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BREAKING THE CYCLE OF ABUSIVE SUPERVISION SPILLOVER

Abstract

Building on identity theories and social learning theory, we test the notion that new leaders will model the abusive behaviors of their superiors only under certain conditions. Specifically, we hypothesize that new leaders will model abusive supervisory behaviors when (a) abusive superiors are perceived to be competent, based on the performance of their teams and (b) new leaders' ideal leadership self-concepts are high on tyranny or low on sensitivity. Results of an experiment in which we manipulated abusive supervisory behaviors using a professional actor, and created a role change where 93 individuals moved from team member to team leader role, generally support our hypotheses. We found the strongest association between abuse exposure and new leader abuse under conditions where the abusive superior's team performed well and the new team leaders' self-concepts showed low concern for others.

Keywords: abusive supervision, leadership role, self-concept, leadership development

BREAKING THE CYCLE OF ABUSIVE SUPERVISION SPILLOVER

Breaking the Cycle: The Effects of Role Model Performance and Ideal Leadership Self-Concepts

on Abusive Supervision Spillover

Supervisors are expected to be supportive and considerate (Piccolo, Bono, Heinitz, Rowold, Duehr, & Judge, 2012), but they sometimes use their power to abuse subordinates. Data suggest that workplace abuse is common; 27% of workers reported experiencing abuse in 2014 (Workplace Bullying Institute, 2014), and approximately 14 % of U.S. employees are abused by their supervisors (Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006). Examples of abusive supervision include telling subordinates their ideas are stupid, reminding them of past mistakes and failures, or putting them down in front of others. These behaviors have been associated with a wide variety of detrimental consequences for employees, including lower self-esteem, emotional exhaustion, increased deviance, psychological distress, retaliation, poor performance, lower creativity, more work-family conflict, and reduced well-being (see Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013 and Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2015 for reviews).

Abusive supervision is particularly destructive because it can be contagious and self-perpetuating. A growing body of research indicates that subordinates who endure abusive behavior at work will, in turn, enact it on others. Victims of abusive supervision displace their aggression, outrage, and feelings of unfairness on coworkers, colleagues, and family members (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Because those in positions of power serve as role models (Bandura, 1977), followers tend to emulate supervisors' behaviors. Indeed, Liu, Liao, and Loi (2012) found that abusive supervision "trickled down" from an organization's higher managerial level (department leader) to its lower levels (team leader). Other research (Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012) suggests that abusive supervision moves downward through the company as subordinates learn from their abusive supervisors.

Despite evidence that supervisory abuse spills over to affect the behavior of others in the organization, it is clear from existing research that not everyone who is exposed to abuse (via direct experiences or by witnessing abuse) becomes an abuser. In the Liu and colleagues' (2012) study, the correlation between abuse at the higher and lower levels was only .13 ($p < .01$); in the Mawritz and colleagues' (2012) study, the spillover correlation was .36 ($p < .05$). Since we can explain only 2% (Liu et al., 2012) to 13% (Mawritz et al., 2012) of the variance in a supervisor's abuse from the abusive behaviors of his or her boss, it is clear that not everyone who is exposed to abusive behavior will imitate it. Indeed, Kellerman (2004) suggests that there is another alternative for supervisors when they are exposed to abuse by superiors. Rather than modeling their behavior, subordinates also learn what *not* to do from abusive bosses.

We join a growing body of literature devoted to better understanding the causes of abusive supervision, and the conditions under which it is most likely to occur (e.g. Courtright, Gardner, Smith, McCormick, & Colbert, 2016; Mawritz, Folger, & Latham, 2014). The move from subordinate to supervisor involves a role change from individual contributor and doer to manager and counselor (Hill, 1992). Entering the ranks of leadership may be one of the toughest challenges individuals face throughout their working lives (Gentry, 2014). One reason for the difficulty of this particular role change is that new leaders lack the abilities, values, and mindset required by the new role (Mumford, Marks, Connelly, Zaccaro, & Reiter-Palmon, 2000). For example, new leaders often struggle to change their mindset from "me" to "we," leaving them unable to influence and motivate others (Ibarra & Hunter, 2007). Moreover, even when they have leadership knowledge, new leaders may not have been taught how to use it effectively (Desmat, McGurk, & Vinson, 2010). Consequently, it has been estimated that 50%-60% of first-time managers underperform from the start (Gentry, 2014).

Due to the uncertainty of this period, new leaders look to others in their environment for cues as to how to behave. Organizational newcomers look to supervisors or peers for information on successful task and interpersonal behaviors when they enter a new role (e.g., Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). Such information seeking reduces uncertainty and allows them to understand, predict and control their environments (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996; Maitlis, 2005). But newcomers don't pick just anyone as a role model; they look to credible and successful role models, observing their behavior for cues (Scott & Myer, 2005).

Drawing from social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and identity theories (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Ibarra, 1999), we propose that individuals will mimic the behavior of role models when they "are not only *successful* prototypes but also fit their *sense of self*" (Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010, p. 14). New leaders may emulate high-performing, abusive role models because they see abuse as a pathway to success. Indeed, some evidence suggests that goal pursuit may trigger abusive supervision (Mawritz et al., 2014). But role model credibility alone may not be enough to elicit abuse, as social learning and identity theories also highlight the importance of individual factors. These theories suggest that new leaders will compare the behavior of a role model to their own leadership self-concepts, emulating only role model behaviors that are consistent with their own self-concept. Thus, we test the notion that new leaders make decisions about whether to emulate the abusive behaviors of a role model based on (a) role model credibility—whether the abusive leader and his or her team are successful, and (b) their own ideal leadership self-concepts—the extent to which abusive behaviors are consistent with their leadership self-concepts. The overarching model we test in this research—which focuses on interactions between the role model's performance and the new leader's leadership self-concepts—is presented in Figure 1.

We contribute to knowledge of abusive supervision and leadership development in several important ways. First, although both social learning and identity theories suggest that the performance of an abusive leader should influence the extent to which subordinates will model abusive behavior, the effects of role model performance have received surprisingly little attention in the literature. We highlight the possibility that new leaders may model the abusive behaviors of a credible role model because they view those behaviors as an effective means of achieving performance goals. Second, we focus on leadership self-concepts as critical internal factors that may lead individuals to resist or embrace abusive behaviors observed in the environment (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Ibarra, 1999). We consider the joint effects of role model credibility and leadership self-concept in the extent to which new leaders model abusive behavior.

Third, we contribute by focusing on a critical juncture in leadership development, examining individuals as they move into the role of leader. The early stages of role change are especially important because it is during these stages that self-concepts become particularly salient, as role change leads to self-concept examination and refinement (Gibson, 2003; Ibarra, 1999). It is during the earliest stages of role adoption that new leaders are most open to the influence of role models, as they compare the behaviors of credible role models to their ideal leadership self-concepts (Ibarra, 1999).

Finally, our experimental design compensates for some limitations of field studies of abusive supervision. Causality is ambiguous in trickle-down field studies (e.g., Mawritz et al., 2012); and cross-sectional designs may reflect reversed or reciprocal causality (e.g., Lian, Brown, Ferris, Liang, Keeping, & Morrison, 2014; Martinko et al., 2013). Moreover, spillover effects found in single company studies (e.g., Liu et al., 2012) may be spurious due to the effects

of a hostile organizational climate on the behavior of managers and supervisors at all levels. By manipulating leader mistreatment and then observing the natural behavior of new team leaders, our design allows for stronger causal inferences about the effects of abusive role models on new leaders.

