 items adapted from Goldberg's (1992) big five-personality scale. Sample items included "worry about things," "get upset easily," "have frequent mood swings." The scale also included the following reversed coded items, "am relaxed most of the time" and "seldom feel blue." As the items reflected neuroticism, items were reversed coded to reflect emotional stability. The Cronbach alpha for emotional stability was .81.

When measuring each sub-scale (i.e., self-efficacy, self-esteem, locus of control, emotional stability), I applied a 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = very often. Furthermore, all items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970).

Anger. To assess the extent to which participants felt anger when mistreated by their supervisors, I adapted 6 items from Crossley (2009), Rodell and Judge (2009), and Izard (1977). Participants were first asked to think about when they were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by their supervisor. Then they were asked to rate the extent to how they felt during the past 2 weeks when interacting with or thinking their immediate supervisor. Sample items included "anger," "mad," "infuriated," "hostility," and "annoyed." I applied a 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = not at all, 2 = very slightly, 3 = neutral, 4 = somewhat, 5 = very much. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for anger was .97.

Fear. To assess the extent to which participants felt fear when mistreated by their supervisors, I adapted 6 items from Watson and Clark's (1994) PANAS-X scale. Participants were first asked to think about when they were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by their supervisor. Then they were asked to rate the extent to how they felt during the past 2 weeks when interacting with or thinking their immediate supervisor. Sample

items included “afraid,” “scared,” “frightened,” “nervous,” “jittery,” and “shaky.” I applied a 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = not at all, 2 = very slightly, 3 = neutral, 4 = somewhat, 5 = very much. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for fear was .94.

Collective anger. To assess collective anger, I applied a reference-shift model approach to capture the collective shared experience of anger in the group (Chan, 1998; De Dreu et al., 2001; Knight, & Eisenkraft, 2015). Participants were provided instructions that ask them to first think about their team as a whole. Next, they were asked to think about when the team was treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by their supervisor. Participants were then asked to provide how they felt during the past 2 weeks when interacting with or thinking about your immediate supervisor. Individual ratings of anger was aggregated to create anger at the collective (group) level. I used James, Demaree, and Wolf's (1984) r_{wg} agreement index to justify at the team level. r_{wg} values for collective anger ($r_{wg} = .85$) exceed the conventional cut-off value of .70 (James et al., 1984). Furthermore, the results also showed acceptable ICC values for collective anger ($ICC_1 = .31$, $ICC_2 = .64$, $F = 2.80$, $p < .001$) Overall, sufficient evidence for aggregation was warranted.

The same 6-items used to capture individual anger was used to assess collective anger (Crossley, 2009; Rodell & Judge, 2009, Izard, 1977). Sample items included “anger,” “mad,” “infuriated,” “hostility,” and “annoyed.” I applied a 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = not at all, 2 = very slightly, 3 = neutral, 4 = somewhat, 5 = very much. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for anger was .97.

Collective fear. Similar to collective anger, I applied a reference-shift model approach to capture the collective shared experience of fear in the group (Chan, 1998; De Dreu et al., 2001; Knight, & Eisenkraft, 2015). Again, participants were provided instructions that ask them to first think about their team as a whole. Next, they were asked to think about when the team was treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by their supervisor. Participants were then asked to provide how they felt during the past 2 weeks when interacting with or thinking about your immediate supervisor.

Again, I aggregated individual ratings of fear to create fear at the collective (group) level. r_{wg} values for collective fear ($r_{wg} = .89$) exceed the conventional cut-off value of .70 (James et al., 1984). The results also showed acceptable ICC values for collective fear ($ICC_1 = .22$, $ICC_2 = .53$, $F = 2.14$, $p < .001$). Overall, sufficient evidence for aggregation was warranted.

The same 6-items used to capture individual fear was used to assess collective fear (Watson & Clark, 1994). Sample items included “afraid,” “scared,” “frightened,” “nervous,” “jittery,” and “shaky.” I applied a 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = not at all, 2 = very slightly, 3 = neutral, 4 = somewhat, 5 = very much. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for anger was .95.

Work effort. To measure work effort, participants were asked to provide self-ratings of their work effort using a 3-item scale of work effort adapted from Kacmar, Zivnuska, and White (2007). Participants were asked to think about when they were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by their supervisor prior to responding to each item. Participants were also asked to reference the previous past 2 weeks when answering each item. Sample items included “...I try to do things better at work,” “...I try to do more than what I was

asked to do,” and “ ...I try to work harder.” Participants responded to 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for anger was .96.

Work performance. Participants’ work performance was assessed by direct supervisors using a 3 item scale adapted from Morrison and Phelps (1999). Sample items included “Employee XXX.....fulfills the ...fulfills the responsibilities specified in his/her job description,” “...performs the tasks that is expected as part of his/her job,” and “...meets performance expectations.” Supervisors responded to 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for anger was .93.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCBi). Participants’ OCBi was assessed by direct supervisors using 8 items adapted from Lee and Allen (2002). Sample items included “Employee XXX...helps others who are absent,” “...willingly gives his/her time to help others with work-related problems,” and “...assists others with their duties.” Supervisors responded to 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for anger was .92.

Counterproductive work behavior (CWBi). Participants’ CWBi was assessed by direct supervisors using 6 items adapted from Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, and Hulin (2009). Sample items included “Employee XXX...behaved in an unpleasant manner toward other coworkers,” “...tries to harm other coworkers..” and “...criticizes other coworkers’ opinions or suggestions.”

Supervisors responded to 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for anger was .92.

Turnover intentions. Turnover intentions were measured using a 4-item scale adapted from Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999). Participants were asked to think about when they were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by their supervisor prior to responding to each item. Sample items include "...I thought about leaving this organization," "...I thought about looking for a new job," and "...I don't plan to be in this organization much longer (reversed)." Participants responded to 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970). The Cronbach alpha for anger was .95.

Controls variables. Taking into account of how the subordinate's relationship with the leader may influence the subordinate's perceptions of mistreatment (Oh & Farh, 2017), I controlled for leader-member exchange (LMX) using a 7-item scale adapted from Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). Sample items included "I am usually aware of how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do" and "I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision." The Cronbach alpha for LMX was .92.

I also controlled for the personality traits of extraversion, agreeableness, openness, and conscientiousness. All four personality scales were based on Goldberg's (1992) IPIP scale.

Extraversion was measured using a 6-item scale. The items included "I feel comfortable around people," "I start conversations," and "I don't mind being in the center of attention." The

scale included two reversed items: “I keep in the background” and “I don’t like to draw attention to myself.” The Cronbach alpha for extraversion was .82.

Agreeableness was measured using a 6-item scale. The items included “I am interested in people,” “I sympathize with others’ feelings,” “I make people feel at ease,” and two reversed items: “I feel little concern for others” and “I am not interested in other people’s problems.” The Cronbach alpha for agreeableness was .82.

Conscientiousness was measured using a 6-item scale consisting of “I am always prepared,” “I pay attention to details,” “I follow a schedule,” and three reversed items: “I leave my belongings lying around” and “I often forget to put things back in their proper place,” and “I shirk my duties.” The Cronbach alpha for conscientiousness was .83.

Finally, openness was measured using a 6-item scale. The items included “I enjoy thinking about things,” “I enjoy hearing new ideas,” and “I get excited by new ideas.” It also included two reversed items: “I am not interested in abstract ideas” and “I do not like art.” The Cronbach alpha for openness was .82.

For personality variables and LMX, participants responded to 5-point Likert response format using an anchor of 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. All items were translated then back translated drawing on the suggestions recommended by Brislin (1970).

Data Analyses

My analytic approach consisted of two phases. In the first phase, I conducted preliminary analyses to examine the underlying factor structure, and the discriminant-related validity and criteria-related validity of follower emotions and supervisor mistreatment behaviors. In the second phase, I conducted my hypothesis testing. When testing my predictions, I use Mplus 7.0

to run multilevel path analyses (Muthén & Muthén, 2010) following the recommendations by Preacher, Zyphur, and Zhang's (2010) to account for the hierarchical structure of the data in which individuals are nested in groups. Level 1 interaction terms were computed as the product of the group mean centered variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Cross-level interaction terms were modeled with random slopes (Bliese, 2000; Enders & Tofighi, 2007). Drawing on the recommendations suggested by Preacher et al. (2010), I administrated mediation and moderated mediation testing using a parametric bootstrapping procedure with 20,000 resamples. This approach uses parameter estimates and standard errors from the analyses to estimate a sampling distribution for the indirect effects and create 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (e.g., Preacher & Selig, 2010).

PRELIMINARY ANALYSES

Overview of Follower Emotions: Anger and Fear

Factor structure of follow emotions. To confirm the two-factor structure of anger and fear, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) followed by an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). CFAs overcome some inherent weaknesses of EFAs by providing goodness-of-fit metrics to assess the quality of the factor structure in the overall model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). I compared the one-factor model, in which anger and fear were collapsed, to the two-factor model, in which anger and fear were kept separate. The CFA results of the two-factor model (anger, fear) showed a model fit of $\chi^2 (65) = 584.81$, RMSEA = .18, CFI = .88, TLI = .85, SRMR = .14, AIC = 6551.40, and BIC = 6687.63. When collapsing anger and fear, the one-factor model showed a model fit of $\chi^2 (66) = 1192.36$, RMSEA = .26, CFI = .73, TLI = .68, SRMR = .16, AIC = 7156.95, and BIC = 7289.69.

Comparing the two models, the chi-square difference ($\Delta \chi^2 = 607.55$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .0001$) statistic indicated that the fit of the two-factor model was significantly better than that of the one-factor model. This was further confirmed by Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayes information criterion (BIC) as the two-factor model had smaller AIC and BIC compared to one-factor model. Other goodness of fit measures (CFI, IFI, and RMSEA) also consistently favored the two-factor model over the one-factor model. While the CFI (.88) and IFI (.85) criteria in the two-factor model fell short of the recommended cut-off criterion (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1989), the criterion that was closer to the cut-off compared to the CFI (.73) and IFI (.68) criteria in the one-factor model. The RMSEA criteria also showed to be better in the two-factor model (.18) compared to the one-factor model (.26). Overall, the results suggested that the two-factor model

in which anger and fear were kept separate provided better fit than the rival one-factor model in which anger and fear were collapsed under negative emotions.

To see whether these CFA results might be improved, I investigated the factor structure of the items. I conducted an EFA with oblique rotation (Sass & Schmitt, 2010), allowing for the latent factors to be correlated given that anger and fear are expected to be interrelated, both theoretically and empirically. Table 1 presents the EFA results.

The results supported a two-factor solution and explained 84.75% of the total variance in the items (factor 1 eigenvalue = 8.68, factor 2 eigenvalue = 1.20; compared with an eigenvalue of .31 for the third factor). When I examined the break in the scree plot of the extracted eigenvalues (Figure 2), the results further supported the two-factor solution (Gorsuch, 2003). The factor loadings ranged from .86 to .91 for anger and from .58 to .93 for fear. Although most of the factor loadings were well above the minimum recommended level of .40 for judging factor loadings (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986), two of the items for fear (item 4: nervous, and item 6: shaky) loaded on to anger with factor loadings of .33 and .40 (respectively). Overall, the EFA results provided preliminary support for a two-factor solution. Furthermore, they indicated that the distinction between anger and fear might be improved by dropping two of the fear items that load on to both anger and fear. However, when rerunning the CFA with excluding the suggested items, the CFA results did not improve despite adjusting for the overlapping items¹.

Discriminant-related validity of followers' emotions. To explore the discriminant-related validity of anger and fear, I examined the relationships between anger, fear, and other variables collected in the study. I conducted a series of regressions by regressing each follower

¹ The results did not change when testing the predictions using a 3-item fear scale with factor loadings above .90.

emotion on several other variables to examine their possibility as control variables. The variables included gender, education, rank, age, organizational tenure, leader-follower tenure, leader-member exchange (LMX), personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness).

Displayed in Table 2, the results show that gender had a negative relationship between gender and both anger and fear. This implied that females experienced more anger and fear than did males. The marginal negative relationship between education and anger suggested that the employees experienced less anger the more educated they were. The positive relationship between age and both anger and fear suggested that employees were more likely to experience these discrete emotions the older they were. The results also showed a marginal positive relationship between team tenure and anger. This implied that the employees experienced more anger the longer they worked they stayed with the same team. Both rank and organizational tenure however were unrelated to both follower emotions.

Interestingly, while leader-follower tenure showed a positive relationship with anger and fear, LMX showed a negative relationship with each follower emotion. Together, these results suggest that the extent to which employees experience anger and fear are affected by the actual relationship with their leaders rather than merely the time spent working with them. In terms of personality traits, all four personality traits negatively predicted both anger and fear. The negative relationships implied that employees who were more extraverted, more agreeable, more open, and more conscientious were less likely to experience anger and fear.

These results provide preliminary support for the different effects of anger and fear. The results in which the four personality traits and other organizational and demographic variables showed similar directional patterns associated anger and fear with is not surprising, and may

even be somewhat expected. Overall, these results suggested gender, age, LMX, leader-follower tenure, and personality traits as potential control variables.

Following the recommendations of Becker (2005), I also conducted a series of regressions to empirically identify potential control variables and rule out alternative explanations (i.e., issues with internal validity) that may influence the relationships of interest. Specifically, I regressed each of the five employee behaviors on the eight organizational and demographic variables (i.e., gender, education, rank, age, organizational tenure, team tenure, leader-follower tenure, LMX) and four personality traits. As displayed in Table 3, the results showed significant effects of personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness) and LMX on all employee behaviors (work effort, work performance, OCBI, CWBI, turnover intention). In terms of demographic and organizational variables, gender showed a significant effect on four employee behaviors that included work effort, OCBI, CWBI, turnover intention, but not work performance). Education showed a significant relationship only with CWBI. Rank showed a significant relationship with work performance and CWBI, but none with work effort, OCBI, or turnover intention. Age showed significant effects on work effort, CWBI, and turnover intention, but no relationship with work performance or OCBI. Both team tenure and leader-follower tenure showed significant effects on work performance, CWBI, and turnover intention, but no relationship with work effort or OCBI.

Overall, in tandem with the results mentioned with anger and fear, these results provide preliminary support for the inclusion of gender, age, LMX, and personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness) as potential control variables.

Criteria-related validity of followers' emotions. To examine the criteria-related validity of each follower emotion, I conducted a series of hierarchical regressions and examined

the effects of each follower emotion on each of the outcome variables. As anger explained more variance than fear, I entered fear in step 1, and then anger in step 2. The results are displayed in Table 4. The results showed that fear significantly predicted OCBi, CWBi, and turnover intention but not work effort or work performance. Anger significantly predicted all employee behaviors and explained more variance in each outcome than fear. When exploring other types of relationships, there were no significant effects of the interaction between anger and fear (anger $\times$ fear), nor any curvilinear effects (anger², fear²).

Overall, the results showed anger to have direct effects on all five employee behaviors and fear to have significant effects on only OCBi, CWBi, and turnover intention. These results provide preliminary evidence of the unique effects of anger and fear on employee behaviors. In addition, the fact that neither the interaction term nor the squared term of either emotion predicted any behaviors provide little support for non-linear relationships.

Overview of Supervisor Mistreatment: Abuse and Ostracism

Factor structure of supervisor mistreatment. Similar to how I examine the structure of anger and fear, I conducted a CFA to examine the two-factor structure of the two supervisor mistreatment behaviors. I compared the one-factor model in which abuse and ostracism were collapsed to the two-factor model in which they were kept separate. The results of the CFA for the two-factor model showed a model fit of $\chi^2 (209) = 1028.15$, RMSEA = .12, CFI = .87, TLI = .86, SRMR = .09, AIC = 9506.49, and BIC = 9737.03. The one-factor model showed a model fit of $\chi^2 (210) = 1653.17$, RMSEA = .17, CFI = .77, TLI = .75, SRMR = .09, AIC = 10129.51, and BIC = 10356.56. The chi-square difference ($\Delta \chi^2 = 625.02$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .0001$) indicated that the fit of the two-factor model was significantly better. This was confirmed by the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayes information criterion (BIC), which were smaller in the

two-factor model. Other goodness of fit measures consistently favored the two-factor model: although its CFI (.87) and IFI (.86) criteria fell slightly short of the recommended cut-off (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1989), they were better than the CFI (.77) and IFI (.75) criteria of the one-factor model. The RMSEA criteria was also better in the two-factor model (.12) than the one-factor model (.17). Overall, the results suggested that keeping abuse and ostracism separate provides for a better fit than collapsing them.

Again, I tested to see whether these CFA results might be improved by investigating the factor structure of the items and conducted an EFA with the supervisor mistreatment items. As presented in Table 5, the results supported a two-factor solution and explain 93.79% of the variance in the items (factor 1 eigenvalue = 14.09, factor 2 eigenvalue = 1.23; compared to an eigenvalue of .44 for the third factor). The scree plot in Figure 3 also showed a break supporting a two-factor solution (Gorsuch, 2003). The factor loadings ranged from .47 to .92 for abuse and .48 to 1.02 for ostracism. Although most of the factor loadings were well above the minimum recommended level of .40 for judging factor loadings (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986), three abuse items (below) also loaded on to ostracism, with factor loadings of .34 (item 4), .39 (item 11), and .08 (item 12):

- Item 4: “put me down or was condescending to me in front of others.”
- Item 11: “made negative comments about me to others.”
- Item 12: “was rude to me.”

Two of the ostracism items (below) raised concern, as they also loaded on to the abuse items, with factor loadings of .48 (item 1) and .63 (item 2):

- Item 1: “my supervisor ignored me at work.”
- Item 2: “my supervisor left the area when I entered.”

