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Stressful workplace relationships: a qualitative and quantitative exploration

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STRESSFUL WORKPLACE RELATIONSHIPS: A QUALITATIVE AND

QUANTITATIVE EXPLORATION

by

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PH.D. THESIS

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

The American Institute of Stress estimates that businesses in the United States lose over $300 billion per year to stress-related absenteeism, turnover, accidents, insurance, and other costs (http://www.stress.org/workplace-stress/, 2013). There are numerous causes of workplace stress, and one common type of work stressor that has had quite a bit of academic research attention in the last few decades is dysfunctional workplace relationships. A variety of dysfunctional and challenging relationships are widespread in the workplace. For instance, abusive supervision is just one type of workplace relationship that is found to be prevalent, with more than 13% of individuals working in the US reportedly becoming targets of abusive supervision, as perpetrated by their immediate supervisors (Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006). As another example, in a broad study of bullying at work in Norway, 8.6% of respondents reported being bullied at work in the previous six months, with some industries having rates of bullying as high as 17.4% (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996).

With such high rates of occurrence, this issue demands attention and exploration so that we may better understand how such relationships come about, how involved parties experience and perceive these relationships, and what outcomes result. A majority of the research to date has focused on the costs of stressful relationships, which span across many categories, including physical, psychological, behavioral, and organizational (Kelloway, Teed, & Kelley, 2008). For example, continued exposure to abusive supervision is associated with serious negative consequences for victims and employers, including problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), psychological distress (Tepper, 2000), and aggression directed against a victim's supervisor (Dupre, Inness,

Connelly, Barling, & Hoption, 2006; Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005), employer (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), and family (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). At the organizational level, these outcomes translate into annual losses of an estimated $23.8 billion in increased health care costs, workplace withdrawal, and lost productivity (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Research on victimization at work also reports that targets of aggressive actions suffer psychologically, become fatigued, stressed, sick, and sometimes traumatized. Consequently, individual, group, and organizational performance can suffer (Leymann 1990).

While a majority of the research to date has focused on negative outcomes, a few studies have taken other approaches, such as considering how such relationships may have a strategic purpose. Krakel (1997) suggested that bullying can be a strategy for eliminating too high or too low achieving colleagues or subordinates. Hersey, Blanchard, and Natemeyer (1997) discuss bullying as a coercive tactic used by managers to motivate certain employees who lack some attribute, such as maturity. With this view in mind, it is plausible that assertive, strategic bullying might demonstrate positive effects on job performance. (Ferris, Zinko, Brouer, Buckley, & Harvey, 2007).

There are also theories on general workplace stressors that suggest outcomes of stress need not always be negative. The challenge/hindrance stressor framework, which draws heavily on the transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), posits that there are two types of stressors, each having differential effects on work attitudes and behaviors (Pearsall, Ellis, & Stein, 2009; Podsakoff, LePine, LePine, 2007). In this model, common workplace stressors are classified into two categories, challenge stressors, which may cause strain, but can ultimately result in positive developmental

experiences and performance opportunities, and hindrance stressors, which are more likely to be detrimental to personal progress and development. Challenge stressors may include job characteristics such as time demands, responsibility, and work load, while hindrance stressors may include role conflict, role ambiguity, and political barriers. Meta-analytic evidence has demonstrated the differential validities of challenge and hindrance constructs.

Thus, we know that stressful relationships in the workplace can be highly detrimental, but we also know they can serve a strategic purpose, and can potentially lead to positive outcomes. Indeed, it seems that these stressful dynamics can at different times be negative, harmful, dysfunctional, strategic, motivational, and functional. What we currently lack is a clear understanding of how one individuals' motivations, behaviors, and perceptions can influence a colleague's subsequent perceptions and outcomes of what they consider a stressful relationship. Thus, the fundamental question that is the focus of this study is as follows:

How does a stressful workplace relationship come about, and how does each person in the dyadic relationship evaluate key relationship dynamics?

Before addressing this question, it is important to define exactly what types of relationships I include as 'stressful'. I am taking a broad view, defining a stressful workplace relationship as: *a demanding interpersonal relationship with a significant co-worker whose behavior, over time, causes the relationship to stand out as requiring extra effort and energy to maintain.* This broad definition encompasses a range of relationships currently studied, including victimization, abusive supervision, bullying, social undermining, and others to be discussed in the literature review. The relationship in

question can be between peers, or between a supervisor and a subordinate, and need not

be inherently negative. I am interested in exploring significant work relationships, not

just annoying colleagues, and I do not place limits on what kinds of intentions motivate

the relationship. In this manuscript, the terms *actor* and *target* are used to describe parties

involved in these relationships. *Actor* refers to the individual engaged in demonstrating

aggressive or abusive behavior or presenting a challenge to another individual, and *target*

refers to the individual on the receiving end of such behavior.

    With this definition and overall purpose in mind, it is essential to evaluate

stressful relationships from the perspective of the target (the person who feels stressed,

victimized, abused, undermined, etc.), as well as from the perspective of the actor (the

person engaging in behaviors toward another person that result in a stressful

relationship). The importance of this dual perspective approach rests in the reality that

two individuals in a dyadic relationship can have quite different perspectives. We find

evidence of this in the literature on Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). LMX researchers

study the quality of relationship between a leader and a follower. Empirical findings

indicate that leaders and members have different perspectives on LMX quality (Greguras

& Ford, 2006; Liden & Maslyn, 1998), with a moderate overall agreement between

leader and member ratings of LMX (ρ = .37; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Sin et al., 2009). It is

apparent in LMX research that a leader and a member may perceive their quality of

relationship in varied and unique ways (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Nahrgang, Morgeson, &

Ilies, 2009; Sin, Nahrgang, and Morgeson, 2009).

    While the research on LMX has looked at (and found differences between)

comparative perceptions of the same relationship between a leader and a follower, the

same type of consideration has not been given the perspectives from each side of a stressful work relationship. This is a significant gap, since consideration of the dual perceptions may help clarify reasons the strained relationship exists. Currently, we can surmise that actor and target perceptions of the same relationship may differ, but we currently lack a clear understanding of the psychological mechanisms that: a) drive behavior that leads to stressful work relationships, and b) influence perceptions around stressful workplace relationships. We know that stressful relationships exist at work, and we know there is wide variance in the nature of the relationships and in the outcomes. One of the gaps addressed by this study is how perceptions made by each party (in this case, of actor behaviors) may influence outcomes resulting from the stressful relationship. The value of considering this comparative difference is in increasing our ability to educate and coach individuals, both about how their behaviors may be perceived by others, and about how they can avoid having misconceptions of their own about the behaviors of others. This may help reduce the degree of negative outcomes resulting from difficult relationships.

<div align="center">Purpose of the Study</div>

The primary purpose of this study is to understand what actors and targets of a stressful workplace relationship perceive to be the causes, behavioral nature, and outcomes of a stressful relationship by examining the following questions:

1. What types of actor behaviors contribute to a target experiencing a stressful relationship?

2. What perceptions made by the actor about the target are related to the actor engaging in behaviors that may create stress for the target colleague?

3. What coping strategies do targets engage in to effectively deal with stressful relationships?

4. Do targets experience positive outcomes from a stressful relationship?

5. Does target self-determination have a mediating effect on the relationship between supervisor behaviors and subordinate outcomes?

6. Do target perceptions of actor behaviors moderate the relationship between actor-rated behaviors and target outcomes?

To examine these research questions, a mixed methods approach was used. I began with a qualitative study to address Research Questions 1-4 (Study 1), which was followed up with a quantitative study to further investigate Questions 1, 2, and 4, and to address Questions 5 and 6 (Study 2). The qualitative study was structured to elicit experiences from a variety of individuals regarding their involvements with stressful work relationships. Using a structured interview process, I interviewed individuals from a variety of backgrounds, asking them to recount times when they feel they were either a target or an actor in a stressful work relationship. I then used structured questions to gather specific details, such as the behaviors of each party, perceptions about the other party, perceptions about the situation, coping strategies, and resulting outcomes. Based on findings from this first study and the theories reviewed earlier, Study 2 was designed to further address Research Questions 1, 2, 4, 5, and 6 empirically.

A distinct advantage of qualitative research is that it can provide insights that are difficult or impossible to generate with quantitative research (Gephart, 2004). Given our currently limited understanding of the questions addressed in this study, a qualitative aspect to the study was deemed appropriate. While interviewing both sides of one

stressful dyadic relationship was not feasible, due to concerns about individuals' privacy and security, I *was* able gather experiences from individuals who have experienced either (or both) sides of such relationships. Lee, Mitchell, & Sablynski (1999) state that most qualitative studies strive to do one of three things: generate theories, elaborate on theories, or test theories. The purpose driving the qualitative portion of this study primarily involved elaborating on the theories described in this introduction and possibly generating new theory.

While qualitative research is more suited for purposes of description, interpretation, and explanation, quantitative research addresses issues of prevalence, generalizability, and calibration (Lee et al., 1999). Thus, while Study 1 of this project focused on gathering qualitative data for theory elaboration, Study 2 empirically tested some of the ideas and propositions set forth by Study 1. In particular, Study 2 zeroed in on a narrow part of Study 1, and consists of a quantitative field study, in which information will be gathered through a survey process. Specific constructs and hypotheses are determined by Study 1 results and insights from existing theory.

In summary, these studies primarily address three gaps in the literature on stressful workplace relationships. The first is how actor perceptions of target attributes motivate certain actor behaviors. The second gap is understanding why some supervisor behaviors may be stressful to targets by examining mediators and moderators to explain the relationships. The third gap addressed by these studies is a look at whether stressful work relationships can result in positive outcomes for the target. An exploration of these research gaps will help us understand more of the dynamics that influence individual perceptions of stressful relationships at work. It is often said that "perception is reality",

and a deeper inspection of individual perceptions about one another and about interactions with the other party may lead to deeper understanding of difficult work relationships.

Overview of Theories

The goal of Study 1 was to collect experiences of actors and targets, gathering their insights about the nature of the stressful relationships they experienced, behaviors and attributes they perceived about themselves and the other party, coping strategies used, and overall outcomes of the relationship. Details of this study are described in Chapter 3. Following the discussion of this qualitative exploration, I describe the testable model I developed for Study 2. Study 2 has a more narrow focus, zeroing in on a manageable and unique part of Study 1. Using two primary theoretical perspectives, I developed hypotheses addressing research questions examined in a second study. The first theory I use is social cognition theory, which may help explain the behaviors of actors in stressful work relationships. The second is self-determination theory, which may help explain target reactions to actor behaviors that contribute to these stressful relationships.

Social cognition theory proposes that people take cognitive shortcuts by categorizing others based on visually salient clues and social roles (Operario & Fiske, 2004), and these cognitions shape their judgment of and response to others. This mental categorization happens instantly, spontaneously, and automatically (Boldenhausen & McCrae, 1998), and is based on assumptions about the expected traits and behaviors of the individual in question. Indeed, research indicates the merit of this theory (Sy, 2010), and from this overarching theory, areas of research have developed to look specifically at

certain types of dyadic interactions. Since initial classifications guide subsequent information processing, the initial classification an individual makes can lay the groundwork for the dyadic relationship that will subsequently develop (Engle & Lord, 1997). Thus, these categorizations may have a role in directing how an individual who becomes an actor in a stressful relationship classifies and reacts to a person who becomes a target. Expectations and classifications can be positive or negative, just as reactions can be positive or negative. A better understanding of these expectations, classifications, and reactions may provide insights into the behaviors of actors of stressful work relationships.

Essentially, the initial categorization one individual uses to classify another individual is based on a prototype, developed from pre-existing expectations one has about what a person in a specified role should exhibit. This happens automatically, and can be thought of as a mental 'shortcut'. More systematic processing occurs when spare mental capacity exists, and when perceivers are motivated to be accurate (Smith, 1994). In a work setting that involves ongoing relationships (whether between leaders, subordinates, or peers), individuals share common work goals and outcomes. Thus, individuals likely have some level of interest in the behaviors and performance of the colleague in question, which increases his/her motivation to consciously evaluate the person s/he perceives.

Moving to the other side of the relationship dyad, self-determination theory may aid in understanding how targets are impacted by stressful relationships at work. Self-determination theory is based on the idea that humans have three innate psychological needs: competency, autonomy, and relatedness. When these three needs are met, self-motivation and good mental health can result. However, when not met, a person can

experience diminished mental health and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Logically, if a

person's needs for competency, relatedness, or autonomy are not being met, and the

cause is attributed to the behaviors of a perceived actor, the target will likely perceive that

a stressful relationship exists, and that the behaviors of the actor are responsible for

his/her lack of motivation and decreased well-being. So, in this case, the impact on one's

own self-determination will lead to an assessment of a stressful relationship. In order to

understand how these dynamics are experienced by targets of stressful relationships,

perceptions of the targets' experiences must be assessed. This assessment will help close

a gap in the literature that seeks to understand the experiences of targets in such

relationships.

The final research gap addressed by Study 2 looks at perceptions the target has

about effects of the relationship. Research on stressful work relationships has focused

largely on negative outcomes resulting from the relationship, and less on how a particular

stressful relationship might lead to non-negative outcomes for the target. Thus, this study

looks for positive personal and professional outcomes, as well as negative outcomes.

<div align="center">Dissertation Outline</div>

In the following sections, I describe each study in detail, and I further describe

theories that relate to and support this research. Chapter 2 is a literature review, which

outlines and describes the current research that relates to the most common types of

stressful workplace relationships. This review sets up the qualitative and quantitative

studies that follow.

Chapter 3 describes Study 1, the qualitative exploration of stressful workplace

relationships. This chapter describes the methods used for this study, as well as results. In

addition to a description of key overall findings, anecdotal highlights are provided to support and illustrate the findings. Next, Chapter 4 describes how the key findings that emerged in study 1 are used to frame the hypotheses that relate to my key research questions. Specific hypotheses are outlined, and theoretical justification for each hypothesis is provided. Then, Chapter 5 describes the specific methods used to test the hypotheses set forth in Chapter 4. Details about the study sample, scales used for measurement, and statistical analyses are described. Following the methods chapter, results are presented in Chapter 6. Finally, Chapter 7 provides an overall discussion of what the studies revealed both in terms of theory and practice, limitations of this study, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW

It has been historically common for management researchers to focus on effective leadership behaviors and positive workplace relationships, but dysfunctional workplace relationships have also garnered significant attention for the past 25 years. In particular, Robinson and Bennett (1995) called attention to the importance of examining interpersonal workplace mistreatment, or what have been referred to as dysfunctional relationships. This research stream has resulted in the development of several distinct constructs, including abusive supervision, victimization, and social undermining (Tepper & Henle, 2011). These constructs are conceptually distinct, though some overlap exists, and some have received more research attention than others, as will be reviewed below.

Since a goal of my research is to explore principles of stressful workplace relationships in general, rather than just one type of stressful relationship, I review the existing literature on three of the most common and relevant types of stressful work relationships: abusive supervision, victimization, and social undermining. I then present a brief review of the literature on coaching; the relevance of coaching will become apparent after reading the results of Study 1. The first three constructs I mentioned are conceptually different in a number of ways, such as who is involved in the relationships and interactions (i.e. peer-to-peer, supervisor-subordinate, etc.), the inclusion or exclusion of physical abuse; and different levels of granularity, such as the construct of victimization, which serves as a broad umbrella that may include more narrow constructs such as bullying and abusive supervision. This review includes the conceptual definition of each construct and reviews the antecedents, and where available, coping strategies that have been examined within the construct domain.

Abusive Supervision

One of the most commonly studied constructs to date is *abusive supervision*. Abusive supervision has been defined as: *subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact* (Tepper, 2000). By definition, abusive supervision can only exist in the context of a supervisor-subordinate relationship, so similar perceptions of abusive behaviors in the context of peers, mentors, or other work associates that do not have a direct supervisory relationship do not fall into the realm of abusive supervision. It includes supervisor behaviors such as ridiculing the subordinate, telling the subordinate that his/her "feelings are stupid" or giving a subordinate "the silent treatment" (Tepper, 2005). Most of the research has focused on the negative consequences of abusive supervision, such as lower job commitment and job satisfaction, aggressive and deviant behaviors, psychological distress, increased intentions to quit, and more resistance behaviors (Tepper, 2007).

The limited research on the antecedents of abusive supervision has mostly focused on the supervisor's perceptions and personality, including: supervisors' perceptions of injustice (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006), psychological contract breach (Hoobler & Brass, 2006), personality (Machiavellianism) (Kiazad, Restubog, Zagenczyk, Kiewitz, & Tang, 2010), authoritarian leadership style (Aryee et al., 2007), and most recently, perceived deep level dissimilarity (Tepper, Moss, &Duffy 2011). The focus of this research has been on what *in general* motivates supervisors to engage in abusive supervision. An exception is Tepper and colleagues (2011) as their study was driven by the question of why

supervisors abuse *specific subordinates*. Consistent with moral exclusion theory, their findings showed that supervisor's perceived deep-level dissimilarity with the subordinate evokes perceived relationship conflict, which produces lower evaluations of subordinate performance, which, in turn, lead to higher levels of abusive supervision.

As far as studies that include an evaluation of target characteristics, Tepper et al.'s (2006) findings indicated that supervisors exposed to procedural injustices experience depression, which, in turn, results in abusive behavior against subordinates who are perceived to be vulnerable or provocative. In their study, displaced aggression theory was used to explain why victim characteristics such as appearing vulnerable, weak, or difficult to get along with moderate the relationship between supervisors' perceived injustice and contract breach. This study used data gathered from the supervisor (actor) perspective. Another recent study focuses specifically on target personality characteristics (Henle and Gross, forthcoming). Drawing on victim precipitation theory, Henle and Gross found that subordinates higher in neuroticism and lower in conscientiousness are more likely to report abusive supervision. While no effects for agreeableness were found, the authors suggest a possible curvilinear relationship.

Henle and Gross are not the first to use victim precipitation theory to understand difficult or abusive relationships. Victim precipitation theory comes from the criminology literature, and shows that some crime victims are either knowing or unknowing participants in the sequence of events that lead to them becoming the target of aggressive acts (Aquino, 2000). In the victimization literature, Aquino (2000) identified target negative affectivity (NA) as a factor associated with victim precipitation. Tepper, Duffy, Henle, and Lambert (2006) merged this work using NA and victim precipitation theory

with justice theories to develop a moderated-mediation model in which the mediating effects of supervisors' depression on the relationship between supervisors' procedural justice and subordinates' perceived abuse will be stronger when subordinates are higher in NA.

In research on coping with abusive supervision, Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, and Carr (2007) examined the role of approach vs. avoidant coping behaviors (measured using an upward maintenance communication scale) in the relationship between work stressors and psychological distress. They found that from a target perspective, failing to directly communicate (using approach tactics) in situations of perceived abusive supervision may be associated with psychological distress, and individuals reporting greater abusive supervision were more like to employ avoid coping behaviors.