We examine these issues in a two-phase experiment. We first manipulate abusive supervision using a professional actor, and then we observe the behaviors of those who were exposed to abuse (or not) as they move from team member to team leader. In this way, we combine the rigor of experimental design, to establish causality, with a simulation in which team leaders can choose whether or not to model the behaviors of their leader. Randomly assigning team members to abusive leaders and examining their subsequent leadership behaviors allows us to test the causal associations inferred in field studies, thereby ruling out alternative explanations of the trickle-down effect (e.g., organizational norms for aggression or hostility). More importantly, our design allows us to examine the conditions under which new leaders may believe they will accrue personal benefit from engaging in abusive behavior, and the extent to which their leadership self-concepts will play a role in their decisions to emulate or reject abusive supervision. By conducting an experiment in which participants transition from team member to team leader, after being randomly assigned to an abusive supervisor (or non-abusive supervisor), we advance knowledge of the internal and external conditions under which the cycle of supervisory abuse is facilitated or broken. This is not only an important contribution to theory, but also has practical implications for organizations that find it especially hard to eliminate abusive supervision from high-performing managers (Henderson, 2015; Heskett, 2014).

Theory and Hypotheses

Performance as a Source of Role Model Credibility

According to social learning theory, new leaders are most likely to accept the behaviors of a credible role model to ensure future success (Bandura, 1977; Weiss, 1977). Role model credibility comes from perceptions of status, power, or competence (Bandura, 1977; Weiss, 1977), as those are cues providing evidence that the role model's behaviors are appropriate to the situation and have been rewarded in the past. Perceptions of status, power, and competence are associated with both formal positions of leadership, such as having the title of manager or leader, and with the ability to control resources (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993). They are also associated with evidence of success, such as team or leader performance, which signals competence (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Filstad, 2004).

Past achievement and successful performance are critical elements of role model credibility (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Filstad, 2004). Knowing that a role model has been successful is influential in the decision to emulate (Bandura, 1977; Magee & Galinsky, 2008), especially when mimicking the behaviors of that role model involves risks, as engaging in abuse does (e.g., aggression increases the likelihood of retaliation; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). When individuals enter a leadership role, uncertainty about appropriate behaviors is high and there is pressure to quickly learn the task requirements of the new job, as well as pressure to perform socially acceptable behaviors (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993), leading new leaders to seek successful role models (Filstad, 2004). Role model success is important because it reduces new leaders' feelings of uncertainty; it signals to the new leader that observing and emulating role models' behaviors will be helpful in acquiring the critical skills needed for success in that environment (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996; Maitlis, 2005).

When successful managers or leaders engage in abusive supervision, subordinates may employ similar abusive behaviors because they view these behaviors as predictors of success. Therefore, we expect that an abusive leader who has achieved success and whose team performs well will be more influential as a role model, leading to a greater likelihood of behavioral modeling.

> *Hypothesis 1: Team performance moderates the association between exposed and enacted abuse, such that there is a positive association between exposed and enacted abusive supervision when team performance is high.*

Leadership Self-concept: New Leader Desired and Feared Selves

Once a competent role model's behavior is observed, individuals begin the process of comparing and contrasting the role model's behaviors with their own self-concepts to determine whether or not to emulate the behavior (Gibson, 2004; Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010). People's ideal selves, images about who they might become, would like to become, or fear becoming in the future, are the part of self-concept most relevant to identity change and self-development (Ibarra, 1999; Markus & Nurius, 1986). These future-oriented, desired, parts of the self-concept (e.g., Vignoles, Manzi, Regalia, Jemmolo, & Scabini, 2008) serve as both cognitive and emotional filters that individuals use to interpret their environment and guide future behavior (Ibarra, 1999; Markus & Nurius, 1986).

When an individual is assigned to a leadership role, his or her ideal leadership self-concept, the image of a desired future self as a leader, is activated and salient (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). The ideal leadership self-concept acts as a mechanism by which individuals interpret, understand, and respond to a role model's behaviors (Gibson, 2003; Ibarra, 1999). They are powerful determinants of an individual's actions and

reactions to the environment, because they motivate an individual to define who they do (attraction to a desired self), and do not (avoidance of a feared self) want to be, causing them to try, approach, reject, or modify those behaviors (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). Gibson's (2003) qualitative study describes how individuals emulate role models whose images match their desired selves and how they reject role models who represent their feared selves.

Leadership self-concept has been assessed along six dimensions (i.e., sensitivity, tyranny, intelligence, dynamism, dedication, and masculinity; see Foti, Bray, Thompson, & Allgood, 2012). The dimensions of intelligence, dedication, and dynamism describe characteristics that aligned with leadership competence; masculinity refers to a "think manager, think male" stereotype (Eagly & Karau, 2002). In contrast, the sensitivity and tyranny dimensions focus on interpersonal treatment of and concern for others. The dimension of tyranny includes characteristics such as being domineering, pushy, manipulative, and selfish (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Leadership behaviors aligning with tyranny include cold interpersonal interactions, public criticism of others, and emphasis on authority and status (Ashforth, 1994). In contrast, the dimension of interpersonal sensitivity includes leadership attributes related to being understanding and helpful (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004); leadership behaviors aligning with sensitivity include showing respect for followers and expressing support (Piccolo et al., 2012). These dimensions—tyranny and sensitivity —are the self-concepts most relevant to abusive supervision because of their consistency (tyranny) or inconsistency (sensitivity) with abusive behavior toward others.

Research on self-concepts (Ibarra, 1999) suggests that the desire for consistency and authenticity leads individuals to gravitate toward role models who allow them to be true to themselves and leads them to distance themselves from those who are different. When there is

consistency between the abusive behavior observed in a leadership role model and a new leader's desired self (i.e., ideal self-concept includes tyranny), they will form favorable perceptions of the leader's behaviors (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003).

In contrast, when a credible role model exhibits behaviors that are inconsistent with the new leader's ideal self-concept, they may reject the behavioral model because engaging in abusive behavior would activate the feared self and present a threat (Gibson, 2003; Ibarra, 1999). Anticipation of self-reproach for engaging in personally unacceptable actions is an important motivational influence that helps keep behavior in line with personal standards (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Bandura, 1973). Thus, when there is inconsistency between the ideal leadership self-concept and abusive leadership behaviors, new leaders will view abusive behavior as less feasible and less desirable, rejecting those behaviors as a means to achieve success.

In sum, theory suggests that abusive supervisory behaviors are more likely to be emulated by individuals whose ideal leader self-concepts are high on the dimension of tyranny and will be rejected by those whose ideal leader self-concepts are high on sensitivity. Therefore, we propose,

Hypothesis 2: The ideal leadership self-concept for tyranny moderates the association between exposed and enacted abuse, such that this association is stronger for those whose ideal leadership self-concept for tyranny is high.

Hypothesis 3: The ideal leadership self-concept for sensitivity moderates the association between exposed and enacted abuse, such that this association is weaker for those whose ideal leadership self-concept for sensitivity is high.

Considering theoretical and empirical evidence that both internal (self-concept) and external (leader/team performance) factors simultaneously affect the likelihood of role model emulation, we hypothesize two three-way interactions. New leaders first scan the environment

for credible (high performing) role models. Then, they choose role models whom they perceive as credible; such assessments are based on title, performance and status. Next, they observe the behaviors of those role models, comparing them against their own leadership self-concept to determine whether or not they are consistent. They ask themselves: *Do I want to do that for myself?* If yes, then new leaders abuse; if no, then new leaders do not abuse. Thus, we expect that the association between exposed and enacted abuse will be highest when the abusive role model's performance is high and when a new leader's self-concept either endorses tyranny, or is low on sensitivity. In sum, we posit a regulatory function for self-concept. A high-performing abusive role model should activate the desire to abuse when a new leader's self-concept displays a high concern for self (high tyranny) or a low concern for others (low sensitivity) and reduce the desire to abuse when a new leader's self-concept displays high concern for others (high sensitivity) or low concern for self (low tyranny).

> *Hypothesis 4: There will be a three-way interaction between exposed abuse, ideal leadership self-concept for tyranny, and team performance. Specifically, the spillover effect of exposed abuse on enacted abuse will be strongest for individuals whose leaders/teams perform well and whose ideal leadership self-concept is high on tyranny.*
>
> *Hypothesis 5: There will be a three-way interaction between exposed abuse, ideal leadership self-concept for sensitivity, and team performance. Specifically, the spillover effect of exposure abuse on enacted abuse will be strongest for individuals whose leaders/teams perform well and whose ideal leadership self-concept is low on sensitivity.*

Method

This research took place in two phases (Phase I: Manipulation and Phase II: Natural performance). We used a two (Leadership: abusive, non-abusive) by two (Team performance: high, low) experimental design, with both manipulations taking place in Phase I. There were two

types of participants (leader participants and team members), as well as confederate team

members and a professionally trained actor, filling the leader role. In Figure 2, we depict the two

phases of the study along with participants in each.