Overall, while the EFA analysis provided preliminary support for a two-factor solution, the results indicate that the distinction between abuse and ostracism could be improved by

dropping the three abuse items and two ostracism items that load onto both factors. However, when rerunning the CFA with excluding the suggested items, the CFA results did not improve despite adjusting for the overlapping items.

Assessing potential control variables. To further identify potential control variables, I conducted a series of regressions to rule out alternative explanations (i.e., issues with internal validity) that might influence the relationships of interest (Becker, 2005). I regressed each leader behavior (abuse, ostracism) on the eight organizational and demographic variables (gender, education, rank, age, organizational tenure, team tenure, leader-follower tenure, LMX) and the four personality traits. The results are displayed in Table 6. In terms of demographic variables, only gender was significantly related to abuse implying that females experienced more abuse than did males. The results showed a negative relationship between LMX and both abuse and ostracism suggesting that employees experienced more mistreatment when they had a negative relationship with their leaders. Additionally, age, which significantly predicted follower emotions (Table 2) and employee behaviors earlier (Table 3), was not predictive of both leader behaviors.

In terms of personality traits, the results showed that a negative relationship between all four personality traits and leader behaviors (abuse, ostracism). These results suggested that the employees experienced less mistreatment that were more extraverted, agreeable, conscious, and open.

Overall, in conjunction with the results associated with anger and fear mentioned earlier, these results suggested LMX and personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness) as potential control variables. Thus, I accounted for LMX and the four personality traits as control variables when testing the hypotheses.

Criteria-related validity of supervisor mistreatment. To examine the criteria-related validity of each leader behavior, I conducted a series of hierarchical regressions to explore the effects of leader behaviors on employee behaviors (work effort, work effort, OCBi, CWBi, turnover intention) and follower emotions (anger, fear). Specifically, I entered the abusive supervision (AS) in step 1, then supervisor ostracism (OST) in step 2, the interaction term of abusive supervision and supervisor ostracism ($AS \times OST$) in step 3, and the squared term of abusive supervision (AS^2) in step 4, and the squared term of ostracism (OST^2) in step 5 in each hierarchical regression.

The results are displayed in Tables 7-13. In terms of employee behaviors, both leader behaviors were unrelated with work effort (Table 7). As Table 8 shows, there was a direct effect of abuse (AS) on work performance. For predicting OCBi (Table 9), the results showed a significant direct effect (OST) and a significant curvilinear effect of ostracism (OST^2). Additionally, only the interaction term ($AS \times OST$) significantly predicted CWBi (Table 10). Finally, the results showed a significant direct effect (AS) and a significant squared effect of abuse (AS^2) on turnover intentions (Table 11).

When predicting anger and fear with leader behaviors, the results showed significant direct effects of both leader behavior on anger (Table 12) and fear (Table 13), respectively. Interestingly, as shown in Table 13, the results showed a significant squared term of ostracism (OST^2) predicting fear.

Overall, the relationships between leader and employee behaviors indicate that different behaviors by leaders affect employees' behaviors differently. Furthermore, the results included curvilinear effects of ostracism (OST^2) on OCBi (Table 9) and of abuse (AS^2) on turnover intentions (Table 11) to suggest that the effect of supervisor mistreatment is not always linear.

Finally, the results showed that abuse and ostracism interacted ($AS \times OST$) in predicting certain types of employee behavior (i.e., CWBi).

In terms of predicting follower emotions, the results showed that abuse and ostracism were direct predictors of anger and fear, respectively. The non-significant effects of the interaction term ($AS \times OST$) and the squared terms (AS^2 , OST^2), with the exception of ostracism predicting fear, provides little support for alternative forms of effects.

Multilevel CFA. Before testing my hypotheses, I ran a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis with the focal variables in my model. To allow a favorable item-to-sample-size ratio (e.g., Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998), I created parcels for the following variables: emotional stability (3 parcels), self-efficacy (3), self-esteem (3), abusive supervision (4), supervisor ostracism (3), anger (3), fear (3), OCBi (3), and CWBi (3).

The results of the multilevel confirmatory factor analysis showed the fit of the twelve-factor model (abuse, ostracism, CSE, anger, fear, collective anger, collective fear, work effort, work performance, OCBi, CWBi, turnover intention) to be $\chi^2(779) = 1484.97$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .92, TLI = .91, SRMR (within) = .08, and SRMR (between) = .02.

The twelve-factor model showed a significantly better fit compared to alternative models. The eleven-factor model which collapsed abuse and ostracism showed a model fit of $\chi^2(788) = 1685.16$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .90, TLI = .89, SRMR (within) = .08, and SRMR (between) = .02; $\Delta\chi^2 = 200.19$, $\Delta df = 9$, $p < .05$. When collapsing anger and fear, the model fit was $\chi^2(788) = 1788.64$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .89, TLI = .87, SRMR (within) = .08, and SRMR (between) = .02; $\Delta\chi^2 = 303.67$, $\Delta df = 9$, $p < .05$. Collapsing collective anger and collective fear showed a model fit of $\chi^2(780) = 1552.25$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .91, TLI = .90, SRMR (within) = .08, and SRMR (between) = .08; $\Delta\chi^2 = 67.28$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .05$.

The ten-factor model that collapsed anger and fear, and collective anger and collective fear showed a model fit of $\chi^2 (789) = 1855.63$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .88, TLI = 0.87, SRMR (within) = .08, and SRMR (between) = .08; $\Delta \chi^2 = 370.66$ and $\Delta df = 10$, $p < .05$. The model that collapsed abuse and ostracism, and collective anger and collective fear showed a fit of $\chi^2 (789) = 1752.55$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .89, TLI = .88, SRMR (within) = .08, and SRMR (between) = .08; $\Delta \chi^2 = 267.58$ and $\Delta df = 10$, $p < .05$. When both abuse and ostracism and anger and fear were collapsed, respectively, the model fit was $\chi^2 (796) = 1985.58$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .87, TLI = .85, SRMR (within) = .08, and SRMR (between) = .02; $\Delta \chi^2 = 500.61$ and $\Delta df = 17$, $p < .05$.

Finally, when I collapsed abuse and ostracism, anger and fear, and collective anger and collective fear, the model fit was $\chi^2 (797) = 2052.67$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .86, TLI = .84, SRMR (within) = .08, and SRMR (between) = .08; $\Delta \chi^2 = 567.71$ and $\Delta df = 18$, $p < .05$. Overall, these results support the discriminant validity of the variables in the current analysis.

RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS TESTS

Table 14 displays the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the focal variables in this dissertation.

H1/H2: Supervisor Mistreatment and Follower Emotions: Contingent Effects of CSE

H1 predicted that CSE would moderate the relationship between active (H1a: abuse) and passive (H1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was high. The results are displayed in Table 15.

The results of testing H1a ($AS \times CSE \rightarrow \text{anger}$) showed a significant direct effect of abusive supervision ($\gamma = .60, p < .05$) and a marginal interaction effect ($AS \times CSE, \gamma = -.36, p < .10$) on anger. The results of the simple slope analyses (Figure 4) showed that the relationship between abusive supervision and anger was more positive when CSE was low ($\gamma = .72, p < .05$) than high ($\gamma = .47, p < .05$). Thus, despite the marginal interacting term, the results were opposite of my prediction and failed to support H1a.

The results of testing H1b ($OST \times CSE \rightarrow \text{anger}$) showed a significant direct effect of supervisor ostracism ($\gamma = .65, p < .05$) but no interaction effect ($OST \times CSE, \gamma = -.27, n.s.$) on anger. Thus, the results failed to support H1b.

H2 predicted that CSE would moderate the relationship between a between active (H2a: abuse) and passive (H2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and fear, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was low.

As Table 16 shows, the results of testing H2a ($AS \times CSE \rightarrow \text{fear}$) revealed a significant direct effect of abuse ($\gamma = .47, p < .05$) but no interaction effect ($AS \times CSE, \gamma = -.08, n.s.$) on fear. Thus, the results failed to support H2a.

The results of testing H2b ($OST \times CSE \rightarrow \text{fear}$) showed a significant direct effect of ostracism ($\gamma = .57, p < .05$) but no interaction effect ($OST \times CSE, \gamma = .12, n.s.$) on fear. Thus, the results failed to support H2b.

Summary of H1 and H2. Overall, while both abuse and ostracism showed direct effects on anger and fear, respectively, only the interaction between abuse and CSE significantly predicted anger. Furthermore, CSE buffered rather than amplified the effects of abuse. In terms of ostracism, the interaction term was not significant for predicting anger or fear.

When control variables were included (LMX, all four personality traits), the marginal interaction term in H1a became significant ($AS \times CSE, \gamma = -.46, p < .05$). Simple slope analyses (Figure 5) showed a similar relationship with or without control variables. That is, the relationship between abuse and anger was more positive when CSE was low ($\gamma = .66, p < .05$) than when CSE was high ($\gamma = .33, p < .05$). In addition, the results for H1b, and H2ab remained the same when control variables were included (LMX, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness).

H3: Supervisor Mistreatment and Follower Emotions: Contingent Effects of Collective Anger

H3 (H3a-H3b) predicted that collective anger would moderate the relationship between active (H3a: abuse) and passive (H3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when collective anger was high.

The results of testing H3a, shown in Table 17 reveal that collective anger did not interact with abuse ($AS \times \text{collective anger}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$) or ostracism ($OST \times \text{collective anger}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$) to predict anger. Thus, the results failed to support both H3a and H3b.

H4: Supervisor Mistreatment and Follower Emotions: Contingent Effects of Collective Fear

H4 (H4a-H4b) predicted that collective fear would moderate the relationship between active (H4a: abuse) and passive (H4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and fear, such that the relationship would be less positive when collective fear was high.

The results of testing H4a, shown in Table 18, reveal that collective fear did not interact with abuse ($AS \times \text{collective fear}$, $\gamma = -.03$, *n.s.*) or ostracism ($OST \times \text{collective fear}$, $\gamma = .13$, *n.s.*) to predict fear. Thus, the results failed to support H4a and H4b.

Summary of H3 and H4. Overall, while both abuse and ostracism significantly predicted anger and fear, respectively, both collective anger and collective fear did not moderate the relationship between either leader behavior (abuse, ostracism) and follower emotion (anger, fear). Additionally, the results remained the same when control variables were included.

Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment on Employee Behaviors via Anger

While not formally hypothesized, I examined the indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment behaviors on employee behaviors (work effort, work performance, OCBI, CWBI, turnover intention) via each follower emotions (anger, fear). The results are displayed in Table 19.

When predicting work effort, the results showed a significant direct effect of abuse on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-anger}}$, $\gamma = .63$, $p < .05$) but no effect of anger on work effort (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work effort}}$, $\gamma = -.07$, *n.s.*). Similarly, while ostracism showed a direct effect on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism-anger}}$, $\gamma = .70$, $p < .05$), anger did not predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work effort}}$, $\gamma = -.05$, *n.s.*). Overall, anger did not mediate the indirect effects of either abuse or ostracism on work effort.

When predicting work performance, the results showed no significant effect of abuse on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse supervision-anger}}$, $\gamma = .62$, *n.s.*) but a marginal direct effect of anger on work performance (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work performance}}$, $\gamma = -.09$, $p < .10$). Similarly, ostracism showed a direct effect on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism-anger}}$, $\gamma = .70$, $p < .05$) but no effect of anger on work performance (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work performance}}$, $\gamma = -.09$, *n.s.*). Overall, anger did not mediate the indirect effects of either abuse or ostracism on work performance.

When predicting OCBI, the results showed a significant direct effect of abuse on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-anger}}$, $\gamma = .63$, $p < .05$) but no effect of anger on OCBI (path $\beta_{\text{anger-OCBI}}$, $\gamma = -.08$, *n.s.*). Alternatively, ostracism showed a direct effect on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism-anger}}$, $\gamma = .70$, $p < .05$), but anger did not predict OCBI (path $\beta_{\text{anger-OCBI}}$, $\gamma = -.04$, *n.s.*). Overall, anger did not mediate the indirect effects of either abuse or ostracism on OCBI.

When predicting CWBi, the results showed a significant direct effect of abuse on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-anger}}$, $\gamma = .63$, $p < .05$) and a marginal effect of anger on CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = .08$, $p < .10$). On the other hand, ostracism showed a direct effect on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism-anger}}$, $\gamma = .701$, $p < .05$) but no effect of anger on CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = .04$, *n.s.*). Overall, the results showed a marginal indirect effect of abuse (indirect effect: $\gamma = .05$, $p < .10$, 90% CI [.01, .10]) but no indirect effect of ostracism on CWBi via anger.

When predicting turnover intention, the results showed a significant effect of abuse on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-anger}}$, $\gamma = .62$, $p < .05$) and a significant effect of anger on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{anger-turnover}}$, $\gamma = .39$, $p < .05$). Similarly, ostracism showed a significant effect on anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism-anger}}$, $\gamma = .70$, $p < .05$) and a significant effect of anger on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{anger-turnover}}$, $\gamma = .41$, $p < .05$). Overall, both abuse (indirect effect: $\gamma = .24$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.12,

.38]) and ostracism (indirect effect: $\gamma = .29, p < .05$, 95% CI [.16, .44]) positively predicted turnover intention via anger.

Summary of indirect effects via anger. In summary, anger mediated the indirect effects of abuse on CWBi (indirect effect: $\gamma = .05, p < .10$, 90% CI [.01, .10]). Furthermore, anger mediated the indirect effects of both abuse and ostracism on turnover intention in such a way that the indirect effects were stronger for ostracism (indirect effect: $\gamma = .24, p < .05$, 95% CI [.12, .38]) than for abuse (indirect effect: $\gamma = .29, p < .05$, 95% CI [.16, .44]).

When including control variables, the marginal indirect effect of abuse on CWBi via anger were slightly weaker ($\gamma = .04, p < .10$) than the indirect effect without ($\gamma = .04, p < .10$). Similarly, when predicting turnover intention, the indirect effects of both abuse ($\gamma = .20, p < .05$) and ostracism ($\gamma = .22, p < .05$) were slightly weaker compared to the indirect effects without the control variables (abuse, $\gamma = .24, p < .05$; ostracism, $\gamma = .29, p < .05$).

Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment on Employee Behaviors via Fear

As shown in Table 20, when predicting work effort, the results showed a significant direct effect of abuse on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-fear}}, \gamma = .54, p < .05$) but no effect of fear on work effort (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work effort}}, \gamma = .03, n.s.$). Similarly, while ostracism showed a direct effect on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism-fear}}, \gamma = .64, p < .05$), fear did not predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work effort}}, \gamma = .04, n.s.$). Overall, fear did not mediate the indirect effects of either abuse or ostracism on work effort.

When predicting work performance, the results showed a significant effect of abuse on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-fear}}, \gamma = .54, p < .05$.) but no effect of fear on work performance (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work performance}}, \gamma = .03, n.s.$). Similarly, ostracism showed a direct effect on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism-fear}}, \gamma = .64, p < .05$) but no effect of fear on work performance (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work performance}}, \gamma = .05, n.s.$).

Overall, fear did not mediate the indirect effects of either abuse or ostracism on work performance.

When predicting OCBI, the results showed a significant direct effect of abuse on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-fear}}$, $\gamma = .54$, $p < .05$) but no effect of fear on OCBI (path $\beta_{\text{fear-OCBi}}$, $\gamma = .05$, *n.s.*). Alternatively, ostracism showed a direct effect on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism-fear}}$, $\gamma = .64$, $p < .05$) and a marginal effect of fear on OCBI (path $\beta_{\text{fear-OCBi}}$, $\gamma = .10$, $p < .10$). Overall, although fear did not mediate the indirect effect of abuse, the results showed a marginal indirect effect of ostracism on OCBI via fear (indirect effect: $\gamma = .07$, $p < .10$, 90% CI [.01, .13]).

When predicting CWBi, the results showed a significant direct effect of abuse on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-fear}}$, $\gamma = .54$, $p < .05$) but no effect of fear on CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{fear-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = .02$, *n.s.*). Similarly, ostracism showed a direct effect on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{supervisor ostracism-fear}}$, $\gamma = .64$, $p < .05$) but no effect of fear on CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{fear-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = -.04$, *n.s.*). Overall, fear did not mediate the indirect effects of either abuse or ostracism on CWBi.

Finally, when predicting turnover intention, the results showed a significant effect of abuse on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse-fear}}$, $\gamma = .54$, $p < .05$) and a significant effect of fear on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{fear-turnover}}$, $\gamma = .34$, $p < .05$). Similarly, ostracism showed a significant effect on fear (path $\alpha_{\text{supervisor ostracism-fear}}$, $\gamma = .64$, $p < .05$) and a significant effect of fear on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{fear-turnover}}$, $\gamma = .37$, $p < .05$). Overall, both abuse (indirect effect: $\gamma = .18$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.06, .32]) and ostracism (indirect effect: $\gamma = .24$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.09, .40]) positively predicted turnover intention via fear.

Summary of indirect effects via fear. In summary, fear mediated the indirect effects of abuse on OCBI (indirect effect: $\gamma = .07$, $p < .10$, 90% CI [.01, .13]). Fear also mediated the indirect effects of both abuse and ostracism on turnover intention, with the indirect effects being

stronger for ostracism (indirect effect: $\gamma = .24, p < .05$, 95% CI [.09, .40]) than for abuse (indirect effect: $\gamma = .18, p < .05$, 95% CI [.06, .32]).