<center>Victimization</center>

Victimization has been defined as: *an individual's perception of having been exposed, either momentarily or repeatedly, to the aggressive acts of one or more other persons* (Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999), and *acts of aggression perpetrated by one or more members of an organization that cause psychological, emotional, or physical harm to their intended target*. Research on this construct asks the question: "what kinds of people under what conditions are likely to become targets of coworkers' aggressive actions" (Aquino et al., 1999). A couple of important things to note about victimization, when comparing it with other similar constructs, are that victimization can include elements of physical hostility, and victimization is primarily concerned with aggressive actions that are intended to cause harm (or generally lead to negative outcomes). Also note, 'workplace victimization' can be used as a broad construct that

includes many types of workplace aggression, including workplace harassment, petty tyranny, mobbing, bullying, emotional abuse, abusive supervision, social undermining, incivility, identity threats, and victimization (Aquino & Thau,, 2009;).

Given its definition, it is not surprising that much of the research has focused on target-centered antecedents of such actor behavior. Overall, the most consistent antecedent to victimization is the target's negative affect (NA) (positively related) (e.g., Aquino et al., 1999; Aquino & Thau, 2009; Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Coyne et al., 2000; Tepper et al. 2006). Various theories attempt to explain this, but causality is currently unclear and more longitudinal studies are needed to help understand this relationship. The Big 5 personality trait of neuroticism, which is similar to NA, has also been found to be related positively to victimization (measured as bullying) (Coyne, Chong, Seigne, & Randall, 2003). Studying other personality measures has resulted in mixed findings. Coyne et al. (2003) did not find differences between victims and non-victims in levels of conscientiousness or extraversion, but other studies have found differences (Coyne et al., 2000, Vartia, 1996). Similar to the NA – victimization relationship, self-esteem has been positively related to victimization, though again the causality is unclear (Bowling &Beehr, 2006; Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994, Harvey & Keashly, 2003, Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001, Vartia, 1996). Target behaviors have also been explored. In particular, Aquino and Bommer (2003) found that target's citizenship behavior negatively related to victimization and others have found that targets with an overly accommodating conflict management style were more likely to be targets of victimization (Aquino, 2000; Zapf & Gross, 2001).

Beyond individual differences, some contextual antecedents have also been found to relate to victimization. For instance, Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) found that workplaces with a higher number of employees and those that are more male dominated have higher levels of victimization. Vartia (1996) found that contextual factors such as poor information flow, lack of two-way conversations about work unit tasks and goals, and competition for tasks or advancement all increase victimization. Interestingly, investigations of hierarchical status as a predictor of victimization have had mixed results. Some studies have found that those at lower hierarchical levels experience more victimization (Aquino, 2000; Aquino, et al., 2004; Hoel & Cooper, 2001), one study has found that managers experience more victimization (Lamertz & Aquino, 2004), and still others have found no effect for hierarchical levels (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000, Aquino & Douglas, 2003).

While displaced aggression theory was used in the abusive supervision literature to explain why victim characteristics, such as appearing vulnerable, weak, or difficult to get along with, moderate the relationship between supervisors' perceived injustice and contract breach (Tepper et al., 2006), in the workplace victimization literature, Aquino and colleagues (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Aquino & Byron, 2002) offer a different theory to explain supervisors' abuse of subordinates whom they perceive to be provocative and difficult to get along with. They suggest that supervisors may abuse subordinates as an act of retaliatory aggression, rather than displaced aggression. Again, this study was based on the supervisor's perspective of the situation.

In a study involving coping, Aquino (2000) found that the perception that one has been the target of direct victimization was positively related to individuals' use of an

avoiding style of handling conflict (i.e. the tendency to resolve conflict by ignoring it).The author interpreted the findings as providing support for the theory that people who present themselves as weak and unwilling to fight back are more likely to be victimized.

<div align="center">Social Undermining</div>

Social undermining by supervisors and coworkers has been defined as: *behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation* (Duffy, Ganster, &Pagon, 2002). It includes behaviors such as intentionally hurting the targets' feelings, making the target feel incompetent, and spreading rumors about the target (Duffy et al., 2002), and it excludes physical hostility (Tepper, 2007). While abusive supervision solely includes supervisor-subordinate relationships, social undermining does not require a direct supervisory relationship, so can include coworker relationships.

The research that has been done on social undermining at work has focused primarily on outcomes of perceived social undermining. For instance, it was shown that social undermining is consistently negatively related to job attitudes and positively related to deviant behavior and psychosomatic complaints (Duffy et al., 2002; Duffy et al., 2006; Tepper, 2000). Research has also shown that not only do employees who experience undermining react negatively in terms of attitudinal, behavioral and health outcomes, but those reactions are stronger than reactions to positive behaviors (Duffy et al., 2002; Taylor, 1991). The finding that negative experiences have greater impact on employees than positive ones underlines the importance of understanding characteristics of negative relationships. In terms of social context, justice perceptions have been shown to moderate the relationship between individual perceived undermining and outcomes,

meaning that individuals who feel "singled out" for undermining relative to other members of their group demonstrate more pronounced outcomes (Duffy et al., 2006).

Antecedents to social undermining are notably absent from the current literature, and characteristics of social undermining targets remain unexplored. Additionally, there has been little or no research on how individuals cope with social undermining in the workplace.

<div align="center">Summary of Related Constructs</div>

To briefly summarize, the primary focus of research to date has been on consequences of dysfunctional relationships. Some work has been done on antecedents, primarily in the abusive supervision and victimization literatures, and most of the antecedents studied have related to contextual variables and actor characteristics, with the exception of the victimization literature focusing on target characteristics. Results of studies on some of these antecedents, such as self-esteem, leave us unclear on the direction of the relationship between the antecedent and identifying as a target. Results relating to other antecedents, such as extraversion and conscientiousness, have been inconsistent, leaving us to question the existence and nature of the relationships with these variables. In addition, target based antecedents to the development of these relationships have primarily been characteristics measured directly from the target, rather than via perceptions of an outside party about target characteristics. The current lack of clarity and understanding of many target antecedents led to research question number two driving the current study, questioning what actor perceptions about the target may cause the actor to engage in stress-causing behaviors. Since we don't currently have a strong theoretical understanding of the factors that may lead to certain individuals becoming the

target of a dysfunctional workplace relationship, especially gathered from the actor perspective, a look at actor perceptions can offer new and valuable insights. This brief review also highlights that there is very little to no research on the study of targets' coping strategies and potential positive outcomes, leading to research questions 3 (coping strategies used by targets) and 4 (positive outcomes for targets) of this study. Finally, inspiring research questions 1 (actor behaviors causing stress) and 5 (target perceptions of actor behaviors), past research has not assessed specific actor behaviors from the perspectives of both the actor and target.

<div align="center">Coaching</div>

While managerial coaching was not identified as a key construct of interest at the outset of this research, it arose in Study 1 as an important dimension of many stressful workplace relationships. Notably, a number of individuals that self-identified as potentially being perceived as the actor in a stressful workplace relationship cited that one of the purposes of their behavior was to provide coaching to an individual who may have perceived them as causing stress. Thus, coaching arose as an important behavioral construct to include in the study and add to the literature review. Further discussion and details about coaching behaviors will be detailed in chapter 3, but the managerial coaching literature will be briefly reviewed now.

A search of the literature on coaching reveals that much of the broad empirical data on coaching comes from studies of athletics and dealing with the problems of special needs populations (McLean, Yang, Kuo, Tolbert, & Larkin, 2005). However, research on managerial coaching in business settings grew rapidly in the 1980's and 1990's, and has developed into a popular topic of research in both the practitioner and academic realms

(McLean et al., 2005). As observed by Feldman & Lankau (2005), "academic research on managerial coaching has lagged far behind the practitioner literature." Nevertheless, the value of effective coaching is becoming more widely recognized, and has been deemed one of the most important managerial functions (Mujtaba, 2007).

Coaching has been defined in many ways in the literature. Some researchers define coaching as a process with wide-ranging implications, while others define coaching more as an activity with a specific outcome. For example, Peterson (1996) defines coaching in a process oriented way, stating that coaching is "a process of equipping people with the tools, knowledge, and opportunities they need to develop themselves and become more effective." Alternatively, Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson (2001) use a more activity based perspective, describing coaching as "a form of systematic feedback intervention designed to enhance an employee's professional skills, interpersonal awareness, and personal effectiveness." In general, effective coaching is the continuous process of a manager developing his/her employees (Cascia & Boudreau, 2008; Gilley, Gilley, & Kouider, 2010; Mujtaba, 2007). The overall goal of managerial coaching is to change employee behaviors, and thereby improve organizational results.

Most research on coaching has focused on identifying what effective coaching looks like, so there is minimal data on antecedents of coaching. Ellinger (2003) conducted a qualitative study using critical incidences to explore antecedents to coaching, and found three major clusters identified by managers as 'triggers' for their coaching behaviors. Those clusters were: developmental, political, and gaps; discrepancies; and deficiencies. Further empirical research on antecedents of coaching would benefit research in the area of managerial coaching.

Potential beneficial outcomes of coaching are numerous, and include employee's experiencing higher levels of self-esteem and confidence, courage, goal achievement, creativity, and involvement in decision making (Gilley et al, 2010). In the sales literature, Graham, Wedman & Garvin-Kester (1994) found that specific coaching behaviors directly correlated with net increases in sales. Clearly, effective coaching can lead to various positive outcomes.

Of course, the existence of potential positive outcomes does not guarantee that positive outcomes will be equally achieved in all dyadic relationships in which coaching exists. Coaching activities are often studied as a facet of leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships (Scandura & Schrieshiem, 1994). Some results of this research have indicated that attributions that employees make about their supervisors' coaching relate to subordinate performance and responses to coaching, such that subordinates who attribute a supervisor's coaching to other-focused interests have relatively higher performance, and subordinates who attribute a supervisor's coaching to self-focused interests have relatively lower performance (Sue-Chan, Chen, & Lam, 2011). This is significant because attributions, like rating errors, may lead to misrepresentation of the behavior of others (Martinko et al., 2011), as well as the intentions underlying that behavior (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002). When we delve into how supervisor intentions translate into subordinate perceptions and outcomes in study 2, this will be an important theoretical consideration. Next, Study 1 will be presented.

CHAPTER III. STUDY 1: QUALITATIVE EXPLORATION

Overview and Purpose

As stated, Study 1 seeks to gain a broad view of individuals' experiences with stressful work relationships. Study 1 is designed to collect first hand experiences with stressful relationships to inform further modeling and research. In particular, the following research questions are addressed in this study:

1. What types of actor behaviors contribute to a target experiencing a stressful relationship?

2. What perceptions made by the actor about the target are related to the actor engaging in behaviors that may create stress for the target colleague?

3. What coping strategies do targets engage in to effectively deal with stressful relationships?

4. Do targets experience positive outcomes from a stressful relationship?

Methods

To gather detailed information about how stressful workplace relationships impact a person's career, 18 structured in-person interviews were conducted by me and two colleagues who were trained on the interview protocol. Subjects were required to be between 18 and 70 years of age, and to self-identify as having experienced a stressful workplace relationship with a non-family member. Stressful workplace relationship was defined as: *a demanding interpersonal relationship with a significant co-worker whose behavior, over time, causes the relationship to stand out as requiring extra effort and energy to maintain.* This may be a more senior person who has made things difficult for the person's career, or a co-worker who may be a "rival." Subjects were recruited by a)

asking personal contacts to refer the involved researchers to eligible acquaintances, and b) asking study subjects to refer other potential subjects to the researchers. Potential subjects contacted a member of the research team by email and were then screened to make sure they met the qualifications of the study.

Of the 22 potential subjects, 86% (n = 18) were deemed qualified for the study and agreed to an interview. This recruiting method provided a diverse subject population representing a variety of industries including information technology, shipping, television production, healthcare, real estate, and law enforcement. Subjects ranged in age from 28 to 68, with an average age of 43 years. Highest educational degree attained ranged from high school (6%), to associates degree (19%), bachelor's degree (50%) and master's degree (25%). The sample was 39% female. Participants were given a $10 Starbuck's gift card for their participation in the study. The sample includes three individuals working in Australia, one working in the United Kingdom, and 14 working in the USA.

Procedure

Based on my direct research questions and other questions identified as important for a complete, rounded view of these relationships, I worked with two of my thesis committee members (hereafter referred to as the research team) to create an interview protocol that asked each subject to focus on one or two stressful workplace relationships s/he has experienced and discuss various aspects of each relationship. The interview script first asked for details about the subject's general background and employment history, and then moved into questions about a specific stressful or problematic workplace relationship, and how that relationship has impacted the subject's career. Questions included asking the subject to describe how the relationship came about,

asking for examples of specific behaviors and traits of the parties involved, and asking the subject to describe reactions to and results of the relationship.

An important feature of the interviews is that each participant was asked about a time when s/he self-identified as being the target of a stressful workplace relationship, as well as a time when s/he thinks s/he may have been perceived as being the actor in such a relationship. Asking each person about his/her experience in either of these roles provided perspectives from different points of view. While it did not provide both actor and target perspectives on the *same* relationship, it did give greater insights into dynamics observed by those on each side of such relationships.

Each interview lasted 45 minutes on average. As permitted by the subject, interviews were recorded by the interviewer on a hand held digital recorder. In the few instances where the subject did not give permission to record the interview, detailed written notes were taken by the interviewer. All recorded interviews were transcribed (by an outside service) for coding and analysis. All personally identifiable information was removed from the records.

<div style="text-align:center">Data Analysis</div>

A content analysis (Bordens & Abbott, 2002) of the transcriptions and notes from each interview was conducted using NVivo, a qualitative software analysis tool. During and following the period during which interviews were being conducted, the research team went through several rounds of coding, creating hierarchical coding 'trees' to classify and analyze data at various levels. For instance, under the category *coping strategies,* there were several codes such as *appease, avoid, confront, and perform.* Once the primary 3-person research team agreed on a set of coding categories and sub-

categories, the first author and a research assistant who was not familiar with the

interviews or involved in developing the coding categories coded each interview

separately. The two coders then reviewed and discussed all coding until consensus was

reached.

Table 1: Taxonomy of Study 1 Categories

Construct	Actor Behaviors	Target Characteristics	Coping	Positive Outcomes
Themes that emerged	• Abusive Supervision • Social Undermining • Controlling • Coaching • Lack of support	• Ability • Experience • Instigates Trouble • Performance • Resistance to Feedback • Personality	• Appease • Avoid • Confront • Perform	• Learning • Clarified career goals • Better job fit • Empathize with other
Example of Related Question	What specific types of behaviors did this person engage in that caused problems for you?	What do you think it was about this person and / or yourself that triggered this relationship?	What behaviors or strategies did you use (or are you using) to minimize the negative impact this relationship has had (or is having) on your career?	Were there any positive outcomes as a result of this relationship?

Study 1 Results

Significant trends and findings that emerged during the interviews relate to four main categories: target characteristics, actor behaviors, coping strategies, and positive outcomes, which are discussed in the following section and summarized in Table 1.

Research Question 1 - Actor Behaviors

The interviewees identified a range of actor behaviors that they felt contributed to the stressful relationship. The research team identified five categories into which these behaviors fell. These categories were: abusive supervision / social undermining, lack of support, controlling, coaching, and lack of trustworthy behaviors.

Abusive supervision and social undermining behaviors were acknowledged by both actors and targets. The behaviors reported aligned with the aforementioned existing constructs, and included behavior such as yelling, giving the silent treatment, and being mean. Since these two constructs and scales have a significant amount of overlap, reflected in both the literature (Tepper, 2007) and in interview transcripts, I chose to combine them here. As an example of the behaviors reported, one self-reported actor reflected on a supervisory experience he had in the retail industry, "*You know what, I, yeah, I knew I was being a jerk, I guess and I thought that's the way it needed to be done.*" In another case, a target described a difficult relationship with a former supervisor, saying, "*I would say it was, first of all, the behavior I described about being very – did not communicate with me. Only communicated if he absolutely had to. And ignoring – just pretty much didn't want to recognize the fact that there was another presence there.*" While individuals on both sides of stressful relationships report these

undermining and abusive types of actor behaviors, a majority of these reports came from self-reported targets.

The next theme that arose, lack of support, only arose in interviews with self-reported targets. Lack of support refers to instances where target felt the actor did not look out for his/her professional well-being. For instance, a number of targets felt the actor took credit for the target's work, failed to be helpful or supportive, threw the target under the bus, or otherwise put his/her own interests ahead of the target's. In one case, a target in the entertainment industry described working for one young manager, "*…and I guess it really got to the point where he knew I was doing all this for him, I had no issue doing it for him, but when it came time for him to go to bat for me in front of these executives, he just didn't have the balls to do it. Or if he did, I'm sure there were times where it came down to him fighting for himself or him fighting for me, he clearly chose himself…*" These types of behaviors were all reported in supervisor – subordinate relationships, in which the target expected some kind of support and help from the supervisor, but instead felt let down or sold out.

The next two types of behaviors, controlling and coaching, were more frequently discussed by self-reported actors. In reports of controlling, actor behaviors such as micro-managing, failing to delegate work, and not including the target in decision making activities were described. These behaviors caused the target to feel that the actor did not trust his/her work, and was obstructing his/her ability to do work. In actor reports, this lack of trust and lack of faith in the target to work more independently was often cited. For example, one executive working in the finance department of a large multi-national corporation described a relationship he was experiencing with a subordinate whose work

he did not trust, in which he felt compelled to always double check the employee's work before sending it on to others. He described the strain he thought the target was experiencing as a result, saying, "*...and trying to get him to understand that is something that I, as his manager, am struggling with because I know also he is resenting the fact that I am obstructing..."* In these cases, the stress experienced by the target was caused by the target wanting more independence, flexibility and trust than the actor was willing to allow.

Coaching was based on stated positive, developmental intentions of the actor. Reports of these behaviors all came from interviews with self-identified actors. Contrary to controlling behaviors, coaching behaviors sometimes involve the actor delegating more work to the target and intentionally presenting the target with work challenges in order to prompt further development. For example, one interviewee explained that he was trying to help a subordinate develop and progress, saying, "*...one of the things is trying to give him certain areas of responsibility which become his, where he feels he is in control that he can plan the work."* Another coaching strategy that was cited as causing stress for the target involved the actor providing feedback about areas in which the target could improve. One woman described a subordinate who reacted to feedback she provided, saying, "*She did not like to have the few things that she needed improvement in – she didn't perceive that as appropriate that I would be explaining to her that these were areas that she needed to improve on, and they weren't really serious."* This kind of coaching through feedback, when combined with a resistance to feedback on the part of the target, often led to feelings of stress and strain in the relationship.

The final theme, lack of trustworthy behaviors, was the least commonly reported behavior, but is conceptually distinct from the other four. In these cases, the target reported that the actor inappropriately shared personal or professional information about the target with others. For instance, one interviewee working in the professional services industry discussed a manager she had difficulty with. As she explained, the manager "*…shared personal information, such as performance management feedback and details about professional development goals and activities, with other colleagues."* This type of activity was cited as eroding trust between the actor and target and causing significant stress for the target. In sum, these five categories capture the types of behaviors that emerged through interviews with both actors and targets of stressful workplace relationships. Each category of behaviors represents a different relationship dynamic, and interviewees, especially those reporting from the actor perspective, indicated that the actor and the target often perceive the situation and motives quite differently. This is an important dynamic that begs further exploration.