Participants

Since our interest was specifically in the role change from team member to team leader,

we recruited 136 undergraduate students enrolled in management courses at a large public

university to participate in a two-part study called "Leading Virtual Teams". These "leader

participants" were assigned the role of team member in Phase I, but became team leaders in

Phase II. We also recruited 248 additional students from the same pool for a study of "Virtual

Team Performance." There participants were assigned to the role of team member in Phase II;

they were not involved in Phase I in any way (team members in Phase I were confederates). All

participants were offered extra credit in exchange for participation.

In Phase I, we had four-person teams (an actor playing the role of leader, two confederate

team members, and our leader participant who was in the role of team member). In Phase II, we

created the opportunity for four-person teams (leader participant in charge of the team with three

team members), but due to participant availability, there were 29 leader participants with only

one team member; these leader participants were dropped from analysis, as were six leader

participants who did not show up for Phase II. An additional seven leader participants were

dropped because they expressed concern about whether the leader in Phase I was real. We also

dropped one leader and one follower whose survey responses followed patterns of inattentive

responding (Meade & Craig, 2012). Thus, our final analyses are based on data from 93 teams (93

leader participants and 205 Phase II team members); 70% of teams had a leader participant and

two team members, the remaining 30% had three team members. Leader participants' average

age was 20 years and 55% were male; 64% identified themselves as white, 22% as Hispanic, and 12% as Asian/Pacific Islander.

Procedures

After enrolling, leader participants completed a background survey where we asked about their ideal leadership self-concept. Next, they signed up for both Phases of the study (Monday/Wednesday or Tuesday/Thursday). In Phase I, leader participants were assigned as team members to a virtual team. We chose a virtual team environment for better control over participant experiences in Phase I (which included our experimental manipulations), and so that we could direct some of our abuse at confederates, thereby keeping exposure to abuse high, but placing limits on abuse aimed directly at participants. The team was charged with creating a marketing presentation for the MBA office. They were told that all team communication would be via computer, as the team was distributed across three buildings on campus. In reality, leader participants were the only participants, as the team leader was a professional actor and the other two team members in Phase I were confederates. Leader participants in Phase I were told that their team was one of six teams that day in a competition sponsored by the MBA office. They were told that each team had a different leader, had one hour to work, and that their final product would be evaluated immediately by MBA office judges.

Participants in all conditions watched an introductory video that introduced the team leader, who explained the nature and timing of the work. Specific assignments for each team member were included in this video, which was pre-recorded by the actor; this video also included a short clip from one of the competition judges talking about the importance of this work for the MBA program. In addition, although we did not measure perceived credibility explicitly, in the video participants were told that their leader had considerable work experience,

both leading successful teams and working on university-based leadership development projects. Following the formal leader and task introduction, there was a second, less formal video introducing team members to each other. Participants were told this video had been prepared by the leader that morning, after he had learned who his team members were for that day. In order to increase realism, but maintain consistency, the leader referred to each participant by their building name (e.g. Salisbury, Burlington, and Mulligan), rather than by their given names. Evidence of perceived realism was observed, as some participants asked questions of the Phase I team leader during the chat session that followed the video.

The team task and process was the same in all conditions; the only thing that changed was the content of leadership communications and the teams' performance feedback at the end of Phase I. Team members worked individually for 15 minutes and then submitted their assigned work (in the form of Power Point slides) to the leader. After five minutes, they received feedback from the leader. Then, they worked individually for another 15 minutes followed by a second round of feedback. In the individual working session, confederate team members (research assistants) submitted work that had been prepared in advance and was the same in each team. Participants submitted their own work. In the final working session, the two confederates (research assistants) and the participant worked together for 10 minutes to combine their slides and finish the presentation, which was then submitted to the leader. After brief comments, the leader submitted the work to the judges. During the time the team waited for feedback, participants completed a survey of abusive supervision, which was used as the manipulation check. After 10 minutes, the leader reported the judge's decision, which constituted the performance manipulation.

Next, leader participants were given an instruction packet for Phase II. Specifically, they were told that in the second phase of the study, they would be acting as a leader of a virtual team in the development of a service learning course for the management department, in a competition similar to that in Phase I. They were told that the software available to them (e.g., chat, video recording) would be the same as they had in Phase I, and that it was completely up to them how to organize the team and its work. They were told that they would lead the team and that they were ultimately responsible for the team's performance. The packet included information and links to websites that discussed service learning. They were told that they were being compensated (extra credit points) for approximately one hour of preparation (in addition to their time with the team) and that they should review the materials and plan ahead as to how they wanted to lead their team.

Two days later, leader participants who had been team members in Phase I returned to lead their own team in Phase II. To increase the realism of the team leadership experience and to obtain multiple reports of the leaders' behavior, no confederates were used in Phase II; team members were research participants. Leader participants were told that their team members were in buildings across campus, as in Phase I, with all communication being computer mediated. In reality, some team members were in the same building in separate rooms beyond visibility and hearing of the leader participant. Leader participants were left alone to communicate with their teams as they wished. Many of them followed procedures similar to those they experienced in Phase I (i.e., individual work sessions, followed by feedback, and ending with collaborative work), which suggests that they saw the Phase I leader as a role model. To increase engagement and simulate the pressure that team leaders might experience in business organizations, leader participants were told that they would lose their extra credit points if their team ranked in the

bottom 20% of teams in the competition. Reinforcing the pressure to perform well, a research

assistant stopped in midway through the team task to remind leader participants of the remaining

time. The researcher then looked over the leader's shoulder at work completed by the team up to

that point, adding that the "team's work is definitely not at the top compared to what other teams

have done."

 As in Phase I, teams were told their work was submitted to judges. While they waited for

performance results, team members reported on the behaviors of their leader via online survey;

results of this survey serve as our dependent variable (enacted abuse). Once surveys were

complete, participants were debriefed; they were informed as to the purpose of the study and

leader participants were told that they would receive full compensation. As participants signed

documents allowing us to use their data for research, they were also asked not to discuss the

research with others to protect its scientific and educational value. We suggested that—if

asked—they might acknowledge the research was "focused on virtual teams" and that they had

agreed not to say more.

Manipulations

 Abusive supervision manipulation. In order to create perfect consistency across

participants, we embedded our abusive supervision manipulation throughout the team task via a

series of pre-recorded interactions. We hired an actor with professional experience on stage and

in TV advertisements. He was provided with a script, which was adapted slightly during

recording to fit with his natural patterns of speech and syntax. The actor created three videos and

two audio-tapes, which in combination with chat messages created and distributed by research

assistants, served as the leadership manipulation. Although all manipulations were pre-recorded

and perfectly consistent across participants, three of them (team introduction, feedback 1, and

feedback 2; see Table 1) were presented to participants as instantly recorded, spontaneous videos. They were informal and choppy, as if the leader started and stopped in preparing them during the five-minute break between work sessions. In the abusive condition, some of the abuse was directed at confederates and some was directed toward participants; these scripted behaviors by the leader were labeled "*exposed* abuse." Abuse directed at confederates was very specific, but abuse directed toward participants was more general so that it would be plausible regardless of the participant's work quality and content.

In creating the manipulation, we developed scripts for abusive leadership behaviors based on Tepper's scale (2000) adapted for our context. Sample behaviors include reminding followers of their past mistakes and failures, putting a follower down in front of other team members, or giving the silent treatment by not responding to questions in the chat. The non-abusive leadership script included neutral leadership behaviors, such as asking team members to solve problems together, telling the team members to focus on their goals, or answering questions. Samples of the script for each portion of the leadership manipulation are presented in Table 2, and full scripts transcribed from the actor's actual words are available upon request from the first author. Supporting the realism of our manipulation, some participants in the abuse condition told our research assistants that they thought their leader's behavior was inappropriate.

