

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: STUCK IN A STATE OF POWER
IMBALANCE? UNPACKING THE ANSWERS
ON WHY, WHEN, AND HOW FOLLOWERS
CHALLENGE THE STATE OF POWER-
DEPENDENCE WITH THEIR LEADERS.

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Power imbalance exists in most leader-follower dyads. Because of their advantageous organizational positions, leaders generally have more power over their followers. The dominant perspective suggests that the follower is “stuck” in this state of power imbalance and is resigned to its negative consequences. However, research also suggests that power can shift from one party to another in today’s workplace. This perspective advocates for a dynamic view of power among individuals in the workplace. Unfortunately, this phenomenon of power in the leader-follower dyad has not been examined in greater detail, specifically in terms of when and how the less powerful party, the follower, may influence the power balance with the leader. With the goal to reconcile the conflicting narrative on the nature of power, my dissertation comprises of three interrelated essays to examine this dynamic perspective of power in the leader-follower dyad.

In Essay 1, I answer the theoretical question of *why* the follower is motivated to change the state of power imbalance in the dyad by proposing a dependency-risk appraisal model. I then address *when* and *how* the follower resolves the tension between follower's self-protection and connectedness concerns. In addition, I develop a typology of coping strategies, labeled as balancing operations, for the follower to influence the power dynamics. In Essay 2, I test the effects of balancing operations on interpersonal dynamics using a three-wave panel field design. Specifically, I highlight how certain types of balancing operations will empower the follower to break the spiral of abusive behaviors over time and encourage the leader's effort to seek reconciliation. In Essay 3, I answer *when* the success of coalition formation is enhanced. Through two high-involvement laboratory studies, I explain why follower's political skill is a critical personal attribute that enhances the efficacy of balancing operations.

STUCK IN A STATE OF POWER IMBALANCE?
UNPACKING THE ANSWERS ON WHY, WHEN, AND HOW FOLLOWERS
CHALLENGE THE STATE OF POWER-DEPENDENCE
WITH THEIR LEADERS.

By

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Chapter 1: Power-Dependency as the Phenomenon of Interest

Power differences exist in most leader-follower dyads, but yet we know little about how followers cope with this state of power imbalance in their daily work interactions. Power, defined as the control over valued goals and resources in social relations (e.g., Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), represents the relative state of dependence between two parties. Leaders in organizational positions possess control over goals and resources that are vital to followers' goals (Emerson, 1962; Thompson, 1967). Because of this, followers often find themselves in situations where they are asymmetrically dependent on their leaders for these valued goals and resources (Gargiulo, Ertug, & Galunic, 2009). While the followers may possess control over certain resources that are vital to the leaders' goals (e.g., expertise, information), leaders are often not constrained in their access these resources and goals to only one follower in the team. The follower is usually presented with a situation where he or she is asymmetrically dependent on the leader for valued goals and resources. We know that power shapes the nature of social and strategic interactions in organizations (Malhotra & Gino, 2011). Therefore, this power difference in the leader-follower dyad has an indelible impact on how the dyadic interaction unfolds over time.

It is clear that there are certain risks associated with being the less powerful partner in the dyad (i.e., risk of neglect – Kelly & Thibaut, 1978; Williamson, 1975; exploitation from the more powerful partner – Martorana, Galinsky, & Rao, 2005),

we still do not know much about how the followers manage the the state of power imbalance with their leaders and when the followers are motivated to influence the power balance in the dyad. From a theoretical standpoint, addressing these research questions will generate a deeper discussion on the nature of power hierarchy in the leader-follower dyad, a relationship that is widely view as critical in the workplace (Dienesch & Liden, 1986), but inadequately theorized from the follower's perspective (e.g., Sy, 2010; Van Vugt, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2008).

In particular, there are two conflicting narrative on power in the literature. On one hand, organizational scholars assume that power hierarchies are relative stable (e.g., Hardy & Clegg, 1999; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Pfeffer, 1981). The idea is that less powerful individuals tend to accept their subordinated places (Jost & Banaji, 1994) because of “hierarchy legitimizing myths” (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994) that explain, situate, and normalize the power hierarchy. This perspective implies that followers are often unable to influence the power dynamics with their leaders. In other words, power in the leader-follower dyad, once established, remains unchanged over time.

On the other hand, organizational scholars argue that power hierarchies are dynamic, especially in today's evolving work environment (e.g., Sturm & Antonakis, 2014). The idea is that responsibility and control of individuals may shift over time (i.e., within medical trauma teams – Klein, Zeigert, Knight, & Xiao, 2006) and that power may shift from one partner to another (Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014; Sturm & Antonakis, 2014). Indeed, individuals who are in disadvantaged power positions in a dyad may experience the “tensions of imbalance” (Emerson, 1962, p. 34) and become

motivated to influence the power balance so as to attenuate the negative effects of being less powerful (e.g., Dubois, Rucker, Galinsky, 2010; Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014; McClelland, 1975; Winter, 1973). This perspective implies that followers possess the ability to influence the state of power imbalance. In other words, power in the leader-follower dyad although may already be established, remains dynamic over time.

As the nature of power dynamics in the dyad often lead to important outcomes for both leaders and followers (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009), a precise understanding of how relatively less powerful followers cope with the state of power imbalance remains an important, albeit neglected, concern for organizational scholars (Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014; Mechanic, 1962). Because of these inconsistencies in existing power literature, we still lack a comprehensive theory to explain (1) the way in which the less powerful actor negotiates the challenges of power imbalance, (2) the follower's strategies to influence the power balance in the dyad, and (3) the consequences of these strategies. In this dissertation, I bring attention to the dynamic shift of power-dependency, which is evident in today's workplace (Sturm & Antonakis, 2014).