<center>Research Question 2 - Target Characteristics</center>

In analyzing interview transcripts and notes, there were several trends that emerged relating to characteristics of individuals identified as targets of stressful workplace relationships. In general, actors discussed more target characteristics that they felt were related to an individual becoming a target than did the self-identified targets. Four themes emerged both in interviews with self-identified targets and self-identified actors, while two emerged only during conversations with self-identified actors. The four themes emerging from both groups will be discussed first (lack of experience,

performance, resistance to feedback, and personality traits), followed by the other two themes (lack of ability, troublemaker tendencies).

One of the themes that arose in interviews was the role that *lack of experience* on behalf of the target may have had in the individual perceiving that they were a target of a stressful relationship. In the case of one interviewee (#116) who identified herself as a target, issues that may have triggered difficulty given to her by her colleague included having no experience with her current tasks/responsibilities, "everything was new. The problem was that I lacked work experience… couldn't do much about that except remain patient and try to learn." In another case, interviewee #107 discussed a relationship in which she believes she was perceived as an actor, saying of the target, "She was young and hadn't had a lot of the same experiences in school in retrospect that we thought she did." This subject highlights that the issue was not simply the target's lack of experience, but rather a misalignment of expectations that led to the target experiencing a stressful workplace relationships. This seems to relate to person – job fit. It also suggests that actor behaviors may be designed to shape target behaviors.

Target performance was also identified as a factor in stressful relationships experienced by interviewees. Most of the discussions about performance focused on targets' performance problems. What is not consistent are indications of causality. In some cases, poor performance is brought up as a cause of troubled relationships, as was the case with interviewee # 109. Speaking of a colleague who he felt he posed a challenge for, he describes, "*I expected her to do some things that were not talk on the phone to her friends and email all day, and she didn't like that apparently… deep down I didn't like her and I didn't feel like she did her job*." I also found self-identified targets

describing their own possible performance issues as a cause of challenges, as with interviewee # 115. The interviewer notes, "*He missed several ("unimportant") deadlines – but was extremely overworked – was focusing on other "more important" deadlines*."

Performance problems were also identified as being a result of stressful relationships, rather than a cause. Interviewee # 116 explained that the stressful relationship she experienced had a negative effect on her motivation and she did not feel like going to work. She felt that she was not being appreciated and didn't exactly know what to do a lot of the time, and she felt it had a negative impact on her performance.

In addition to performance, *resistance to feedback* was also a recurring theme that arose. One interviewee (# 109), who was an insurance agent at the time of the interview, but was reflecting on a stressful relationship in his previous job as a high school teacher, described his experience as a target, "*I felt like I wasn't doing what he wanted me to do, but I wasn't also really willing to do that because that just wasn't the way that I wanted my classroom to be, if that makes any sense*." I also heard similar reports from self-reported actors, as with interviewee # 107, "*I have a feeling that while she outwardly appeared to be a good team player, I think she had a hard time with taking, not even just from me, but from other people, the feedback that maybe something needs to be changed.*" In these, as in several other accounts, conflict stems from a target's apparent unwillingness or inability to accept and work with feedback. In reality, there could be communication problems in the delivery of feedback from the actor to the target, or the target may not have the ability or motivation to react to the feedback given. In the instances where a target either does not respond or does not respond well to feedback, this seems to fuel the actor's role as a challenging figure to the target.

Finally, *personality traits* (or personality mismatches) were also discussed by interviewees. For example, citing the possibility of personality mismatch triggering one supervisor to target and challenge him, one interviewee (# 106) discussed the dynamic that existed between himself and his supervisor: *"…I would say our personalities definitely weren't anywhere close to being the same. I'm pretty easy going and I joke around and stuff like that and that wasn't her like, at all. Like, I'm honestly surprised her head didn't blow up a couple times because of, just stress that I wouldn't have ever been stressed about."* In the Fit literature, we find that an individual's fit with various aspects of his/her environment can have an influence on performance and work experiences (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). It stands to reason that the way colleagues behave toward one another may also be influenced by the perceived fit of the individual in question (who may become the target of stressful relationships).

Beyond the issue of fit, I also found evidence that targets' may perceive that certain traits they possess invite actors to target them. For instance, when one woman was asked what it was about her that may have triggered the relationship, she replied, *"Probably because I was a confident person, and I wasn't a groveler…So I think that the fact that I was self-confident, young, and motivated really bothered them. And the fact that I was a woman probably really bothered them too."* From this account, we don't have a sense of why these traits may have been a prompt for a difficult relationship – whether it was related to some level of fit or to some other factor, but many interviewees brought up various target traits that they felt had some bearing on the stressful relationship.

Two additional themes relating to target characteristics arose just in interviews with self-identified actors. Actors weighed in on the role of ability (or lack of), and troublemaker tendencies exhibited by the target. While ability of the target was frequently discussed by self-identified actors, a majority of those discussions where highlighting that ability did NOT play a role in the development of the stressful relationship.

Out of the four cases of interviewees discussing the ability of the target in the relationships they self-identified as actors in, one referred *to lack of ability* as a factor (*"It's almost as if he doesn't quite understand the questions that he needs to come in and ask me." - #102*), while three cases referred to the high ability of the targets, citing that lack of ability was not a factor in their experiences. For example, interviewee #110 reflected on one stressful relationship, "*Yeah, I had one guy that was a very hard worker and I really liked his dedication, his drive, his passion, the whole works and I told him once, I said that, you know, you could be sitting on my side of the desk some day.*"In a similar vein, interview # 112 said of the relationships he reflected upon, "*These are brilliant people, don't get me wrong. They're brilliant.*" From these recounts, we do not find lack of ability to be a driving force behind the stressful relationships discussed. This is consistent with most attribution researchers, who suggest that most people consider ability an internal trait that an individual has little direct control over (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum, 1971). In line with LePine & Van Dyne's (2001) model, when people believe the target has low controllability over a trait, such as ability, they are likely to feel more empathy than anger

toward the target. Using this logic, I would not generally expect low ability alone to spur stressful relationships.

The other theme that arose during interviews was of the actor feeling that the target had a *tendency to instigate trouble*. This did not necessarily lead to the actor making things challenging for the target, but rather, was offered as an explanation for why the interviewee thinks s/he may have been perceived as a challenge to someone else. For instance, interviewee #107 described a former relationship where she may have been perceived as a challenge to a subordinate, "*There was just a little something there that she was open to misinterpreting things given the opportunity or liked to be a bit of a – one of my coworkers here characterized her as "stirring the pot," a pot stirrer. If there was a little something that could be stirred, she would be happy to stir it.*" This assessment draws attention to the fact that individuals who self-identify as targets are reporting their perceptions, which may or may not align with intentions and behaviors of the actor. The subjectivity involved with reporting on and understanding relationship dynamics is the driving reason I sought to capture views from both sides of stressful workplace relationships, and comments such as this one demonstrate that even when individuals within a relationship do not view the relationship the same way, the actor can be aware of how the target may be perceiving the situation.

<div align="center">Research Question 3 - Coping Strategies</div>

In each interview in the current study, individuals were asked about how they dealt with the relationship, and responses fell into several categories. The four types of coping that emerged through analysis of the interview transcriptions were: avoid, confront, perform, and appease.

The strategy most commonly discussed by self-identified targets of stressful workplace relationships was *avoidance.* Eleven interviewees discussed using avoidance tactics to deal with a stressful relationship in which they were a target. In some cases, targets reflected on using an avoidance strategy, believing it to be the most effective strategy. For example, interviewee #106 describes how he dealt with a difficult relationship with a prior supervisor, *"This is gonna sound horrible, I just ignored her and went on my daily, on with my daily routine. I tried that, as much as possible to not let it affect what I was doing. And when I mean ignore, I honestly mean ignore, like not respond to emails and things of that nature, that's how bad it got at the end... I was just trying to do what I could to stay sane and keep a positive attitude and not let that really affect my daily routine because if it affected me then normally it would affect the people under me and then it would affect the customers..."*

Other individuals recall using an avoidance strategy with a sense of regret, expressing that they now wish they would have engaged in less avoidance. For example, interviewee #101 reflects on a stressful relationship with one supervisor, "*I wish I had the balls, for lack of a better phrase, to have confronted him on a number of things*." This reflection also speaks to the occurrence of learning, a theme to be discussed with positive outcomes, as the target recognizes that he could have handled things differently. Interviewee # 117 discussed actually changing his coping strategy as time went on, *"I mean, at the beginning, let's say the first year I never replied to him but in the second year, I had a lot of arguments with him because I got used to (him) and I wasn't shy anymore."* In this example, the individual started out with an avoidance approach, and then adopted a confrontational approach.

The second most common coping strategy was *confrontation*. Nine interviewees discussed using a confrontational strategy in dealing with a difficult colleague. Interviewee #111 shared details of a relationship with a more senior colleague who she identified as being sexist and racist, targeting her and others she worked with, "*I went into his office and I sat down, and I said that you will never do this again. I asked him what gave him the right to talk to people like this. I confronted it one on one. It wasn't too hard because he's so ignorant…the good part was that he did respect me, so he listened to me. I told him that the next time he did it out in public or in front of someone, I was going to call him on it in front of everybody, and I did. We would have an office meeting every Tuesday, and he would make a statement, and I would tell him he couldn't speak anymore, he was done, even though he was one of our owners.*"

Several interviewees reported that they tried to *appease the actor* in response to a stressful relationship. Each interviewee who reported working to appease the actor also reported engaging in avoidance behaviors, though less than half of those reporting avoidance also reported appeasement.

Several interviewees indicated that one way they dealt with a stressful relationship was to *perform or prove their level of performance*. These individuals seem to have used the difficult relationship as a challenge that motivated them to improve their own performance. One example of this is interviewee # 106 "*…and it's made me find ways to kind of maybe make a stand out in a way that, I think less is more sometimes, is what I've learned from that… it's more that I need to prove myself to get to the top.*"

Research Question 4 - Positive Outcomes

When questioned about positive outcomes of the stressful relationship, four themes describing targets' experiences emerged from interviewee answers: learning, better job fit, clarified career goals, and empathized with the actor. Outcomes related to turnover are excluded from this section because turnover can be related to many factors other than just the relationships I asked interviewees to discuss, and reporting the real effects in retrospect can easily get blurry.

Learning was the most highly reported outcome, with 12 interviewees who self-identified as targets discussing things they learned from their experience. Several of the accounts of learning were based on the idea of learning what <u>not</u> to do from observing bad examples. One example of this is interviewee #101 *"I took away what not to do, and now, what not to promise people, to always be honest with employees and not bullshit them."* Interviewee # 106 expressed similar sentiments when referring to a stressful relationship he experienced, *"…so, that made it a little difficult for me, but in the same sense it also made me realize what kind of a supervisor I didn't wanna be so that helped out a lot too."* Experiences with individuals who set a bad example can be developmental, as it offers first hand observations for things that don't work. One construct in the existing literature that relates to these descriptions is leadership self-efficacy, which refers to a person's feelings of competence to be an effective leader in a specific role. So, when subject #101 described learning from what he considered ineffective behaviors of his supervisor, it gave him confidence that he could fill that leadership role more effectively than his predecessor.

Subjects also reported learning in other ways that made them look more critically at their own behavior, rather than just focusing on learning from the negative example set by the actor in the experiences they shared. For example, interviewee #105 expressed that she learned how to better handle work situations after dealing with a stressful relationship with a colleague, which helped her professional development, *"It definitely showed me that when there's an issue, you need to nip it in the bud. And because of that, I was promoted quickly through the ranks of other companies because instead of just pushing stuff under the rug, I'd deal with it. So it was a good lesson learned for me."* Interviewee #106 also reported elements of learning and adjusting his behavior following a negative relationship, *"And, yeah, I slowly started to change after that, because I don't wanna, I don't consider myself a bad person and I hated the fact that people actually saw me as a jerk instead of doing my job which I probably took it a little too extreme in all honesty."*

There were also examples of the actor noticing that the target demonstrated a change in attitudes or behaviors, demonstrating that s/he was learning. Interviewee #117 discussed a peer colleague he had difficulty with and posed a challenge for, *"He changed,,. when he came at first… there was a different designer at the time who was a good friend of mine. When he came at first he used to say bad stuff about that designer. He used to say like,"he doesn't know anything," and once - that friend of mine, the designer, left the company, like more than a year ago. A couple of months ago I was talking to this guy, this new designer which I had conflict with and I told him, "You remember when you came you used to say bad stuff about Nathan?" Then he said "Yeah, but I shouldn't have said those stuff." So he changed and I noticed."*

Another theme that arose was the sentiment that the experience of the stressful relationship was for the best because it resulted in *better job fit*. In some cases, targets felt the challenges presented by these relationships helped prompt them to make changes that ultimately led them to a better situation. For instance, when interviewee #107 experienced a change in supervisor and felt her new supervisor really made her work life more difficult, she was prompted to get out of the position she was in and moved on to explore other professional ambitions she had previous had on the backburner, *"I mean I had investigated, like I said, medical school, dental school and the like, but I would say that sometimes things happen for a reason, and I think that while it was a bad thing, it was a very good thing for me."* Another interviewee (#109) described how a stressful relationship he had experienced prompted him to evaluate other career options and ultimately make a career change. *"It made me maybe look outside to say, okay, where do I want to go from here with this profession, and is this where I want to be in 10, 15, or 20 years, or five years? I was 30 at the time, or 29 or 30 at the time, and knew I could always get back into teaching, and had the opportunity to do this (working as an insurance agent), so I did."* By the accounts of these and other subjects, difficulties presented by the experience of stressful relationships prompted them to make moves that ultimately resulted in better professional fit.

I found similar insights coming from self-reported actors in stressful relationships. The themes of the target *clarifying career goals* and finding a better job fit also arose in discussions with self-identified actors. Interviewee # 110 recalled a former employee who perceived him (the actor) as a challenge and barrier to his career and left the organization because of it. *"And then about three or four months after he'd left, he called me and we*

were talking and I said to him, I said, "What's the reason for your call?" He said, "Well, I just wanted to tell you that you were right." And I said, "What was I right about?" He said, "Well, you told me that I wasn't ready to be president." He said, "I just want you to know, I agree. I was not ready, but I'm damn sure ready now," because he'd spent this time with this other company and he had had some successes already. And long story short, he actually came back and worked for me a couple years later."

In some situations, individuals who were targets of stressful workplace relationships discussed feeling *empathy for the actor* and why they behaved the way they did. In similar fashion to targets who reported learning from their experiences, this demonstrates that the target has reflected on the situation and tried to understand why the relationship unfolded as it did, and why the actor behaved the way s/he did. For instance, interviewee #101 discussed a stressful relationship he experienced with a previous supervisor. The subject eventually moved up the ladder and replaced that supervisor, and now says of the experience, *"And looking back on it, I get it because I'm now in that situation a lot."*

<u>Discussion</u>

The current study expands our depth of understanding regarding stressful workplace relationships and presents a variety of ideas for pushing the research in this area forward. In each of the four areas that were the focus of this study -- target characteristics, actor behaviors, coping strategies, and positive outcomes -- the taxonomy developed (Table 1) offers theoretical insights about the dynamics of these relationships and a number of ideas for future research and exploration.

Theoretical Implications and Implications for Study 2

The behavioral categories that were discussed during these interviews, abusive

supervision/social undermining, lack of support, controlling, coaching, and lack of

trustworthy behaviors, both overlap with and add to previous research. Prior research

explicitly included constructs of abusive supervision and social undermining (which are

similar in many ways), and while lack of support, controlling behaviors, and lack of

trustworthy behaviors have not previously been modeled as separate behavioral

constructs, these concepts do relate to existing stressful relationship constructs.

The final (and perhaps most surprising) actor behavioral category that arose

during interviews was coaching, which is generally considered a positive behavior and

has not been included as a dynamic of stressful relationships. This finding adds value to

current research by bringing coaching behaviors into the equation of behaviors that can

spark or fuel stressful relationships. Thus, to address research question 1 (what types of

actor behaviors contribute to a target experiencing a stressful relationship?) in Study 2,

the following actor behaviors will be included: coaching, controlling, and abuse.

The emergence of coaching behaviors also provided useful insights in another

way. The fact that reports of coaching behaviors came only from actor reports suggests a

mismatch between self-reported actor behaviors and target perceptions. It was apparent

during interviews that a situation that may be perceived as difficult and stressful by the

target sometimes stems from behaviors self-reported as positive or strategic behaviors by

the actor. In such situations, each party reports the same actor behaviors in a different

way based on their own perspectives. Several interviewees brought this up, citing

instances where the actor's felt s/he was providing feedback and promoting the target's

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development, but the target may have perceived the behaviors as stress inducing, and the relationship as difficult. Consideration of this potential moderating effect of target perceptions of actor behaviors is not currently presented in research on stressful workplace relationships, which led me to incorporate Research Question 6: Do target perceptions of actor behaviors moderate the relationship between actor-rated behaviors and target outcomes?

Another key point that emerged in Study 1 is that certain target characteristics motivated actors to behave in specific ways toward the target. Some situations involved the stressful relationship being based on some level of perceived incompatibility between the target and some element of the work situation. These attributions were made by both targets and actors of such relationships, and a variety of target characteristics were identified as contributing to the situation, such as motivation and experience level. Since research has had trouble identifying many individual target characteristics (measured via the target) that are consistently significant across stressful relationships, studying characteristics as perceived by the actor may offer significant insights. In the next study, one individual target characteristic, arrogance, will be evaluated. This trait was chosen based on insights from Study 1. Study 2 was limited to include only one trait for the sake of keeping the model and study manageable.

Through the interview process, I found that in addition to negative outcomes, positive outcomes can and do result. They are generally described as being experienced after the relationship has ended and the individual has had time to reflect, but they may also be experienced in concurrence with the stressful relationship. Since it appears that identifying positive outcomes is not clearly connected with a particular pattern of

behaviors, it seems that something about the target may influence whether and to what degree s/he experiences positive and negative outcomes. One possibility is a mediating effect of target self-determination. Actor behaviors can have differential impacts on a target's feelings of competency, autonomy, and relatedness. Self-determination may therefore mediate the relationships between the actor behaviors and target outcomes. To test this, Study 2 will look at four outcomes – leadership self-efficacy (which represents elements of learning and development in leadership capabilities), clarification of career goals, turnover intentions, and employee engagement (which is a reflection of well-being) at work. The influence of actor behaviors on these outcomes, through target self-determination, will be evaluated.