A special concern in this study was how to balance the research goals—to better understand the conditions under which new leaders would model abusive supervision—with our concern for the well-being of research participants. For this reason, we first submitted an application to the university Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct a pilot study with 30 leader participants in the abuse condition. Our application was considered by the full IRB-02 committee with the second author present. Ultimately, the pilot was approved with several

stipulations: (a) All study personnel, including the confederates and lab assistants who monitored participants in both phases, were required to complete an "at-risk" program offered by the university Counseling and Wellness center and designed to train them to identify students experiencing emotional distress and motivate them to seek help; (b) The second author would immediately conduct debriefing interviews after Phase I with the first 5 participants to discuss reactions to the experience, with specific probing aimed at identifying psychological distress; piloting would be discontinued immediately if concerns for leader participant well-being arose; (c) At the end of Phase I, all leader participants in the pilot study were asked to complete a stress inventory, which was scored immediately by a research assistant. Scores greater than 1 SD above the mean of the undergraduate population at this university (obtained via pilot survey) were referred to student counseling centers and immediately debriefed as to the purpose of the research and were informed of the abusive supervision manipulation. During pilot testing, one participant reached this level, but during data collection for this study, stress scores greater than 1 SD above the mean did not occur; (d) After Phase II, participants were debriefed as to the purpose of the study. We told them that we did not disclose our primary aims—to test the conditions under which new leaders would model abusive supervision—in advance, because it might influence their behavior and attitudes. They were told which condition they were in and assured that any abusive behaviors directed at them was not their fault and was part of our experimental manipulation. At the close of the debrief conversation, they were asked to again affirm their consent for the use of their data in our research (all did). Following the pilot, our application to proceed to the full study, with minor modifications, was approved (University of Florida, IRB Protocol: 2013-U-1280 - Leading Virtual Team).

Performance manipulation. Participants were told by the confederate leader that their team ranked at the top (tied for first= high performance) or the bottom (tied for last place= low performance) of the six other teams in the competition; See Table 2.

Measures

Abusive supervision. We measured abusive supervision with Tepper's (2000) 15-item scale. Sample items included: "My supervisor ridiculed me," "Put me down in front of others," and "Reminded me of my past mistakes and failures." The original scale was used to assess the frequency of abusive supervisory behaviors, but since our study was a one-hour team task with an expected low base rate of abusive behaviors, we adapted the scale anchors following Mitchell and Ambrose (2007). We asked the participants to rate the extent to which each behavior occurred using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). When measuring low base rate phenomena, such as daily events and customer mistreatment (Wang, Liao, Zhan, & Shi, 2011), count variables are most appropriate, because distributions tend to be skewed (i.e., low means and low tails). Using count variables can better capture variation and avoid problems of range restriction. Thus, following Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim and Koch (2013), we measured abusive behavior on a continuous scale, but then reduced the behaviors to a simple count after confirming their low base rate. We created a dummy variable where ratings of 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree) were coded as 1 (abusive behavior was present), and all other values (1 = *strongly disagree* to 3 = *neither disagree nor agree*) were coded as 0 (abusive behavior was not present). We added these scores to obtain a count of abusive behaviors for each Phase II leader (enacted abuse); we used the same measure in Phase I as a manipulation check.

Leadership ideal self-concepts. We measured ideal leadership self-concepts with an adapted version of the leadership characteristics scale used by Epitropaki and Martin (2004). To

capture each leader's ideal self-concept, we adapted the scale anchors by asking the participants to rate how characteristic each item was of their ideal leadership self-concept (based on Higgins, 1987): "Please rate the traits that you would want to have as a leader, not the traits that you have now. This is not a rating of the perfect leader as each person is unique in their leadership traits. Rather you are rating yourself as you might become in the future if you were at your very best. This is you at your best, not the perfect leader." (1 = *not at all characteristic* to 9 = *extremely characteristic*). Following Epitropaki and Martin (2004), ideal leadership self-concept for sensitivity was measured with 3 items (understanding, sincere, and helpful), and tyranny with 6 items (domineering, pushy, manipulative, loud, conceited, and selfish).

Our research rests on the notion that individuals have ideal leadership self-concepts for sensitivity and tyranny; therefore, we conducted a pretest validity study to determine whether the leadership self-concepts of our young and mostly inexperienced participants differed from those of experienced professionals. We collected data from 92 working professionals in a weekend MBA program; 76% were male, the average age was 31 years, and they had 4.86 years of supervisory experience on average. This sample rated ideal leadership self-concept in the same manner as leader participants. ANOVAs revealed no mean level differences in ideal leadership self-concepts between working professionals and study participants (F (1, 183) = .37, *ns*, and F (1, 182) = .25, *ns*, for sensitivity and tyranny, respectively), suggesting that the leadership self-concepts of our participants are similar in level to those of working professionals.

Control variables. We controlled for Phase II team size as well as leader participant gender and experience. Phase II included teams of 2 and 3 followers; team size was controlled because previous studies show that teams with more members may have less workload and teams with fewer members are easier to manage (e.g. Stewart, 2006). We also controlled for leader

participants' gender (0 = female and 1 = male) because our manipulation included a male leader, because research shows that men engage in more workplace aggression (e.g., Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999), and because men and women vary slightly in their endorsement of leadership behavior, suggesting they may also differ in their ideal leadership self-concepts (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Finally, a few (18%) of our participants reported having some leadership experience, so we also controlled for this in our hypothesis testing (0 = no leadership experience; 1 = leadership experience).

Results

Manipulation check

To test whether our manipulation created the intended conditions for the study, we ran a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) comparing leader participant reports of abusive supervision across conditions in Phase I. Results confirmed that participants perceived more abuse directed at themselves ($M_{abuse} = 7.20$, $SD_{abuse} = 3.10$, $M_{non-abuse} = 2.83$, $SD_{non-abuse} = 2.57$; F (1, 91)= 54.80, $p < .01$) and their team members ($M_{abuse} = 9.22$, $SD_{abuse} = 2.38$; $M_{non-abuse} = 3.64$, $SD_{non-abuse} = 3.12$; F (1, 91) = 93.71, $p < .01$) in the abuse condition.

Analysis

Because abusive supervision is a low base rate phenomenon and our dependent variable is a count variable, and because we have multiple team members per leader, we conducted our analysis in Mplus 7.31 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015), using negative binomial regression with data clustered by leaders. The over-dispersion parameter was significant (12.22, $p < .01$), which indicated that the use of a negative binomial was appropriate. Final analyses were based on all available data such that missing values (three leader participants did not report leadership experience) were estimated simultaneously to maintain full sample size (Little & Rubin, 1987).

Hypotheses Tests

Means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables are reported in Table 3[1]. In Table 4, we report unstandardized parameter estimates (Snijders & Bosker, 1999) for the various models we used to test our hypotheses.

To examine the main effects of the manipulations and ideal leadership self-concepts on enacted abuse, we regressed *enacted* abuse (team leader abuse in Phase II) on our controls (team size, gender, and leadership experience) as well as on *exposed* abuse (Phase I manipulation), team performance (Phase I manipulation), and leader participants' ideal leadership self-concepts (sensitivity and tyranny). Although small direct spillover effects from exposed to enacted abuse have been observed in field studies, we did not hypothesize direct effects in our study because we manipulated performance within each abuse condition. Nonetheless, we tested for a direct effect (Table 4, Model 1) but did not find one ($B = .53$, *ns*). We also found no significant direct effects for leadership self-concept ($B = -.06$, *ns*; $B = .23$, *ns*, for sensitivity and tyranny, respectively), or team performance ($B = .14$, *ns*).