Power-dependency in the leader-follower dyad represents the state of power dynamics between the two actors (Molm, 1991; Tepper et al., 2009). Emerson's (1962) theory on power-dependency states that actor A's dependence on B is "(1) directly proportional to A's motivational investment in the goals mediated by B, and (2) inversely proportional to the availability of these goals to A outside of the A-B relation" (p.32). More recently, Gargiulo and Ertug (2014) asserted that in addition to the control of goals, actor A's dependence on actor B is also dependent on actor's B

control of resources that are critical to A. More specifically, goals reflect the states that individuals want to attain or avoid (Levin & Edelstein, 2009), whereas resources reflect the means necessary for these individuals to attain their goals (Guinote, 2007). A powerful person affects others' goal attainment by granting or withholding the resources needed for realizing the goals (Guinote, 2004; Keltner et al., 2003). The literature suggests that goal and resource dependency are intertwined and jointly determine power-dependency in the leader-follower dyad (Farmer & Aguinis, 2005; Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014).

By conceptualizing power in terms of dependency, I heed the call from organizational scholars to regard power as a relational construct (Flynn, Gruenfeld, Molm, Polzer, 2012). The power-dependency perspective encapsulates the power dynamics between the leader and the follower, which can be malleable and therefore, can be susceptible to change over time. As such, by drawing on the power-dependency as the organizing framework in my dissertation, I will be in a position to answer the question of why, when, and how followers challenge the state of power-dependency with their leaders (see Figure 1.).

Structure of Dissertation

In the first essay, I address the theoretical question of *why* and *when* a follower is motivated to change the state of power-dependency by illuminating the follower's appraisal process. I propose a two-stage threat appraisal system (Lazarus, 1996; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Petriglieri, 2011): the first stage of the model entails the follower's cognitive appraisal of the current state of power-dependency, whereas the second stage of the model determines the appropriate response to the state of

power-dependency. This appraisal system allows the follower to effectively manage the tension between self-protection and connectedness concerns (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Going further, I propose a two-by-two typology of balancing operations, along the dimensions of approach/avoidance motivation and primary/secondary control, as coping strategies for the followers to influence the state of power-dependency. This typology offers a more detailed examination of the temporal effects (short- vs. long-term) of each balancing operation on important outcomes (i.e., interpersonal and power dynamics).

In the second essay, I test the effects of follower's balancing operations on interpersonal dynamics using a three-wave panel field design. I develop and test a series of hypotheses to highlight the effects of follower's balancing operations (approach) on not breaking the spiral of abusive supervision over time, but also encouraging the leader's effort to seek reconciliation. Given the prevalence of abusive supervision in the workplace (Workplace Bullying Institute & Zieby International, 2014), the application of the power-dependency framework will strengthen the connection between power-dependency and incidence of abusive supervision in the workplace. More importantly, I challenge the often victimized, helpless portrayal of followers in the literature by integrating follower's balancing operations as important coping strategies in the face of abusive supervision.

In the third essay, I answer the question of *how* the follower may enhance the efficacy of one's balancing operation through political skill. I test this hypothesis through a series of high-involvement laboratory studies. Drawing on the political skill literature (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewe, Brouer, Douglas, 2007), I propose that the

efficacy of the follower's coalition formation is contingent on one's level of political skill. I design a political skill intervention as a means to increase the follower's level of political skill.

To conclude, I take a broad perspective to integrate the findings and discussion across the three essays.

Chapter 2: Shifting the Power Balance Through Balancing Operations (Essay 1)

To effectively negotiate the complex dyadic relationship with their leaders, followers require an appraisal system in place to effectively manage the tension between self-protection and connectedness concerns. In the leader-follower dyad, the follower is motivated to resolve two competing concerns – concern of self-protection (e.g., ensuring that one's valued goals/resources are attained and minimizing potential leader's exploitation) and concern of connectedness (e.g., maintaining positive relationship with the leader) (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). These concerns are important to the follower because the leader-follower dyad forms the central component of one's work relationship (Ferris et al., 2009) and the way the follower orientates to satisfy each of these concerns will determine how the interaction in the dyad unfolds over time.

I build on the two-stage threat appraisal system (Lazarus, 1996; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Petriglieri, 2001) to develop a model on follower's dependence-risk appraisal (see Figure 2). The first stage of the model entails the follower's cognitive appraisal of the current state of power-dependency. I highlight three important contingencies that will influence the follower's sense of safety or comfort that is possible in the given state of power-dependency he or she is experiencing in the leader-follower dyad. The second stage of the model determines the appropriate coping strategies to manage the stressor, in this case, the state of power-dependency that is disadvantageous to the follower.

Different States of Power-Dependency

To paint a more nuanced picture of the states of power-dependency in the dyad requires “the simultaneous consideration of the power capability of i in relation to j and the power capability of j in relation to i” (Casciaro & Piskorski, 2005: 170). A joint consideration of power-dependency from both leader and follower’s perspective should yield four possible configurations of power-dependency: (1) mutual high dependence (both leader and follower’s dependence on each other is high), (2) mutual low dependence (both leader and follower’s dependence on each other is low), (3) leader’s asymmetric dependence on follower (leader’s dependence on follower is higher than follower’s dependence on leader), and (4) follower’s asymmetric dependence on leader (follower’s dependence on leader is higher than leader’s dependence on follower). Importantly, I expect leader’s dependence on the follower and follower’s dependence on the leader to be independent of each other: the level of leader’s dependence on the follower does not affect the level of follower’s dependence on the leader. For example, we can observe a leader having high dependence on his or her follower for valued goals and resources, yet the follower’s dependence on that particular leader in the dyad can be either high (i.e., mutual high dependence) or low (i.e., follower’s asymmetric dependence on the follower).