Coping - Implications for Future Research. The research questions related to coping strategies was not incorporated into Study 2 because Study 1 findings on stressful relationship coping strategies were largely consistent with current conceptualizations of general stress coping strategies. Thus, examining them in response to stressful workplace relationships would be a small contribution to the stress and coping literature. Thus, while the findings here do offer some useful suggestions for future research, coping will be excluded from Study 2.

As for Study 1 findings, one key theme that emerged is that how a person who feels targeted in a stressful relationship perceives and frames the situation largely determines the reaction to and impact of the relationship. The target's appraisal of the situation determines how that person copes and what types of outcomes are ultimately experienced. And, indeed, there can be positive outcomes from experiencing stressful work relationships. The transactional model of stress is relevant and supportive of this

point. In the transactional model of stress, stress is the result of a perceived imbalance between the demands of a person's environment and the available resources the person possesses to respond to them (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lazarus and Folkman offered a model of stress with five major components: (1) person and environment influencing factors, (2) cognitive appraisals, (3) stress, (4) coping response, and (5) adaptational outcomes both for the short term and long term. This model offers a useful framework for understanding how the appraisal of the stressful workplace relationship largely determines the stress experienced, the coping employed, and the outcomes that follow.

These findings do not, however, support the challenge-hindrance stressor framework, as it is frequently employed to date. The challenge-hindrance framework is based on classifying particular stressors as either potentially promoting an individual's growth and achievement (challenge), or as potentially constraining an individual's personal development and work related accomplishment (hindrance) (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Rather, the interviewees demonstrated that a stressful relationship can be perceived, as well as intended to be, both a challenge and a hindrance. We also saw that those perceptions may change over time. So while these findings contradict the challenge-hindrance framework in some ways, the transactional model of stress in general is well supported.

The transactional model of stress has also used a framework to assess coping, which is in some ways different from the coping categories we identified in this study. The scale commonly used with the transactional model of stress is the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) and has 8 coping dimensions: confronting, distancing, self-controlling, seeking social support, accepting responsibility, escape-avoidance, planful

problem solving, and positive reappraisal. While there is some overlap (i.e. both models include "confront" as a strategy), there are also some significant differences (i.e. my category "avoid" probably encompasses the WCQ's "distancing", "self-control", and "escape/avoidance", and my category "appease" does not appear to be represented in the WCQ). Future research can help compare and sort through these differences to ultimately arrive at an appropriate representative model of coping strategies used in stressful workplace relationships.

In Figure 1, I integrate the existing research findings with those uncovered in Study 1 to develop a model relating actor behaviors and target characteristics to coping strategies and outcomes, through a perceived stressful work relationship. First, the model begins with the target characteristics and actor behaviors that contribute to the development and existence of a stressful workplace relationship. The target characteristics represented in the model are those that emerged in the current study, including lack of ability, lack of experience, troublemaker tendencies, poor performance, resistance to feedback, and personality traits. The actor behaviors represented in the model also emerged in this study, and reflect perceptions of both actors and targets of these types of relationships. Actor characteristics have been more widely studied than specific behaviors, and have included traits such as NA and authoritarianism (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper et al., 2006), as well as issues the actors' perceptions of the work environment such as procedural justice or contract violations (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Tepper et al., 2006). Such actor characteristics have been shown to be related to actor's abusive supervision and undermining behaviors, but an exploration of actor behaviors, rather than traits, offers a new approach. The first part of this model acknowledges that

there may be factors related to both the actor and the target that feed the stressful

relationship.

Figure 1: Model of Stressful Workplace Relationships

Actor Behaviors Contributing to a Stressful Workplace Relationship
- Coaching
- Abusive supervision/social undermining
- Controlling
- Lack of support
- Lack of trustworthy behaviors

Target Characteristics Contributing to a Stressful Workplace Relationship
- Lack of Ability
- Lack of Experience
- Instigates Trouble
- Poor Performance
- Resistance to Feedback
- Personality

Stressful Workplace Relationship

Active Reflection / Framing

No Reflection

Reflective Coping Strategies
- Appease
- Strategic Avoid
- Confront
- Perform

Non-reflective Coping Strategies
- Passive Avoid

Positive Outcomes
- Leadership self-efficacy
- Clarified career goals
- Better job fit
- Empathize with other

Negative Outcomes*
- Lower organizational commitment
- Lower job satisfaction
- Higher intentions to quit
- Resistance behaviors
- Aggressive and deviant behavior
- Psychological distress
- Negative somatic symptoms
- Fatigue
- Sickness

*Selection of negative outcomes from Tepper's 2007 review on abusive supervision research and Aquino & Thau's 2009 review on Victimization

Once a stressful workplace relationship exists, the target can take one of two tracks. The first track involves actively reflecting on the situation and mentally framing the problematic relationship in order to strategically cope with the situation. The strategies employed may include appease, confront, perform, or strategic avoid (themes that emerged in the current study). The current model does not predict which coping strategy the target will employ, but shows that some level of reflection precedes a strategic coping response.

Targets who take the first track evaluate the situation to understand and react to it. The second track that may be taken by the target is to not reflect on or strategically cope with the situation, but rather to passively avoid thinking about or reacting to the stressful relationship. In this case, the target does not actively evaluate the situation or make any psychological or situational adjustments in reaction to the challenge they are experiencing. While one strategy under the active reflection track is strategic avoidance (i.e. the target uses avoidance as a strategy either because they think it may improve the situation or because they think avoidance is easier or less stressful than the other options), in the non-reflective track, passive avoidance happens when the target doesn't thoughtfully reflect on the stressful relationship to understand what is happening and why.

Targets who take the active track reflect on the situation and choose their coping strategy based on what they perceive about themselves and the actor in the situation. These individuals may experience positive outcomes, negative outcomes, or both. The act of reflection allows individuals to experience positive outcomes that may be psychological (i.e. learning to be a better leader, clarifying career goals, empathizing with

the actor, or regret that results in learning) or situational (better job fit). While different coping strategies may result in a variety of positive or negative outcomes, the important component represented here is that some level of reflection on the part of the target is required to achieve positive outcomes. Targets who take the second track, passive avoidance with no reflection, are likely to experience negative outcomes as a result of their stressful relationships (those listed in the model include research findings derived from reviews by Tepper, 2007 and Aquino & Thau, 2009). However, because reflection facilitates positive outcomes, those who do not engage in reflection are not able to experience the positive outcomes.

Brought together, this model outlines perceived characteristics that make some individuals more susceptible to becoming targets of stressful workplace relationships, perceived behaviors of actors of such relationships, and subsequent coping strategies and outcomes. The next study will focus on the first half of this model – exploring target characteristics and actor behaviors that contribute to stressful relationships at work, as well as a number of outcomes that result.

<center>Limitations and Strengths</center>

One of the limitations of this study is that a small number of cases (18) were studied, making it hard to know how generalizable these findings are. However, with the last couple of interviews, I was reaching a point of saturation in that subjects were primarily identifying characteristics, coping strategies, and outcomes already mentioned by earlier subjects. A strength of this study is that my interviews lasted on average 45 minutes allowing me to gain deep insights into participants' experiences with stressful relationships. This qualitative approach is appropriate for questions like those included

here as we seek to understand unexplored facets of stressful workplace relationships. Another strength of my study design was asking subjects about both their own actor and the target perspectives of these relationships. This led to greater insights than gathering target perspectives alone, as has typically been done in this area.

Conclusion and Transition to Study 2

This study advances our knowledge of stressful workplace relationships by introducing key ideas that have not yet gained attention and offering many insights into the questions presented. Results from this initial exploration have been compared and contrasted with existing theories, and ideas to move forward with this research stream have been described. In the next phase of research, key findings from this study are adapted and used in combination with existing theories to form and test a theoretical model that addresses five of the research questions identified at the outset of this study. The type of relationship under study will be slightly redefined to better suit the design of Study 2 and a theoretical model will be proposed that will subsequently be tested empirically.

CHAPTER IV. STUDY 2: THEORETICAL MODEL AND

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of Study 2 is to test a few specific parts of the model provided in Study 1. Specifically, Study 2 focuses on how specific supervisor behaviors relate to both self-determination and work-related outcomes for subordinates, in addition to evaluating how supervisor perceptions of employee arrogance relate to the supervisor's behavior toward the subordinate. While Study 1 explored stressful workplace relationships without regard to level (i.e., peer to peer, supervisor to subordinate, etc.), Study 2 looks exclusively at relationships between supervisors and subordinates. Thus, Study 2 focuses more narrowly on Stressful Supervisory Relationship's, defined as: *a demanding interpersonal relationship with a supervisor whose behavior, over time, causes the relationship to stand out as requiring extra effort and energy to maintain.* The following Research Questions are addressed (numbered to be consistent with those in Chapter 1).

1. What types of actor behaviors contribute to a target experiencing a stressful relationship?

2. What perceptions made by the actor about the target are related to the actor engaging in behaviors that may create stress for the target colleague?

4. Do targets experience positive outcomes from a stressful relationship?

5. Does target self-determination have a mediating effect on the relationship between supervisor behaviors and subordinate outcomes?

6. Do target perceptions of actor behaviors moderate the relationship between actor-rated behaviors and target outcomes?

Note that while Study 1 looked at an array of target traits that relate to actor behaviors, Study 2 only considers one target trait – arrogance. I will first provide an overview of the model, and then a brief overview of the core theories guiding the hypotheses, and then develop each hypothesis in detail.

Overview of the Proposed Model

As depicted in Figure 2, I posit that supervisor perceptions of subordinate arrogance influence supervisor behaviors toward the subordinate. Recall that there were 6 target attributes identified in Study 1: ability, experience, troublemaker tendencies, performance, resistance to feedback, and personality traits. The focus on arrogance was deemed appropriate for Study 2 because it includes elements of a number of the traits that emerged in Study 1, such as troublemaker tendencies, resistance to feedback, and personality. Arrogance has been described as a stable belief or a set of behaviors that communicates a person's exaggerated sense of superiority, which is often accomplished by disparaging others (Johnson, Silverman, Shyamsunder, Swee, Rodopman, Cho, & Bauer, 2010). I predict that supervisor perceptions of subordinate arrogance will relate to supervisor behaviors, primarily based on implicit follower theory. Essentially, perceptions of subordinate arrogance will lead to different supervisor behaviors based on the supervisor's implicit expectations for what a subordinate should be like.

Next, I address actor behaviors that may contribute to stressful work relationships. I include three types of actor behaviors: coaching, controlling, and abuse. For Study 2, abuse and undermining are combined, since undermining behaviors are included under

the umbrella of abusive behaviors. There are two types of behaviors that were not carried over from Study 1: lack of support and lack of trustworthy behaviors. First, abusive supervision scales measure behaviors described by targets as being unsupportive (such as items from the Tepper, 2000 abusive supervision scale: "doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort," and "blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment"). Thus, since it is already captured by abusive scales, lack of support will be dropped as a separate construct in Study 2. Lack of trustworthy behaviors has also not been represented as a construct in past research, but it was found during interviews that this was described as being an attribute of the actor, versus a behavior directed selectively at the target. As such, it will also not be carried over into Study 2.

I hypothesize that the three actor behaviors will relate to subordinate's feelings of self-determination. More specifically, I propose a mediated model, with self-determination mediating the relationships between supervisor behaviors and subordinate outcomes. Rather than treating a stressful workplace relationship as a separate construct, this study looks at the psychological impact and related outcomes of the supervisor behaviors identified as stress-inducing in Study 1. The relationships are hypothesized based on Self Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1994). SDT is a well-established theory of motivation that revolves around the three core psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985). According to the theory, how these three needs are being met regulates our self-determination, and ultimately motivation. To be self-determining means to experience a sense of choice in initiating and regulating

one's own actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). In describing their stressful work relationship experiences, Study 1 participants often described elements of self-determination (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) as a reflection of the stress they felt regarding the relationship in question. Accordingly, Study 2 uses self-determination as a mediator between actor behaviors described as stress-inducing in Study 1 and reported outcomes.

Using coaching, controlling, and abusive behaviors, I propose there are relationships between self-reported supervisor behaviors toward a subordinate and that subordinate's feelings of self-determination. In turn, I propose that an individual's self-determination has a direct relationship with his/her work engagement, turnover intentions, leadership self-efficacy, and career exploration. Hence, the relationships between self-reported supervisor behaviors and subordinate self-determination, as well as those between subordinate self-determination and various outcomes, are hypothesized based on SDT.

I go on to hypothesize the moderating effect of subordinate perceptions of supervisor behaviors. Empirical research on leader-member exchange (LMX) has revealed that leaders and followers do not always perceive their relationship in the same way (Greguras & Ford, 2006; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Nahrgang et al., 2009), but the literature on dysfunctional relationships currently lacks consideration for how differing perceptions in a stressful dyadic work relationship may impact the parties involved. Considering dual perspectives in dyadic relationships is important, as highlighted by LMX researchers who believe that such an approach can better explain important work outcomes for both leaders and members (Choi, 2013; Greguras & Ford, 2006; Sin et al.,

2010). Thus, in this study, the importance of subordinate perceptions will be acknowledged by testing whether subordinate perceptions of supervisor behaviors moderate the relationship between supervisor self-reported behaviors and subordinate self-determination.

Figure 2: Hypothesized Model for Study 2
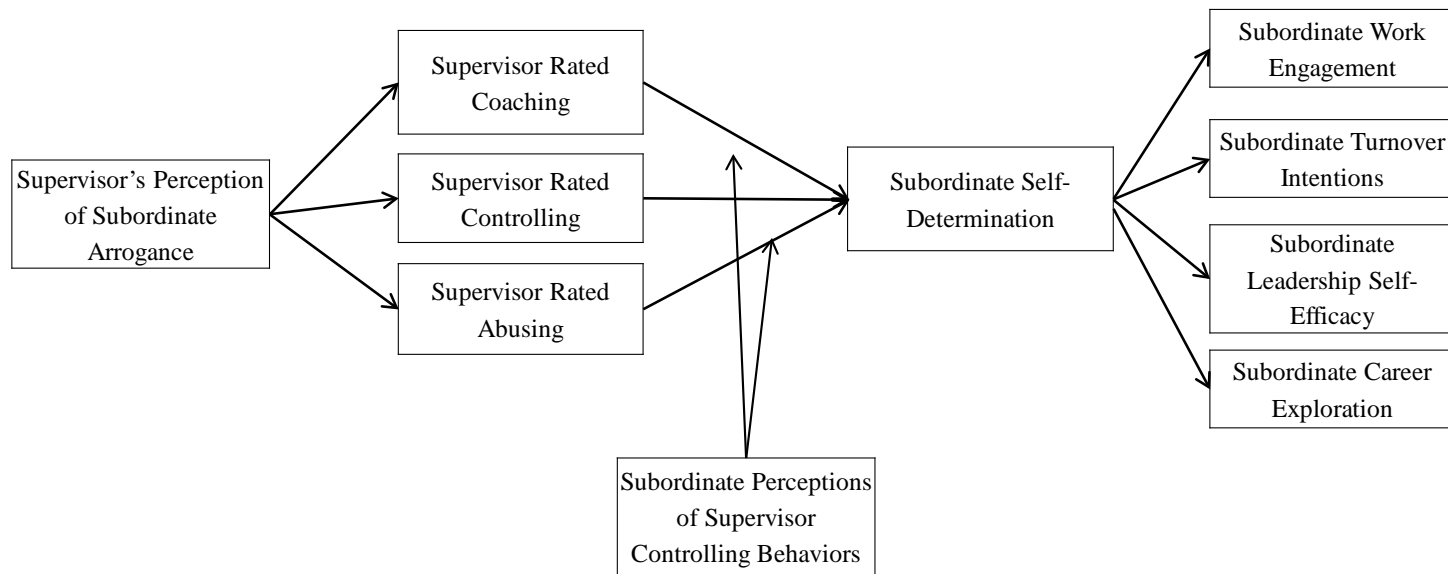
<u>Hypothesis Development</u>

Supervisor Perceptions of Subordinate Arrogance

Anecdotal evidence suggests that arrogance in the workplace abounds, yet systematic research on employee arrogance has been sparse. Arrogance is believed to be a socially undesirable virtue, and has been defined as a stable belief that one's qualities or worth are better or superior to those of others (Hareli & Weiner, 2000). Behavioral examples of arrogance include disrespecting colleagues and their ideas, claiming to be more knowledgeable than others, and discounting feedback (Johnson, Silverman, Shyamsunder, Swee, Rodopman, Cho, & Bauer, 2010). Arrogance has been contrasted with humility, which is defined as a psychological quality characterized by being humble, down to earth, modest, open minded, and respectful to others (Rowatt, Powers, Targhetta, Comer, Kennedy, & LaBouff, 2006).

Arrogance has been found to relate negatively to performance (Johnson et al., 2010), and is one factor that precipitates executive failure (Leslie & Van Velsor, 1996). People who achieve success are liked more if they are modest, rather than boastful, about their accomplishments (Schlenker & Leary, 1982). In this study, the relationship between subordinate arrogance and supervisor behaviors will be tested. In Study 1, subjects described subordinate's resisting feedback, instigating trouble, and having difficulties based on personality. These types of behaviors are all elements of arrogance. Thus, Study 2 will consider the role of arrogance based on Implicit Followership Theory.

Implicit Followership Theory (IFT) considers how leaders judge and respond to their followers, such that leaders' performance expectations are influenced by their implicit theories about workers (Eden, 1990). Specifically,

IFT is defined as individuals' personal assumptions about the traits and behaviors that characterize followers (Sy, 2010). Individuals' IFT's are based on prototypes of the most representative member or most commonly shared attributes of a certain category (Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982; Rosch, 1978). Prototypes may be based on a common taxonomy of what a typical, average follower is like, or they may be goal derived, based on what an *ideal* follower is like (Barsalou,1985; Schyns & Meindl, 2005). Goal derived prototypes can be thought of as performance expectations for what an effective follower should be like, including attributes such as, "honest, reliable, communicates effectively, etc." (Engle & Lord, 1997; Wernimont, 1971).

IFT's that are goal derived consist of attributions about the target's characteristics being made based on performance and measured by outcomes of salient events, such as the achievement of business goals (Lord & Maher, 1993; Sy, 2010). Leaders engage in a process of comparing their prototypes with a target subordinate, and based on the congruence between the two, an impression is formed that subsequently influences the leader's behavior toward the subordinate (Sy, 2010). In this study, IFT's are used to explain how a supervisor perceives his/her subordinate(s) based on the supervisor's perceptions of each subordinate's arrogance. This perception reflects the supervisor's personal expectations, and influences how s/he behaviorally reacts based on those perceptions. Since research has shown that a manager's expectations of an employee in areas such as career success predict the quality of the exchange relationship, and impacts employee resource allocation and resource attainment (Liden, Wayne, & Stillwell, 1993), I believe that a supervisor's behaviors toward a particular subordinate can be better understood by evaluating the supervisor's perceptions about the subordinate.