When control variables were included, the significance of the marginal indirect effect of ostracism on OCBi improved ($\gamma = .07, p < .05$) compared to the indirect effect without the control variables ($\gamma = .07, p < .10$). When predicting turnover intention inclusive of the control variables, the indirect effects of both abuse and ostracism (abuse, $\gamma = .14, p < .05$; ostracism, $\gamma = .17, p < .05$) were slightly weaker compared to the indirect effects without the control variables (abuse, $\gamma = .18, p < .05$; ostracism, $\gamma = .24, p < .05$).

H5: Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment $\times$ CSE on Employee Behaviors via Anger

The results of the conditional indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment behaviors interacting with CSE on employee behaviors via anger are displayed in Table 21.

H5.1 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.1a: abuse) and passive (H5.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work effort via anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was high.

When predicting work effort (H5.1a), the results showed a marginal interaction between abuse and CSE predicting anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-anger}}, \gamma = -.37, p < .10$), but no effect of anger predicting work effort (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work effort}}, \gamma = -.07, n.s.$). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on work effort via anger. Thus, the results failed to support H5.1a.

Testing H5.1b revealed that the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-anger}}, \gamma = -.28, n.s.$), nor did anger significantly predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work effort}}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on work effort via anger. Thus, the results failed to support H5.1b.

Similarly, H5.2 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.2a: abuse) and passive (H5.2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work performance via anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was high.

When predicting work performance (H5.2a), the results showed a marginal interaction between abuse and CSE predicting anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-anger}}$, $\gamma = -.37$, $p < .10$) and a marginal effect of anger predicting work performance (path $\beta_{\text{anger-performance}}$, $\gamma = -.10$, $p < .10$). In terms of the conditional effects, the results showed the marginal indirect effect of abuse on work performance via anger to be more negative when CSE was low (indirect effect: $\gamma = -.07$, $p < .10$, 90% CI [-.14, -.003]) than when it was high (indirect effect: $\gamma = -.04$, $p < .10$, 90% CI [-.09, -.002]). Despite the significant indirect effects, the results failed to support H5.2a.

Testing H5.2b revealed that the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-anger}}$, $\gamma = -.28$, *n.s.*), nor did anger predict work performance (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work performance}}$, $\gamma = -.09$, *n.s.*). Thus, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on work performance via anger. As such, the results failed to support H5.2b.

H5.3 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.3a: abuse) and passive (H5.3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and OCBi via anger, such that the relationship would be more negative when CSE was high.

When predicting OCBi (H5.3a), the results showed a marginal interaction between abuse and CSE predicting anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-anger}}$, $\gamma = -.36$, $p < .10$) but no effect of anger predicting OCBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-OCBi}}$, $\gamma = -.08$, *n.s.*). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on OCBi via anger. Thus, the results failed to support H5.3a.

Testing H5.3b revealed that the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-anger}}$, $\gamma = -.27$, *n.s.*), nor did anger predict OCBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-OCBi}}$, γ

= -.04, *n.s.*). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effects of ostracism on OCBI via anger. Thus, the results failed to support H5.3b.

H5.4 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.4a: abusive supervision) and passive (H5.4b: supervisor ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and CWBi via anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was high.

When predicting CWBi (H5.4a), the results showed a marginal interaction between abuse and CSE predicting anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-anger}}$, $\gamma = .37$, $p < .10$) and a marginal effect of anger predicting CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = .08$, $p < .10$). Furthermore, the indirect effect of abuse on CWBi via anger was more positive when CSE was low (indirect effect: $\gamma = .06$, $p < .10$, 90% CI [.01, .12]) than when it was high (indirect effect: $\gamma = .04$, $p < .10$, 90% CI [.01, .09]). Despite the significant indirect effects, the results were the opposite of my predictions and thus failed to support H5.4a.

Testing H5.4b revealed that the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-anger}}$, $\gamma = -.28$, *n.s.*), nor did anger predict CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = .04$, *n.s.*). Thus, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on CWBi via anger. The results therefore failed to support H5.4b.

Finally, H5.5 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H5.5a: abuse) and passive (H5.5b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and turnover intention via anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was high.

When predicting turnover intention (H5.5a), the results showed a significant interaction between abuse and CSE predicting anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-anger}}$, $\gamma = -.43$, $p < .05$) and a significant effect of anger predicting turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{anger-turnover intention}}$, $\gamma = .40$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, the indirect effect of abuse on turnover intention via anger was more positive when

CSE was low (indirect effect: $\gamma = .30, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.15, .47]$) than when it was high (indirect effect: $\gamma = .18, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.08, .31]$). Despite the significant indirect effects, the results were the opposite of my predictions and thus failed to support H5.5a.

Testing H5.5b revealed that the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-anger}}, \gamma = -.36, n.s.$). Anger showed a significant effect on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{anger-turnover intention}}, \gamma = .42, p < .05$). Thus, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on turnover intention via anger. The results failed to support H5.5b.

Summary of H5. In summary, the results showed that CSE moderated the indirect effects of abuse on work performance via anger. These indirect effects were more negative when CSE was low ($\gamma = -.07, p < .10, 90\% \text{ CI } [-.14, -.003]$) than when it was high ($\gamma = -.04, p < .10, 90\% \text{ CI } [-.09, -.002]$). Similar patterns were apparent when predicting CWBi and turnover intention. That is, when predicting CWBi, the indirect effects of abuse were more positive when CSE was low ($\gamma = .06, p < .10, 90\% \text{ CI } [.01, .12]$) than when it was high ($\gamma = .04, p < .10, 90\% \text{ CI } [.01, .09]$). The indirect effects predicting turnover intention were more positive when CSE was low ($\gamma = .30, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.15, .47]$) than when it was high ($\gamma = .18, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.08, .31]$).

When analyzed with control variables, the indirect effects predicting work performance and CWBi became non-significant. However, when predicting turnover intention, the results showed similar patterns. That is, the indirect effects of abusive supervision on turnover intention via anger were more positive when CSE was low ($\gamma = .26, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.13, .42]$) than when it was high ($\gamma = .12, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.03, .24]$). Hence, while the significance of the indirect effects improved by including the control variables, the effects became smaller.

H6: Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment × CSE on Employee

Behaviors via Fear

The results of the conditional indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment behaviors × CSE on employee behaviors via fear are displayed in Table 22.

H6 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.1a: abuse) and passive (H6.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work effort via fear, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was low.

When predicting work effort (H6.1a), the interaction term between abuse and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .08$, *n.s.*), nor did fear predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work effort}}$, $\gamma = .03$, *n.s.*). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on work effort via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H6.1a.

Regarding H6.1b, the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .12$, *n.s.*), nor did fear predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work effort}}$, $\gamma = .05$, *n.s.*). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on work effort via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H6.1b.

Similarly, H6.2 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.2a: abuse) and passive (H6.2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work performance via fear, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was low.

When predicting work performance (H6.2a), the interaction between abuse and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .08$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict work performance (path $\beta_{\text{fear-performance}}$, $\gamma = .03$, *n.s.*). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on work performance via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H6.2a.

In testing H6.2b, the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .12$, *n.s.*), nor did fear predict work performance (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work}}$ performance, $\gamma = .05$, *n.s.*). Thus, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on work performance via fear. As such, the results failed to support H6.2b.

H6.3 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.3a: abuse) and passive (H6.3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and OCBI via fear, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was low.

When predicting OCBI (H6.3a), the interaction between abuse and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .08$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict OCBI (path $\beta_{\text{fear-OCBI}}$, $\gamma = .05$, *n.s.*). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on OCBI via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H6.3a.

In terms of testing H6.3b, the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .12$, *n.s.*). However, fear showed a marginal effect on OCBI (path $\beta_{\text{fear-OCBI}}$, $\gamma = .11$, $p < .10$). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on OCBI via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H6.3b.

H6.4 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.4a: abuse) and passive (H6.4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and CWBI via fear, such that the relationship would be more negative when CSE was low.

When predicting CWBI (H6.4a), the interaction between abuse and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .08$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict CWBI (path $\beta_{\text{fear-CWBI}}$, $\gamma = .01$, *n.s.*). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on CWBI via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H6.4a.

Regarding H6.4b, the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .12$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{fear-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = -.05$, *n.s.*). Thus, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on CWBi via fear. The results therefore failed to support H6.4b.

Finally, H6.5 predicted that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H6.5a: abuse) and passive (H6.4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and turnover intention via fear, such that the relationship would be more positive when CSE was low.

When predicting turnover intention (H6.5a), the interaction between abuse and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .05$, *n.s.*). Fear, however, showed a significant effect on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{fear-turnover intention}}$, $\gamma = .33$, $p < .05$). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on turnover intention via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H6.5a.

Regarding H6.5b, the interaction term between ostracism and CSE did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{supervisor ostracism} \times \text{CSE-fear}}$, $\gamma = .07$, *n.s.*). Fear, however, showed a significant effect on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{fear-turnover intention}}$, $\gamma = .35$, $p < .05$). Overall, CSE did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on turnover intention via fear. As such, the results failed to support H6.5b.

Summary of H6. In summary, CSE did not moderate any of the indirect effects of both leader behaviors on any employee behavior via fear. These results remained consistent when analyzed with control variables.

H7: Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment $\times$ Collective Anger on Employee Behaviors via Anger

The conditional indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment behaviors together with collective anger on employee behaviors via anger are displayed in Table 23.

H7.1 predicted that collective anger would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.1a: abuse) and passive (H7.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work effort via anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when collective anger was high.

Regarding H7.1a, the cross-level interaction term between abuse and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective anger}}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$), nor did anger significantly predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work effort}}, \gamma = -.01, n.s.$). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on work effort via anger. Thus, the results failed to support H7.1a.

Regarding H7.1b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{supervisor ostracism} \times \text{collective anger}}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$), nor did anger significantly predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{anger-work effort}}, \gamma = -.001, n.s.$). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on work effort via anger. Thus, the results failed to support H7.1b.

H7.2 predicted that collective anger would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.2a: abuse) and passive (H7.2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work performance via anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when collective anger was high.

Testing H7.2a revealed that the cross-level interaction between abuse and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective anger}}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$), nor did anger significantly

predict work performance (path $\beta_{\text{anger-performance}}$, $\gamma = -.07$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on work performance via anger. As such, the results failed to support H7.2a.

Regarding H7.2b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective anger}}$, $\gamma = -.06$, *n.s.*), nor did anger significantly predict work performance (path $\beta_{\text{anger-performance}}$, $\gamma = -.06$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on work performance via anger, and the results failed to support H7.2b.

H7.3 predicted that collective anger would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.3a: abuse) and passive (H7.3b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and OCBi via anger, such that the relationship would be more negative when collective anger was high.

Regarding H7.3a, the cross-level interaction between abuse and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective anger-anger}}$, $\gamma = -.06$, *n.s.*), nor did anger significantly predict OCBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-OCBi}}$, $\gamma = -.05$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on OCBi via anger. As such, the results failed to support H7.3a.

As for H7.3b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective anger}}$, $\gamma = -.06$, *n.s.*), nor did anger significantly predict OCBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-OCBi}}$, $\gamma = -.02$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on OCBi via anger, and the results failed to support H7.3b.

H7.4 predicted that collective anger would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.4a: abuse) and passive (H7.4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and CWBi via anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when collective anger was high.

For H7.4a, the cross-level interaction between abuse and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective anger}}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$), nor did anger significantly predict CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-CWBi}}, \gamma = .07, n.s.$). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on CWBi via anger. As such, the results failed to support H7.4a.

In terms of testing H7.4b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective anger}}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$), nor did anger significantly predict CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{anger-CWBi}}, \gamma = .03, n.s.$). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on CWBi via anger. Hence, the results failed to support H7.4b.

H7.5 predicted that collective anger would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H7.5a: abuse) and passive (H7.5b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and turnover intention via anger, such that the relationship would be more positive when collective anger was high.

Regarding H7.5a, the cross-level interaction term between abuse and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective anger-anger}}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$). However, anger showed a significant effect on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{anger-turnover intention}}, \gamma = .32, p < .05$). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on turnover intention via anger. Thus, the results failed to support H7.5a.

In terms of H7.5b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective anger did not predict anger (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective anger}}, \gamma = -.06, n.s.$). Anger, however, showed a significant effect on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{anger-turnover intention}}, \gamma = .34, p < .05$). Overall, collective anger did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on turnover intention via anger. As such, the results failed to support H7.5b.

Summary of H7. In summary, collective anger did not moderate any of the indirect effects of leader behaviors (abuse, ostracism) on any employee behavior via anger. Additionally, the results remained consistent when analyzed with control variables.

H8: Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment $\times$ Collective Fear on Employee Behaviors via Fear

The results of the conditional indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment behaviors $\times$ collective fear on employee behaviors via fear are displayed in Table 24.

H8.1 predicted that collective fear would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.1a: abuse) and passive (H8.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work effort via fear, such that the relationship would be less positive when collective fear was high.

When testing H8.1a, the cross-level interaction term between abuse and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = -.03$, *n.s.*) nor did fear significantly predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work effort}}$, $\gamma = .08$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on work effort via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H8.1a.

Regarding H8.1b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = .13$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict work effort (path $\beta_{\text{fear-work effort}}$, $\gamma = .10$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on work effort via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H8.1b.

H8.2 predicted that collective fear would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.2a: abuse) and passive (H8.2b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and work performance via fear, such that the relationship was less positive when collective fear was high.

Testing H8.2a revealed that the cross-level interaction between abuse and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = -.03$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict work

performance (path $\beta_{\text{fear-performance}}$, $\gamma = .03$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on work performance via fear. As such, the results failed to support H8.2a.

In terms of H8.2b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = .13$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict work performance (path $\beta_{\text{fear-performance}}$, $\gamma = .04$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on work performance via fear, and the results failed to support H8.2b.

H8.3 predicted that collective fear would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.3a: abuse) and passive (H8.1b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and OCBI via fear, such that the relationship would be less positive when collective fear was high.

Regarding H8.3a, the cross-level interaction between abuse and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = -.03$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict OCBI (path $\beta_{\text{fear-OCBi}}$, $\gamma = .06$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on OCBI via fear. As such, the results failed to support H8.3a.

As for H8.3b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = .13$, *n.s.*). Fear, however, significantly predict OCBI (path $\beta_{\text{fear-OCBi}}$, $\gamma = .11$, $p < .05$). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on OCBI via fear, and therefore failed to support H8.3b.

H8.4 predicted that collective fear would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.4a: abuse) and passive (H8.4b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and CWBi via fear, such that the relationship would be less negative when collective fear was high.

When H8.4a was tested, the cross-level interaction between abuse and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = -.03$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{fear-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = .01$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on CWBi via fear. As such, the results failed to support H8.4a.

In terms of H8.4b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = .13$, *n.s.*), nor did fear significantly predict CWBi (path $\beta_{\text{fear-CWBi}}$, $\gamma = -.04$, *n.s.*). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on CWBi via fear. Hence, the results failed to support H8.4b.

H8.5 predicted that collective fear would moderate the indirect relationship between active (H8.5a: abuse) and passive (H8.5b: ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and turnover intention via fear, such that the relationship would be less positive when collective fear was high.

Regarding H8.5a, the cross-level interaction term between abuse and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{abuse} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = -.04$, *n.s.*), however, fear significantly predicted turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{fear-turnover intention}}$, $\gamma = .26$, $p < .05$). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of abuse on turnover intention via fear. Thus, the results failed to support H8.5a.

In terms of testing H8.5b, the cross-level interaction term between ostracism and collective fear did not predict fear (path $\alpha_{\text{ostracism} \times \text{collective fear}}$, $\gamma = .13$, *n.s.*). Fear, however, showed a significant effect on turnover intention (path $\beta_{\text{fear-turnover intention}}$, $\gamma = .29$, $p < .05$). Overall, collective fear did not moderate the indirect effect of ostracism on turnover intention via fear. As such, the results failed to support H8.5b.

Summary of H8. In summary, collective fear did not moderate any of the indirect effects of leader behaviors on any employee behavior via fear. The results remained consistent when analyzed with control variables.

POST HOC ANALYSES

Overall, the results were either null or the opposite of my predictions. In response, I conducted several supplementary analyses to examine other relationships that might be present in the model. These analyses focused on the individual level, as most of the variance in my focal variables occurred at this level (76% on average). I discuss the results below.

Sub-Dimensions of CSE: Conditional Effects of Self-Esteem

As CSE consists of four sub-dimensions (self-esteem, emotional stability, locus of control, self-efficacy), I explored each as a separate boundary condition. As shown in Table 25, the results showed a significant interaction between abuse and self-esteem in predicting anger ($\gamma = -.44, p < .05$).

The results of examining simple slope analyses (Figure 6) show that the relationship between abuse and anger was more positive when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = .82, p < .05$) than high ($\gamma = .38, p < .05$).

The results also showed a marginal interaction between ostracism and self-esteem in predicting anger ($\gamma = -.34, p < .10$). Examining simple slope analyses (Figure 7) shows that the relationship between ostracism and anger was more positive when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = .83, p < .05$) than when it was high ($\gamma = .49, p < .05$).

The conditional indirect effects of self-esteem are presented in Table 26. When predicting work performance, the indirect effect of abuse predicting work performance via anger was more negative when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = -.08, p < .10$) than high ($\gamma = -.04, p < .10$). Similarly, the indirect effect of abuse on OCBI was more negative when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = -.06, p < .10$) than high ($\gamma = -.03, p < .10$).