First Stage – Appraising the Dynamic Nature of Power-Dependency

Among the four states of power-dependency, I propose that the state of follower’s asymmetric dependence on the leader is most likely to be regarded as a source of stressor to the follower. Existing research illustrates how an individual’s elevated sense of power over another party often creates a corresponding imbalance

in the interactions between the two (Molm, Takahashi, & Peterson, 2000). This psychological experience of power may lead the more powerful party to become disinhibited (Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003; Keltner et al., 2003), to act in accordance to one's preferences and goals (Galinsky, Magee, Gruenfeld, Whitson, & Liljenquist, 2008), to objectify others (Overbeck & Park, 2001), and to become less aware of others' perspectives (Galinsky, Magee, Inesi, & Gruenfeld, 2006). In sum, existing research on power points to the disproportional impact of the powerful individual's (i.e., possessing greater control over the weak individual's goals and resources) behaviors on the weak individual.

Put together, the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader implies that the leader is able to unilaterally determine the fate of the follower's valued goals and resources (Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). In effect, the asymmetric nature of goal dependency often emboldens the leader to express behaviors of exploitation or neglect towards the more goal dependent follower. When a power imbalance exists in the leader-follower dyad, a corresponding imbalance in exchange benefits between the two actors in the dyad will be created (Molm, Takahashi, & Peterson, 2000). In this particular state, the leader experiences an increased sense of entitlement in the dyad (Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010), which may then further promote opportunistic behaviors toward the follower (Malhorta & Gino, 2012). These behaviors include not caring about the follower's well being (Gruenfeld, Inesi, Magee, & Galinsky, 2008), or treating the follower unethically (Tenbrunsel & Messick, 2001). In sum, the follower is likely to appraise the state of power-

dependency as threatening enough to pursue coping strategies in order to shape the existing power dynamics with the leader.

Contingencies Influencing the Follower's Appraisal

However, it is possible to consider scenarios where the follower who is in a state of asymmetric dependence on his or her leader, and yet, does not feel threatened by the experience. Followers may decide to remain status quo even when facing the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader. The reason for this is that the primary appraisal entails the follower's assessment of the social context in which the dyad is embedded (e.g., Murray et al., 2006). Therefore, it is important to unfold the key contingencies that potentially allay the follower's concern of self-protection (vs. concern of connectedness) in the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader. Following a person-situation interactionist framework (i.e., Tett & Burnett, 2003), I focus on three contingencies – follower-specific, leader-specific, and context-specific to explain the extenuating factors influencing the follower's appraisal of the state of power-dependency.

Follower-Specific Contingency: Follower's Trust Propensity

Trust propensity is defined as an individual difference influencing the likelihood that the person will trust (e.g., Rotter, 1967). Put in this context, the follower's trust propensity represents the follower's "general willingness to trust" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 715) the leader, even in the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader. Follower's trust propensity creates a filter that modifies his or her interpretation of the leader (Govier, 1994) and this filter plays an important role in

accentuating or attenuating the follower's assessment of the state of power-dependency.

First, a recent meta-analytic study concluded that trust propensity was a significant predictor of an individual's trust on another party, even when facets of trustworthiness were considered simultaneously (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). This finding is in line with earlier theorizing that position trust propensity as a key driver of the "cognitive leap" necessary for a person to trust, despite having information about the other party's characteristics (e.g., trustworthiness) (Lewis & Weigert, 1985).

Second, trust propensity determines how much trust, and therefore, personal risk associated with being in a state of asymmetric goal dependence, the follower is willing to commit prior to more information concerning the leader. This is especially relevant in situations where the follower has little or no information regarding the leader. Trust propensity becomes evaluative yardstick for the follower to estimate the leader's responsiveness to support the pursuit of valued, leader-controlled goal. Taken to the extreme, examples of followers who repeatedly risk vulnerabilities (i.e., blind trust) could be explained through the effects of uncharacteristically high trust propensity (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). Similarly, examples of followers who are unwilling to risk any level of vulnerabilities (i.e., concern of self-protection) associated with the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader regardless of any felicitous attributes or characteristics of the leader could be explained through the effects of uncharacteristically low trust propensity.

Proposition 1: A follower with lower (higher) trust propensity is likely to

appraise the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader as more (less) threatening to (not) engage in coping strategies to change the state of power-dependency with the leader.

Leader-Specific Contingency – Leader’s Relationship Orientation

Individual differences in relationship orientation (Clark & Mills, 1979) offer an important insight on the leader’s use of power. Since individuals with low power (i.e., the followers) are careful in scrutinizing the actions of others (Ellyson, Dovidio, & Feher, 1981) and are adept at judging the intentions behind powerful individuals’ actions (i.e., leaders) (Keltner et al., 2003), I propose that the leader’s relationship orientation is a critical leader-specific contingency for the follower to consider in the dependency-risk appraisal process.

Relationship orientations, namely communal and exchange, are governed by distinct “rules” specifying the nature of the exchange in a relationship characterized by power imbalance (e.g., Clark, Mills, & Powell, 1986; Mills & Clark, 1994). Communal-oriented leaders respond to the needs and interests of others, and are willing to benefit others regardless of what they themselves have to gain or lose (Berlowitz & Lutterman, 1968). Along this line of reason, communal-oriented leaders are likely to be responsible with their use of power because they view power as a means to satisfy the needs and interests of their followers (Chen et al., 2004). As a result, despite being in a state of asymmetric dependence on the leader, the follower is less likely to appraise the power imbalance as threatening.

In contrast, exchange-oriented leaders focus on maintaining a balance in the giving and receiving of benefits in their relationships, rather than paying attention to

others' needs and interests (Chen et al., 2004). This suggests that exchange-oriented leaders are likely to use their power as a means to satisfy and promote their own needs and interests. As a result, the follower is likely to appraise the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader as more threatening when the leader is exchange-oriented.

Proposition 2: A follower working with an exchange-oriented (communal-oriented) leader is likely to appraise the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader as more (less) threatening to (not) engage in coping strategies to change the state of power-dependency with the leader.