Each party in any dyadic relationship makes an assessment of the other party. Based on his/her perceptions, each individual's assessment guides his/her responses to the other party (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). These categorizations are automatic, and it is only when the observed behavior of the individual in question departs sufficiently from expectations that an individual makes a more conscious assessment of the observed individual. As described by implicit followership theory, the congruence between the supervisor's expectations and what the leader observes in a subordinate influences subsequent supervisor behavior toward the subordinate. As noted, arrogance is generally seen as detrimental, as arrogant employees are challenging to work with and difficult to communicate with. This leads to tense interactions because people are unsure of how to respond to these arrogant individuals, resulting in challenges to organizational functioning (Leary, Bednarski, Hammon, & Duncan, 1997). Thus, arrogance in general will likely not align with a supervisor's expected or desired attributes of a successful employee.

Johnson et al. (2010) found that arrogance is negatively related to both self- and other-rated task performance. Low performance will be incongruent with supervisor expectations for a subordinate and will spur the supervisor to further assess the cause of the low performance. In attribution theory, judgments and responses vary based on perceptions of what individual attributes are driving particular behaviors and outcomes (Heider, 1958). Hareli and Weiner (2000) suggested that arrogance is seen as an individual quality, like personality, and is associated with causes that are internal to the person, and is also seen to be stable and uncontrollable. These attributions should influence a supervisor's reaction to an employee s/he perceives to be arrogant.

To predict the relationship between a supervisor's perception of the subordinate's arrogance and supervisor coaching behaviors toward the subordinate, I first consider the purpose of coaching. Ultimately, most individuals want to understand goal related outcomes, in this case work outcomes, so they can anticipate or influence them in the future (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001). One way a supervisor may expect to influence outcomes is by coaching a subordinate. Coaching has generally been viewed as a means of enhancing learning and helping employee's progress from marginal or good to excellent or peak performance (Ellinger & Bostrom, 1999; Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2003; Evered & Selman, 1989; Feldman, 2001; Gilley & Gilley, 2007; Gilley, 2010). Thus, in general, the goal of coaching is to change employee behaviors and correspondingly improve organizational results.

With this in mind, I expect a supervisor will most likely devote energy and attention toward an individual s/he expects to have a meaningful impact on. If an individual is presumed to have a high level of arrogance, which is considered a stable and uncontrollable internal trait, then a supervisor will probably expect to have little influence over that individual's performance through coaching, and will therefore not spend much time providing coaching to that individual. Indeed, research has found a negative relationship between perceived stability of causes of performance (measured by asking for perceived permanency and changeability of the causes of performance) and expectancy for change (Jackson and LePine, 2003). Conversely, if the manager believes that a subordinate possesses a low level of arrogance s/he would probably expect to have more potential to impact the less arrogant subordinate's performance, and would therefore spend more time engaging in coaching the less arrogant employee.

The tendency for an arrogant individual to resist feedback is another deterrent of supervisor coaching behavior. If a manager feels that his/her attempts to coach a subordinate are not being accepted or used by the subordinate, the manager will be likely to engage in fewer coaching behaviors. This is likely because the manager will feel like putting the energy into coaching someone who resists the feedback is a poor investment of his/her time.

This negative relationship is also consistent with implicit follower theory. As discussed previously, managers' expectations of an employee predict the quality of the exchange relationship and the level of guidance and support afforded the employee, (Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012). If a supervisor sees a subordinate as having limited potential based on his/her arrogance, the supervisor would likely not invest as much of his/her own time and coaching the arrogant subordinate compared with less arrogant subordinates. Thus, I expect that:

H1a: *Supervisor's perception of subordinate arrogance is negatively related to the supervisor's coaching behaviors toward the subordinate*

The tendency for a manager to engage in controlling behaviors toward a low performing subordinate has previously been acknowledged and studied. Gavin, Green, and Fairhurst (1995) found that managers are largely consistent in implementing control strategies such as corrective actions or verbal influence to address poor performers. These and other studies (e.g., Green & Liden, 1980; Klaas & Wheeler, 1990) focus on control strategies and highlight the role of managers in responding to subordinates with sub-par performance. Since arrogance is seen as undesirable and disruptive to both other employees and the

organization and is associated with lower performance (Johnson et al., 2010), I expect that subordinate arrogance will be positively related to supervisor's controlling behaviors.

The supervisor will likely do this to control the individual's performance outcomes, and also to shield other employees from the arrogant employee, since such employees are difficult for others to work with (Leary et al., 1997). As stated previously, individuals want to anticipate or influence future goal related outcomes (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001). Supervisors are especially concerned with subordinate performance outcomes, since subordinate performance ultimately influences the supervisor's overall performance outcomes. Exercising tight control over a subordinate is one way a supervisor can monitor and influence future work outcomes. Therefore, the supervisor will likely engage in more monitoring and controlling behaviors in order to regulate and control an arrogant subordinate's performance outcomes.

H1b: *Supervisor's perception of subordinate arrogance is positively related to the supervisor's controlling behaviors toward the subordinate*

In similar fashion, one way a supervisor may make an effort to minimize the negative impact an arrogant employee has on others in the workplace is to try to isolate the arrogant employee from others, which is one type of abusive behavior. Also, as stated previously, arrogant employees are typically more difficult to work and communicate with. In addition to shielding other employees from the arrogant employee, a supervisor's personal frustrations in working with the arrogant individual may prompt the supervisor to be ruder to the employee, and to possibly engage in other types of abusive behaviors, such as giving the silent treatment or making negative comments about the subordinate to others. Thus, I expect:

H1c: *Supervisor's perception of subordinate arrogance is positively related to the supervisor's abusive behaviors toward the subordinate*

Supervisor Behaviors and Subordinate Self-Determination

To be self-determining means to experience a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Self-Determination Theory (SDT) considers people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs that are the basis for their self-motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). SDT researchers have identified three core psychological needs that influence an individual's motivation – competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Autonomy refers to the experience of a behavior as voluntary and unforced. For example, employees are autonomous when they feel ownership and willingly devote their time and energy to their jobs. Competence refers to experiencing a behavior as effective. For example, employees feel competent when they believe they can successfully meet the challenges of their jobs. The third need, relatedness, refers to whether an individual feels connected and close to important others. In a work context, employees will experience relatedness when they feel valued and respected, and when they feel a sense of belongingness. According to SDT, these three needs are essential for facilitating personal growth, well-being, and social development, and one's level of self-determination ultimately impacts motivation.

Deci and Ryan (1985) theorized that the psychological meaning of any input affecting the initiation and regulation of intentional behavior can be usefully classified as either informational (i.e., as supporting autonomy and promoting

competence) or controlling (i.e., as pressuring one to think, feel, or behave in specified ways). Experiencing an input as controlling diminishes self-determination, while experiencing an input as informational fosters self-determination. Thus, for example, Ryan (1982) reported that positive feedback could be experienced as either informational or controlling, depending on the sender's style of communication. Similarly, Ryan, Mims, and Koestner (1983) concluded that performance-contingent rewards could be either informational or controlling, and Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, and Holt (1984) concluded that limit setting could be either informational or controlling, again depending on the interpersonal contexts surrounding the events themselves.

Given these relationships, coaching, which includes developmental behaviors such as providing constructive feedback and encouraging the other person to think through and work out problems on his/her own should, in theory, promote overall self-determination in a subordinate by giving him/her confidence through an increase in the subordinate's feelings of competence (by being encouraging), autonomy (by giving the subordinate latitude in doing his/her work) and relatedness (by engaging with the subordinate in manner that helps the subordinate feel valued and respected). Thus, I expect that:

H2: *A supervisor's coaching behaviors toward the subordinate will be positively related to subordinate's sense of self-determination*

As described above, SDT specifically states that controlling behavior diminishes self-determination. Thus, using the same theory and logic used to predict the relationship between coaching behaviors and self-determination, when it comes to supervisor controlling behaviors, which include micromanaging, being

unwilling to delegate responsibility to the subordinate, and always double

checking the subordinate's work, I expect that:

H3: *A supervisor's controlling behaviors toward the subordinate will be*

negatively related to subordinate's sense of self-determination

Abusive behaviors on the part of the supervisor are inherently contrary to

promoting a subordinate's self-determination. The types of behaviors supervisors

engage in that are identified as abusive directly undermine the three elements of

self-determination. For instance, telling an employee that s/he is incompetent or

not giving the employee credit for jobs that require a lot of effort undermines that

subordinate's feelings of competence. Autonomy will be diminished by invasions

of privacy, broken promises, and being told lies by the supervisor. Lastly,

supervisor behaviors such as putting the subordinate down in front of others and

not letting the subordinate interact with his/her co-workers will work against the

level of relatedness the subordinate feels. All of these types of behaviors will

likely damage subordinate self-determination. Thus, I expect:

H4: *A supervisor's abusive behaviors toward the subordinate will be*

negatively related to subordinate's sense of self-determination

Subordinate Perceptions of Supervisor Behaviors

In addition to the direct effects supervisor behaviors have on subordinate self-

determination, I expect subordinate perceptions of supervisor behaviors to have a

moderating effect. This hypothesis is also based on SDT. When Deci and Ryan (1985)

theorized that the psychological meaning of any input affecting the initiation and

regulation of intentional behavior can be usefully classified as either informational or

controlling, the emphasis is on how the behavior is perceived by the party on the receiving end of the behavior. In this case, subordinates are on the receiving end of supervisor behaviors, making subordinate perceptions of supervisor behaviors an important element to include in this model.

Based on Study 1 insights, I expect subordinate perceptions of controlling behavior to moderate the relationships between coaching and self-determination, and between abuse and self-determination. I expect this moderating effect to stem from subordinate reports of supervisor controlling behaviors and not coaching or abusive behaviors because specific behaviors that are classified as controlling seemed to have more conflicting reports. In Study 1, interviewees that talked about a discrepancy in perceptions of actor behavior primarily pointed to subordinates identifying more controlling behaviors than did the supervisors.

As it relates to stressful supervisory relationships, I expect that behaviors reported by a supervisor as coaching may sometimes be perceived by the subordinate as controlling. This is likely to happen if the coaching style reflects Deci and Ryan's description of controlling input. For example, if a supervisor feels a subordinate is falling short of his/her performance expectations, that supervisor may step in and tell the employee what s/he should do differently. While the supervisor may identify his/her own behavior as coaching, the subordinate may identify the supervisor's behavior as controlling. The subordinate's perception of supervisor controlling behaviors may decrease the subordinate's feelings of autonomy and competence, thereby decreasing the subordinate's self-determination. In such situations, rather than feeling coached and motivated, the subordinate will likely feel stressed and micro-managed. These dynamics

will also likely impact feelings of relatedness, since the strained relationship will make the subordinate feel less valued and respected.

Supervisors engage in a number of behaviors toward the same subordinate, such as coaching, controlling, and abuse. Controlling behaviors can supplement coaching or abuse, depending on the context. Since controlling can be viewed as either positive or negative, I am focusing on subordinates' perceptions of controlling behaviors as a key moderator. When the subordinate perceives a lot of controlling behaviors, coaching will have a weaker positive relationship with self-determination. Based on SDT, and with support from Study 1 findings, I expect subordinate perceptions of supervisor behaviors to interact with supervisor reports of their coaching behaviors to impact subordinate's self-determination as follows:

H5: *A subordinate's perceptions of a supervisor's controlling behaviors toward the subordinate will weaken the positive relationship between supervisor coaching behaviors and the subordinate's self-determination*

I also expect subordinate perceptions of supervisor controlling behaviors to moderate the relationship between abuse and self-determination. A number of Study 1 participants described how stress seemed to arise from a target's perception that an actor was engaging in controlling behaviors, while the actor would describe his/her behaviors as something other than controlling. In keeping with the previous hypothesis that subordinates may perceive supervisor behaviors as more controlling than the supervisor reports, I expect the subordinate's perceptions of controlling behavior to further increase the negative effect abuse has on subordinate self-determination. Some controlling type behaviors may be

perceived as manipulative and undermining by the person on the receiving end of the controlling treatment. Ultimately, an individual who feels s/he is being controlled by his/her supervisor may increasingly feel that the supervisor is undermining his/her effort to be successful on the job. As Ryan (1982) reported, an individual's style of communication can cause messages to be perceived in ways other than how they were intended. Thus, I expect:

H6: *A subordinate's perceptions of a supervisor's controlling behaviors toward the subordinate will strengthen the negative relationship between supervisor abusive behaviors and the subordinate's self-determination*

Subordinate Outcomes

This model examines four potential subordinate outcomes that result from the subordinate's self-determination: work engagement, turnover intentions, leadership self-efficacy, and career exploration. Past studies have evaluated the effect self-determination has on various outcomes. SDT posits that self-determination is a vital requirement for optimal psychological growth and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Specific need fulfillment has been linked to positive outcomes in a number of facets including job performance (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004), relationship satisfaction (Patrick, Knee, Canevello, & Lonsbary, 2007), involvement in volunteer work (Gagné, 2003), greater vitality and lower exhaustion and burnout in sports (e.g., Gagné, Ryan, & Bargmann, 2003), and persistence in school (Ratelle, Larose, Guay, & Senecal, 2005), among others.

In theory, an individual who experiences fulfillment of his/her needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness will be more engaged, experience a greater sense of well-being, and be more motivated in whatever domain they

experience the fulfillment in. In this case, I focus specifically on the fulfillment of these needs and outcomes experienced in the work domain. Piotrkowski (1985) showed that conflict among work colleagues can predict physical and psychological problems among workers. Specifically, numerous studies have been conducted on the relationship between self-determination and well-being, which is often used interchangeably with work engagement. A study by Milyavskaya and Koestner (2011) found that needs satisfaction is strongly related to well-being across multiple domains, including work, family, activities, and relationships. Other researchers have also demonstrated the link between self-determination needs satisfaction and well-being (e.g. Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000). Thus, in this study of supervisor-subordinate relationships, I expect that:

H7: *A subordinate's sense of self-determination will be positively related to the subordinate's work engagement*

Next, I consider the influence self-determination has on turnover intentions. Logically, one can expect that an individual who has higher self-determination at work, and thus greater motivation and a greater sense of work engagement, will be happier in his/her job and more likely to desire to stay in his/her position, versus an individual with lower feelings of self-determination at work. SDT research has shown that fulfillment of self-determining needs has a positive relationship with motivation, and has also shown a negative relationship between self-determination and turnover intentions. For instance, Keaveney and Nelson (1993) showed that intrinsic motivation, which stems from self-determination needs fulfillment, positively influences work satisfaction, which in turn has a negative impact on turnover. In fact, a meta-analysis by Irvine and Evans (1995)

revealed that there is a strong negative relationship between work satisfaction and turnover intentions. Richer, Blanchard, and Vallerand (2002) used structural equation modeling to demonstrate that self-determination relates positively to work satisfaction, and subsequently, work satisfaction relates negatively to turnover intentions. Self-determination has also been found to be associated with low levels of emotional exhaustion, and emotional exhaustion relates positively to turnover intentions (Richer et al., 2002; Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads, 1994). Thus, I expect that:

H8: *A subordinate's sense of self-determination will be negatively related to the subordinate's turnover intentions*

Leadership self-efficacy (LSE) refers to how an individual perceives his/her own capabilities to perform functions necessary to be effective in specific leadership roles (Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008). LSE is likely shaped by perceptions that leaders have about their own task competencies (e.g., technical and procedural knowledge), the group's composition, group processes, the performance environment (e.g., environmental stability and available resources), and their general leadership competencies (e.g., to motivate, foster group strategies, provide direction, and coordinate group activities). LSE differs from general self-efficacy in that general self-efficacy is more broad, being defined as one's perceived capability to "mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action necessary to exercise control over events in one's life" (Wood & Bandura, 1989), whereas LSE focuses specifically of self-efficacy around specific leadership roles. Self-efficacy constructs are malleable, as demonstrated by studies that have found some training methods can enhance self-efficacy. Self-

efficacy also changes as a result of learning, experience, and feedback (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

As detailed in Chapter 3, one theme that arose during interviews was target's reporting lessons they learned from the experience. Many of the lessons described revolved around "what to do" and "what not to do" as a leader. These descriptions indicate that the targets felt their own leadership capabilities were improved because of the experience. Presumably, this leads to an enhancement of the target's LSE when these relationships are experienced as developmental. As hypothesized above, supervisor behaviors will have an impact on subordinate's feelings of self-determination. Self-determination is a vital requirement for optimal psychological growth and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus, an individual with a high level of self-determination will likely use the experience as a developmental learning experience, which will increase LSE. Individuals who experience low self-determination based on the behaviors of their supervisors will likely experience less learning and development, as they will not feel as much motivation, and will thus not experience the increase in LSE experienced by the individuals with a higher sense of self-determination. Thus, I expect:

H9: *A subordinate's sense of self-determination will be positively related to the subordinate's leadership self-efficacy*

Throughout this learning process and by engaging with their work, individuals will learn and develop in a number of ways. These areas may include increased knowledge of their specific work specialization, increased social and teamwork skills, development of their own abilities, among others. As this

development occurs and individuals gain more knowledge of their work and themselves, they are likely to engage in career exploration to help clarify their own career goals. This is more likely to occur with individuals with high feelings of self-determination because the increased motivation to participate in the domain in question (Milyavskaya & Koestner, 2011), in this case the work domain, will lead individuals to engage in more thoughtful consideration of themselves and their careers, versus individuals with lower self-determination who are less engaged with work. Thus, I expect that:

H10: *A subordinate's sense of self-determination will be positively related to the subordinate career exploration*

Conclusion

In this chapter, I first described my model for this study, and then presented the key theories guiding my model and hypotheses. Next, I described each of my hypotheses in detail and theoretically justified each proposition. In the next chapter, I describe the methods I used to test my model. I will present my data collection process, specify my tools for measurement, and discuss my statistical analyses.

CHAPTER V. STUDY 2 METHODS

Sample

For Study 2, I reached out to a number of individuals to request their company's participation in my research. Companies that agreed to participate, per written consent from top company executives and the heads of HR, provided a list of names and work emails of supervisor/subordinate dyads within their organizations. Participants were required to speak English and be presently working in the United States. A total of 8 organizations agreed to participate, providing contact information for a total of 280 supervisor / subordinate dyads (560 individuals). Further details about participating organizations are provided in Table 2. Across all organizations, 184 supervisors (66%) and 216 subordinates (77%) completed the survey, for a total of 401 individuals responding to the surveys. There were 147 dyads where both the supervisor and subordinate completed the survey. Seventeen dyads were removed due to incomplete data, leaving a total sample size of 130 for analysis. Participants represent a variety of industries, including information technology (65%), healthcare (15%), banking (10%), construction (6%), transportation services (2%), and food service (2%).