When predicting CWBi, the indirect effect of abuse was more positive when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = .07, p < .10$) than high ($\gamma = .03, p < .10$). This was also apparent when predicting turnover intention: the indirect effect of abuse was more positive when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = .33, p < .05$) than when it was high ($\gamma = .16, p < .05$).

In terms of ostracism, the results showed that self-esteem moderated the indirect effects of ostracism on work performance via anger when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = -.07, p < .05$) but not when it was high ($\gamma = -.05, n.s.$).

Overall, the results showed that self-esteem moderated the conditional effects of abuse on employee behaviors such as work performance, OCBi, CWBi, and turnover intention. It did not moderate the indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment via fear.

Sub-Dimensions of CSE: Conditional Effects of Self-Efficacy

In terms of self-efficacy (Table 27), the results showed a marginal interaction between ostracism and self-efficacy ($\gamma = .26, p < .10$) when predicting fear. Examining simple slope analyses (Figure 8) showed that the relationship between ostracism and fear was more positive when self-efficacy was high ($\gamma = .75, p < .05$) than when it was low ($\gamma = .50, p < .05$).

The results of the conditional indirect effects of self-efficacy (Table 28) showed that self-efficacy moderated the conditional indirect effects of ostracism on OCBi and turnover intention. Specifically, when predicting OCBi, the indirect effect of ostracism via fear was more positive when self-efficacy was high ($\gamma = .08, p < .10$) than when it was low ($\gamma = .05, p < .10$). Similarly, when predicting turnover intention, the indirect effect of ostracism via fear was more positive when self-efficacy was high ($\gamma = .27, p < .05$) than when it was low ($\gamma = .18, p < .05$).

Summary of sub-dimensions of CSE. In summary, the effects of self-esteem were consistent with the effects of CSE. Self-esteem, like CSE, buffered the effects of supervisor

mistreatment. In comparing abuse to ostracism, the results showed indirect effects of abuse on work performance, OCBI, CWBI, and turnover intention, whereas ostracism showed an indirect effect on work performance via anger, only when self-esteem was low.

In terms of self-efficacy, the results showed that self-efficacy moderated the indirect effects of ostracism on OCBI and turnover intention, respectively, via fear. Interestingly, there was a positive indirect effect of ostracism predicting OCBI via fear. In addition, the indirect effect of ostracism was stronger when self-efficacy was high than when it was low. Finally, no interaction effect appeared for the other sub-dimensions of CSE (emotional stability, locus of control).

CSE as a Second-Stage Moderator

Drawing on the notion of how emotions have been suggested to precede cognitions (Zajonc, 1980, 1984, 1994; Rachman, 1981, 1984), I explored the extent to which CSE might affect the relationship between follower emotions and employee behaviors (second-stage moderation) instead of the relationship between supervisor mistreatment (the stimulus) and follower emotions (first-stage moderation). As Table 29 shows, the results revealed a marginal interaction between anger and CSE (anger $\times$ CSE) predicting work effort (path β ; $\gamma = .39$, $p < .10$). Simple slope analyses (Figure 9) showed that while the relationship between anger and work effort was positive when CSE was high ($\gamma = .16$, *n.s.*) and negative when it was low ($\gamma = -.14$, *n.s.*), both slopes were non-significant. Despite the significant interaction term, CSE did not moderate the relationships between follower emotions and work effort.

Other Relationships: Interaction between Abuse and Ostracism

The results of the preliminary analyses discussed above showed an interaction between abuse and ostracism predicting CWBI (Table 10). Again, I explored this relationship despite it

not being central to my study. As shown in Figure 10, while the results showed that the relationship between abuse and CWBi to was positive when ostracism was high ($\gamma = .16, n.s.$) and negative when it was low ($\gamma = -.02, n.s.$), both slopes were non-significant.

Other Relationships: Curvilinear Effect of Abuse (AS^2) on Turnover Intention

The preliminary analyses also showed a curvilinear effect of abuse when predicting turnover intention (Table 11). As Figure 11 shows, the results revealed a U-shaped effect of abuse (AS^2) on turnover intention. The squared term (AS^2) also explained an additional 3% of the variance in turnover intentions. Overall, these results suggest that while subordinates experience turnover intentions at both high and low levels of abuse, the urge to leave the company is lowest when at medium levels of abuse.

Other Relationships: Curvilinear Effect of Ostracism (OST^2) on Fear

The preliminary analyses indicated a curvilinear effect of ostracism (OST^2) predicting fear (Table 13): Figure 12 shows a slight curvilinear effect in form of an inversed U-shape. The squared term (OST^2) also explained an additional 1% of the variance in fear. Overall, these results suggest that while subordinates experience fear at both high and low levels of ostracism, subordinates are most afraid at medium levels of ostracism.

Group Effects of Collective Emotions

While collective anger and collective fear did not moderate the individual level relationships of interest, anger and fear as a collective may have important implications on group level outcomes. To explore this possibility, I examined the effects of collective anger and collective fear on group level outcomes. Specifically, I examined the relationships to which collective anger and collective fear predicted aggregated self-ratings of work effort, citizenship behaviors, counterproductive workplace behaviors, and turnover intention. When testing for

aggregation, each of the outcome variables showed acceptable r_{wg} values and ICC values justifying aggregation (work effort, $r_{wg} = .78$, $ICC_1 = .19$, $ICC_2 = .37$; OCBi, $r_{wg} = .90$, $ICC_1 = .10$, $ICC_2 = .30$; CWBi, $r_{wg} = .92$, $ICC_1 = .16$, $ICC_2 = .43$; turnover intention, $r_{wg} = .75$, $ICC_1 = .29$, $ICC_2 = .51$).

When regressing the group outcomes on follower emotions at the group level, the results showed that both collective anger and collective fear negatively predicted work effort (collective anger, $\gamma = -.36$, $p < .05$; collective fear, $\gamma = -.23$, $p < .05$) and turnover intentions (collective anger, $\gamma = -.11$, $p < .10$; collective fear, $\gamma = -.31$, $p < .05$). The results also showed that while collective fear ($\gamma = -.19$, $p < .05$) negatively predicted CWBi, collective anger had no relationship with CWBi ($\gamma = -.03$, $n.s$). Interestingly, when predicting OCBi, the results showed that collective anger positively predicted OCBi, ($\gamma = .79$, $p < .05$) whereas collective fear negatively predicted OCBi ($\gamma = -.10$, $p < .05$).

Overall, the findings of how collective anger showed a positive relationship with group OCBi, whereas collective fear showed a negative relationship with group OCBi may reflect the notion to which people bond together when they share a common enemy. That is, subordinates will help each other by engaging in more citizenship behaviors when they share being mistreated by the supervisor and experience emotions of anger. The results also showed mixed finding on the effects of collective fear. That is, collective fear predicted less group turnover intentions, group citizenship behaviors, and group counterproductive behaviors. Such findings may be because of how fear is an emotion that is evoked from appraisals of uncertainty.

Variance at the Organizational Level

Given that the study was conducted across several different small-mid size organizations, I also explored the extent to which there may be differences across organizations. When

examining the variance of my core variables, the results showed that the majority of the variance (53%) was at the group level (within organization) with only 9% being explained by the organization (between organizations).

Absolute Perceptions of Supervisor Mistreatment

To test my predictions, I group mean centered supervisor mistreatment to account for how employees were nested within groups. This approach takes into account how subordinates are mistreated in relation to others in their team. However, individuals' perceptions of abuse and ostracism may not always be relative. To examine this, I tested the predicted relationships without centering the variables of interest. The results showed that CSE did not moderate the relationship between supervisor mistreatment (abuse, ostracism) and either follower emotion. Additionally, the results showed that collective anger also did not moderate the relationship between supervisor mistreatment (abuse, ostracism) and anger. Furthermore, while collective fear did not moderate the relationship between abuse and fear, the results showed that the interaction term between ostracism and collective fear moderately predicted fear ($\gamma = .26, p < .10$). This suggests that the process of identifying with others fearful individuals, rather than mitigating individual fear, actually amplifies individual fear. While this is contrary of my predictions, it is consistent with findings from the emotional contagion literature. Finally, collective fear did not moderate any of the indirect effects of supervisor mistreatment on employee workplace behaviors.

Index of Moderated Mediation

In testing moderated mediation, I used the approach of testing the difference in conditional indirect effects at high and low levels of the moderator (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). In addition to this, I also tested the moderated mediated predictions using the index of moderated mediation.

According to Hayes (2015), the index of moderated mediation supplements traditional approaches of testing moderated mediation (e.g., Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) by overcoming some of their limitations that include arbitrarily choosing two values of the moderator at which to condition the estimation and inference. The results showed that the marginal indirect effects predicted in Table 21 became non-significant when testing the indexes of moderated mediation following the recommendations by Hayes (2015). Specifically, the indexes of moderated mediation showed that the confidence intervals for the conditional effects of CSE on the indirect effects of abuse on work performance via anger (moderated mediation) included zero ($\gamma = .04$, *n.s.*, [-.002, .12]), and therefore indicated that CSE did not moderate the indirect effects of abuse on work performance via anger as predicted in H5.2a (no moderated mediation). Similarly, the results showed that the indexes of moderated mediation also included zero when testing H5.4a. That is, the result (indexes of moderated mediation) showed that CSE did not moderate in the indirect effects of abuse on CWBi via anger ($\gamma = -.01$, *n.s.*, [-.11, .001]). Finally, when testing H5.5a, the indexes of moderated mediation showed support for moderated mediation ($\gamma = .04$, $p < .05$, [-.40, -.02]).

DISCUSSION

From an evolutionary standpoint, negative emotions, especially the discrete emotions of anger and fear, are adaptive mechanisms that stimulate individuals to cope with hindrances that disrupt our well-being (Lazarus, 1991; Frijda et al., 1989). Understanding how and when these processes unfold in the context of interacting with supervisors can have important implications because it can shed light on employee behaviors that are important for the effectiveness of leaders and organizations (Ashkanasy, 2003; Van Kleef, 2009; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

As such, the purpose of this dissertation was to take a theoretical lens grounded in appraisal theory and explore the boundary conditions under which employees experience anger and fear in the context of various forms of supervisor mistreatment. Accordingly, I explored CSE as dispositional boundary condition between the relationship between active (abusive supervision) and passive (supervisor ostracism) forms of supervisor mistreatment and negative discrete emotions of anger and fear. Additionally, given how employees typically work in the context of others peers, I drew on social appraisal theory (Manstead & Fischer, 2001; Parkinson et al., 2005) to explore the extent to which individuals take the emotions of those around them into account, in the form of collective anger and collective fear, when experiencing active and passive forms of supervisor mistreatment. Finally, I investigated how these relationships affect several important employee workplace behaviors.

Summary of the Findings

Overall, the results did not support my initial predictions. These results may have been due to several reasons. First, one prediction was that individuals would experience anger and fear as a function of CSE. According to appraisal theorists (Folkman & Lazarus, 1998a,b; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), a key appraisal that differentiates anger from fear are appraisals of situational

control. More specifically, anger is an emotional reaction that consists of appraisals of high situational control whereas fear is the emotional reaction that consists of appraisals of low situational control.

While the post-hoc analysis indicated that dispositional traits function as a boundary condition influencing followers' emotions of anger and fear in the context of mistreatment, it did not support my initial predictions of how CSE would function to differentiate anger from fear. These results suggest that operationalizing appraisals of situational control through a dispositional trait (i.e., CSE) might have been conceptually inadequate for capturing employee's appraisals of situational control when experiencing supervisor mistreatment. This may be because dispositional traits represent a more generalized tendency of self-valuation that is relatively stable across situations (Ajzen, 1987), whereas appraisals of situational control and discrete emotions are more situation specific. As such, the operationalization of CSE may have been too broad to reflect individual appraisals of situational control.

Second, I operationalized appraisals of situational control via CSE because according to appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), these appraisals are key to determining whether someone experiences anger or fear. Appraisal theory, however, claims that, rather than being based on a single appraisal (i.e., situational control), discrete emotions are constituted of a set of appraisals that include attributions of blame, certainty, intention, and one's own potential for coping with the stressor. Thus even though appraisals of situational control may be central to distinguishing anger from fear, the other appraisals not captured in this study may play an important role in the experience of both emotions. Therefore, the results may be due to the failure of not accounting for these other appraisals.

Third, drawing on social appraisal theory (Manstead & Fischer, 2001), I explored the notion to which individuals are influenced by the emotional cues from those around them. The results did not support my predictions of how employees would consider emotional cues from their social contexts. The null findings may suggest that the social context is a less critical factor in experiencing anger or fear from supervisor mistreatment. Emotions such as anger and fear are reactions that derive from unique configurations of appraisals of a focal event (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Roseman et al., 1994; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). As these appraisals typically originate from within the individual, emotional cues from other team members may be relatively distal and of secondary importance. The null results for collective anger and fear may thus reflect the fact that employees regard their social context as a less critical factor when assessing situations of supervisor mistreatment.

Supplementary Findings

In addition to testing theory, one objective of my dissertation was to go beyond lumping specific discrete emotions under the broader umbrella term of “negative affect.” By doing so, I aimed provide new insight on how specific discrete emotions affect employee behaviors in the workplace.

Anger versus fear. As mentioned above, one of the contributions of this dissertation aimed to go beyond the traditional approach of aggregating negative emotions and provide a more fine-grained understanding of phenomena associated with specific discrete emotions of anger and fear. In support of this notion, the results from my preliminary analyses are insightful as they suggest that the aggregation of negative discrete emotions under a single construct is oversimplified and therefore does not provide an accurate reflection of how emotions unfold to influence employee behavior. For example, the results that showed how abuse positively

predicted CWBi via anger, whereas ostracism positively predicted OCBi via fear suggests that anger and fear have unique effects in which the significant mediating effects of anger may are not apparent for fear or vice versa. Furthermore, it provides preliminary evidence that reflects the unique idiosyncratic effects associated with anger and fear and illustrates how lumping negative discrete emotions together can delude the idiosyncratic relationships associated with each negative discrete emotion and lead to inaccurate inferences.

Facets of CSE. Drawing on both theory and previous research, I explored the extent to which employees experienced anger versus fear as a function of CSE, an overarching dispositional trait that reflects self-worth, capability, and confidence. According to appraisal theory and emotions research (Cannon, 1932; Ellsworth & Sherer, 2003; Folkman & Lazarus, 1998a,b; Frijda et al., 1989; Frijda, 2009; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Roseman, 2013), anger motivates approach-oriented behaviors (fight) and fear motivates avoidance-oriented behaviors (flight). Previous research on CSE has likewise indicated that individuals who think highly of themselves are more likely to adopt approach orientations, and those with low self-worth are more likely to adopt avoidance orientations (Chang et al., 2012). Accordingly, I predicted that employees with high CSE would sense greater situational control (Lazarus, 1991) and therefore experience more anger when mistreated by their supervisors. Conversely, I predicted that employees with low CSE would sense more uncertainty due to their lower situational control and were therefore more likely to experience fear when mistreated.

The results from my supplementary analyses revealed that self-worth-related traits such as CSE, self-esteem, and self-efficacy functions contrary to my predictions. Specifically, CSE buffered the negative emotions (i.e., anger) evoked by abuse. Employees with high CSE were less likely to experience anger when abused by their supervisors. The results regarding self-

esteem showed similar patterns: when employees experienced abuse, like CSE, self-esteem buffered the extent to which abuse negatively influenced employee workplace behaviors via anger.

Contrasting the indirect effects moderated by CSE and by self-esteem revealed two exceptions that were apparent in the relationships with self-esteem but not in those with CSE. First, ostracism had an indirect effect on work performance via anger when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = -.07, p < .05$). Second, abuse had an indirect effect on OCBi via anger, which was more negative when self-esteem was low ($\gamma = -.06, p < .10$) than when it was high ($\gamma = -.03, p < .10$).

Interestingly, the indirect effects moderated by self-efficacy showed different patterns. Rather than moderating the relationship between abuse and anger, self-efficacy moderated the effects of ostracism on fear, such that the relationship was more positive when self-efficacy was high ($\gamma = .75, p < .05$) than when it was low ($\gamma = .50, p < .05$). In terms of indirect effects, the results showed ostracism was indirectly related to OCBi via fear such that the relationship was more positive when self-efficacy was high ($\gamma = .08, p < .10$) than when it was low ($\gamma = .50, p < .10$). Ostracism was also indirectly related to turnover intention via fear such that the relationship was more positive when self-efficacy was high ($\gamma = .27, p < .05$) than low ($\gamma = .18, p < .05$).

Despite being the opposite of my predictions, these results are consistent with previous research suggesting that individuals with high CSE appraise situations as more positive than those with low CSE (e.g., Judge, 2009; Judge, Hurst, & Simon, 2009). As mentioned earlier, both CSE and self-esteem reflect self-worth (Chang et al., 2011). Research has shown that individuals with high self-worth are not only more resilient to social stressors, but are less likely to engage in maladaptive responses (e.g., Harris et al., 2009; Rosen, Chang, Djurdjevic, & Eatough, 2010). Such relationships have been further supported by meta-analytic studies

showing that people with higher self-worth perceive fewer stressors and experience less stress and strain (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, Scott, 2009).

The results from my supplementary analyses imply that when employees are confronted with negative stressors (e.g., abuse), those with high self-worth (CSE or self-esteem) are more likely to construe the stressor as an obstacle they can overcome without much difficulty, but those with less self-worth may see it as more of a personal threat because they see it more difficult to overcome. As a result, compared to employees with high CSE or self-esteem, supervisor mistreatment in the form of abuse is likely to be more harmful for those with low CSE or self-esteem.