Context-Specific Contingency: Legitimacy of Power

Unfortunately, individuals who lack power often accept their subordinated positions (Jost & Banaji, 1994). There are two reasons explaining why the less powerful individual may experience inertia to challenge his or her subordinated position. One, the powerful often propagate “hierarchy legitimizing myths” – self-accepted truths that support power imbalance (Pratto et al., 1994), to explain, situate, and normalize the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader. In line with the system justification theory, it is also likely for the less powerful followers to justify, psychological support, and maintain the power imbalance that subordinates them in the first place (Jost & Banaji, 1994). Therefore, these expectancies on the nature of power often inhibit the less powerful to act in ways to challenge or change the existing power dynamics in the leader-follower dyad (Martorana et al., 2005). And two, the psychological effect of being less powerful activates individual's behavioral inhibition system (Keltner et al., 2003). Notably, the psychological experience of

powerlessness is associated to inaction (Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003), such that the less powerful individual is more likely to remain passively resigned to his or her subordinated position by not challenging the power imbalance (Martorana et al., 2005). These findings suggest that while the follower may assess the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader as threatening, the follower may still choose to remain status quo.

I draw on the legitimacy literature to explain this context-specific contingency. Legitimacy is recognized as a key social process explaining the persistence and stability of power in social phenomenon (e.g., Berger, Ridgeway, Fisek, & Norman, 1998). More specific to our dependency-risk model, I highlight the perceptions and beliefs that underlie the follower's judgment of the leader as a legitimate or illegitimate power (Tost, 2011). The concept of legitimacy is important to our model because it reflects the follower's attitudes that shape his or her willingness to voluntarily defer to the power imbalance (Tyler, 1997). More succinctly, in the eyes of the follower, a lack of power legitimacy implies an unstable power hierarchy (Spears, Greenwood, de Lemus, & Sweetman, 2010). Therefore, I propose that in order for the follower to engage in coping strategies to challenge the existing power dynamics with the leader, the follower needs to "redefine the situation as illegitimate" (Kelman & Hamilton, 1989, p. 139).

There are three broad dimensions of legitimacy judgment – instrumental, relational, and moral (Skitka, Bauman, & Lytle, 2009; Tost, 2011; Tyler, 1997). One, the leader's power is regarded as legitimate on instrumental grounds when it facilitates the follower's goal pursuit (Tyler, 1997). A leader, who is effective and

competent, is likely to signal instrumental legitimacy. Two, the leader's power is regarded as legitimate on relational grounds when it affirms the social identity and self-worth of the follower while ensuring the follower's dignity and respect (Tyler, 1997). A leader, who is benevolent and fair, is likely to signal relational legitimacy. And three, the leader's power is regarded as legitimate on moral grounds when it is consistent with the follower's moral and ethical values (Skitka et al., 2009). A leader, who demonstrates integrity in his or her interactions with the follower, is likely to signal moral legitimacy. These three dimensions concerning the leader's power may be evaluated simultaneously or on some subset of the dimensions by the follower (Tost, 2011). In addition, it is possible for the specific beliefs and perceptions that constitute one legitimacy judgment to fall into one or more categories (Tost, 2011).

In all, I expect the follower to engage in coping strategies to challenge the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader when the leader's power is perceived as less legitimate. For instance, if the leader is perceived to be unjust and unethical (i.e., relational and moral legitimacy), the follower will experience less psychological resistance to challenge the power dynamics because the follower considers the leader's power to be from illegitimate means or based on fraudulent criteria (Martorana et al., 2005). In summary, when leader's power legitimacy is in question, the follower is more likely to take action to challenge the state of power dependency (Rosette & Thompson, 2005)

Proposition 3: A follower working with a leader with less (more) legitimacy in power is likely to appraise the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader as more (less) threatening to (not) engage in

coping strategies to change the state of power-dependence with the leader.

Second Stage – Secondary Appraisal

Following the first stage of primary appraisal, the second stage of the dependency-risk system captures the follower's willingness to behave in ways to regulate the existing state of power-dependency. Accordingly, if the follower perceives the state of power-dependency (i.e., state of asymmetric dependence on leader) to be threatening, the follower will engage in coping strategies to shape the existing power dynamics with the leader. Although power imbalance can be an enduring feature in a leader-follower dyad relation (e.g., Cook, Emerson, Gillmore, & Yamagishi, 1983; Tamagishi, Gillmore, & Cook, 1998), the power-dependency literature countered that even those who are highly goal dependent (e.g., follower) may discover and take advantage of subtle opportunities to improve their position with respect to the more powerful other (e.g., leader) (e.g., Emerson, 1962; Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014; Mainiero, 1986; Mechanic, 1962).

Individuals rely on coping strategies to manage stressful situations they encounter (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Since the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader is a significant workplace stressor (Nandkeolyar, Shaffer, Li, Ekkirala, & Bagger, 2014), followers often find ways to remove, evade, or diminish its impact (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). I contend that balancing operations, based on power-dependency theory (Emerson, 1962; Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014), offer a novel and important extension to follower's coping strategies. Accordingly to this theory, these four strategies change the existing state of power-dependency in a dyad in two different ways: (1) by increasing the powerful actor's dependence on the weak

actor, or (2) by decreasing the weak actor's dependence on the powerful actor. Since Emerson's (1962) classic work highlights the dynamic nature of power relationship in a dyad, I propose that the power-dependency framework provides a useful perspective to discuss how follower may rely on these balancing operations as coping strategies in threatening and stressful situations of being asymmetrically dependent on their leaders.