Table 2: Survey Participant Breakdown

Organization Industry	Number of Employees*	Number of dyads provided by organization	Number of supervisors who participated	Number of subordinates who participated	Number of dyads providing complete data
Information Technology	1,000-1,500	212	131	160	84
Healthcare	51-200	2	2	2	2
Healthcare	150-200	27	19	22	18
Healthcare	5,000+	4	3	4	3
Finance	Approximately 70	12	12	11	11
Finance	Approximately 100	3	3	2	2
Construction	Approximately 100	14	10	10	7
Food service	250-300	6	4	5	3
Total		**280**	**184**	**216**	**130**

<u>Procedure</u>

To test my model for Study 2, I administered online surveys to supervisor / subordinate pairs. I developed one survey for supervisors and one for subordinates. Each participant received a personalized email inviting him/her to take the survey, and each email specified the other individual (supervisor or subordinate) in the relationship s/he would be evaluating for the survey. Information collected from the supervisor included perceptions of subordinate arrogance and an assessment of supervisor's own coaching, controlling, and abusive behaviors toward the subordinate. Information collected from the subordinates included an assessment of the supervisor's coaching, controlling, and abusive behaviors. The subordinate was also asked to fill out measures of self-determination, work engagement, turnover intentions, leadership self-efficacy, and career exploration. A number of control variables were also collected from each party. Unique ID codes were assigned to each dyad, and following data collection, the names, emails, and all personally identifiable information from the survey data was removed as a means to ensure confidentiality of responses.

<u>Measures</u>

All scale items used to measure each of the variables are included in Appendix A, and descriptive statistics for all study variables are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics (N=130)

Scale	Mean	SD	Reliability	Minimum	Maximum
Perceived Arrogance	2.01	0.47	0.90	1.04	3.96
Coaching	3.68	0.54	0.79	2.25	5.00
Controlling	1.80	0.52	0.72	1.00	3.40
Abuse	1.18	0.19	0.74	1.00	1.93
Self-Determination	3.86	0.51	0.88	2.56	5.00
Work Engagement	5.44	1.20	0.91	2.33	7.00
Turnover Intentions	1.91	1.03	0.96	1.00	5.00
Leadership Self-Efficacy	3.70	0.66	0.91	2.45	5.00
Career Exploration	3.43	0.83	0.91	1.00	5.00
Sub-rated Coaching	2.02	0.75	0.94	1.00	5.00
Sub-rated Controlling	3.87	0.85	0.78	1.00	5.00
Sub-rated Abuse	1.17	0.37	0.91	1.00	3.93
Sub-rated Liking	4.15	0.65	0.82	2.67	5.00
Subordinate Gender	0.46	0.50	1.00	0.00	1.00
Subordinate Job Tenure	4.27	5.05	1.00	0.00	37.00

Supervisor Rated Subordinate Arrogance

Subordinate arrogance was rated by the supervisor using a twenty-six item scale adapted from Johnson, Silverman, Shyamsunder, Swee, Rodopman, Cho, and Bauer (2010). Items were rated using a 5-point Likert scale with anchors of 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree) to assess the supervisor's perception of the subordinate's arrogance. Example items include: "____believes that s/he knows better than everyone else in any given situation," "____makes decisions that impact others without listening to their input," and "____does not find it necessary to explain his/her decisions to others" (α =.90).

Coaching

To measure the supervisor's coaching behaviors, I adapted an 8 item scale from Ellinger, Ellinger, and Keller (2003). This scale appeared on both the supervisor and subordinate surveys. On the supervisor survey, participants self-rated their own

behaviors. On the subordinate survey, participants rated the behaviors of their immediate

supervisor. Examples of the items asked to supervisors include: "I provide constructive

feedback to my employee," "To help my employee think through issues, I ask questions,

rather than provide solutions," and "I set expectations with my employee and

communicate the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the

organization." The subordinate version adapts the same question, just changing the point

of reference. For example: "To help me think through issues, my supervisor asks

questions, rather than provides solutions." Items were rated on a 5 point Likert scale, with

anchors of 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). Scale reliabilities were acceptable

for both supervisor, $\alpha = .79$, and subordinate, $\alpha = .94$.

Controlling

Controlling supervisor behaviors was measured with five items consisting of three

items adapted from the negative mentoring scale by Eby, Butts, Lockwood, and Simon

(2004), plus two self-developed items. All items are measured on a 5 point scale, ranging

from 1 ("I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me,") to 5 ("He/she

uses this behavior very often with me."). The scale is prefaced with "My supervisor…",

and includes items such as: "is unwilling to delegate responsibility to me;" "is always

double checking my work;" and "keeps me "out of the loop" on important issues." For

the supervisor perceptions of his/her own behaviors, these items were adapted and

prefaced with, "When dealing with this subordinate, I…" For supervisor data, $\alpha = .72$,

and for subordinate data, $\alpha = .78$.

Abuse

Abusive and undermining behaviors on the part of the supervisor were assessed

using the abusive supervision scale from Tepper (2000). This scale has been widely used

to measure abusive supervision, and has a number of items that directly overlap with the

Duffy et al. (2002) social undermining items. Since the construct and operationalization

of supervisor undermining is closely aligned with the abusive supervision construct

(Tepper, 2007), the abusive supervision scale was deemed appropriate for this study. As

with coaching behaviors, the scale wording is adapted to suit each the supervisor and the

subordinate perspective.

The Tepper (2000) abusive supervision scale consists of 15 items that are

measured on a 5 point scale, ranging from 1 ("I cannot remember him/her ever using this

behavior with me,") to 5 ("He/she uses this behavior very often with me."). The scale is

prefaced with "My supervisor…", and includes items such as: "Reminds me of my past

mistakes and failures", "Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers", and "Tells

me I'm incompetent". For the subordinate survey, $\alpha = .91$.

For the supervisor perceptions of his/her own behaviors, these scale items were

adapted and prefaced with, "When dealing with this subordinate, I…" This scale is

typically rated by subordinates and thus having supervisors rate their own behaviors

using this scale is unique to this study. I therefore conducted an exploratory factor

analysis of the scale items measured from the supervisors (see the Results chapter for

details on this analysis). Based on these results, seven items were removed to achieve

unidimensionality and acceptable reliability. This resulted in an eight item scale used to

measure abusive supervision from the supervisor perspective ($\alpha = .74$).

Subordinate Rated Self-Determination

The scale used to measure self-determination was adapted from Van de Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, Soenens, and Lens (2010). The scale consisted of 18 items: 6 for competence, 6 for autonomy, and 6 for relatedness. All items followed the stem, "The following items aim to tap into your personal experiences at work." Items were measured using a 5 point Likert scale with anchors of 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). Example items include: "I really master the tasks at my job," (competence), "I feel free to do my job the way I think it could best be done," (autonomy), and "I don't really mix with other people at my job," (relatedness). In keeping with my hypothesis section, which relied on past studies and theory, the three dimensions of self-determination were combined into one aggregate measure of self-determination for hypothesis testing. The scale had good reliability ($\alpha = .88$).

Subordinate Rated Work engagement

Work engagement was measured using a 9 item scale from Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova, 2006. Subordinates were given the following instructions: "The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you never feet this way, mark never. If you ever feel this way, please indicate how often." Items were measured using a 7 point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Never" to 7 = "Every day". The scale included items such as, "I am enthusiastic about my job," and "My job inspires me" ($\alpha = .91$).

Subordinate Rated Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions were measured using a three item scale from Bennett, Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, and Hua (2009) on the subordinate survey. Items were

measured on a 5 point Likert scale, and included items such as, "I will look to change jobs very soon," ($\alpha = .96$).

<u>Subordinate Rated Leadership Self-Efficacy</u>

Leadership self-efficacy was assessed using 11 items from Ng, Ang, and Chan (2008), which asked subordinates to rate their confidence in their ability to do various leadership tasks, such as "Be and effective leader," and "Motivate others to perform at their best." Items were rated using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "not at all confident" to 5 = "completely confident" ($\alpha = .91$).

<u>Subordinate Rated Career Exploration</u>

Career exploration was assessed on the subordinate survey using the self-exploration section of the Career Exploration Survey (CES), from Stumpf, Coralelli, and Hartman (1983). This is a 5 item scale with the instructions: "How often have you done the following in the last 3 months?" Response options were on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "rarely" to 5 = "all of the time". Sample items included, "reflected on how my past integrates with my future career," and "understood a new relevance of past behavior for my future career." ($\alpha = .91$).

<u>Control Variables</u>

A number of control variables were measured on each survey, including demographic variables (such as gender, age, and race of both parties), relationship tenure, job tenure, organizational tenure, organization, organization size, and industry. I also included supervisor liking of the subordinate as a control variable. One implication of the importance of affect in subordinate-supervisor interactions is that it may cause bias in a supervisor's treatment (Feldman, 1986). Liking was measured using a 3-item scale from

Wayne and Liden (1995). The first 2 items were rated using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 "strongly disagree,", to 7 "strongly agree," The first two items were: "I like my subordinate very much as a person," and "I think my subordinate would make a good friend." The third item provided the following instructions: "Liking refers to the mutual affection the supervisor and subordinate have for each other. Please rate your subordinate on the degree to which you like each other," (1 = dislike each other very much, 4 = indifferent about each other, 7 = like each other very much), (α = .82).

To select which other control variables to include in the overall model, I looked for statistically significant relationships in the correlation table, since a significant correlation indicates a relationship that should not be ignored. In cases where I found relationships between control variables and key study variables, I controlled the key variable in model testing. This helps avoid both Type I and Type II errors. By including too many impotent controls, power can be reduced and lead to the conclusion that there is no effect, when there actually is (Type II error). Conversely, the amount of explainable variance in the dependent variable could be inflated if relevant control variables are left out (Type I error) (Becker, 2005). Correlations between all study variables used for analyses can be found in Table 4.

Table 4: Study 2 Correlations

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Perceived Arrogance [a]	--							
2. Coaching [a]	-0.126	--						
3. Controlling [a]	.387**	-.229**	--					
4. Abuse [a and c]	.368**	-.256**	.399**	--				
5. Self-Determination [b]	-.188*	-0.09	-.196*	-0.092	--			
6. Turnover Intentions [b]	.240**	-0.018	.197*	0.127	-.677**	--		
7. Work Engagement [b]	-0.145	0.056	-0.099	-0.001	.533**	-.540**	--	
8. Leadership Self-Efficacy [b]	0.062	-0.053	-0.034	0.035	.300**	-0.1	.214*	--
9. Career Exploration [b]	.176*	-0.141	0.139	0.062	-0.113	.197*	-0.033	0.146
10. Sub-rated Coaching [b]	-.340**	.194*	-.266**	-.302**	.490**	-.512**	.476**	0.075
11. Sub-rated Controlling [b]	.234**	-0.059	.363**	.330**	-.464**	.489**	-.317**	-0.171
12. Sub-rated Abuse [b]	.316**	-0.019	.270**	.273**	-.391**	.392**	-.274**	0.073
13. Sub-rated Liking [b]	-.473**	0.158	-.349**	-.276**	0.136	-0.113	.249**	-0.026
14. Subordinate Job Tenure [b]	0.119	0.037	-0.045	0.124	.228**	-0.109	0.096	-0.064
15. Subordinate Gender [b]	0.095	-.246**	0.051	0.156	0.006	0.104	-0.071	.223*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

[a] Rated by the supervisor

[b] Rated by the subordinate

[c] Abuse scale rated by the supervisor uses the shortened 8-item scale

Table 4: Study 2 Correlations (continued)							
Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
9. Career Exploration [b]	--						
10. Sub-rated Coaching [b]	-0.05	--					
11. Sub-rated Controlling [b]	0.148	-.611**	--				
12. Sub-rated Abuse [b]	.261**	-.616**	.572**	--			
13. Sub-rated Liking [b]	-0.095	.233**	-.214*	-0.148	--		
14. Subordinate Job Tenure [b]	0.018	0.121	-0.074	0.005	-0.088	--	
15. Subordinate Gender [b]	0.038	-0.046	-0.064	-0.073	-0.097	-0.145	--
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)							
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)							
[a] Rated by the supervisor							
[b] Rated by the subordinate							
[c] Abuse scale rated by the supervisor uses the shortened 8-item scale							

CHAPTER VI. STUDY 2 RESULTS

Prior to analyzing the data, I conducted two MANOVA analyses to evaluate whether there were significant mean differences across companies or industries. Significant differences between groups would suggest the data should not be combined, but should be analyzed individually. Using SPSS, I first ran a multivariate general linear model using study constructs as the dependent variables and organization as the fixed factor. The MANOVA showed Wilks' Lambda F value was 1.049 ($p > .05$, $df = 70$) and Partial Eta-Squared = 0.08. None of the between-subjects effects were significant at $p < .05$. Thus, there appeared to be no significant differences in data based on company of origin. I then ran the same analysis using industry as the fixed factor. The MANOVA showed Wilks' Lambda F value was 0.60 ($p > .05$, $df = 50$) and Partial Eta-Squared = 0.10. Again, none of the between-subjects effects were significant $p < .05$, indicating there are no significant differences in data based on subject industry. Thus, the data was combined for all subsequent analyses.

After combining and preparing the data, I evaluated descriptive statistics and correlations between study constructs (Tables 3 and 4, respectively). While not directly a part of this study model and hypotheses, I looked at relationship between supervisor and subordinate ratings of supervisor behaviors by considering the Pearson product-moment correlations between the behavior ratings. According to Cohen (1992), r value effect sizes are small at the .10 level, medium at the .30 level, and strong at the .50 level. In this study, the correlation between supervisor and subordinate rating of coaching behaviors was $r = .19$ ($p < .01$), which is considered a small-medium effect size. Controlling behavior ratings had a medium-large effect size, with r = .36 ($p < .01$). Finally, abusive

behaviors had a small-medium effect size, with $r = .27$ ($p < .01$). These findings correspond with research on leader / member agreement in the LMX literature, which found only moderate agreement between parties rating the quality of the relationship (Sin, Nahrgang, and Morgeson, 2009). This finding will be addressed in the discussion of future research ideas.

<div align="center">Confirmatory Factor Analyses</div>

I assessed the dimensionality of supervisor perceptions of subordinate arrogance by conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using LISREL 9.1 (Joreskog & Sorbum, 2013). CFA allows us to assess discriminant validity by examining the correlations between factors, which tells us how distinct the traits are that are tapped by our measures. We can also assess convergent validity by examining the loadings of each instrument onto its corresponding trait factor. CFA is a widely used technique for analyzing the psychometric properties of the measurement instrument using statistical fit criteria (Maruyama, 1998). Model fit was assessed using $\chi2$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Good fit is indicated by RMSEA and SRMR values less than .08 and CFI values greater than .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The CFA for the arrogance scale showed that all arrogance scale items load onto one latent variable. It is much harder to have good fit statistics when a high number of items are involved and the sample size is relatively small (MacCallum et al., 1999), but this model had acceptable fit ($\chi2 = 459.14$, df = 230, p < .01; RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .08, CFI = .93).

Next, I conducted a second-order CFA for the self-determination scale, which is made up of three sub-scales: relatedness, competence, and autonomy. The items in these scales loaded as expected on the three subscales, and these subscales loaded onto one latent variable with acceptable fit ($\chi2$ = 214.08, df = 132, p < .01; RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .08, CFI = .96).

I conducted a third CFA for the four subordinate outcomes (turnover intentions, work engagement, leadership self-efficacy, and career exploration) specifying four latent factors. Results of this CFA, with each scale item loading on its expected factor, were also reasonably acceptable ($\chi2$ = 746.74, df = 344, p < .01; RMSEA = .10, SRMR = .08, CFI = .99).

Exploratory Factor Analyses

To evaluate the dimensionality of the three supervisor behavior variables, Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) were conducted in SPSS. I chose to use EFA to analyze these scales because the scale for supervisor controlling behaviors is new, and these scales have never been used together before. I felt it was important to ensure that coaching, controlling, and abuse are distinct constructs when rated by both supervisors and subordinates, so I wanted to clearly see how the items load un-forced. The supervisor and subordinate survey results were analyzed separately. For the subordinate survey data, the EFA showed the supervisor behavior scale items loaded on three distinct factors, representing the three scales: coaching, controlling, and abusive supervision. The eigenvalues for the coaching, controlling, and abuse scales were 6.63, 1.38, and 12.44, respectively.

For the supervisor survey, 2 abusive supervision items loaded with the coaching items, and 2 items loaded with the controlling items. Each of these items had factor loadings < 0.30. As mentioned earlier, Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision scale was designed to measure abusive supervision from the subordinate perspective, so perhaps it is not surprising that the scale may factor differently when a supervisor rates his/her own behavior. Thus, to achieve unidimensionality and provide an acceptably reliable scale, the 4 abusive supervision items that loaded on other scales were removed from the abusive supervision scale on the supervisor survey, in addition to 3 items with loadings < 0.30 that were removed to increase scale reliability. Thus, 8 items were retained. The specific items that were included are highlighted in the appendix. After removing the problematic items, the EFA resulted in 3 distinct factors representing coaching, controlling, and abusive supervision, all of which had acceptable reliability. The eigenvalues for the coaching, controlling, and abuse scales were 4.74, 2.01, and 2.88, respectively.

Several control variables were included in data analysis. The supervisor's liking of the subordinate correlated significantly with supervisor's perception of subordinate arrogance (-0.47, $p < .01$), controlling (-.35, $p < .01$), and abuse (-.28, $p < .01$), so those relationships were controlled for. In addition, subordinate job tenure correlated significantly with self-determination, and thus, I controlled for the relationship between job tenure and self-determination (.228, $p < .01$). Finally, subordinate gender was included as a control for coaching and leadership self-efficacy, as it correlated significantly with both (-.25, $p < .01$) and (.22, $p < .05$), respectively. In the data, gender was coded as 0 = Female, 1 = male.

<u>Hypothesis Testing</u>

Structural Equation Modeling

Once dimensionality was confirmed, I used LISREL to perform structural

equation modeling (SEM) on the covariance matrix using maximum likelihood

estimation methods to test Hypotheses 1-4 and 7-10. SEM is appropriate when

theoretically derived paths among multiple exogenous and endogenous variables are

estimated (Bollen, 1989).

It is widely understood that larger samples sizes decrease variability and increase

stability across repeated sampling (MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999). In

structural equation modeling research, Anderson and Gerbing (1984) found that sample

size had an impact on several fit indexes: Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted

Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR), and the

Nonnormed Fit Index (NNFI) (Jackson, 2001). There are many ways researchers

recommend finding the minimum acceptable sample size for structural equation

modeling, typically stated in terms of a flat sample size, or as a minimum ratio of sample

size to number of variables being analyzed (MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong,

1999). Although there is little consensus on the recommended sample size for SEM,

some experts (Gorsuch, 1983; Kline, 1979; Sivo, Fan, Witta, Willse, 2006) recommended

that N should be at least 100. Others, such as Garver and Mentzer (1999), and Hoelter

(1983), propose a 'critical sample size' of 200. Some consider sample size to number of

variables ratio, which for this study is greater about 9:1 (N=130 with 14 variables,

including controls), but MacCallum et al. (1999) conclude that there is no one critical

ratio that works in all cases because the ratio depends on a number of factors, including

the level of communality of the variables and the level of over-determination of the factors. Overall, this sample size of 130 falls between various recommended ranges.