Next, we tested the hypothesized two-way interactions. We centered sensitivity and tyranny before creating interaction terms (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) and entered them into the regression as a block (H1: abuse X performance; H2: abuse X tyranny; H3: abuse X sensitivity) with main effects and controls included; see Table 4, Model 2. We did not find that performance or sensitivity affected the association between exposed and enacted abuse; thus, Hypotheses 1 and 3 were not supported. However, the interaction between exposed abuse and tyranny (H2) was significant ($B = 1.07$, p<.05). We plotted the interaction at conditional values of tyranny one SD above and below the mean (Cohen et al., 2003). As presented in Figure 3, simple slopes confirmed that the association between exposed abuse and enacted abuse is

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stronger for individuals high in tyranny ($B = 1.29$, $p = .05$) as compared to those low in tyranny ($B = -1.20$, *ns*); Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Next, we tested H4 and H5, which posited a stronger association between exposed and enacted abuse when team performance was high and tyranny was high (H4) and when team performance was high and sensitivity was low (H5). In our final model (Table 4, Model 3), we report results of the three-way interactions. The three-way interaction for tyranny was not significant ($B = 1.75$, *ns*); thus Hypothesis 4 was not supported[2]. However, the three-way interaction for sensitivity (H5) was significant in the expected direction ($B = -2.97$, $p < .01$).

Next, we conducted simple slope tests to determine whether the pattern of effects for sensitivity supported our hypothesis. Results reveal the strongest association between exposed and enacted abuse under the high performance and low sensitivity condition ($B = 7.30$, $p < .01$); this slope was significantly stronger than in all other conditions (high performance and high sensitivity: $B = 1.38$, *ns;* low performance and high sensitivity: $B = .03$, *ns;* low performance and low sensitivity: $B = .07$, *ns*). Simple slopes further support H5 and are plotted in Figure 4[3].

We also tested for significant differences in slopes following Dawson and Richter's (2006) procedure for log-linear slopes. First, we calculated slopes for each set of conditions (e.g. high/low sensitivity, high/low performance). Next, we computed the difference between slope pairs by subtracting one from the other. Finally, we conducted t-tests to determine whether the association between exposed and enacted abuse were significantly different from each other ($p < .05$). Results for sensitivity, presented in the top half of Table 5, show that the association between exposed and enacted abusive supervision was significantly stronger when leader performance was high and ideal leadership self-concepts for sensitivity were low than in all the

other conditions (see slope pairs 1, 3, and 5 in Table 5). These results provide further support for

the three-way interaction for sensitivity (H5).

Because reviewers asked us to speak to which factors are the most important in

facilitating or inhibiting abuse: internal (ideal leader self-concepts) or external (leader

performance) factors, we also report slope difference tests for tyranny in bottom half of Table 5,

even though the three-way interaction (Table 4, model 3) was not significant. To address this

question, we first compared slopes for high and low sensitivity and high and low tyranny when

performance was held constant (compare slope pairs 1 vs. 2 and 7 vs. 8). These results indicate

that leadership self-concept matters only when performance is high (slope pair 1 and 7). When

performance is low, new leaders do not model abuse, even if they are high in tyranny or low in

sensitivity (slope pair 2 and 8). Next we compared slopes for high and low performance when

leadership self-concepts were held constant (compare slope pairs 3 vs. 4 and 9 vs. 10). Results

show that when leadership self-concepts were held constant, new leaders modeled abuse only in

the high performance condition (slope pair 3 and 9).

Considering these results as a whole, we cannot provide a definitive answer to the

question of what is most important, leadership self-concepts or role model performance. Results

in Table 5 strongly suggest that it is the interaction between the two is what matters most; ideal

leadership self-concept and performance together best predict behavior. In interpreting these

results, however, it is important to note that regression results in Table 4 and paired slope

comparisons in Table 5 lead to slightly different conclusions with respect to tyranny. Although

the slope comparisons in Table 5 are perfectly consistent with a three-way interaction for

tyranny, wherein abuse occurs only when both performance and tyranny are high, the

corresponding three-way interaction (between exposed abuse, tyranny, and performance) did not

reach significance in the regression (Table 4). Considering these results as a whole, it appears that – for tyranny, but not for sensitivity – leadership self-concept is more important than role model performance.

Discussion

For more than a decade, the focus of research on abusive supervision has been on its negative consequences for individuals and organizations (Mackey et al., 2015; Martinko et al., 2013), and how those consequences lead to the spread of abuse and other deviant behavior in organizations. More recently, research has begun moving away from "abusive supervision is bad," which has been well established, to better understanding these questions: Why does abusive supervision occur? What conditions lead supervisors to be more or less likely to abuse? From a theoretical standpoint, this line of research aims to develop models that explain the conditions under which abuse will occur, and why abuse occurs under those conditions. The ultimate goal of developing theory in this area is to learn enough about *why* people abuse so that organizations can take action to prevent it.

We join this emerging line of research in proposing two reasons that new leaders might abuse. The first reason is that abusive behaviors may fit with some leaders' identities. In our study, new leaders who endorsed tyranny as a part of their ideal leadership self-concept were more likely to emulate behaviors of abusive role model, without regard to whether or not the role model performed well. A second reason for abuse may be that abusive leaders see it as a pathway to success. New leaders scan the environment, identify successful individuals in that environment, and then observe and emulate their behavior even when it is abusive. But this happens only for leaders who are already susceptible, because their leadership self-concept is

low on concern for others. Our results are clear that—at least for new leaders with a specific role model—both role model credibility and leadership self-concepts predict abusive supervision.

With respect to leadership self-concepts, our results suggest that sensitivity to others may act as a protection factor. Individuals whose ideal leadership self-concepts include concern for others reject abuse as a method of leadership, even when it appears helpful in achieving goals. This is because abusive behaviors are antithetical to the way they want to be as a leader. In contrast, a leadership self-concept that includes tyranny may act as a facilitator of abuse. Once an individual whose ideal leadership self-concepts include concern for self are exposed to abuse, they embrace it. Although the effects of role model performance were not clear for tyranny, it appears that spillover effects may be stronger when the abusive role model is a high performer.

Implications for Theory

Our research contributes to theory in several ways. First, we highlight the critical role that performance plays in abusive supervision spillover. We further contribute by examining *team* performance as a cue for leader credibility, thereby focusing on antecedents of abusive supervision at collective level, which has so far received limited attention (e.g., Tepper, 2007). This is important because success at the team level, compared to individual leader performance, may be a stronger signal of credibility for new leaders and be more valued by the organization as well. Second, we focus on the role of self-concept. The ideal leadership self-concept provides individuals with an internal standard by which they can assess the appropriateness of abusive behavior for themselves. Thus, self-concept serves a regulatory function in that it either facilitates or places limitations on abusive supervisory spillover.

Recent developments in abusive supervision theory suggests that supervisory abuse occurs when it is the norm in the environment (Mawritz, et al., 2012), when there are

performance pressures that impede personal accomplishments (Mawritz, et al. 2014), and when demands from multiple constituencies (work and family) lead to depletion and self-regulatory failure (Courtright et al., 2016). Our results suggest that leaders, new leaders especially, may be abusing, because they believe it represents a pathway to success; they may abuse as a means of accomplishing important goals, rather than due to self-regulatory failure. But, individuals in our study chose this path to success only when abusive behaviors were consistent with their ideal leadership self-concepts. Thus, our study advances theory by pointing to a more volitional approach to abuse.

Implications for Organizations

Our research has clear implications for organizations. First, when successful, high-performing leaders are allowed to abuse because they are "too valuable to lose" (Henderson, 2015; Heskett, 2014), organizations create a fertile environment for abuse to grow. Rather than being "too valuable to lose," high performing supervisors who abuse are too dangerous to keep, because these individuals signal to some new leaders (e.g., those low in sensitivity) that abuse may be a viable path to success. Second, our findings suggest that leadership self-concepts should receive more attention in organizations and in education. They are especially important because they appear to serve a regulatory function in facilitating or limiting abusive behavioral modeling. Leadership self-concepts develop over time and with exposure to powerful others; they are not static, and thus are not appropriate for use as a selection tool. However, they can be strategically developed through repeated exposure to positive role models. Organizations can also play a part in the development of leadership self-concepts by strategically rewarding dimensions of leadership behavior that are desired and sanctioning those that are not.