Interestingly, as shown in Table 21 and Table 25, the interactions associated with self-worth traits (CSE or self-esteem) were more salient with active forms of supervisor mistreatment (abuse) than passive forms of supervisor mistreatment (ostracism). Conversely, the interactions associated with self-efficacy were more salient with passive forms of mistreatment (ostracism) than active forms of mistreatment (abuse).

The differences in the moderating effects of different dispositional traits (CSE, self-esteem vs. self-efficacy) may be due to the differences between abuse and ostracism. Active mistreatment, for instance, is more pronounced and therefore more noticeable by subordinates, who are thus more likely to interpret it as a direct threat to their self-worth, activating traits related to self-esteem. Passive mistreatment tends to be less salient and more ambiguous, and so is likely to be more subject to the employee's personal interpretation. As a result, it may activate different dispositional traits, such as self-efficacy, to influence the relationship between the stressor and fear. Taken together, the supplementary analyses suggest that different types of

supervisor behavior activate different dispositional traits that make employees more or less vulnerable to mistreatment.

Second-stage moderation of CSE. In my supplemental analyses, I also examined the extent to which CSE influenced the manifestation of the emotional response (second-stage moderation). Despite a significant interaction ($OST \times CSE$, Table 29), simple slope testing showed that ostracism did not predict work effort when CSE was high or low. Additionally, the results examining the effects of the sub-dimensions of CSE (locus of control, self-efficacy, self-esteem, emotional stability) as a second-stage boundary condition were also non-significant. Overall, the results showed significant interaction effects of dispositional traits (CSE, self-esteem, self-efficacy) on the relationship between supervisor mistreatment and follower emotions (first stage), but not on the relationship between follower emotions and employee behaviors (second stage). This suggests that dispositional traits influence the emotional experience of discrete emotions rather than influencing the process in which emotions manifest into behaviors.

Appraisal theory and supervisor mistreatment. Another goal of this dissertation was to directly test certain aspects of appraisal theory and to explore the different effects of active and passive forms of supervisor mistreatment. As shown in Table 19 (indirect effects via anger) and Table 20 (indirect effects via fear), the results revealed a pattern of different effects of active and passive forms of supervisor mistreatment on both anger and fear.

As mentioned above, active supervisor mistreatment tends to be a more direct form of behavior (Tepper, 2007), and employees should thus find it easier to interpret. This is because situational clarity derived from the relatively direct form of supervisor mistreatment (abuse) allows employees to make more detailed assessments (e.g., attributing blame towards someone,

evaluate the intention of the instigator, assess the extent to which the negative event may happen again) that are necessary to evoke anger.

On the other hand, passive mistreatment tends to be more indirect and nuanced (Ferris, Chen, & Lim, 2017), and employees should accordingly find ostracism more difficult to interpret. Because fear is based on an individual's subjective uncertainty (Frijda et al., 1989; Roseman, 2013), when supervisors behave in vague and unclear ways, as in ostracism, clear assessments are not possible, and employees should be more likely to feel fear when mistreated through ostracism.

The results suggesting stronger effects of abuse on anger than on fear are consistent with the way appraisal theory describes anger as derived from appraisals of high situational certainty. However, the extent to which ostracism showed stronger effects than abuse on both anger and fear is contrary to appraisal theory's suggestion that fear is derived from appraisals of low situational certainty (Lazarus, 1991). The extent to which passive forms of supervisor mistreatment generated stronger effects for both anger and fear may reflect how the nuanced and ambiguous nature of ostracism generates uncertainty that further evokes a spike in a mixture of both anger and fear, in what Chan and McAllister (2014) refer to as a state paranoia.

Overall, the results showed a positive indirect effect of abusive supervision predicting CWBi via anger, and a positive indirect effect of supervisor ostracism predicting OCBi via fear. These results imply that while active forms of supervisor mistreatment can evoke anger in subordinates and induce them to pursue counterwork behaviors towards others, passive mistreatment might evoke fear in subordinates and induce them to engage in citizenship behaviors that are beneficial to the organization. The positive indirect effects of supervisor ostracism on OCBi provides evidence supporting the notion how certain forms of supervisory

behavior may be necessary and beneficial to organizations. However, given that both types of mistreatment significantly predicted turnover intention, via anger and fear respectively, the more comprehensive interpretation may be that these positive indirect effects may reflect individual efforts to reduce the mistreatment.

Theoretical Implications

This study provides several important theoretical contributions. First, it contributes to the organizational behavior literature by drawing on appraisal theory to provide a more detailed perspective on phenomena closely associated with discrete negative emotions in the workplace. Much of the research drawing on appraisal theory has focused either on understanding how discrete emotions differ from each other or on the processes by which they are experienced. As a result, the application and integration of appraisal theory with other literatures has been scant. As emotions are a part of almost every aspect of our daily lives, expanding and integrating appraisal theory with other literatures, such as that on supervisor mistreatment, can provide new insights into how and when employees experience different emotions. Hence, this dissertation provides a novel theoretical lens for understanding the processes in which employees respond to mistreatment.

Second, this dissertation contributes to the supervisor-mistreatment literature by introducing the dispositional traits of self-worth, specifically CSE, self-esteem, and self-efficacy, as boundary conditions influencing the emotional experiences of subordinates. While recent studies have started to examine discrete emotions in the context of supervisor mistreatment, much of the research still centers on understanding how discrete emotions transmit the effects of the supervisor mistreatment. Relatively little is known about the boundary conditions that affect the intensity of the emotional experience. Thus, the literature can benefit from studies that

explore different boundary conditions because it would provide a more thorough understanding of the nomological network associated with discrete emotions.

Finally, this dissertation provides a new perspective on a widely held view of supervisor mistreatment and negative emotions. The general assumption is that supervisor mistreatment and negative emotions are both toxic. However, contrary to much of the research supporting this (e.g., Ferris et al., 2016; Hershcovis, 2011; Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013; Tepper, 2007), several practitioners have suggested that this is not always the case. For example, numerous reports have indicated that prominent business leaders such as Elon Musk, Steve Jobs, and Jeff Bezos, arguably the some of the most brilliant and successful leaders of our times, were noted for mistreating their employees (Schwartz, 2015).

While negative emotions also share this general stigma, research has indicated that negative emotions, specifically anger and fear, motivate individuals to respond effectively to threats (Kemper, 1987; LeDoux, 1996; Tooby, & Cosmides, 2008). Building on this notion, this dissertation integrates accounts of negative discrete emotions with supervisor mistreatment to provide a theoretical rational for how and why employees who experience mistreatment from supervisors might engage in behaviors that are less harmful and even adaptive for organizations. Notably, the aim of this dissertation is not to promote supervisor mistreatment as a tactical means of motivating employees, but more so, it aims to address the inconsistencies between research and practice via theory and research.

Practical Implications

This study provides several practical implications. The findings of the post-hoc analysis suggest that employees with dispositional traits related to self-worth (CSE and self-esteem) are more tolerant and therefore likely to experience less stress when mistreated by supervisors than

those who lack such traits. These findings can benefit managers by informing them on how to interact with employees. For example, leaders who are relatively harsh can differentiate the ways they interact with different subordinates as a function of the subordinates' dispositional traits (i.e., CSE, self-esteem, self-efficacy). Organizations can develop leadership programs to help managers engage in more effective management styles other than abuse and ostracism. Such programs could train managers to be more respectful of their subordinates and other colleagues.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions

There are several strengths of this dissertation. First, this dissertation provides indirect support that highlights the importance of taking a more detailed approach to examining negative emotions in the workplace. As discussed earlier, the research on organizational affect tends to overemphasize the study of broader emotions at the expense of discrete emotions (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Subsuming discrete emotions (e.g., anger and fear) under a simple structure (negative emotions) limits us from fully understanding how affect unfolds in the workplace because it dilutes the unique and idiosyncratic characteristics of each discrete emotion. As implied throughout this dissertation, anger and fear are both idiosyncratic, and despite both being negative emotions, they emerge through different cognitive processes to affect behaviors differently. This dissertation therefore contributes to the literature by providing incremental evidence that emphasizes the importance of taking a discrete emotions approach to understanding how affect influences phenomena in the workplace.

Another strength of this dissertation comes from the findings in the post hoc analyses. Employees, supervisors, and organizations often view negative emotions as detrimental to the workplace. When employees experience negative emotions from supervisor mistreatment, research has suggested that such negative emotions produce outcomes that are detrimental for

both employees and organizations (e.g., Ferris et al., 2017; Tepper et al., 2017). However, contrary to this generally accepted notion, the post hoc results provide some evidence explaining how supervisor mistreatment, under specific circumstances, may motivate individuals to engage in behaviors that are not entirely detrimental to the organization. This is not to say that organizations should promote mistreatment, but it may explain why some leaders are reinforced to engage in such behavior. It may be that such supervisors are unconsciously induced to engage in such behaviors because it helps achieve certain types of outcomes at least in the short run.

Finally, I measured my variables across three different surveys. Specifically, I measured leadership behaviors in the first data collection wave, emotion variables in the second data collection wave, and employee behaviors in wave three provided by both self-reports and direct supervisors. Employing a multi-wave, multi-source study design provides a means to test my predictions in a robust manner while also minimizing the risk of common method bias.

Despite these strengths, this study has several empirical and theoretical limitations. First, I measured participant emotions using survey based self-reports. However, other alternative means of measurements may provide more robust and objective observations. For example, some studies have utilized fMRIs to assess emotions by monitoring brain responses, facial expressions, and heartbeat (Batty & Taylor, 2003; Phan, Wager, Taylor, & Liberzon, 2002; Zaki, Davis, & Ochsner, 2012). Such measurement techniques can provide physiological assessments that are more robust and objective means of assessing anger and fear.

Furthermore, I did not test anger and fear at the time of mistreatment. I instead allowed a two-week interval between the stimulus (supervisor mistreatment) and the emotional response. While previous studies have employed similar research designs that measured emotions at later points in time following the stimulus or event (e.g., Ferris et al., 2016), this may be concerning

because the time lag may dilute the idiosyncratic features of the discrete emotions, which are presumably most pronounced at the time of the event (e.g., Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Elfenbein, 2007). If appraisals are conducted immediately, if not simultaneously after experiencing a stressor or stimuli (Arnold, 1960; Lazarus, 1991), the intervals between the different surveys may have dissipated the effects of the stimulus and therefore weakened the emotional experience of anger and fear (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Elfenbein, 2007). Future studies can address these concerns by employing alternative research designs and measurement tools. For example, an experience-sampling method (ESM) might provide a more robust assessment of emotions at a time point closer to the event of interest. Employing such a research designs in tandem with physiological measurement tools (e.g., heartbeat or blood-pressure monitors, fMRIs, facial expressions) would give researches a more robust means of capturing discrete emotions that are more accurately tied to the event of mistreatment.

The second limitation involves the cultural context of the study. All the participants consisted of employees from East Asia. As a result, the generalizability of the findings are somewhat limited, as participants from other cultural backgrounds were not considered. Previous research has suggested that cultural factors influence the way people perceive supervisor mistreatment. For example, scholars have suggested that in cultures of high power distance, mistreatment may be more acceptable by both supervisors and employees compared to the norms in cultures of low power distance (Tepper, 2007; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012). Such cultural factors may also influence the extent to which individuals express their emotions. People in more collectivist cultures may suppress their emotions more than those in individualistic cultures (Ekman et al., 1987). As such, the relationships described in this dissertation may be very different in other cultural contexts.

Third, this study does not capture the full spectrum of the appraisal process. Appraisal theory states that discrete emotions are derived from a set of appraisals rather than a single appraisal (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1984). Thus, because I only accounted for appraisals of situational control based on its key role in distinguishing anger from fear, the extent to which other appraisals come into play is unknown. As briefly mentioned earlier, alternative appraisals of blame, certainty, intention of the actors actions, and one's coping potential to effectively cope with the situation may also play an important role in the process of generating discrete emotions (Roseman & Smith, 2001). To address these limitations, future studies can explore the full spectrum of the appraisal process. By accounting for other appraisals important to evoking emotions of anger and fear, scholars will be able to conduct a more a rigorous testing of appraisal theory.

Finally, this dissertation focuses on anger and fear and does not examine other discrete emotions. Based on theory and previous research, I focused on understanding the implications of anger and fear because both emotions, from an evolutionary perspective, are primary defense mechanisms of high activation that motivate individuals to mobilize responses to effectively respond to a potential disturbance (Kemper, 1987). However, employees are also capable of experiencing other emotions. For example, discrete emotions of guilt and empathy have also been suggested to be influential (Liu, Kwan, Wu, & Wu, 2010). Sadness, which has been associated with substance abuse and depression, can also have important implications associated with well-being in the workplace (Leventhal, 2008; Oh & Farh, 2017). Finally, studies have shown envy, like anger and fear, to be an important motivational factor in the workplace (Kim & Glomb, 2014). As such, examining a larger spectrum of discrete emotions may provide important

implications about how discrete emotions affect employees and organizations in the context of supervisor mistreatment.

CONCLUSION

The workplace is full of emotions. Of these emotions, individuals are more attentive to those that are negative because they signal a disturbance in everyday well-being (Lazarus, 1991). While negative discrete emotions can be triggered by a number of different reasons, supervisor mistreatment is presumably one of the most influential. As such, this dissertation provides a more thorough understanding of how and when specific discrete emotions of anger and fear influence important employee workplace behaviors.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Tables and figures

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Table 1.

Pattern Matrix of Rotated Factor Loadings of Anger and Fear Items with Unique

Variances

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Uniqueness
anger1	.91		.14
anger2	.91		.18
anger3	.90		.11
anger4	.92		.07
anger5	.88		.12
anger6	.86		.20
fear1		.93	.21
fear2		.95	.11
fear3		.90	.14
fear4	.33	.51	.41
fear5		.68	.24
fear6	.40	.58	.19

Note. N = 243. Blank represents loadings < .30.

Table 2.

Regression results of Follower Emotions Predicting Organizational and Demographic Variables and Personality Traits

Variables	<u>Anger</u>		<u>Fear</u>	
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Gender	-.53*	.12	-.22*	.10
Education	-.33†	.19	-.15	.15
Rank	-.08	.08	-.04	.06
Age	.03*	.01	.02*	.01
Organizational tenure	.01	.01	.01	.01
Team tenure	.03†	.02	.01	.01
Leader-follower tenure	.05*	.02	.03†	.02
Extraversion	-.39*	.10	-.40*	.07
Agreeableness	-.69*	.11	-.50*	.08
Conscientiousness	-.55*	.10	-.44*	.07
Openness	-.39*	.10	-.31*	.08
LMX	-.72*	.07	-.48*	.06

Note. N =243.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.

Regression results of Potential Control Variables Predicting Employee Behaviors

Variable	<u>Work Effort</u>		<u>Work Performance</u>		<u>OCBi</u>		<u>CWBi</u>		<u>Turnover Intention</u>	
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Gender	.31*	.12	.01	.08	.18*	.08	-.23*	.08	-.36*	.14
Education	.18	.12	.15	.12	.02	.10	-.27*	.09	.08	.15
Rank	-.03	.07	.15*	.05	.05	.04	-.08*	.04	.02	.07
Age	-.02*	.01	-.002	.01	-.01	.01	.02*	.01	.03*	.01
Organizational Tenure	-.01	.01	.02*	.01	.01	.01	.004	.01	.02	.01
Team Tenure	-.03	.02	.02*	.01	.004	.01	.02†	.01	.04*	.02
Leader-Follower Tenure	-.03	.02	.03*	.01	-.004	.01	.03*	.01	.05*	.02
Extraversion	.30*	.09	.13*	.06	.11†	.06	-.04	.06	-.53*	.10
Agreeableness	.58*	.11	.20*	.07	.31*	.07	-.31*	.07	-.72*	.12
Conscientiousness	.52*	.09	.13†	.07	.14*	.06	-.15*	.06	-.54*	.11
Openness	.31*	.10	.11†	.07	.14*	.06	-.16*	.06	-.39*	.11
LMX	.28*	.08	.22*	.05	.30*	.05	-.26*	.05	-.61*	.08

Note. N =243. LMX = Leader-member exchange.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.

Hierarchical Regression Results of Anger and Fear Predicting Employee Behaviors

	<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>				<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	3.90*	.15	3.97*	.15	4.26*	.10	4.29*	.10	4.05*	.09	4.08*	.09	1.23*	.09	1.20*	.09	1.52*	.16	1.45*	.15
Fear	-.06	.08	.15	.13	-.13	.05	.09	.08	-.12*	.05	.14†	.07	.21*	.05	-.05	.07	.59*	.09	.11	.12
Anger			-.21*	.09			-.22*	.06			-.25*	.06			.26*	.06			.48*	.09
ΔR^2	.002		.02		.02		.05		.02		.08		.07		.08		.17		.08	

Note. N =243.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.

Pattern Matrix of Rotated Factor Loadings of Abusive Supervision and Supervisor

Ostracism Items with Unique Variances

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Uniqueness
AS1	.64		.48
AS2	.92		.24
AS3	.72		.24
AS4	.61	.34	.21
AS5	.76		.30
AS6	.48		.74
AS7	.84		.29
AS8	.90		.23
AS9	.84		.27
AS10	.69		.26
AS11	.50	.39	.31
AS12	.62	.31	.23
AS13	.68		.26
AS14	.69		.32
OST1	.33	.48	.43
OST2	.32	.63	.21
OST3		.78	.18
OST4		1.01	.06
OST5		1.02	.05
OST6		.85	.15
OST7		.68	.23

Note. N = 243. Blank represents loadings < .30.