I used a single indicator approach to test the structure of the overall model, as using a multiple indicator approach can lead to specification errors and estimation difficulties in large structural equation models (Ping, 1996). Using SEM to test my hypotheses allowed me to factor in the unreliability of measures, and it also allowed me to control for each type of perceived behavior measure when testing perceptions of supervisor behaviors as the dependent variable (i.e. when predicting coaching, SEM allowed me to control for abusing and controlling behaviors). This was true for evaluating supervisor perceptions, as well as subordinate perceptions, of the supervisor's behavior. On the outcome side, the covariance between work engagement and turnover was set free, since these outcomes are highly correlated ($r = -0.54$).

The path from the latent variable to the indicator (lambda X and lambda Y) was set equal to 1.0, in order to scale the latent variables (Bollen, 1989). To adjust for measurement error in the scale values, the error variance was set equal to the variance of the scale value multiplied by 1.0 minus the reliability (Hayduk, 1987; Williams Hazer, 1986) for all latent constructs measured with a multiple-item scale. For single-item measured constructs (subordinate age, subordinate job tenure, and subordinate gender), the error variance was set equal to zero. Netemeyer, Johnston, and Burton (1990) showed that the use of single-scale score indicators which are adjusted for measurement error conform better to distributional assumptions and produced virtually identical latent parameter estimates as the multiple indicator approach.

The fit of the hypothesized mediated model was compared to one nested model: a partially mediated model, following Kelloway (1998). For the partially mediated model, in addition to the hypothesized paths, I added paths from each of the supervisor behaviors (coaching, controlling, and abuse) to each of the outcome variables (turnover intentions, work engagement, leadership self-efficacy, and career exploration), thus adding 12 paths. The result for each hypothesized path was determined from the best-fitting model. The significance of each path was evaluated using 2-tailed tests. This choice was deemed appropriate to allow consideration for relationships that may be in the opposite of the hypothesized direction.

Figure 3: Hypothesized Model Results for Study 2
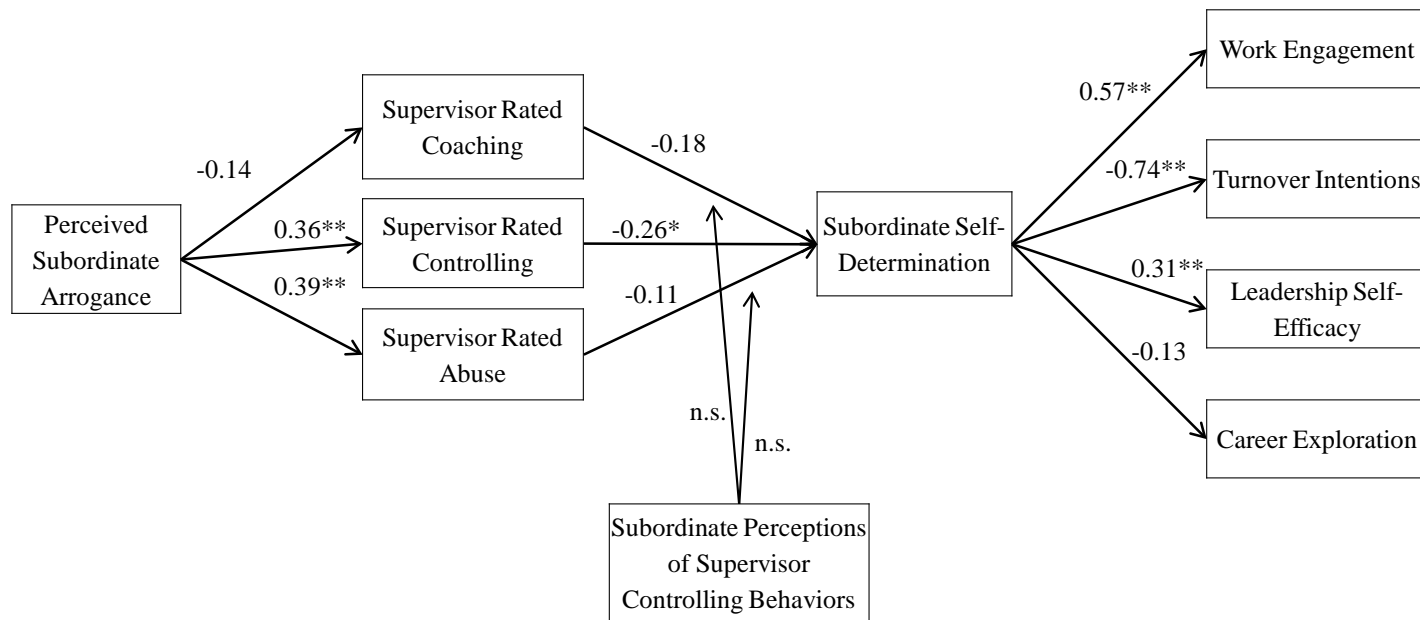
Notes: Parameter estimates from the completely standardized solution are reported.
For the sake of clarity, control variables are not depicted here. The following control variable paths were estimated: Liking to Arrogance, Liking to Controlling, Liking to Abuse, Liking to Work Engagement, Subordinate Age to Controlling, Subordinate Job Tenure to Self-Determination, Subordinate Gender to Coaching, and Subordinate Gender to Leadership Self-Efficacy.
* = $p < .05$
** = $p < .01$

The SEM results revealed support for the hypothesized mediated model. The proposed model had acceptable fit (χ^2 = 64.93, df = 43, p < .05; RMSEA= 0.06, SRMR = 0.07, and CFI = .93). The alternative partially mediated model also had acceptable fit (χ^2 = 49.85, df = 31, p < .05; RMSEA = 0.068; SRMR = 0.06; and CFI = 0.94). However, the partially mediated model did not produce any additional significant paths. None of the behavioral variables related significantly to any of the four outcome variables measured. Thus, the hypothesized model was retained since it is more parsimonious. Accordingly, hypotheses will be evaluated using results from the hypothesized model, shown in Figure 3.

Hypotheses 1a-c predicted that supervisor perceptions of subordinate arrogance would be related to a supervisor's coaching, controlling, and abusive behaviors toward the subordinate. Hypothesis 1a, which predicted a negative relationship between supervisor perceptions of subordinate arrogance and coaching, was insignificant and thus not supported (b = -0.14, t = -1.40, p > .05). Hypotheses 1b and 1c were both strongly supported. Supervisor perceptions of subordinate arrogance significantly and positively related to supervisor controlling (b = 0.36, t = 2.94, p < .01) and abusive behaviors (b = 0.39, t = 3.11, p < .01).

Hypothesis 2, which predicted a positive relationship between supervisor coaching behaviors and subordinate self-determination, was not supported. No significant effect was found (b = -0.18, t = -1.81, p > .05). Hypothesis 3 proposed that controlling behaviors toward the subordinate would be inversely related to the subordinate's sense of self-determination. This hypothesis was supported, (b = -0.26, t = -2.38, p < .05).

Hypothesis 4, however, was not supported. Supervisor abuse and subordinate self-determination were not significantly related (b = -0.11, t = -.99, p > .05).

Next, I evaluated the relationships between subordinate self-determination and the four measured subordinate outcomes. Three of these proposed hypotheses were supported. Subordinate self-determination was significantly related to subordinate work engagement, in strong support of hypothesis 7 (b = 0.57, t = 6.85, p < .01). Hypothesis 8 was also strongly supported, with self-determination negatively related to turnover intentions (b = -0.74, t = -10.29, p < .001). Subordinate self-determination had a significant positive relationship with leadership self-efficacy (b = 0.31, t = 3.45, p < .01), supporting hypothesis 9. Hypothesis 10 was not supported, as subordinate self-determination did not relate to career exploration (b = -0.13, t = -1.40, p > .05).

In addition to examining the direct effects hypothesized within the model, indirect effects from supervisor behaviors (coaching, controlling, and abuse) to the four outcome variables (work engagement, turnover intentions, leadership self-efficacy, and career exploration) were also evaluated. The standardized indirect effects for these relationships are displayed in Table 5. The indirect effects from controlling to work engagement, turnover, and leadership self-efficacy, through self-determination, are all significant, while the rest are not. This is in keeping with the pattern of direct effects.

Table 5: Indirect Effects from Supervisor Behaviors to Subordinate Outcomes

	Coaching	Controlling	Abuse
Work Engagement	-0.10	-0.15*	-0.06
Turnover Intentions	0.13	0.19*	0.08
Leadership Self-Efficacy	-0.06	-0.08*	-0.03
Career Exploration	0.02	0.04	0.01
* Effect is significant at the 0.05 level			

Regression

To test the moderator hypotheses, Hypotheses 5 and 6, I used moderated multiple regression (Aiken & West, 1991). I ran a separate regression equation for each of the dependent variables with the control variables entered in step 1, the "main effects" of the hypothesized interaction variables entered in step 2, and the interaction term entered in step 3. If the interaction term was statistically significant in step 3, I would have plotted the interaction effect following Aiken and West (1991) to determine if it was consistent with the hypothesis. However, neither of these proposed moderating effects were found to cause a significant increase in R Square. Moderation results can be found in Table 5. The test for subordinate rated controlling as a moderator between coaching and self-determination showed a change in R Square of 0.000, and an unstandardized beta coefficient of .028 (standardized is .021). The test for subordinate rated controlling acting as a moderator between abuse and self-determination resulted in an R square change of 0.002, and an unstandardized beta of -.164 (standardized is -.052). Neither was significant at $p < .05$.

Table 6: Moderation Analysis Results

Independent Variable	Step 3 Beta Coefficients (Standardized) for Coaching Interaction	Step 3 Beta Coefficients (Standardized) for Abuse Interaction
Subordinate Age	-0.10	-0.10
Subordinate Job Tenure	0.24**	.23**
Liking	0.07	0.07
Subordinate Gender	-0.01	0.01
Supervisor-rated Coaching	-0.12	
Supervisor-rated Abuse		0.07
Subordinate-rated Controlling	-0.46**	-0.47**
Coaching X Controlling Interaction	0.02	
Abuse X Controlling Interaction		-0.05
Adjusted R Square	0.24	0.23

Note: Dependent variable for all analyses is self-determination

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Finally, there were significant relationships between control variables and study variables. Specifically, liking had significant relationships with supervisor perceptions of subordinate arrogance (b = -0.55, t = -4.86, p < .05), controlling (b = -0.27, t = -2.08, p < .05), and work engagement (b = 0.18, t = 2.18, p < .05). These relationships suggest that when a supervisor likes his/her subordinate, s/he reports that subordinate is less arrogant and exercises fewer controlling behaviors. Also, a subordinate feels a greater sense of work engagement when s/he is liked by his/her supervisor. Additionally, subordinate gender related significantly to coaching (b = -0.26, t = -2.68, p < .05) and leadership self-efficacy (b = 0.24, t = 2.79), indicating that supervisors report higher levels of coaching toward female subordinates, and male subordinates tend to report higher levels of

leadership self-efficacy. Finally, job tenure had a significant positive relationship with subordinate self-determination (b = 0.24, t = 2.79, p < .01), signifying that individuals who have been in their current job for a longer period of time feel higher levels of self-determination.

      An overall summary of hypothesis testing results is displayed in Table 7.

Table 7: Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Outcome
H1a: Supervisor's perception of subordinate arrogance is negatively related to the supervisor's coaching behaviors toward the subordinate	Not supported
H1b: Supervisor's perception of subordinate arrogance is positively related to the supervisor's controlling behaviors toward the subordinate	Supported
H1c: Supervisor's perception of subordinate arrogance is positively related to the supervisor's abusive behaviors toward the subordinate	Supported
H2: A supervisor's coaching behaviors toward the subordinate will be positively related to subordinate's sense of self-determination	Not supported
H3: A supervisor's controlling behaviors toward the subordinate will be negatively related to subordinate's sense of self-determination	Supported
H4: A supervisor's abusive behaviors toward the subordinate will be negatively related to subordinate's sense of self-determination	Not supported
H5: A subordinate's perceptions of a supervisor's controlling behaviors toward the subordinate will weaken the positive relationship between supervisor coaching behaviors and the subordinate's self-determination	Not supported
H6: A subordinate's perceptions of a supervisor's controlling behaviors toward the subordinate will strengthen the negative relationship between supervisor abusive behaviors and the subordinate's self-determination	Not supported
H7: A subordinate's sense of self-determination will be positively related to the subordinate's work engagement	Supported
H8: A subordinate's sense of self-determination will be negatively related to the subordinate's turnover intentions	Supported
H9: A subordinate's sense of self-determination will be positively related to the subordinate's leadership self-efficacy	Supported
H10: A subordinate's sense of self-determination will be positively related to the subordinate clarifying his/her career goals	Not supported

CHAPTER VII. DISCUSSION

The overarching purpose of this study was to explore the causes, behavioral nature, and outcomes of stressful workplace relationships. To this end, two studies were conducted to explore the research questions laid out in Chapter 1. As a reminder, the six questions were:

1. What types of actor behaviors contribute to a target experiencing a stressful relationship?

2. What perceptions made by the actor about the target are related to the actor engaging in behaviors that may create stress for the target colleague?

3. What coping strategies do targets engage in to effectively deal with stressful relationships?

4. Do targets experience positive outcomes from a stressful relationship?

5. Does target self-determination have a mediating effect on the relationship between supervisor behaviors and subordinate outcomes?

6. Do target perceptions of actor behaviors moderate the relationship between actor-rated behaviors and target outcomes?

The first study was a qualitative analysis of a number of interviews conducted by the author. The interviews gathered an array of stressful work relationship experiences from subjects and focused on the research questions listed above. The ideas drawn from Study 1 were developed into twelve theoretical hypotheses based primarily on social cognition theory and self-determination theory, which were then tested quantitatively via online surveys in Study 2. Of the twelve hypotheses presented in Study 2, six were supported by the data. In the following pages, a discussion of the theoretical implications

will be presented followed by practical implications, and strengths and limitations of this study.

<center>Theoretical Implications</center>

The first research question examined the types of actor behaviors that contribute to a target experiencing a stressful relationship. Study 1 explored this question through interviews with individuals who had experienced a stressful work relationship as an actor and/or as a target. Three specific categories of actor behaviors emerged that were carried over into Study 2: coaching, controlling, and abuse. Through Study 2's paired supervisor / subordinate surveys, supervisor controlling behaviors, as reported by the supervisor, were found to have a significant negative relationship with subordinate self-determination. This is consistent with self-determination theory, which specifically posits that controlling behaviors undermine an individual's competency, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci and Ryan, 1985).

Interestingly, neither coaching nor abuse had a significant relationship with self-determination. One potential reason for this could be that coaching and abusive behaviors from one colleague, in this case a supervisor, do not necessarily impact the level of self-determination an individual feels when it comes to doing his / her job. For instance, being put down and ridiculed by one's supervisor, while probably not pleasant, does not automatically make that person feel less competent at his/her job, less related to colleagues in general, or lead to a lower sense of autonomy regarding work tasks. Likewise, coaching behaviors, which revolve around learning and development, may not immediately affect a person's level of self-determination at work. Controlling behaviors are different because they have an immediate direct impact on how a person can

operationally do the day-to-day tasks involved with his / her job. Abusive and coaching behaviors focus more on interpersonal interactions, whereas, controlling behaviors are more work / task oriented. This has implications for self-determination theory, as it suggests that an individual's self-determination is more dependent on how work is structured than just on interactions with others at work.

The second research question, whether there is anything about the target that contributes to the actor's behavior toward the target, was addressed in both studies. In Study 1, a number of characteristics were identified as being relevant, including ability, experience, personality, performance, instigating trouble, and resisting feedback. However, for the sake of parsimony, only one target characteristic was carried over and empirically tested. Study 2 specifically looked at how actor perceptions of a target's arrogance relates to actor behaviors. Arrogance was chosen as the construct of interest because several of the characteristics mentioned in Study 1 relate to the definition of arrogance. In line with implicit follower theory, arrogance did have significant positive relationships with both controlling and abusive behaviors. Results imply that when a leader classifies a person as arrogant, which typically makes that person more difficult to work with, the leader will manage that individual in more abusive and controlling ways.

Coaching, on the other hand, did not significantly relate to supervisor perceptions of subordinate arrogance. It was predicted that coaching and arrogance would be inversely related, based on IFT and attribution theory. In considering this lack of a relationship, it may be that coaching behaviors are based more on the leader than on the follower. Kroth (2007) proposes that interpersonal skills that enable good questioning, listening, facilitation, and feedback are at the core of coaching, and the importance of

communication as a managerial competency is well proven (Gilley et al., 2007). Thus, if coaching stems more from a supervisor's own skills and competency than on traits or behaviors specific to the subordinate, perceptions of subordinate arrogance is less likely to significantly relate to supervisor coaching behaviors.

These findings contribute to the research on workplace arrogance, where limited empirical research has examined the occurrence and consequences of arrogance in the workplace (Johnson et al., 2010). Although there is abounding anecdotal evidence of arrogance in the workplace being problematic, there has not been a lot of systematic research on the subject. This contrasts with related constructs that have received more attention, such as narcissism (e.g. Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006) and hubris (e.g. Tang, Yi, & Yang, 2012). Thus, the findings that more arrogant employees have an increased likelihood of being on the receiving end of controlling and abusive behaviors from a supervisor helps move forward our understanding of how perceived arrogance in the workplace plays out.

Study question 3, which examined target coping strategies, was only examined in Study 1. When subjects were asked to recount coping strategies they or the other involved party employed, there were several themes. Responses were grouped into 4 categories, which were: appease, avoid, confront, and perform. These groupings are similar to other literature on coping with stressful situations. Since the themes described by participants are similar to what is modeled in existing theory, the marginal value of further exploring this question in Study 2 was relatively low, and excluding it made Study 2 more parsimonious and manageable.

Study 2 next addressed research questions four and five, regarding subordinate outcomes and any mediating effect of self-determination on the relationship between supervisor behaviors and subordinate outcomes. Subordinate self-determination was indeed found to have a mediating effect. Supervisor controlling behaviors had a direct negative relationship with subordinate self-determination, which in turn related significantly to work engagement, turnover intentions, and leadership self-efficacy. As demonstrated by testing of alternative models, supervisor behaviors did not directly relate to subordinate outcomes, but controlling does indirectly relate to work engagement, turnover intentions, and LSE, through self-determination. This highlights the importance of the relationship between self-determination and work related outcomes, and it clearly shows that controlling behaviors have an unfavorable relationship with self-determination.

Overall, these findings indicate that controlling management behaviors can have neutral or negative effects on employees, but coaching and abuse do not relate to the outcomes evaluated in this study, either directly or indirectly through self-determination. As proposed, controlling supervisor behaviors relate negatively to subordinate self-determination. Further, consistent with SDT, individuals with higher levels of self-determination have significantly greater feelings of work engagement and leadership self-efficacy, compared with those with lower self-determination. In addition, individuals with higher levels of self-determination are less likely to intend to leave their jobs, which is also consistent with SDT. These findings lend support to previous research on self-determination. However, career exploration did not have a significant relationship with self-determination. The data indicates that self-determination does not relate to one's

reflections on one's own career and career planning. Thus, while Study 1 participants spoke about a stressful work relationship prompting more career reflection and planning, it could just be that the stressful relationship may influence the *direction* of one's career planning, but not one's level of planning and reflection.