Limitations

Despite the strengths of our study, it is not without limitations. First, although we intentionally chose undergraduate students as our research participants so that we could best simulate the conditions faced by new leaders and to eliminate the confounding effects of an organizational climate, participants were aware that they were involved in research. Thus, they may have felt fewer constraints about engaging in abuse than if they were in a paid position, where they might be fired for such behavior. Alternatively, they may have been reluctant to abuse in our setting, knowing that their team was made up of other undergraduate students.

Second, we used one-time project teams where members did not know each other and were not in a face-to-face setting; therefore, caution should be exercised when generalizing our results to new team leaders who know the members of their team well, or who are operating in an organizational culture with strong norms for or against abusive behaviors. Third, given that our experiment was conducted over a three-day period wherein participants started as followers and then became team leaders, we do not fully capture the process of role transition. Rather, we examine only the first brief step of that transition, the move from team member to team leader.

Finally, our manipulation of abusive supervision was brief. Although our participants were exposed to sustained abuse throughout the 90 minutes of Phase I, our manipulation is more similar to conceptualizations of abusive supervision used in recent experience sampling studies (e.g. Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, & Christian, 2015; Courtright et al., 2016) than to the sustained abuse in an ongoing supervisory relationship originally defined by Tepper (2000).

Where Do We Go from Here?

Given that our findings suggest the possibility that individuals may choose to engage in supervisory abuse for performance reasons, there is a need for in-depth qualitative research with abusive supervisors. A better understanding of *why* people abuse—whether their behaviors are

the result of self-regulatory failure due to depletion, or whether that are intentionally used as a means of achieving team performance, or whether they are automatic responses to stressful situations—is a critical step in understanding how the cycle of abuse begins and can be broken. This cannot be accomplished if we focus solely on survey measures of abuse frequency, linking those measures to personal (traits) and environmental (organization culture) conditions.

As theoretical models outlining the conditions under which abusive supervision continues to develop, we also need to better understand the growth and development of leadership self-concepts; we need to better understand the role of professional managerial training (MBA programs or internal company development programs) in shaping ideal leadership self-concepts. It is also important to know whether there is a stage in a manager's career where ideal leadership self-concepts stabilize and become less affected by daily experiences. An interesting avenue for future research would be to follow the development of ideal leadership self-concepts of young people as they transition through various roles, perhaps as they enter college, as they move into professional positions, and as they move from individual contributor to supervisor, to determine how strongly abusive leaders affect their leadership self-concepts at various career stages.

We also need to be precise in studying the effect of abusive leaders. Because people learn what to do and what not to do from bad bosses (Kellerman, 2004), it plausible that as individuals experience repeated episodes of abuse from high performing leaders, they might *increase* their ideal leadership self-concept for sensitivity in reaction to these negative experiences. Alternatively, such experiences may lead them to alter their ideal leadership self-concepts to match the abusive behaviors of effective leaders, *decreasing* the ideal leadership self-concept for sensitivity. Thus, a valuable extension of this current research would be to investigate how

experience working with abusive role models reinforces or alters a new leader's ideal leadership self-concepts.

Finally, given the regulatory function that they appear to serve, it is also important to learn more about self-concept strength. Rather than using a rating scale as we did and comparing leadership self-concepts to other people, it may be more fruitful to take a with-in person approach, asking the questions of which leadership self-concept is strongest for a particular individual and what role those self-concepts play in leaders' identities. The stronger an individual identifies with the leader role, the more impact we would expect his or her leadership self-concept to have on behavior.

Conclusion

Our study offers important contributions to the literature on abusive supervision, career transitions, and the role of leadership self-concepts in understanding and predicting new leaders' abusive behavior. We provide evidence that role model performance and ideal leadership self-concepts work together in influencing new leaders' decisions about whether or not to use abusive supervision as a means to achievement.

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Footnotes

[1]The positive correlation between team size and performance was unexpected and appears to have been caused by imperfect assignment to conditions during the study. Because we used a systematic, random approach to assign participants to conditions, we had uneven numbers of teams in the two performance conditions as we neared the end of the data collection period. Therefore, we assigned more than a proportional number of teams to the low performance condition near the end. Since the show rate for participants at the end of semester was lower, we ended up with fewer three person teams in the low performance condition, leading to a small but significant correlation between team performance and team size.

[2]It should be noted that the three-way interaction for tyranny becomes significant with the addition of an outlier who was dropped due to extreme responses in a socially desirable direction. Results of Table 4 with and without this outlier are available from the first author.

[3]Negative binomial regression uses log-likelihood and produces regression lines that are curved to indicate the inflection point where zero changes to 1 and then the slope of increase as 1 moves to higher counts. Although a curve is more appropriate to illustrate the results of negative binomial regression, we plot a straight line because our study had only 2 conditions (non-exposed abuse manipulation and exposed abuse manipulation).

Table 1

Phase I Procedures

Process/Approximate Time in Minutes	Communication tool	Content
Task Introduction (6 min)	Formal video, with actor/leader wearing a suit, in a classroom, using power point slides.	Described task and competition; introduced leader.
Team Introduction (5 min)	**Informal video recorded by actor/leader in his office, wearing a casual shirt.**	**Introduced team members to each other.**
Question Period (5 min)	**Live chat messages were used for participant questions and actor/leader responses.**	**Confederates asked planned questions; some participants asked questions.**
Work Period 1 (15 min)	Individual work with no team communication.	Participants worked on assignment; participant task was to introduce MBA faculty.
Feedback 1 (6 min)	**Informal video recorded by the actor/leader, in office; narrated Power Point.**	**Feedback to the team on their work**
Work Period 2 (15 min)	Individual work with no team communication.	Participants worked on assignment.
Feedback 2 (2 min 30 sec)	**Audio feedback; narrated PowerPoint slides.**	**Feedback to the team on their work.**
Work Period 3 (10 min)	Live chat messages between team members; no leader involvement.	Team worked together to integrate their work and implement leader feedback.
Final Comments	**Message from the confederate team leader.**	**Leader tells team their work will be submitted to judges; results available in 10 minutes.**
Manipulation Check	Online survey.	Adapted Tepper (2000) abusive supervision scale.
Team Performance (1 min 30 sec)	**Audio message from actor/leader.**	**Announce the result of competition.**

Note: Processes that included manipulations are in bold. Min= minutes; sec = seconds.

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Table 2

Excerpts from the Abusive/Non-abuse Manipulation and Performance Manipulation

	Abusive condition	**Non-abusive condition**
Team Introduction	• "It's time to get to work . . . So, let's hope that we can produce something that is useful, which I have my doubts about given the competency or incompetency level of some of the people in our team, *Team member 1* (insulting tone). So, we're going to work hard guys."	• "It's time to get to work . . . So, let's hope we can produce something that the judges will really like. And given the competition here, we will have to work hard!" (with confidence)
Question Period	• Confederate team member 1: I am not sure what you mean by alumni! Leader: You are kidding, right? (with sarcasm) If not, we are really in trouble here! (pause) Team member 1, alumni are people who have graduated from the program. (pause) Seriously, did you not know that? (again with sarcasm)	• Confederate team member 1: I am not sure what you mean by alumni! • Leader: Team member 1, alumni are people who have graduated from the program. (informational tone)
Feedback 1 and 2	• Leader example 1: "Your slides are great in the fact that you did keep them simple. But the more I reviewed them, the more I realized that maybe your slides were clean and simple because . . . well . . . you are a little simple. By that I mean that the content of your slides was really just STUPID!!" (demeaning tone) • Leader example 2: "I don't know how to do this gently, so I am just going to be direct . . . This is NOT looking good. I feel like I am working with a group of fifth graders, rather than university management students. Honestly, I have been doing everything I can to help you improve your work, but nothing seems to be sinking into those thick heads of yours." (demeaning tone)	• Leader example 1: "Your slides were great in the fact that you kept them simple. But the more I looked at them, the more that I reviewed them, I started to realize that your slides were simple because they were light on information! Now, the format (three points per slide) is fantastic. But your content is really weak." (tone is matter of fact) • Leader example 2: "I don't know how to do this gently, so I am just going to be direct . . . Some of what we have is good, but some of it is not looking so good. So, we have some work ahead of us to improve and get to the level that we need to get to for this competition." (tone is matter of fact)
	High performance condition	**Low performance**
Performance manipulation	• "Alright gang! Congratulations. I just received a message from the judges that our presentation was actually one of the best!! As the matter of fact, we just tied for FIRST PLACE!! Sweet!" (Sound of clapping hands)	• Ok guys, I hate to be the bearer of the bad news, but I just received the message from the judges. And yeah, our presentation was one of the worst. And we actually tied for LAST PLACE!!!! So, I am really disappointed . . .