Balancing Operations As Coping Strategies

Consistent with the coping literature, balancing operations are regarded as followers' conscious, volitional attempts to regulate and response to a stressful environment (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001). Followers' agency in the use of balancing operations is also recognized, similar to other examples of coping strategies (e.g., Harvey et al., 2007; Tepper et al., 2015). Going further, to expand on our limited understanding of balancing operations, I propose a two-by-two typology along the dimensions of approach/avoidance motivation (approach vs. avoidance motivation) and personal control (primary vs. secondary) (See Figure 3).

First, approach and avoidance are primary motivational forces that influence human functioning in the presence of external stimuli, such as a powerful leader (Kenrick & Shiota, 2008). This suggests that the approach and avoidance framework is an effective categorization scheme to explain different work behaviors. Approach motivation is defined by the activation of a person's behavior by, or the direction of the behavior toward, external stimuli in order to attain positive outcomes (Elliot, 2008). On the other hand, avoidance motivation is defined by the activation of a

person's behavior by, or the direction of the behavior away from, external stimuli in order to avoid negative outcomes (Elliot, 2008). Recently, scholars adopted the approach/avoidance motivation to explain the differential effects and consequences of common workplace aggression behaviors (Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen, & Fatimah, in press). I build on this research momentum by integrating approach/avoidance motivation in our discussion of balancing operations to explain the differential effects of each coping strategy on key outcomes.

Second, personal control represents an individual's belief in his or her ability to effect a desired change on the environment (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986): *primary control* focuses on the individual's attempt to exert change externally, whereas *secondary control* focuses on the individual's attempt to exert change internally (Rothbaum, Weisz, & Synder, 1982). I identify personal control to understand the relationship between the follower's action and outcome (e.g., Greenberger & Strasser, 1986). Primary control relates to the follower's attempt to exert changes externally, while secondary control relates to the follower's attempt to exert changes internally (Rothbaum, Weisz, & Synder, 1982). Consistent with Rothbaum and colleagues' (1982) theorizing, our distinction between primary and secondary control does not suggest the relative importance of one control mechanism over the other. That is, primary control is not more intuitive or superior to secondary control. This dimension of personal control is theoretically important to our discussion because it helps to explain whether the follower is more likely to engage in strategies that reflect finesse in changing the external circumstances (e.g., changes beyond the self), or strategies that reflect changes within the self (e.g., intra-

individual). A follower who has a belief of primary control is likely to choose balancing operation that involves a substantive change to the circumstances leading to the state of power imbalance. This may include strategies to change the nature of the work relationships (e.g., between the leader and other followers in the team). On the other hand, a follower who has a belief of secondary control is likely to choose balancing operation strategy that involves a substantive change to his or her own internal responses to the state of power imbalance. For example, this may include strategies to change the way the follower interacts with the leader. Evidently, primary control may pose a more direct threat to the leader as the follower's strategy involves specific external changes to the existing relationship. This is an important extension to our understanding of the consequences of balancing operations because the leader may also engage in similar balancing operations so as to retain the power advantage over the follower.

In sum, this proposed typology highlights the interaction between approach/avoidance motivation and personal control. These four quadrants describe qualitatively different types of balancing operations and provide a framework to elevate our understanding of each follower's balancing operations on key outcomes, including *interpersonal dynamics* and *power dynamics*. More specifically, interpersonal dynamics describe the nature of the interaction between the leader and the follower such as the quality of the relationship and the extent of potential exploitation or retaliation (e.g., abusive supervision) from the leader. Power dynamics describes the likelihood of the follower attaining the valued, leader-controlled goal/resource. The power literature has not fully considered the concept of time in the

theorizing of the effects of balancing operations on important outcomes (e.g., Emerson, 1962; Farmer & Aguinis, 2005). In line with Gargiulo and Ertug's (2014) assertion, while the follower's balancing operations may successfully shape the state of asymmetrical goal dependence on the leader in the short-term, these strategies may also yield unintended consequences that are costly to the follower in the long-term. I take the additional step forward to elaborate on the temporal consequences of each balancing operation.

Typology of Balancing Operations

Approach and primary control balancing operation. Coalition formation is a strategy for the focal follower to enlist participation from other followers who are under the same leader to coordinate their behaviors in a way that constrains the attainment of the leader's valued goals and resources (Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014). For example, the leader may rely on a specific follower in the team for key performance outcomes (e.g., sales promotion). If the focal follower is able to convince this highly valued follower to form a united, coordinated front against the leader, the leader may then view the focal follower as a "single-unit" with the valued follower. Coalition formation reflects approach motivation because it signals the follower's motivation to maintain contact with the leader (Carver & Harmon-Jones, 2009) and also to attain the follower's desired state of power-dependency by increasing the leader's dependence on him or her. At the same time, coalition formation reflects primary control because it is a strategy to change the external circumstances (e.g., nature of leader's interaction with the team).

Interpersonal Dynamics. In the short-term, I expect this increased leader's dependence on the collective (including the focal follower who initiated the coalition) to direct the leader's attention to the existing relationship with the focal follower, resulting in a significant change in the leader's interaction. This may include the leader trying to seek reconciliation with the follower, if there were incidents of previous neglect or abuse, since the follower is gaining control over the leader's valued goals and resources (Aquino et al., 2006). Along this line, the follower who successfully engages in coalition formation weakens the leader's justification to abuse the follower (Nandkeolyar et al., 2014) since there is a positive change in the leader's perception of the follower (Simon, Hurst, Kelley, & Judge, 2015).

Unfortunately, a coalition among followers can be viewed as a form of open challenge to the leader's power and authority. Given the potential threatening nature of coalition formation in the eyes of the leader (Deluga & Perry, 1991; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1982), it is possible that while the leader focuses on improving the interpersonal dynamics with the focal follower in the short-term, the leader may find ways to disrupt the collectivization of the followers in the long-term. Since leaders generally are motivated to protect their privileged position of power (Tidens, Unzueta, & Young, 2007), it is possible for the leader to devise ways to retaliate against the focal follower in the long run (e.g., Deluga & Perry, 1991; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1982).