For the final research question framing Study 2, I tested for a moderating effect of subordinate perceptions on the relationship between supervisor self-reported behaviors and subordinate self-determination. A number of participants in Study 1 alluded to a disconnect between actor and target perceptions of the actor's behaviors. Some reported this to cause the target to react to the relationship, primarily in cases of controlling and abuse. Study 2 then found only moderate correlations between supervisor and subordinate perceptions of the supervisor's behaviors. However, despite the appearance of some disconnect, Study 2 showed that the relationship between self-reported actor behaviors (coaching and abuse) and subordinate self-determination was not moderated by target perceptions of actor behaviors.

<div align="center">Practical Implications</div>

This research has many practical implications. One practical take-away for organizations is that a supervisor's controlling behaviors can be detrimental to subordinate's self-determination, which in turn relates to negative work outcomes. Thus, organizations should train managers to use non-controlling strategies when coaching and directing their employees. Results of this study also imply that the structure of the job is be more important to employees' self-determination than the interpersonal interactions with one individual at work, so teaching managers how to effectively structure subordinates' work can pay dividends by ultimately retaining employees, increasing

employees' confidence in their own leadership capabilities, and leading to higher levels of work engagement.

The results also have practical implications for individuals in stressful work relationships. For instance, while we may deal with difficult interpersonal relationships at work, the most detrimental behaviors that affect us are those that limit the scope of how we can do our work. Knowing this can help us develop better tactics as managers by consciously considering the possible impact of controlling behaviors. It can also help us as subordinates, by encouraging us to use strategies like communicating with managers about our need for more control over our work, seeking out less controlling managers, and managing upward when possible. We should also recognize, as highlighted by Study 1 findings and prior research, that in general, the most effective coping strategy is using approach tactics. Approach tactics can include actions like directly speaking with the person one is having trouble with, speaking with someone else who may be able to mitigate the problem, or changing one's situation, such as through a job transfer Thus, while the head-in-the-sand approach may at times seem easier and more appealing, dealing with the situation directly is more likely to lead us to positive outcome.

We should also be aware that perceptions of one's behavior when rated by one's self and others may differ significantly, demonstrated by the small to moderate correlations between supervisor and subordinate ratings of the supervisor's behavior. Being cognizant of this should cause us to reflect not only on what behaviors we think we are engaging in, but on how our behaviors may be interpreted by others.

Strengths and Limitations

One strength of this dissertation is the multi-method approach used to address the research questions. Both qualitative and quantitative analyses have strengths and weaknesses, and using both to research a topic allows strengths of each to compensate for weaknesses of the other. For instance, it is often difficult for quantitative analysis to capture the deeper complexities that may be involved in social science. Qualitative analysis involves being closer to the phenomenon, such as through interviews or focus groups, allowing for a deeper exploration of underlying dynamics. A common weakness of qualitative analysis is lack of generalizability, since there is often a smaller sample size and it tends to be a convenience sample. Thus, the use of quantitative analysis to test ideas formulated during qualitative analysis leads to validation and greater generalizability of findings. This is because the sample size is typically larger and more diverse, and there are usually clear, common scales that subjects respond to using the same directives. This is in contrast with a qualitative approach that is usually more open-ended and does not provide subjects with common anchors (i.e. Rate the following on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being "never" and 5 being "always"). An additional benefit of backing up qualitative work with quantitative in this study is that the interviews primarily solicited insights into past relationships, while the quantitative study used a "happening now" perspective. Reports of present and future reflections can be quite different, and longitudinal research is necessary to capture these dynamics.

Another strength of both studies is the unique approach of gathering individuals' experiences from the perspective of both the target and the actor in such a relationship. Study 1 did this by asking interviewees to share instances where they themselves were

the targets and where they were the actors. Then Study 2 used supervisor/subordinate pairs to gather both perspectives. Most research on difficult work relationships, such as abusive supervision and victimization, only gather data from those who identify themselves as targets. Thus, this is an important strength and contribution of this study.

The studies also have limitations. Study 2 used a cross-sectional design, which means that causal direction cannot be confirmed. For instance, while the theoretical argument presented here is that a supervisor's controlling behaviors have a detrimental impact on a subordinate's self-determination, the relationship may actually run the other way, such that employees with higher self-determination inspire confidence in the supervisor, causing them to allow more autonomy by exercising less control over the subordinate. To combat this limitation, as well as differences between "past" versus "present" points of view mentioned previously, these propositions should be explored using longitudinal study designs.

Another limitation is that some of the relationships tested in Study 2 are tested with data collected from the same source. Same source bias can be problematic in a number of ways. Both theory and research suggest that people try to maintain consistency between their cognitions and attitudes, which may inflate relationships, or even give the illusion of relationships that don't exist (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Another potential issue is social desirability bias, which refers to the tendency people have to want to present themselves in a favorable light to others. This tendency may mask the true relationships between two or more variables (Ganster, Hennessey & Luthans, 1983). Leniency bias can also create problems. Guilford (1954, p. 278) has defined leniency biases as the tendency for raters "to rate those whom they know well, or

whom they are ego involved, higher than they should." This type of inclination may affect how supervisors and subordinates rate one another. Other factors, such as mood and affect, can be problematic as well.

I did a number of things to minimize these effects. First, I gathered information from both supervisors and subordinates, measuring the predictor and criterion variables from different sources as much as possible. I also assured participants that the information they provided would be completely confidential, in an effort to encourage honesty. Another tactic I used was choosing scales with clear, specific questions, since research has shown that when faced with ambiguous questions, subjects tend to look at the questions around that item to infer the meaning of the question they are not clear on (Podsakoff, et. al, 2003), which can cloud results. While these strategies do not remove all of the same-source bias, they do help decrease it.

<div align="center">Future Research</div>

Results from this study put forward a number of avenues for future research. First, Study 1 participants suggested there can be a disconnect between one's evaluation of his/her own behaviors, and the perception of that person's behavior made by a colleague. Study 2 found only small to medium sized correlations between supervisor and subordinate reports of the supervisor's behavior, adding credence to the argument that there is a disconnect. This is a similar pattern to that found by LMX researchers, who, as mentioned in the introduction, have found only moderate agreement between ratings or relationship quality made by members and leaders (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Sin et al., 2009). As with the study of LMX, here lies an opportunity for future study of the agreement between the supervisor and the subordinate assessments of their relationship

dynamics. While the difference in perceptions of supervisor behavior did not moderate the relationship between supervisor behaviors and subordinate self-determination, other potential reasons for, and results of, this disconnect should be explored. For example, research should assess whether agreement between supervisor and subordinate perceptions of behaviors are directly related to constructs such as performance, work engagement, and team dynamics. If there is a disconnect that relates to these types of constructs, insights about where the disconnect happens and how it influences work related outcomes would help organizations design things like communication systems or behavioral training that help increase agreement.

Given the link between controlling behaviors and employee self-determination, it would be useful to understand what characteristics, in addition to perceived arrogance, influence more controlling management behaviors. For instance, participants in Study 1 cited a person's personality as influencing others' behaviors toward that individual. Research should explore whether and how certain personality factors influence colleague's treatment of that individual. The target's level of experience also came up during Study 1 interviews, the influence of which should be evaluated. If controlling management behaviors are having an overall negative impact on employees, and ultimately job related outcomes, future research findings on relevant subordinate characteristics would allow for development of alternative strategies for managing different types of people.

We should also further explore the relationship between supervisor behaviors and subordinate self-determination. The proposition that coaching, controlling, and abusive behaviors relate in different ways with self-determination because controlling involves

job structure should be tested. This could done using methods such as randomized experiments wherein subjects operate as employees under managers exercising these different behaviors. It may also be fruitful to examine whether differential treatment has an effect on self-determination, and ultimately work-related outcomes. For example, does the relationship between controlling behaviors and self-determination differ based on whether the supervisor treats other employees the same way? LMX research has found that differential treatment has an effect on the positive effects of a high-quality LMX relationship (Van Breukelen, Konst, & van der Vlist, 2002). Similar research on whether differential treatment has an effect on outcomes of stressful relationships should be conducted.

There is also an opportunity to test some of these propositions as they relate to work relationships between colleagues that are not a supervisor / subordinate dyad. Study 1 took different types of work relationships into account, but Study 2 narrowed the scope to supervisor / subordinate relationships to avoid complexities power differences may present. Future research should also consider other types of relationships, such as peer-to-peer and mentor / protégé.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

At some stage in our careers, a vast majority of us experience stressful relationships at work. These relationships can have many repercussions, such as lower performance and productivity, negative health effects, looking for a new job, disengagement at work, and perceptions of one's own capability to perform effectively in a leadership role. This study begins to shed light on some key dynamics of stressful work relationships, especially as they exist between supervisors and subordinates. These

insights are useful both from an organizational perspective, and from an individual

perspective as both employees and managers.

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APPENDIX A: SCALE ITEMS

Following are items for all the scales included in the Study 2 surveys.

Note: All reverse scored items are marked with *

Perceived Subordinate Arrogance

Scale Source: Johnson, Silverman, Shyamsunder, Swee, Rodopman, Cho, and Bauer

(2010)

Rated on a five point scale ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly

Agree

Instructions: please answer all survey questions as they relate to the subordinate identified in the email that invited you to participate in this study. Note that all of your responses will be confidential and will be recorded according to an ID number that will not be traced to you. Begin each of the following statements with, "My subordinate..."

1. Believes that s/he knows better than everyone else in any given situation

2. Makes decisions that impact others without listening to their input

3. Uses non-verbal behaviors like glaring or staring to make people uncomfortable

4. Criticizes others

5. Belittles his/her employees publicly

6. Asserts authority in situations when s/he does not have the required information

7. Discredits others' ideas during meetings and often makes those individuals look bad

8. Shoots down other people's ideas in public

9. Exhibits different behaviors with subordinates or peers than with supervisors

10. Makes unrealistic time demands on others

11. Does not find it necessary to explain his/her decisions to others

12. Willing to listen to others' opinions, ideas, or perspectives *

13. Welcomes constructive feedback *

14. Takes responsibility for his/her own mistakes *

15. Never criticizes other employees in a threatening manner *

16. Realizes that it does not always have to be 'his/her way or the highway' *

17. Avoids getting angry when his/her ideas are criticized *

18. Takes him/herself too seriously

19. Gives others credit for their ideas *

20. Is considerate of others' workloads *

21. Is willing to take credit for success as well as blame for failure *

22. Does not mind doing menial tasks *

23. Can get others to pay attention without getting emotionally 'heated up' *

24. Promises to address subordinates' complaints with every intention of working to
    resolve them*

25. Does not see him/herself as being too important for some tasks *

26. Puts organizational objectives before his/her personal agenda *

Supervisor Coaching Behaviors

Scale source: Ellinger, Ellinger, and Keller (2003)

Rated using a five point scale from 1 = Never to 5 = Always

<u>Supervisor instructions</u>

Please indicate the extent to which you engage in the following behaviors when working with the subordinate identified in the email that invited you to participate in this study.

1. I use analogies, scenarios, and examples to help _____ learn

2. I encourage _____ to broaden his/her perspective by helping him/her to see the big picture

3. I provide constructive feedback to _____

4. I solicit feedback from _____ to ensure that my interactions are helpful to him/her

5. I provide _____ with resources so he/she can perform his/her job more effectively

6. To help _____ think through issues, I ask questions, rather than provide solutions

7. I set expectations with _____ and communicate the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the organization

8. To help _____ see different perspectives, I role-play with my employees

   Subordinate instructions

Please answer the following questions as they relate to the supervisor identified in the email that invited you to participate in this study. Note that all of your responses will be confidential and will be recorded according to an ID number that will not be traced to you.

Begin each of the following statements with, "My supervisor..."

1. _____ uses analogies, scenarios, and examples to help me learn

2. _____ encourages me to broaden my perspective by helping me to see the big picture

3. _____ provides constructive feedback to me

4. _____ solicits feedback from me to ensure that his/her interactions are helpful to me

5. _____ provides me with resources so I can perform my job more effectively

6. To help me think through issues, _____ asks questions, rather than provide solutions

7. _____ sets expectations with me and communicates the importance of those expectations

8. To help me see different perspectives, _____ role-plays with me

Supervisor Controlling Behaviors

Scale adapted from Eby, Butts, Lockwood, and Simon (2004)

Rated using a five point scale from 1 = Never to 5 = Always

Supervisor instructions

Please indicate the extent to which you engage in the following behaviors when working with the subordinate identified in the email that invited you to participate in this study.

1. I keep _____ "out of the loop" on important issues.

2. I am unwilling to delegate responsibility to _____.

3. I do not include _____ in important meetings

4. I am always double checking _____'s work.

5. I micromanage _____.

Subordinate instructions

Please answer the following questions as they relate to the supervisor identified in the email that invited you to participate in this study. Begin each of the following statements with, "My supervisor..."

1. My supervisor keeps me "out of the loop" on important issues.

2. My supervisor is unwilling to delegate responsibility to me.

3. My supervisor does not include me in important meetings.

4. My supervisor is always double checking my work.

5. My supervisor micromanages me.

Supervisor Abusive Behaviors

Scale source: Tepper (2000)

Supervisor instructions:

The items were prefaced with the statement, "As it relates to your subordinate, , I . . . ". Respondents used a five-point response scale where:

1 = "I cannot remember ever using this behavior with _____,"

2 = "I very seldom use this behavior with _____,"

3 = "I occasionally use this behavior with _____,"

4 = "I use this behavior moderately often with _____," and

5 = "I use this behavior very often with _____."

The items were:

1. Ridicule _____

2. Give _____ the silent treatment

3. Put _____ down in front of others

4. Invade _____'s privacy

5. Remind _____ of his/her past mistakes and failures

6. Express anger at _____ when I am mad for another reason

7. Make negative comments about _____ to others

8. Am rude to _____

As described in the results section, the following seven items were included in the survey, but removed from final analyses, for the sake of unidimensionality and reliability of this scale:

9. Break promises I make

10. Tell _____ his/her thoughts or feelings are stupid

11. Don't give _____ credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort

12. Blame _____ to save himself/herself embarrassment

13. Do not allow _____ to interact with his/her coworkers

14. Tell _____ s/he incompetent

15. Lie to _____

Subordinate instructions:

The items were prefaced with the statement, "My boss . . . " Respondents used a five-point response scale where:

1 = "I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me,"

2 = "He/she very seldom uses this behavior with me,"

3 = "He/she occasionally uses this behavior with me,"

4 = "He/she uses this behavior moderately often with me," and

5 = "He/she uses this behavior very often with me."

The items were:

1. Ridicules me

2. Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid

3. Gives me the silent treatment

4. Puts me down in front of others

5. Invades my privacy

6. Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures

7. Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort

8. Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment

9. Breaks promises he/she makes

10. Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason

11. Makes negative comments about me to others

12. Is rude to me

13. Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers

14. Tells me I'm incompetent

15. Lies to me

Self-Determination

Scale source: Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, Soenens, and Lens,

(2010)

Rated on a five point scale ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly

Agree Instructions: The following statements tap into your personal experiences at work.

Please answer the following questions describing your own feelings at work.

Relatedness

1. I don't really feel connected with other people at my job *

2. At work, I feel part of a group

3. I don't really mix with other people at my job *

4. At work, I can talk with people about things that really matter to me

5. I often feel alone when I am with my colleagues *

6. Some people I work with are close friends of mine

Competence

1. I don't really feel competent in my job *

2. I really master tasks at my job

3. I feel competent at my job

4. I doubt whether I am able to execute my job properly *

5. I am good at the things I do in my job

6. I have a feeling that I can accomplish even the most difficult tasks at work

Autonomy

1. I feel like I can be myself at my job

2. At work, I often feel like I have to follow other people's commands *

3. If I could choose, I would do things at work differently *

4. The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do

5. I feel free to do my job the way I think it could be best done

6. In my job, I feel forced to do things I do not want to do *

Work Engagement

Scale source: Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. (2006)

Rated on a seven point scale ranging from 1 = Never to 7 = Every Day

Instructions: The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you never feel this way, mark never. If you ever feel this way, please indicate how often.

1. I am enthusiastic about my job

2. My job inspires me

3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work

4. I am proud of the work that I do

5. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous

6. I feel happy when I am working intensely

7. At my work, I feel bursting with energy

8. I am immersed in my work

9. I get carried away when I am working

Turnover Intentions

Scale source: Bennett, Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, and Hua (2009)

Rated on a five point scale ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree

Instructions: The following statements tap into your personal experiences at work.

Please answer the following questions describing your own feelings at work.

1. I plan on leaving this organization very soon

2. I expect to change jobs in the next few months

3. I will look to change jobs very soon

Leadership Self-Efficacy

Scale source: Ng, K.-Y., Ang, S., & Chan, K.-Y. (2008)

Rated on a five point scale ranging from 1 = Not at all confident to 5 = Completely confident

Instructions: How confident are you in your ability to do the following types of leadership tasks? First impressions are usually best.

1. Develop plans, schedules or action steps needed to accomplish a task or project

2. Set the overall direction for a project team or work unit

3. Assign tasks and delegate responsibilities to others

4. Coordinate activities and resolve conflicts among team members

5. Communicate effectively in written form or in presentations

6. Lead by example

7. Motivate others to perform at their best

8. Effectively develop teamwork in a group

9. Provide rewards and recognition to others for their achievements

10. Provide constructive feedback to others regarding performance issues

11. Be an effective leader

Clarify Career Goals

Scale source: the self-exploration section of the Career Exploration Survey

(CES), from Stumpf, Coralelli, and Hartman (1983)

Rated on a five point scale ranging from 1 = Never to 5 = All of the time

Instructions: To what extent have you done the following in the last 3 months?

1. Reflected on how my past integrates with my future career

2. Focused my thoughts on me as a person

3. Contemplated my past

4. Been retrospective in thinking about my career

5. Understood a new relevance of past behavior for my future career

APPENDIX B: HUMAN SUBJECTS OFFICE APPROVAL

THE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

**Human Subjects Office/
Institutional Review Board (IRB)**

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IRB ID #:	201309850
To:	Abigail Pierotti
From:	IRB-02 DHHS Registration # IRB00000100, Univ of Iowa, DHHS Federalwide Assurance # FWA00003007
Re:	Stressful Workplace Relationships Study

Approval Date: 10/04/13

**Next IRB Approval
Due Before:** N/A

Type of Application:

☒ New Project
☐ Continuing Review
☐ Modification

Type of Application Review:

☐ Full Board:
   Meeting Date:
☐ Expedited

☒ Exempt

Approved for Populations:

☐ Children
☐ Prisoners
☐ Pregnant Women, Fetuses, Neonates

Source of Support:

This approval has been electronically signed by IRB Chair:
John Wadsworth, PHD
10/04/13 1059

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FOR RESEARCH