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Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations among Study Variables

	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Team size	2.30	.46	-							
2. Gender (Male)	.55	.50	-.03	-						
3. Leadership experience	.18	.39	-.15*	.23**	-					
4. Exposed Abuse	.49	.50	-.09	.14	.11	-				
5. Team performance	.52	.50	.14*	.02	.04	.11	-			
6. Sensitivity	7.99	.99	.00	-.09	.10	.04	.05	(.78)		
7. Tyranny	2.95	1.16	-.03	.24**	.01	-.03	-.09	-.20**	(.72)	
8. Enacted abuse	.27	.97	.01	.09	.01	.10	.01	-.08	.12	(.77)

Note. Correlations are based on pairwise deletion. $n_{new\ leader}$ = 90; $n_{team\ member}$ = 199 for *leadership experience*. Sample size for all the other variables: $n_{new\ leader}$ = 93; $n_{team\ member}$ = 205. Exposed abuse and team performance were coded (0 = *non-abuse*, 1 = *abuse,* and 0 = *low performance*, 1 = *high performance*, respectively). Reliabilities are in parentheses. *$p < .05$ **$p < .01$.

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Table 4

Regressing Enacted Abuse on Exposed Abuse, Team Performance, and Leadership Ideal Self-concepts

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	*S.E*	*B*	*S.E*	*B*	*S.E*
Gender (Male)	.67	.49	1.01	.59	.90	.61
Leadership experience	.12	.73	-.18	.61	-.26	.65
Team size	.39	.56	.20	.51	.18	.54
Exposed abuse	.53	.49	.05	.61	.05	.61
Team performance	.14	.46	-.54	.68	-3.76**	1.33
Tyranny	.23	.21	-.51	.32	-.16	.47
Sensitivity	-.06	.22	-.08	.32	-.36	.36
Exposed abuse x team performance (H1)			.83	.87	4.29**	1.43
Exposed abuse x tyranny (H2)			1.07*	.44	.99	.53
Exposed abuse x sensitivity (H3)			.07	.44	-.02	.62
Team performance x tyranny					-2.28*	1.07
Team performance x sensitivity					3.28**	1.05
Exposed abuse x team performance x tyranny (H4)					1.75	1.17
Exposed abuse x team performance x sensitivity (H5)					-2.97*	1.22
R^2 (ΔR^2)		.03	.07* (.04)		.16** (.09**)	

Note. Unstandardized coefficients are reported. $n_{new\_leader} = 93$; $n_{team\ member} = 205$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

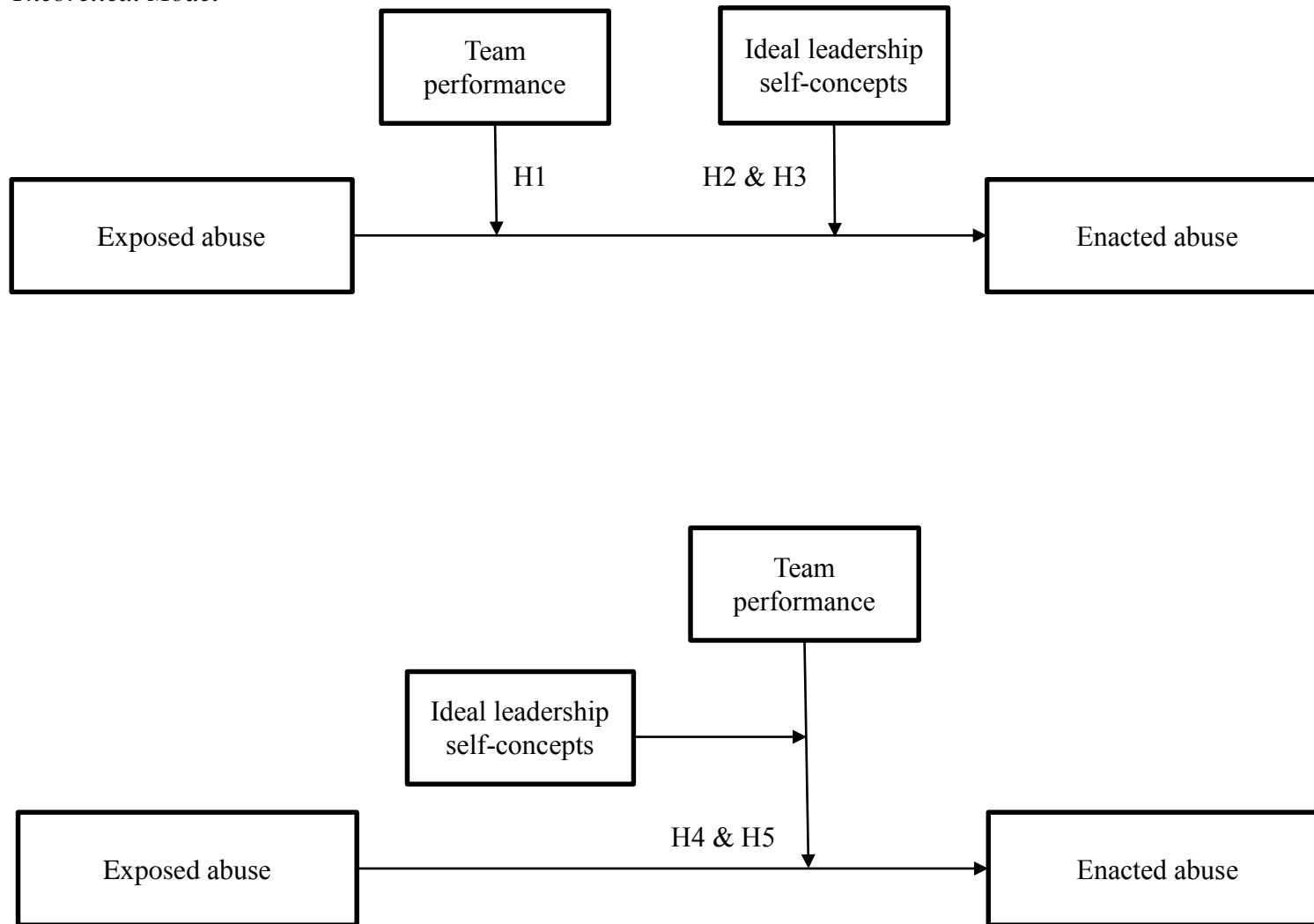BREAKING THE CYCLE OF ABUSIVE SUPERVISION SPILLOVER

Table 5

Results of t-Tests of Slope Differences:
Comparing the Association between Exposed Abuse and Enacted Abuse under Various Conditions