Power Dynamics. In the short-term, the successful formation of the coalition should increase the follower's likelihood of attaining his or her valued, leader-controlled goals/resources. When the follower is successfully instigated significant

changes in the leader's dependence on the follower through the coping strategy of coalition formation, the leader will become more responsive to the follower's valued goals and resources (Fiske, 2010; Galinsky et al., 2008; Overbeck & Park, 2001).

It is important to note that the effectiveness of coalition formation is hinged on the strength of the collectivization among the followers. As long as there is a tear in the social fabric of this coalition, the leader will then be presented with the opportunity to seek valuable resources at the dyadic-level (with individual followers). Individuals form a coalition with the purpose of advancing issues important to the members (Stevenson et al., 1985), and therefore, it is possible for the coalition to become fragmented as members vie for their own issues to be championed over time. In the long-term, it might be challenging for the follower to maintain the coalition and because of this vulnerability, the state of power-dependency may revert to the initial state before the coalition was activated (Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014). This means that the follower's access to his or her valued, leader-controlled goals/resources might be constrained in the long-term.

Proposition 4: Follower's coalition formation strategy, which represents the follower's approach motivation and secondary control, will result in the following:

Proposition 4a: Positive interpersonal outcomes for the follower in the short-term (decrease in leader's exploitation, increase in leader's reconciliation) and possibility of leader's retaliation in the long-term.

Proposition 4b: Positive power dynamics for the follower in the short-term (leader becoming more responsive to follower's valued goals and resources)

and difficulty to maintain this advantageous state of power-dependency in the long-term.

Approach and secondary control balancing operation. Value enhancement¹ is a strategy for the focal follower to increase his or her instrumental value to the leader's valued goals and resources (Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014; Murray, Aloni, Holmes, Derrick, Stinson, & Leder, 2009). This strategy seeks to make the follower indispensable to the leader through the demonstration of specific knowledge, skill, abilities, or resources that are valuable to the leader. For example, the follower may take the initiative to acquire a new critical skill or obtain key information that is important to the leader. In general, value enhancement, similar to coalition formation, reflects approach motivation because it also signals the follower's motivation to maintain contact with the leader (Carver & Harmon-Jones, 2009) and also to attain the follower's desired state of power-dependency by increasing the leader's dependence on him or her. At the same time, value enhancement reflects secondary control because it is a strategy for the follower to instill changes from within the self (e.g., increasing one's value to the leader).

Notably, there are two possible routes for the follower to increase his or her instrumental value to the leader. First, in the competence route, the follower may attempt to make him or her indispensable to the leader by demonstrating specific knowledge, skills, or abilities that are critical to the leader's valued goal (Gargiulo &

¹ Emerson (1962) used the term "status-giving" to describe a balancing operation that involves status recognition from the weak party. This action gratifies the powerful party's ego and thus enhances the weak party's value to the powerful party. In this essay, I rely on Gargiulo and Ertug's (2014) broader definition of "increasing the dependence of the stronger party" (p. 183) to expand the theoretical discussion beyond ego gratification. Specifically, I chose to use the term "value enhancement", which delineates the situation of the weak party demonstrating instrumental value to the powerful party (i.e., valued competencies [Murray et al., 2009]).

Ertug, 2014). For example, the follower may develop his competence in an analytical approach that is highly valued by the leader and yet, not many followers in the team possess this specific competency. In addition, the follower may also demonstrate dependency-oriented help towards the leader. Dependency-oriented help strengthens the recipient's (i.e., leader) reliance on external source of assistance by providing repeated, full assistance on similar problems faced by the recipient (Nadler, 1997, 1998). In this case, the nature of the problem does not necessarily have to be complex. Even a simple, administrative task, such as scheduling meeting or processing paperwork, may become a form of dependency-oriented help when the leader is increasingly dependent on the focal follower for the execution of these tasks critical to the leader's goal.

The second route for value enhancement balancing operation is for the follower to increase the leader's motivational investment in the relation, usually in the form of giving the leader status recognition (Emerson, 1962). This status recognition route emphasizes the intoxicating quality of ego-rewards as valuable commodities in the exchange relationship (Aguinis, Nesler, Hosoda, & Tedeschi, 1994). Since status recognition is a common strategy for less-powerful individuals to interact with powerful individuals (Park, Westphal, & Stern, 2011), other followers may easily provide ego-gratifications to the leader. When the leader has alternative sources of status recognition, I expect the effectiveness of the focal follower's value enhancement to be reduced. Similarly, not all leaders view status recognition as a valued goal (Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

This second route of status recognition has some conceptual similarities to the literature on upward influence tactics (e.g., Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Falbe & Yukl, 1992). According to this literature, which is based on theories and principles of social influence (e.g., Cialdini, 2006; 2009), individuals use these tactics to gain compliance from those at higher levels of the organization (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988). Despite earlier work to identify eight different tactics (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980), there is little consensus on what these tactics are (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003). Of these tactics, ingratiation, defined as “an attempt by an individual to increase their attractiveness in the eyes of others” (Liden & Mitchell, 1988, p. 572), received considerable research attention (Park et al., 2011; Treadway et al., 2007) and is also most relevant to our discussion on value enhancement balancing operation. However, I regard ingratiation tactics as a form of value enhancement balancing operation only if the follower manages to increase the leader’s goal dependence on the follower through ingratiation. While the follower’s ingratiation behaviors towards the leader may engender positive affect for the follower, leading to more positive leader’s impression and categorization of the follower (Wayne & Liden, 1995), these behaviors may not affect any change to the state of goal dependency. Therefore, value enhancement balancing operation may be in the form of ingratiation tactics, but it needs to increase the leader’s goal dependence on the follower for status recognition.