AS = abusive supervision items.

OST = supervisor ostracism items.

Table 6.

Regression Results of Supervisor Mistreatment Predicting Organizational and Demographic Variables and Personality Traits

variable	<u>Abusive Supervision</u>		<u>Supervisor Ostracism</u>	
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Gender	-.24*	.10	-.11	.08
Education	.01	.18	.07	.14
Rank	-.07	.07	-.03	.05
Age	.01	.01	.01	.01
Organizational tenure	-.01	.01	-.001	.01
Team tenure	.01	.01	-.001	.01
Leader-follower tenure	.02	.02	.02	.01
Extraversion	-.33*	.07	-.22*	.06
Agreeableness	-.45*	.08	-.34*	.07
Conscientiousness	-.35*	.08	-.25*	.06
Openness	-.29*	.08	-.22*	.06
LMX	-.55*	.05	-.39*	.05

Note. N = 243.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.

Hierarchical Regression of Supervisor Mistreatment Behaviors Predicting Work Effort

	<u>Work Effort</u>									
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	3.84*	.06	3.84*	.06	3.80*	.07	3.82*	.08	3.83*	.09
AS	-.06	.08	-.05	.15	-.08	.15	.06	.21	.06	.22
OST			-.01	.18	-.07	.19	-.21	.25	-.21	.25
AS x OST					.10	.11	.28	.23	.32	.41
AS ²							-.16	.18	-.17	.21
OST ²									-.03	.29
ΔR^2	.002		.0001		.004		.003		.0001	

Note. N = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 8.

Hierarchical Regression of Supervisor Mistreatment Behaviors Predicting Work Performance

	<u>Work Performance</u>									
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	4.05*	.04	4.05*	.04	4.08*	.05	4.10*	.05	4.11*	.06
AS	-.20*	.05	-.18†	.09	-.16†	.09	-.02	.14	-.01	.14
OST			-.04	.12	-.004	.12	-.15	.16	-.14	.16
AS x OST					-.06	.07	.13	.15	.27	.26
AS ²							-.16	.11	-.21	.13
OST ²									-.12	.18
R ²	.06		.001		.003		.008		.002	

Note. N = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 9.

Hierarchical Regression of Supervisor Mistreatment Behaviors Predicting OCBI

	<u>OCBi</u>									
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	3.85*	.04	3.85*	.04	3.88*	.05	3.91*	.05	4.00*	.05
AS	-.19	.05	-.03	.09	-.01	.09	.14*	.13	.20	.13
OST			-.24*	.11	-.19†	.11	-.34	.15	-.32*	.14
AS x OST					-.09	.06	.10	.14	.64*	.24
AS ²							-.17	.10	-.34*	.12
OST ²									-.44*	.17
ΔR^2	.06		.02		.008		.01		.03	

Note. N = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 10.

Hierarchical Regression of Supervisor Mistreatment Behaviors Predicting CWBi

	<u>CWBi</u>									
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.59*	.04	1.59*	.04	1.53*	.05	1.53*	.05	1.50*	.05
AS	.19	.05	.07	.09	.04	.09	.004	.13	-.02	.13
OST			.18	.11	.10	.11	.13	.15	.13	.15
AS x OST					.15*	.06	.11	.14	-.08	.25
AS ²							.04	.11	.10	.12
OST ²									.15	.17
ΔR^2	.06		.01		.02		.0001		.003	

Note. $N = 243$. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 11.

Hierarchical Regression of Supervisor Mistreatment Behaviors Predicting Turnover Intention

	<u>Turnover Intention</u>									
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	2.50*	.07	2.50*	.07	2.47*	.08	2.41*	.08	2.35*	.09
AS	.55*	.09	.34*	.15	.32*	.15	-.10	.22	-.16	.22
OST			.31	.19	.26	.19	.69*	.25	.68*	.25
AS x OST					.08	.11	-.48*	.23	-.95*	.42
AS ²							.48*	.18	.63*	.21
OST ²									.39	.29
ΔR^2	.15		.01		.002		.03		.006	

Note. N = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 12.

Hierarchical Regression of Supervisor Mistreatment Behaviors Predicting Anger

	<u>Anger</u>									
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.82*	.05	1.82*	.05	1.80*	.06	1.78*	.06	1.80*	.07
AS	.84*	.07	.64*	.12	.62*	.12	.51*	.17	.53*	.17
OST			.31*	.14	.27†	.15	.39*	.19	.39*	.19
AS x OST					.06	.08	-.08	.18	.09	.32
AS ²							.13	.14	.07	.16
OST ²									-.14	.22
ΔR^2	.42		.01		.001		.002		.001	

Note. *N* = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 13.

Hierarchical Regression of Leader Behaviors Predicting Fear

	<u>Fear</u>									
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.66*	.04	1.66*	.04	1.66*	.04	1.67*	.05	1.72*	.05
AS	.64*	.05	.43*	.09	.43*	.09	.48*	.12	.53*	.13
OST			.32*	.11	.32*	.11	.27†	.14	.29*	.14
AS x OST					-.01	.06	.06	.13	.47†	.24
AS ²							-.06	.10	-.19	.12
OST ²									-.34*	.16
ΔR^2	.43		.02		.001		.001		.01	

Note. *N* = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 14. Bivariate Correlations

Level 1 variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Age	35.32	6.58							
2 Gender	1.49	.50	-.31**						
3 Education	1.89	.98	-.09	-.12					
4 Rank	3.39	1.49	.59**	-.31**	.43**				
5 Organizational Tenure	7.35	5.57	.62**	-.15*	.03	.69**			
6 Team Tenure	3.93	3.73	.44**	-.23**	-.05	.48**	.60**		
7 Leader-Follower Tenure	3.05	3.35	.38**	-.22**	.001	.46**	.54**	.60**	
8 Leader-Member Exchange	3.79	.76	-.19**	.23**	.08	.13	.02	.05	-.06
9 Emotional Stability	3.26	.67	.04	.03	-.28	.12	.11	.07	-.06
10 Extraversion	3.29	.66	-.06	.02	-.35*	-.04	.05	.03	-.02
11 Agreeableness	3.78	.56	-.25**	.17**	.15	.05	-.01	.001	-.11
12 Conscientiousness	3.87	.61	.03	.09	.12	.23*	.08	.04	-.03
13 Openness	3.77	.61	-.08	.08	.17	.16	.03	-.02	-.06
14 Self-Efficacy	4.11	.60	-.13*	.04	.04	.13	.02	.05	-.04
15 Locus of Control	3.10	.80	.11	.13*	.08	.14	.12	.04	-.05
16 Self-Esteem	3.84	.57	-.11	.05	.28	.10	.05	.08	-.05
17 CSE ¹	3.58	.46	-.02	.10	.07	.19	.11	.08	-.07
18 Abusive Supervision	1.70	.77	.05	-.16*	.01	-.11	-.03	.03	.08
19 Supervisor Ostracism	1.49	.62	.09	-.08	.08	-.06	-.01	-.01	.08
20 Anger	1.82	1.01	.20**	-.26**	-.26	-.10	.04	.11	.16*
21 Fear	1.66	.76	.15*	-.15*	-.16	-.07	.04	.04	.12
22 Work Effort	3.84	.98	-.16*	.16*	.24	-.04	-.08	-.09	-.10
23 Work Performance	4.05	.63	-.02	.01	.20	.30**	.16*	.13*	.13*
24 OCBI ² _(target supervisor)	3.85	.60	-.08	.15*	.03	.12	.08	.03	-.03
25 CWBi ³ _(target supervisor)	1.59	.61	.18**	-.19**	-.43**	-.21*	.03	.12	.15*
26 Turnover Intention	2.50	1.09	.20**	-.17**	.09	.03	.08	.13*	.17*

Note. N = 243 (within). N = 60 (between) ¹ Core-Self Evaluations.

² Organizational Citizenship Behavior. ³ Counterproductive Workplace Behavior.

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Correlation is significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 14. (cont'd)

	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 Age									
2 Gender									
3 Education									
4 Rank									
5 Organizational Tenure									
6 Team Tenure									
7 Leader-Follower Tenure									
8 Leader-Member Exchange									
9 Emotional Stability	.29**								
10 Extraversion	.38**	.38**							
11 Agreeableness	.50**	.35**	.46**						
12 Conscientiousness	.40**	.48**	.28**	.50**					
13 Openness	.35**	.32**	.32**	.46**	.55**				
14 Self-Efficacy	.50**	.35**	.38**	.47**	.49**	.37**			
15 Locus of Control	.09	.31**	.12	.08	.22**	.13*	.03		
16 Self-Esteem	.58**	.50**	.49**	.55**	.55**	.45**	.60**	.27**	
17 CSE ¹	.48**	.76**	.46**	.48**	.60**	.43**	.65**	.64**	.79**
18 Abusive Supervision	-.55**	-.25**	-.28**	-.33**	-.28**	-.23**	-.37**	-.22**	-.44**
19 Supervisor Ostracism	-.48**	-.24**	-.23**	-.31**	-.24**	-.21**	-.35**	-.15*	-.44**
20 Anger	-.55**	-.31**	-.26**	-.38**	-.34**	-.23**	-.35**	-.14*	-.37**
21 Fear	-.49**	-.38**	-.34**	-.37**	-.35**	-.25**	-.36**	-.22**	-.50**
22 Work Effort	.23**	.21**	.20**	.33**	.33**	.20**	.25**	.13*	.26**
23 Work Performance	.26**	.03	.14*	.17**	.12	.11	.15*	.05	.13*
24 OCBi ² _(target supervisor)	.38**	.08	.12	.29**	.14*	.14*	.17**	.03	.17**
25 CWBi ³ _(target supervisor)	-.32**	-.07	-.04	-.29**	-.16*	-.16*	-.13*	-.01	-.15*
26 Turnover Intention	-.43**	-.37**	-.32**	-.37**	-.30**	-.22**	-.25**	-.19**	-.30**

Note. N = 243 (within). N = 60 (between) ¹ Core-Self Evaluations.

² Organizational Citizenship Behavior. ³ Counterproductive Workplace Behavior.

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Correlation is significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 14. (cont'd)

		17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1	Age									
2	Gender									
3	Education									
4	Rank									
5	Organizational Tenure									
6	Team Tenure									
7	Leader-Follower Tenure									
8	Leader-Member Exchange									
9	Emotional Stability									
10	Extraversion									
11	Agreeableness									
12	Conscientiousness									
13	Openness									
14	Self-Efficacy									
15	Locus of Control									
16	Self-Esteem									
17	CSE ¹									
18	Abusive Supervision	-.44**								
19	Supervisor Ostracism	-.39**	.83**							
20	Anger	-.40**	.64**	.59**						
21	Fear	-.50**	.65**	.62**	.76**					
22	Work Effort	.29**	-.05	-.04	-.13*	-.05				
23	Work Performance	.12	-.24**	-.21**	-.26**	-.15*	-.01			
24	OCBi ² _(target supervisor)	.14*	-.24**	-.28**	-.30**	-.15*	.09	.63**		
25	CWBi ³ _(target supervisor)	-.11	.24**	.26**	.38**	.26**	-.14*	-.29**	-.54**	
26	Turnover Intention	-.39**	.38**	.37**	.50**	.41**	-.29**	-.10	-.20**	.20**

Note. N = 243 (within). N = 60 (between) ¹ Core-Self Evaluations.

² Organizational Citizenship Behavior. ³ Counterproductive Workplace Behavior.

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Correlation is significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 14. (cont'd)

	M	SD	1
Level 2 (Team level)			
1 Collective Anger	1.85	.94	
2 Collective Fear	1.74	.77	.79**

Note. N = 243 (within). N = 60 (between).

*. Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the 0.10 level (2-tailed).

Table 15.**Supervisor Mistreatment x CSE Predicting Anger**

	<u>Anger</u>		<u>Anger</u>	
	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.74*	.09	1.75*	.09
AS	.60*	.08		
OST			.65*	.09
CSE	-.08	.13	-.17	.13
AS x CSE	-.36†	.20		
OST x CSE			-.27	.27

Note. N = 243. CSE = core-self evaluations. AS = abusive supervision.

OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 16.**Supervisor Mistreatment x CSE Predicting Fear**

	<u>Fear</u>		<u>Fear</u>	
	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.64*	.06	1.64*	.06
AS	.47*	.06		
OST			.57*	.07
CSE	-.42*	.10	-.46*	.10
AS x CSE	.08	.16		
OST x CSE			.12	.20

Note. N = 243. CSE = core-self evaluations. AS = abusive supervision.

OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 17.**Supervisor Mistreatment and Collective Anger Predicting Anger**

	<u>Anger</u>		<u>Anger</u>	
	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.83*	.04	1.83*	.04
AS	.77*	.10		
OST			.75*	.11
Collective Anger	1.03*	.06	1.03*	.06
AS x Collective Anger	-.06	.16		
OST x Collective Anger			-.06	.17

Note. N = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 18.**Supervisor Mistreatment and Collective Fear Predicting Fear**

	<u>Fear</u>		<u>Fear</u>	
	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.66*	.03	1.66*	.03
AS	.57*	.06		
OST			.61*	.10
Collective Fear	.80*	.07	.80*	.07
AS x Collective Fear	-.03	.17		
OST x Collective Fear			.13	.20

Note. N = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 19.

Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment on Employee Behaviors via Anger

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	.63*	-.07	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.62	-.09†	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.63*	-.08	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	.70*	-.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.70*	-.09	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.70*	-.04	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

		<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	.63*	.08†	.05†	[.01, .10]	.62*	.39*	.24*	[.12, .38]
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	.70*	.04	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.70*	.41*	.29*	[.16, .44]

Note. N = 243.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 20.

Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment on Employee Behaviors via Fear

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> fear	.54*	.03	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.54*	.03	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.54*	.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.64*	.04	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.64*	.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.64*	.10†	.07†	[.01, .13]

		<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> fear	.54*	.02	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.54*	.34*	.18*	[.06, .32]
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.64*	-.04	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.64*	.37*	.24*	[.09, .40]

Note. N = 243.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 21.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment x CSE on Employee Behaviors via Anger

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	-.37†	-.07	ns	ns	-.37†	-.10†	H: -.04† L: -.07†	[-.09, -.002] [-.14, -.003]	-.36†	-.08	ns	ns
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	-.28	-.06	ns	ns	-.28	-.09	ns	ns	-.27	-.04	ns	ns

		<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	-.37†	.08†	H: .04† L: .06†	[.01, .09] [.01, .12]	-.43*	.40*	H: .18* L: .30*	[.08, .31] [.15, .47]
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	-.28	.04	ns	ns	-.36	.42*	ns	ns

Note. N = 243. ¹ Path α = IV x CSE interaction.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 22.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment x CSE on Employee Behaviors via Fear

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> fear	.08	.03	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.08	.03	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.08	.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.12	.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.12	.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.12	.11†	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

		<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> fear	.08	.01	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.05	.33*	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.12	-.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.07	.35*	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

Note. N = 243. ¹ Path α = IV x CSE interaction.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 23.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment x Collective Anger on Employee Behaviors via Anger

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	-.06	-.01	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.06	-.07	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.06	-.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	-.06	-.001	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.06	-.06	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.06	-.02	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

		<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	-.06	.07	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.06	.32*	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	-.06	.03	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.06	.34	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

Note. N = 243. ¹ Path α = IV x collective anger (cross-level interaction).

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 24.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment x Collective Fear on Employee Behaviors via Fear

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> fear	-.03	.08	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.03	.03	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.03	.06	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.13	.10	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.13	.04	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.13	.11*	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

		<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> fear	-.03	.01	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	-.04	.26*	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.13	-.04	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.13	.29*	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

Note. N = 243. ¹ Path α = IV x collective fear (cross-level interaction).

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 25.

Supervisor Mistreatment x Self-Esteem Predicting Anger

	<u>Anger</u>		<u>Anger</u>	
	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.73*	.08	1.73*	.09
AS	.60*	.07		
OST			.66*	.09
Self-Esteem	-.05	.11	-.08	.11
AS x Self-Esteem	-.44*	.16		
OST x Self-Esteem			-.34†	.19

Note. N = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*, Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 26.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment x Self-Esteem on Employee Behaviors via Anger

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	-.44*	-.07	ns	ns	-.45*	-.10†	H: -.04† L: -.08†	[-.08, -.003] [-.15, -.01]	-.45*	-.08†	H: -.03† L: -.06†	[-.07, -.002] [-.13, -.004]
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	-.34†	-.05	ns	ns	-.35†	-.09†	H: -.05 L: -.07†	[-.09, .001] [-.15, -.0001]	-.34†	-.05	ns	ns

		<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	-.45*	-.09†	H: .03† L: .07†	[.004, .07] [.01, .13]	-.49*	.41*	H: .16* L: .33*	[.06, .28] [.17, .52]
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	-.34†	.04	ns	ns	-.36	.42*	ns	ns

Note. N = 243. ¹ Path α = IV x self-esteem interaction.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 27.