Slope Pairs	Comparisons	Significance
Example: Slope A vs. Slope B	$B_{slopeA}- B_{slopeB}=$	Differences between slope A & B
Holding Performance Constant, Does Sensitivity Matter?		
1. Performance$_{high}$ and Sensitivity$_{low}$ vs. Peformance$_{high}$ and Sensitivity$_{high}$	7.30- 1.38	5.91[**]
2. Peformance$_{low}$ and Sensitivity$_{high}$ vs. Performance$_{low}$ and Sensitivity$_{low}$	.03- .07	-.03
Holding Sensitivity Constant, Does Performance Matter?		
3. Performance$_{high}$ and Sensitivity$_{low}$ vs. Performance$_{low}$ and Sensitivity$_{low}$	7.30- .07	7.23[**]
4. Performance$_{high}$ and Sensitivity$_{high}$ vs. Performance$_{low}$ and Sensitivity$_{high}$	1.38- .03	1.35
Mixed Conditions		
5. Performance$_{high}$ and Sensitivity$_{low}$ vs. Performance$_{low}$ and Sensitivity$_{high}$	7.30- .03	7.26[**]
6. Performance$_{high}$ and Sensitivity$_{high}$ vs. Performance$_{low}$ and Sensitivity$_{low}$	1.38- .07	1.32
Holding Performance Constant, Does Tyranny Matter?		
7. Peformance$_{high}$ and Tyranny$_{high}$ vs. Performance$_{high}$ and Tyranny$_{low}$	7.52- 1.16	6.36[*]
8. Peformance$_{low}$ and Tyranny$_{high}$ vs. Performance$_{low}$ and Tyranny$_{low}$	1.20- (-1.10)	2.29
Holding Tyranny Constant, Does Performance Matter?		
9. Performance$_{high}$ and Tyranny$_{high}$ vs. Performance$_{low}$ and Tyranny$_{high}$	7.52- 1.20	6.33[**]
10. Performance$_{low}$ and Tyranny$_{low}$ vs. Performance$_{high}$ and Tyranny$_{low}$	(-1.10)- 1.16	-2.26
Mixed Conditions		
11. Performance$_{high}$ and Tyranny$_{high}$ vs. Performance$_{low}$ and Tyranny$_{low}$	7.52- (-1.10)	8.62[**]
12. Performance$_{low}$ and Tyranny$_{high}$ vs. Performance$_{high}$ and Tyranny$_{low}$	1.20- 1.16	.04

Note. [*]$p < .05$. [**]$p < .01$. Differences between slopes are positive (negative) when first slope is larger (smaller) than the second one.
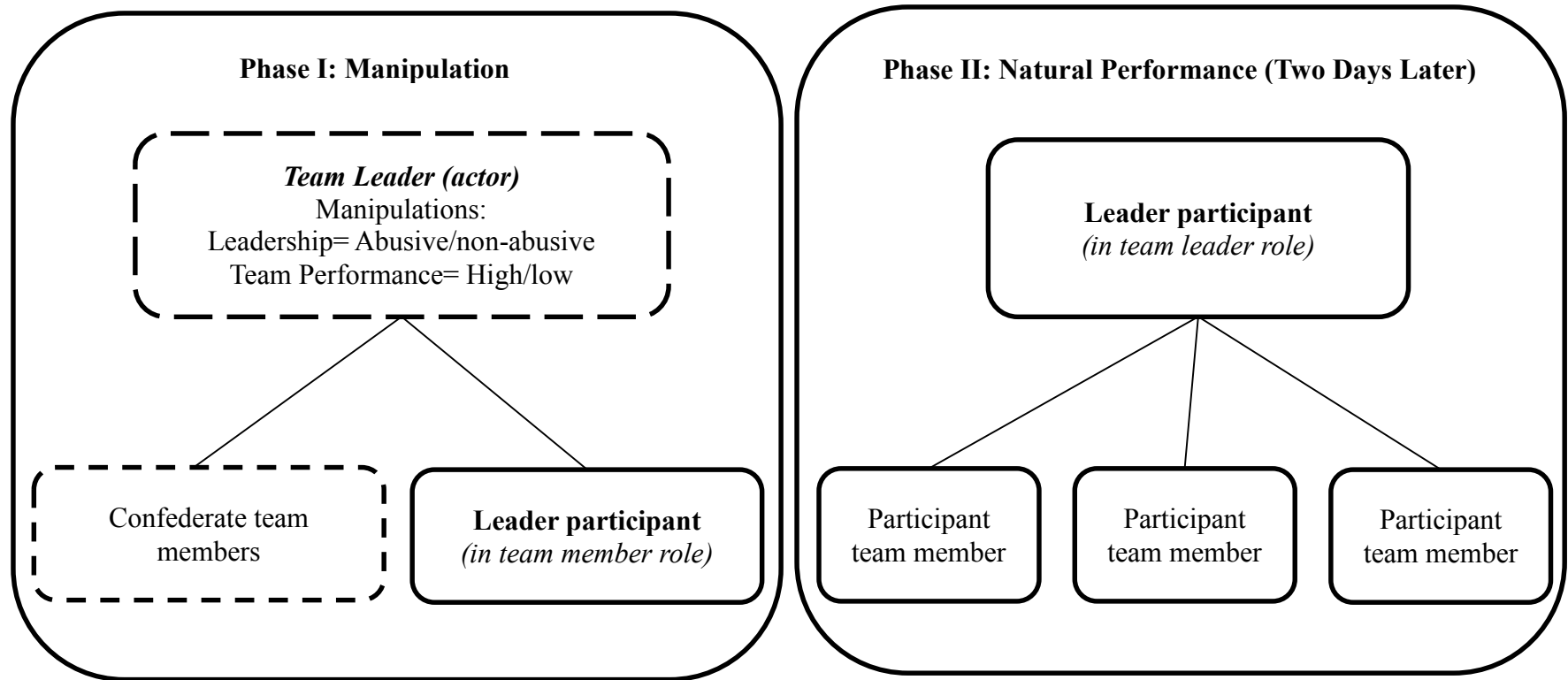
BREAKING THE CYCLE OF ABUSIVE SUPERVISION SPILLOVER

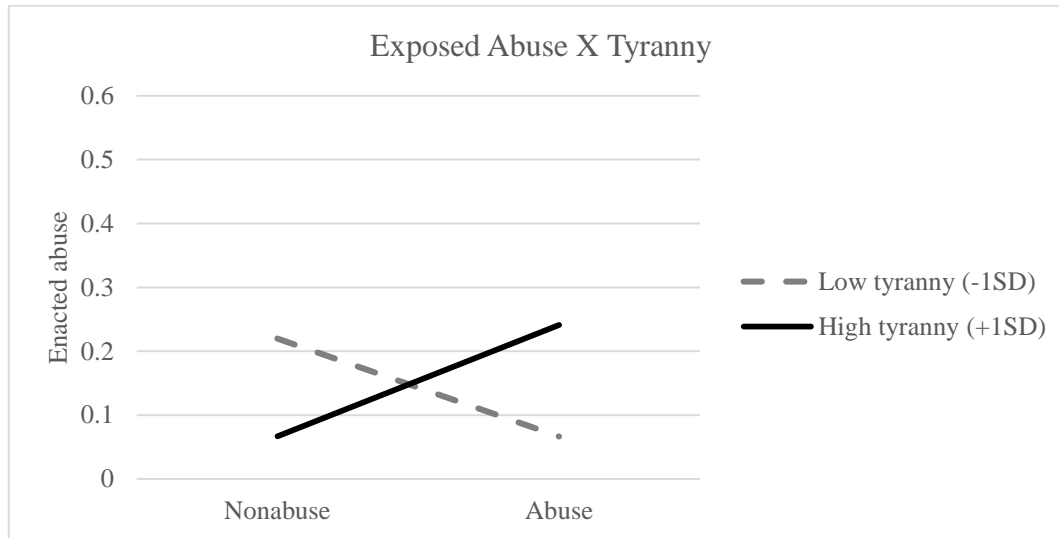Figure 1.
Theoretical Model

Figure 2

Participants and Role Assignments in Phase I and Phase II

Note. Dotted lines indicate actor or confederate; Solid lines indicate research participants. Leader participants were team members in Phase I and team leaders in Phase II. Team member participants were only involved in Phase II.

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Figure 3.

Two-Way Interactions Between Exposed Abuse and Leadership Ideal Self-Concept Tyranny Predicting Enacted Abuse.

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Figure 4.

Three-Way Interactions Among Exposed Abuse, Team Performance, and Leadership Ideal Self-Concept Sensitivity Predicting Enacted Abuse.