Interpersonal dynamics. In the short-term, the effect of value enhancement on the interpersonal dynamics depends on the follower’s ability to demonstrate his or her instrumental value to the leader’s valued goals and resources. Unless the follower already possesses the key competence or ability that is critical to the leader, it should

take time for the follower to develop and acquire this competence or ability.

Similarly, the status recognition route of value enhancement also requires repeated interactions with the leader in order for the follower to demonstrate these ego-rewards to the leader (Westphal & Stern, 2006). In sum, compared to coalition formation, I predict that value enhancement to have a more modest effect on interpersonal dynamics because it is more probable for the leader to take a longer time to notice the increase in his or her dependence on the follower.

In the long-term, the coping strategy of value enhancement, especially the competence route, creates a high-level of mutual interdependence between the leader and the follower. In effect, this interdependence in the dyad is characterized by positive emotional experience, reduced use of threats and coercion, greater stability, and congeniality (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003).

Power dynamics. In the short-term horizon, it is clear that the effectiveness of value enhancement is predicted by the follower's ability to demonstrate his or her value to the leader's goal. If the follower requires time to fully develop the valued competence that is critical to the leader's goal, I do not expect a substantive change in the existing state of power-dependency with the leader in the short-term. Similarly, the status recognition route of value enhancement also requires repeated interactions with the leader in order for the follower to increase the leader's goal dependence on the follower for these ego-rewards (Westphal & Stern, 2006). In line with these reasoning, I expect the short-term effectiveness of value enhancement on power dynamics to be modest.

In the long-term, I expect value enhancement to be effective in developing a high-level of mutual power-dependence for the competence route. By developing important and leader-valued competence, the follower is increasing his or her utility to the leader's goal (e.g., team performance). Consistent with the interdependence theory (Kelly & Thibaut, 1978), interdependence reduces the power differences between the leader and the follower, allowing both parties some level of control over each other's behavior. I also predict the long-term effectiveness of the competence route of value enhancement to be more promising compared to coalition formation because the competence route is less confrontation and less susceptible to other factors (e.g., stability of coalition). If the follower continues to create enduring value to the leader's valued goals and resources, the follower is likely to enjoy this ideal state of power-dependency in the long-term.

Over time, the follower's extensive usage of the status recognition route may cause the leader to suspect the authenticity of these ego-gratifications (Liden & Mitchell, 1988). When this happens, the leader will perceive the follower's behaviors as disingenuous (Drake & Moberg, 1986). There is sufficient evidence suggesting that as power difference increases between the follower and leader, the demand for higher sophistication in the follower's ego-gratifying behaviors towards the leader (e.g., ingratiation) becomes amplified (see Gordon, 1996 for a review). This demand for sophisticated forms of ego-gratifying behaviors in order to increase the leader's goal dependence on the follower may complicate the long-term efficacy of this particular strategy.

Proposition 5: Follower's value enhancement strategy, which represents the follower's approach motivation and primary control, will result in the following:

Proposition 5a: Modest effect on interpersonal outcomes in the short-term and achieving mutual interdependence in the long-term.

Proposition 5b: Modest effect on power dynamics in the short-term but follower's ability to create enduring value to the leader will lead to the advantageous state of power-dependency in the long-term.

Avoidance motivation and primary control. Network extension is a strategy for the follower to invest in alternative pathways to the valued goals and resources that are outside of the leader's control (Emerson, 1962). Instead of relying on the leader, the follower may invest in other relationships outside of the dyad that may support the attainment of the same or similar goals and resources. In doing so, network extension allows the follower to channel focus away from the leader, and consequently, reduce one's dependence on the leader. Network extension reflects the follower's avoidance motivation because it signals the intention to create distance from the leader through forming valuable exchange relationships outside of the dyad (Spielberg et al., 2011), with the goal of decreasing follower's dependence on the leader. At the same time, network extension reflects primary control because it is a strategy for the follower to influence changes to the external circumstance (e.g., professional network).

Interpersonal dynamics. In the short-term, as the follower begins to invest personal time and resources to build new relationship or activate dormant relationship

with those beyond the dyad (Malhotra & Gino, 2012), this shift in the follower's attention should signal to the leader that the follower is less committed to the existing dyadic relationship. As a result, the interpersonal dynamics between the leader and follower is likely to decline in the short-term.

In the long-term, since network extension successfully creates distance away from the leader and does not impact the leader's valued goals and resources, this strategy does not directly challenge the leader's existing perspective of the follower. Along this line, if the leader is already showing exploitative or abusive behaviors towards the follower, this strategy is unlikely to change the leader's existing justification for such toxic behaviors.

Power Dynamics. In the short-term, the effect of network extension strategy on the state of power-dependency in the dyad is likely to be modest. In line with our arguments earlier, the activation of the new relationship that serves as important alternatives for the follower's valued goals and resources should take time to materialize (Malhotra & Gino, 2012). This means that in the short-term, the state of power-dependence is likely to remain status quo.

In the long-term, the effectiveness of network extension strategy on the state of power-dependency is largely hinged on the stability and reliability of the external relationships (beyond the dyad). For example, if the follower is able to establish an alternative source, which is outside of the leader-follower dyad, to his or her valued goals and resources, the follower will be successful in decreasing his or her dependence on the leader. This means that the follower has achieved the state of mutual non-dependency with the leader.

However, there are several factors that may limit the long-term effectiveness of network extension on power dynamics. First, it is possible that the follower's investment on these external relationships do not always pay off (Malhotra & Gino, 2012; Zite et al., 2010). Second, several scholars have emphasized the significance of the direct leader's role in assimilating the follower into the larger organizational network (e.g., Sparrowe & Lide, 2005). Without the positive referral from the direct leader, the follower may find it challenging to establish his or her trustworthiness and instrumental values to other potential sources of valued goals and resources (Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2006). In all, this suggests that effectiveness of network extension in the long-term in maintaining the state of mutual non-dependence is based on the follower's ability to secure and maintain these vital alternative sources of valued goals and resources.