Supervisor Mistreatment x Self-Efficacy Predicting Fear

	<u>Fear</u>		<u>Fear</u>	
	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>	<u>γ</u>	<u>s.e.</u>
Intercept	1.76*	.09	1.65*	.06
AS	.52*	.06		
OST			.63*	.07
Self-Efficacy	-.13†	.08	-.11	.08
AS x Self-Efficacy	.15	.10		
OST x Self-Efficacy			.26†	.14

Note. N = 243. AS = abusive supervision. OST = supervisor ostracism.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 28.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Supervisor Mistreatment x Self-Efficacy on Employee Behaviors via Anger

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.26†	.05	ns	ns	.26†	.05	ns	ns	.26†	.10†	H: .08† L: .05†	H: [.01, .15] L: [.01, .10]

		<u>CWBi</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α^1	Path β	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.26†	-.05	ns	ns	.24†	.36*	H: .27* L: .18*	H: [.09, .51] L: [.05, .31]

Note. N = 243. ¹ Path α = IV x self-efficacy interaction.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Table 29.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Follower Emotions x CSE (second stage moderation) on Employee Behaviors

		<u>Work Effort</u>				<u>Work Performance</u>				<u>OCBi</u>			
		Path α	Path β^1	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β^1	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β^1	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	.63*	.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.63*	.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.63*	-.02	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	.70*	.39†	H: .10 L: -.09	[-.003, .25] [-.04, .02]	.70*	.04	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.70*	-.03	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Abusive supervision	--> fear	.54*	-.17	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.54*	.12	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.54*	-.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.64*	-.16	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.64*	.09	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.64*	.02	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

		<u>CWB_i</u>				<u>Turnover Intention</u>			
		Path α	Path β^1	Indirect effect	95% C.I.	Path α	Path β^1	Indirect effect	95% C.I.
Abusive supervision	--> anger	.63*	.01	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.63*	.12	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> anger	.70*	.02	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.70*	.12	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Abusive supervision	--> fear	.54*	-.06	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.54*	.004	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Supervisor ostracism	--> fear	.64*	-.05	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	.64*	.03	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

Note. N = 243. Path α = abusive supervision / supervisor ostracism --> anger / fear.

¹ Path β = (anger/fear) x CSEs interaction.

*. Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

†. Significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).

Figure 1.

Proposed conceptual model

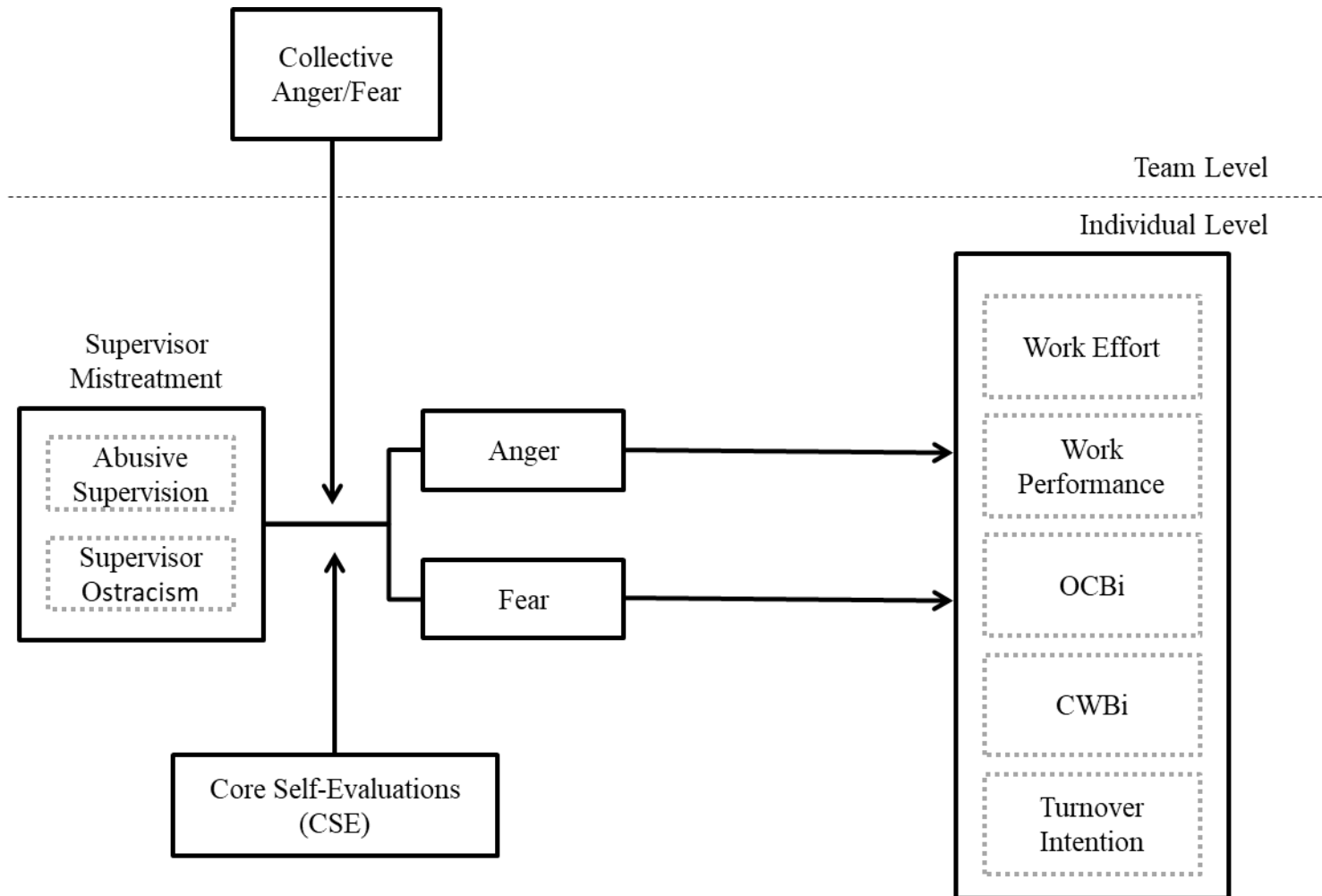


Figure 2.

Scree Plot of Eigenvalues of Anger and Fear Items

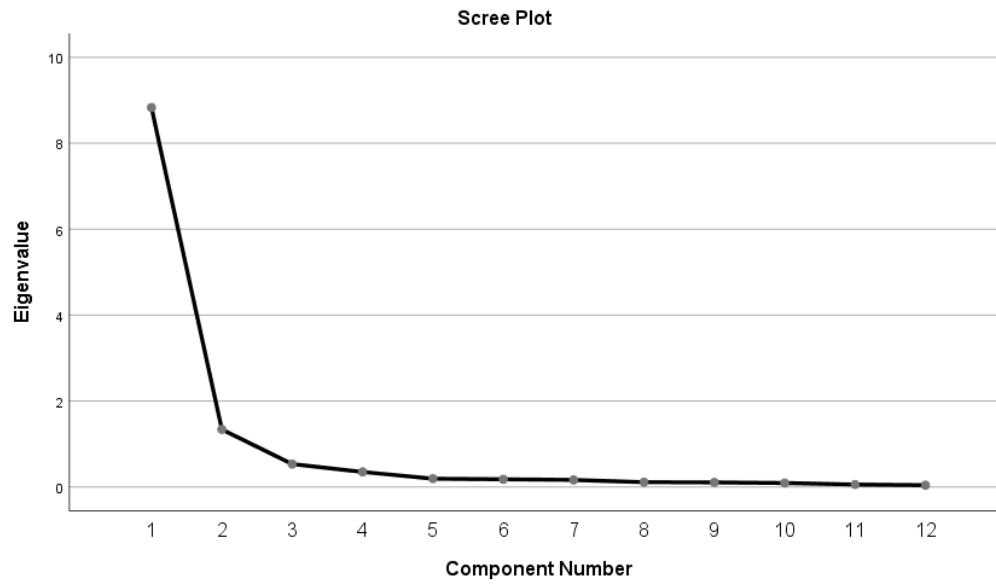


Figure 3.

Scree Plot of Eigenvalues of Abusive Supervision and Supervisor Ostracism Items.

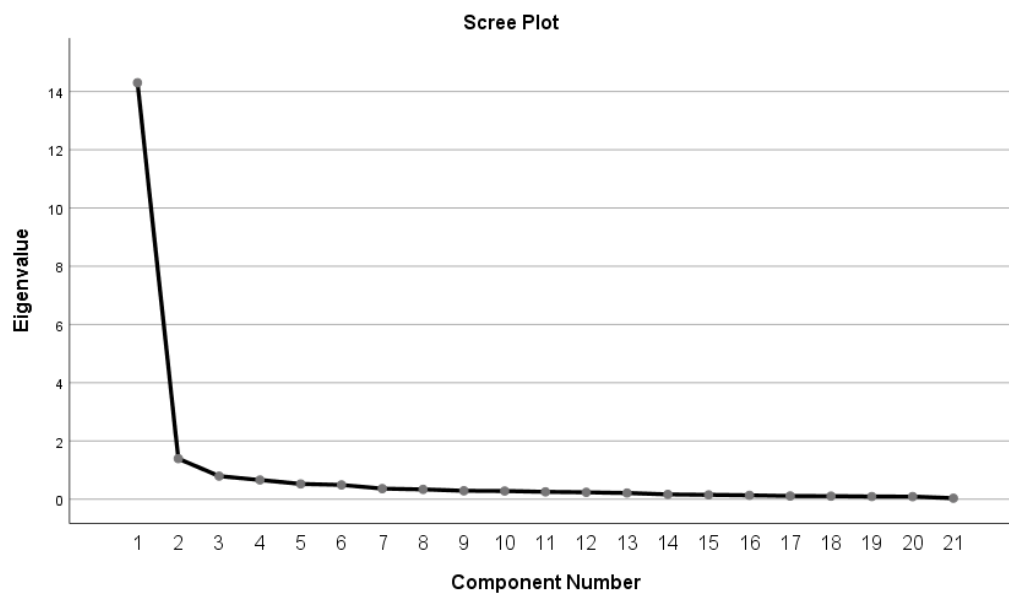


Figure 4.

Simple Slopes for 1st Stage Interaction of Abusive Supervision x CSE Predicting Anger

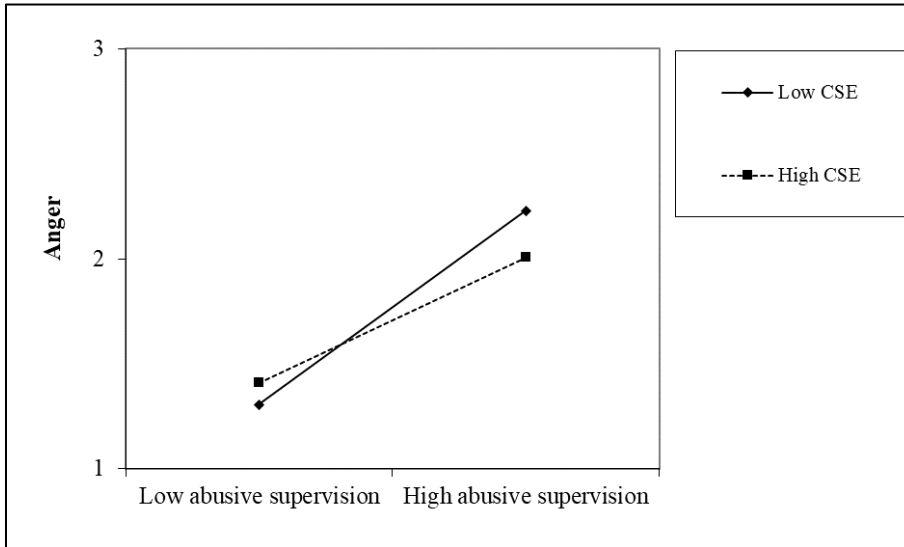


Figure 5.

Simple Slopes for 1st Stage Interaction of Abusive Supervision x CSE Predicting Anger

(with controls)

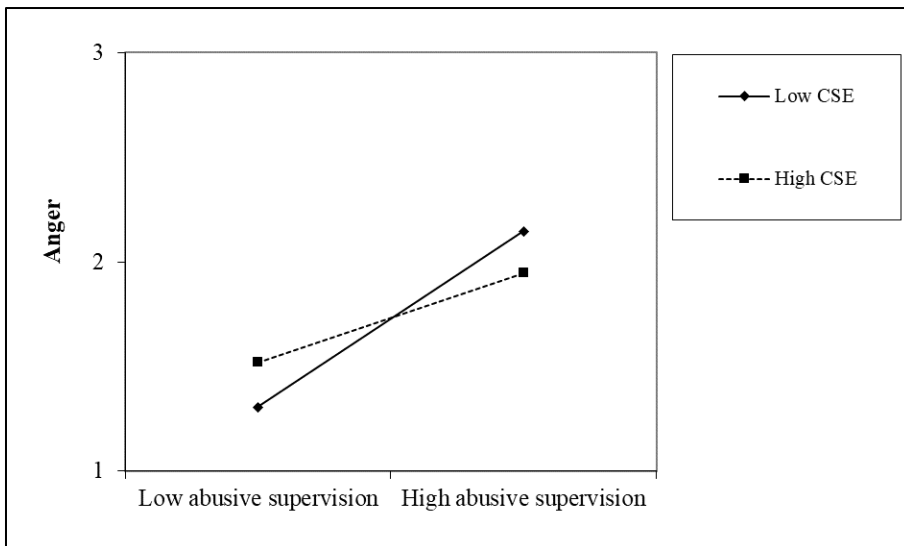


Figure 6.

Simple Slopes for 1st Stage Interaction between Abusive Supervision x Self-Esteem

Predicting Anger

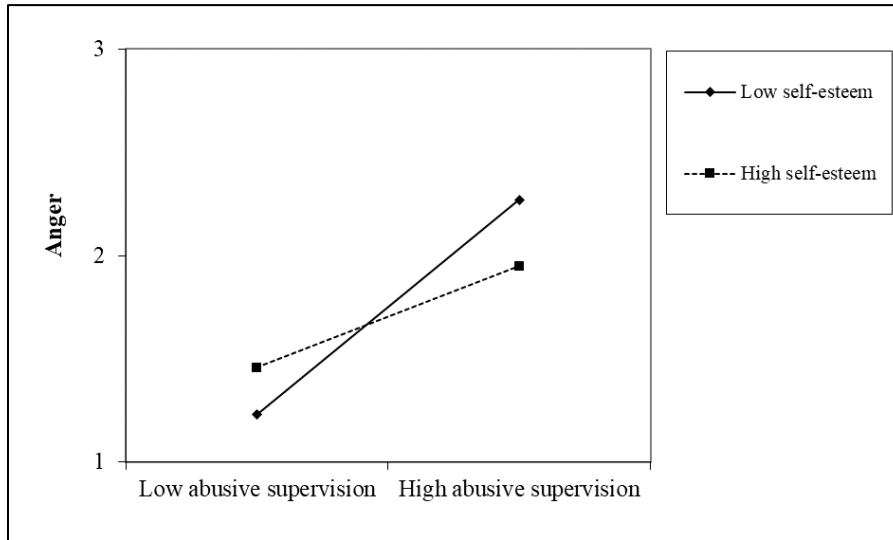


Figure 7.

Simple Slopes for 1st Stage Interaction between Supervisor Ostracism x Self-Esteem

Predicting Anger

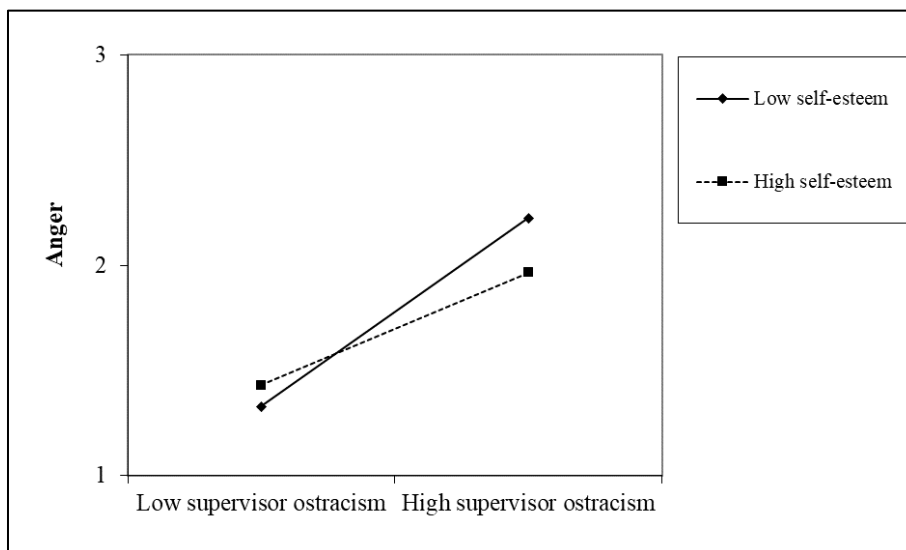


Figure 8.

Simple Slopes for 1st Stage Interaction of Supervisor Ostracism x Self-Efficacy Predicting

Fear

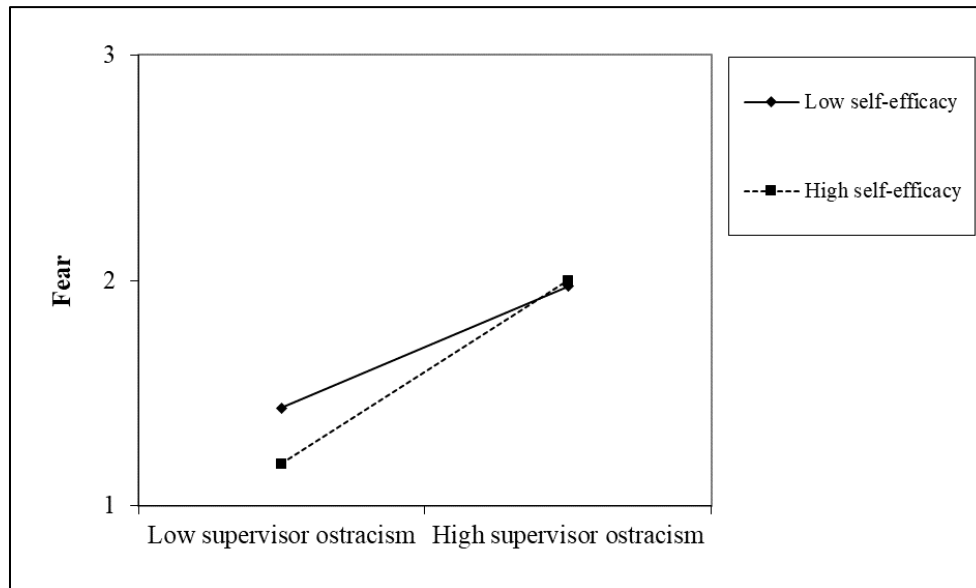


Figure 9.

Interaction between Anger x CSE Predicting Work Effort

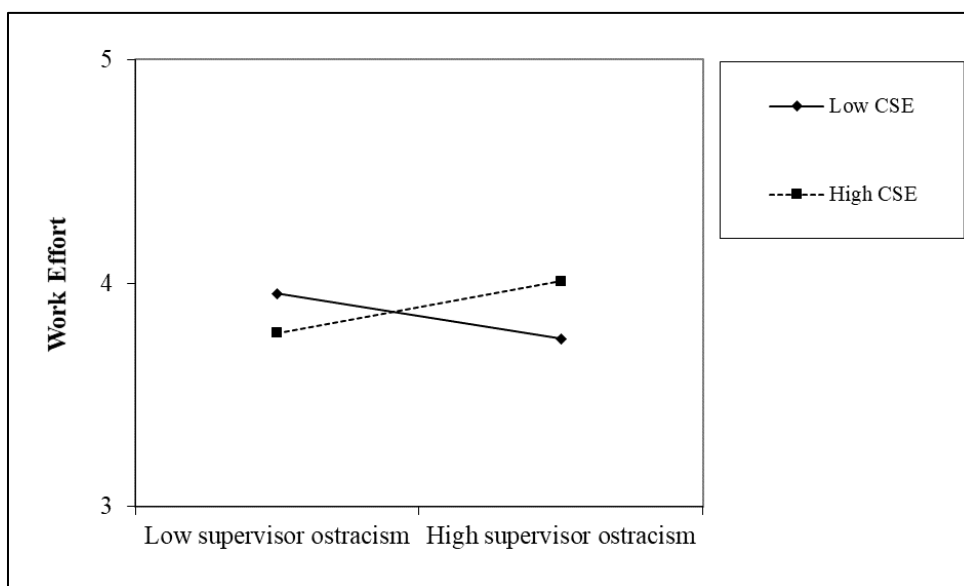


Figure 10.

Interaction between Abusive Supervision x Supervisor Ostracism Predicting CWBi

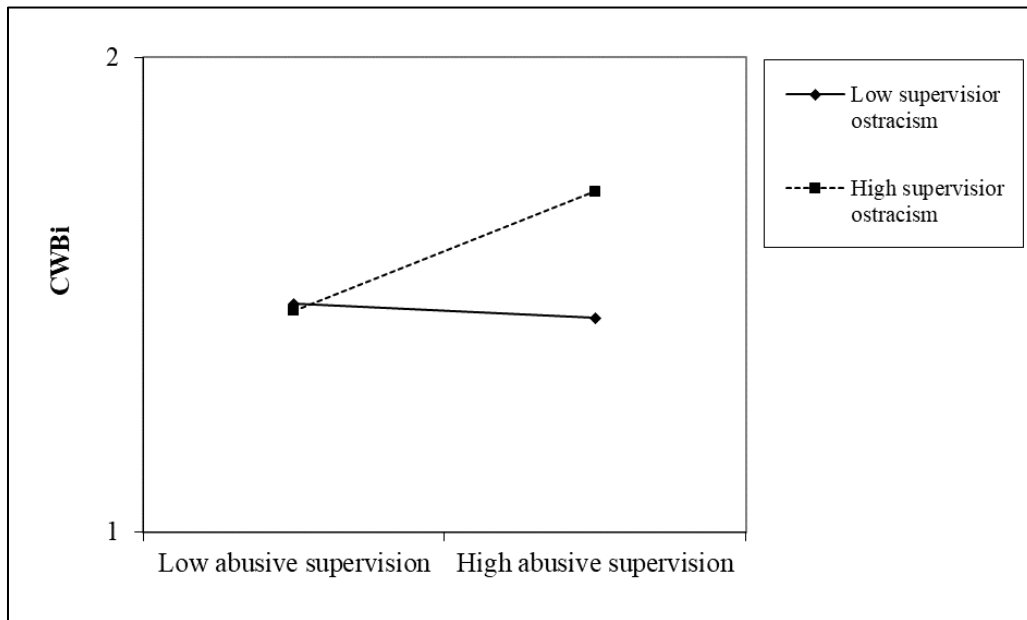


Figure 11.

Curvilinear Effect of Abusive Supervision Predicting Turnover Intention

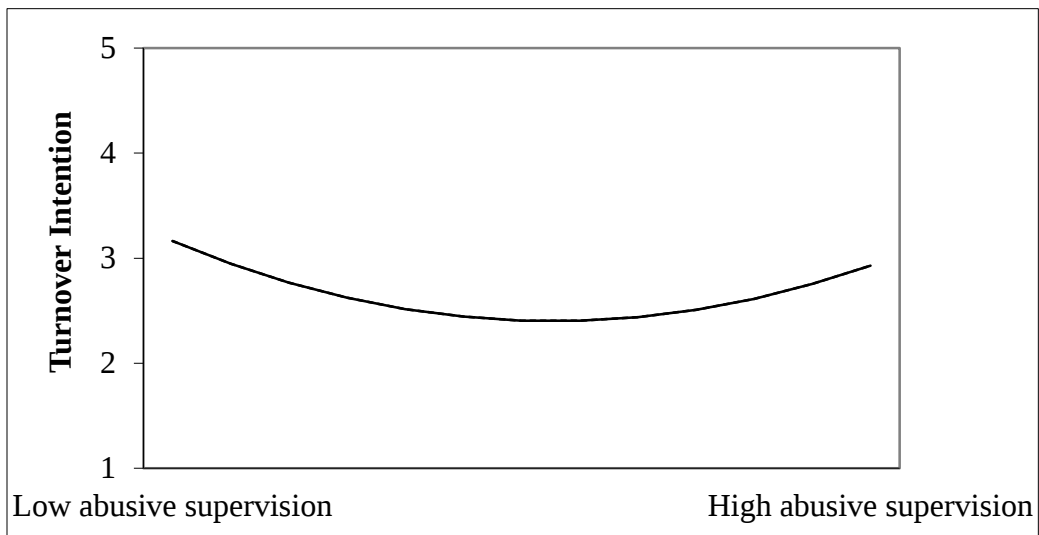
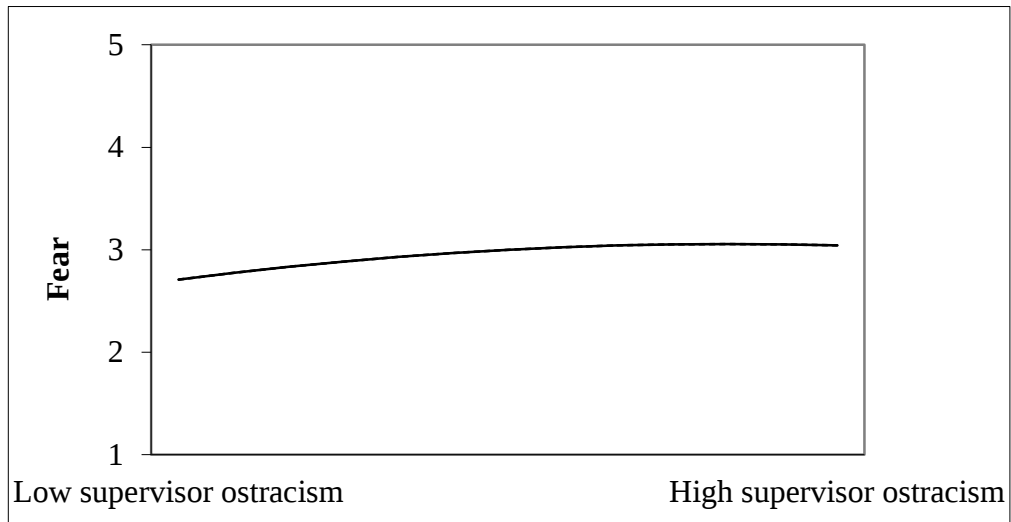


Figure 12.

Curvilinear Effect of Supervisor Ostracism Predicting Fear



APPENDIX B: Measures

APPENDIX B: Measures

Measure (IVs)	Source
<u>Abusive Supervision</u> Instructions – Please think about your immediate supervisor and your interactions with him/her during the past month. Then indicate the extent to which your supervisor engaged in the following behaviors on a scale ranging from 1 (<i>never</i>) to 5 (<i>very often</i>) <u>Over the past month, my supervisor....</u> 1. ...ridiculed me. 2. ...told me my thoughts or feelings were stupid. 3. ...gave me the silent treatment. 4. ...put me down or was condescending to me in front of others. 5. ...invaded my privacy. 6. ...reminded me of my past mistakes and failures. 7. ...didn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort. 8. ...blamed me to save himself/herself from embarrassment. 9. ...broke promises he/she made. 10. ...expressed anger at me when he/she was mad for another reason. 11. ...made negative comments about me to others. 12. ...was rude to me. 13. ...told me I am incompetent. 14. ...lied to me.	Adapted from Tepper (2000) 1 = Never 2 = Rarely 3 = Sometimes 4 = Often 5 = Very Often

<u>Supervisor Ostracism</u> Instructions – Please think about your immediate supervisor and your interactions with him/her during the past month. Then indicate the extent to which your supervisor engaged in the following behaviors on a scale ranging from 1 (<i>never</i>) to 5 (<i>very often</i>) <u>Over the past month,</u> 1. ...<u>my supervisor</u> ignored me at work. 2. ...<u>my supervisor</u> left the area when I entered. 3. ...<u>my supervisor</u> unanswered my greetings at work. 4. ...<u>my supervisor</u> avoided me at work. 5. ...I noticed <u>my supervisor</u> would not look at me at work. 6. ...<u>my supervisor</u> refused to talk to me at work. 7. ...<u>my supervisor</u> treated as if I weren't there at work.	Adapted from Ferris et al. (2008) 1 = Never 2 = Rarely 3 = Sometimes 4 = Often 5 = Very Often
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Measure (Mediators)	Source
Anger: Instructions – Please think about when you were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by your supervisor. Then, on a scale 1-5, to what extent did you feel the following emotions during the past 2 weeks when interacting with or thinking about your immediate supervisor? • Enraged • Angry • Mad • Infuriated • Hostility • Annoyed	Adapted from Rodell & Judge (2009) Crossely (2009) Izard (2013) 1 = not at all 2 = very slightly 3 = neutral 4 = somewhat 5 = very much
Fear: Instructions – Please think about when you were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by your supervisor. Then, on a scale 1-5, to what extent did you feel the following emotions during the past 2 weeks when interacting with or thinking about your immediate supervisor? • Afraid • Scared • Frightened • Nervous • Jittery • Shaky	Adapted from Watson & Clark (1994) 1 = not at all 2 = very slightly 3 = neutral 4 = somewhat 5 = very much

Measure (Cross-Level Moderators)	Source
Collective Anger: Instructions – Please think about your team as a whole. Next, think about when you and your team members were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by your supervisor. Then, on a scale 1-5, to what extent do you think your team felt the following emotions during the past 2 weeks when interacting with or thinking about your immediate supervisor? • Enraged • Angry • Mad • Infuriated • Hostility • Annoyed	Adapted from Rodell & Judge (2009) Crossely (2009) Izard (2013) 1 = not at all 2 = very slightly 3 = neutral 4 = somewhat 5 = very much
Collective Fear: Instructions – Please think about your team as a whole. Next, think about when you and your team members were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by your supervisor. Then, on a scale 1-5, to what extent do you think your team felt the following emotions during the past 2 weeks when interacting with or thinking about your immediate supervisor? • Afraid • Scared • Frightened • Nervous • Jittery • Shaky	Adapted from Watson & Clark (1994) 1 = not at all 2 = very slightly 3 = neutral 4 = somewhat 5 = very much

Measure (Moderator)	Source
General Self-Efficacy : Instructions - On a scale 1(strongly disagree) - 5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • I believe that I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself. • When facing difficult tasks, I believe that I will accomplish them. • In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me. • I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind to. • I believe that I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges. • I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks. • Compared to other people, I believe I can do most tasks very well. • Even when things are tough, I believe I can perform quite well.	Adapted from Chen et al. (2001) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree
Locus of control: Instructions - On a scale 1(strongly disagree) - 5(strongly agree), please rate <u>the extent do you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • I believe that success depends on ability rather than luck. • I like to take responsibility for making decisions. • I believe that unfortunate events occur because of bad luck (R). • I believe the world is controlled by a few powerful people. (R) • I believe in the power of fate. (R) • I believe that some people are born lucky. (R)	Adapted from IPIP (Goldberg, 1999) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree

Measure (Moderator)	Source
Self-Esteem Instructions - On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. • At times, I think I am no good at all. (R) • I feel that I have a number of good qualities. • I am able to do things as well as most other people. • I feel I do not have much to be proud of. (R) • I certainly feel useless at times. (R) • I wish I could have more respect for myself. (R) • All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. (R) • I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others. • I take a positive attitude toward myself.	Adapted from Rosenberg (1965) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree

Measure (supervisor rated outcomes)	Source
Work Performance (Supervisor Rated): Instructions – Please think about employee’s XXX during the past 2 weeks. On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> Over the past 2 weeks, employee X... 1. ...fulfilled the responsibilities specified in his/her job description. 2. ...performed the tasks that are expected as part of the job. 3. ...met performance expectations.	Adapted from Morrison & Phelps (1999) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBi): Instructions – Please think about employee’s XXX during the past 2 weeks. On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> Over the past 2 weeks, employee X 1. ...helped others who were been absent. 2. ...willingly gave his/her time to help others with work-related problems. 3. ...adjusts his/her work schedule to accommodate other employees’ requests for time off. 4. ...went out of their way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group. 5. ...showed genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations. 6. ...gave up time to help others who with work or non-work problems. 7. ...assisted others with their duties. 8. ...shared personal property with others to help their work.	Adapted from Lee & Allen (2002) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree

Measure (DVs, supervisor ratings)	Source
Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWBi): Instructions – Please think about employee’s XXX during the past 2 weeks. On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> Over the past 2 weeks, employee X 1. ...behaved in an unpleasant manner toward other coworkers. 2. ...try to harm other coworkers. 3. ... criticized other coworkers’ opinions or suggestions. 4. ...speak poorly about other coworkers to others. 5. ...excluded other coworkers from a conversation. 6. ...avoided interacting with other coworkers.	Adapted from Dalal et al., 2009 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree

Measure (self-rated outcomes)	Source
Work effort : Instructions – Please think about when you were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by your supervisor. On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> 1. I tried to do things better at work. 2. I tried to do more than what I was asked to do. 3. I tried to work harder.	Adapted from Kacmar et al., 2007 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree
Turnover Intention (self-rated outcomes): Instructions – Please think about when you were treated in an unfavorable, unfriendly, or contentious manner by your supervisor. On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> 1. I thought about leaving this organization. 2. I thought about looking for a new job. 3. I thought about asking other people about new job opportunities. 4. I don't plan to be in this organization much longer.	Adapted from Kelloway et al., (1999) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree

Controls (self-ratings)	Source
Extraversion Instructions - On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • Feel comfortable around people. • Start conversations. • Talk to a lot of different people at parties. • Don't mind being the center of attention. • Keep in the background. (R) • Don't like to draw attention to myself. (R)	Adapted from IPIP (Goldberg, 1999) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree
Agreeableness Instructions - On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • Am interested in people. • Sympathize with others' feelings. • Take time out for others. • Make people feel at ease. • Feel little concern for others. (R) • Am not interested in other people's problems. (R)	
Conscientiousness Instructions - On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • Am always prepared. • Pay attention to details. • Follow a schedule. • Leave my belongings lying around. (R) • Often forget to put things back in their proper place. (R) • Shirk my duties. (R)	

Controls (self-ratings)	Source
Emotional Stability (Neuroticism) Instructions - On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • Worry about things. • Get upset easily. • Have frequent mood swings. • Get irritated easily. • Am relaxed most of the time. (R) • Seldom feel blue. (R) • Get stressed out easily. • Am easily disturbed.	Adapted from IPIP (Goldberg, 1999) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree
Openness Instructions - On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • Have a vivid imagination. • Enjoy thinking about things. • Enjoy hearing new ideas. • Get excited by new ideas. • Am not interested in abstract ideas. (R) • Do not like art. (R)	

Controls (self-ratings)	Source
Leader-member exchange (LMX): Instructions –On a scale 1(strongly disagree) -5(strongly agree), <u>please rate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements:</u> • I am well aware of how much my leader is satisfied with what I do. • My leader understands my job problems and needs. • My leader recognizes my potential. • Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built in to his/her position, my leader will use his/her power to help me solve problems in your work. • Regardless of the amount of formal authority my leader has, he/she would "bail me out." at his/her expense. • I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so. • I characterize my working relationship with my leader to be very good.	Adapted from Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995) 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = neither agree or disagree 4 = agree 5 = strongly agree

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