Proposition 6: Follower's network extension strategy, which represents the follower's avoidance motivation and secondary control, will result in the following:

Proposition 6a: Modest effect on the interpersonal dynamics in the short-term and does not reduce exploitative and abusive behaviors from the leader in the long-term.

Proposition 6b: Modest effect on the power dynamics in the short-term and follower's success in securing external sources of valued goals and resources will maintain the state of mutual non-dependence in the long-term.

Avoidance motivation and secondary control. Motivational withdrawal is a strategy for the follower to distance him or herself away from the valued, leader-

controlled goal, in a way that the follower's "motivational orientations and commitments toward different areas of activity will intimately reflect this process" (Emerson, 1962, p. 36). For example, the follower may choose to downplay the significance of the goal of idea sponsorship, which is controlled by the leader, and instead, channels his or her energy and focus on a new goal that is not controlled by the leader. Similarly to network extension, motivational withdrawal reflects the follower's avoidance motivation because it signals the intention to create distance from the leader through selecting alternative goals and resources, which are outside of the leader's control, to pursue. The goal of this strategy is to decrease the follower's dependence on the leader. At the same time, motivational withdrawal reflects secondary control because it is a strategy for the follower to directly instill changes within him or herself.

Interpersonal dynamics. In the short-term, motivational withdrawal strategy offers a quick solution for the follower to decrease his or her dependence on the leader. This strategy also creates a psychological buffer to immediately satisfy the follower's self-protection concern. Unfortunately, since this strategy involves the follower reframing his or her pursue of valued goals and resources, this strategy only furthers the divide between the leader and the follower. In other words, motivational withdrawal strategy is unlikely to change the leader's existing perception of the follower and does not challenge the leader's justification for exploitation or abuse, if these negative behaviors are already manifested in the dyad. Engaging in motivational withdrawal strategy only creates a greater distance from the leader (Spielberg et al., 2011), which implies that the leader's need for future cooperation from the leader is

also significantly diminished over time. Therefore, the leader is less or not motivated at all to attempt to restore the otherwise strained relationship with the follower.

In the long-term, follower's motivation withdrawal strategy is likely to perpetuate a state of mutual non-dependence in the dyad. Over a period of time, motivational withdrawal may add a feeling of resignation as the number of goals that can be achieved on the follower's own accord, without any intervention from the leader, is likely to be limited (Gargiulo et al., 2009). In this sense, this failure (i.e., unable to attain the valued goal) may also give rise to a feeling of incompetence within the follower in the long term (Weiner, Russell, & Lerman, 1979). This feeling of incompetence may motivate the follower to maintain distance from the leader so as to satisfy his or her self-protection concern. In the same vein, over time, the follower's motivational strategy may signal a strong message to the direct leader that the follower is uninterested in valued, leader-controlled goals that other followers are vying for. In turn, the leader's perception of the follower may further deteriorate because of the follower's lack of interest to pursue these important goals and resources. Therefore, I predict that interpersonal dynamics are likely to deteriorate in the long-term.

Power dynamics. In the short-term, motivational withdrawal strategy should significantly decrease the follower's dependence on the leader once the follower made the decision to shift away from the leader-controlled goals and resources. This means that the follower is able to attain the state of mutual non-dependence with the leader at a faster rate, compared to network extension strategy, which features the creation of new alternatives to valued goals and resources.

In the long-term, while motivational withdrawal strategy should maintain the state of mutual non-dependence with the leader, the number of valued goals and resources beyond the leader's direct control is likely to dwindle over time (Gargiulo et al., 2009). In the long-term, this means that the follower will continue to experience powerlessness in the dyad. Unlike network extension strategy, which is essentially the follower's attempt to pursue the same set of goals and resources by finding alternatives in the professional network, motivational withdrawal strategy constrains the nature and type of goals and resources for the follower to pursue.

Proposition 7: Follower's motivational withdrawal strategy, which represents the follower's avoidance motivation and primary control, will result in the following:

Proposition 7a: Negligible effect on the interpersonal dynamics in the short-term and possibly leading to deterioration of dyadic relationship in the long-term.

Proposition 7b: Immediate effect on the power dynamics in the short-term and perpetuating the follower's feeling of powerlessness in the long-term.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

In this essay, I highlight the "power of the weak" (i.e., the follower who is asymmetrically dependent on the leader) and advocate for a more resourceful, strategic view of the follower in terms of his or her application of balancing operations to influence the existing state of power-dependency in the dyad. The proposed model explains (1) why the less powerful follower may be motivated to negate the potential risk of being in the state of asymmetric dependence on the leader,

(2) how specific coping strategies, organized in a two-by-two typology (approach/avoidance motivation, primary/secondary control) will empower the follower to shift the state of power-dependency with the leader, and (3) the temporal consequences of each coping strategy on power and interpersonal dynamics.

There are several limitations in this theoretical model. First, I recognize that there are alternative conceptualizations of dependence in the literature (e.g., resource, task). I encourage future researchers to examine the effect of other forms of dependency on key organizational phenomena. For example, task dependency is often embedded in the organizational workflow (De Jong, Der Vegt, & Molleman, 2007), and as a result, it is likely to be less malleable and dynamic in nature compared to the state of goal dependency. Under these constraints, are balancing operations still effective for followers in the state of asymmetric task dependence?

Second, the role of social influence in power-dependency should be addressed. Social influence plays a dominant role in shaping individuals' evaluation of work-related phenomena, including social contract fulfillment (Ho & Levesque, 2005). Followers, in general, are influenced by the leader's treatment of other members in the team (Lau & Liden, 2008) and future work could explore the effects of the leader's patterns of power-dependence with other followers on the follower's decision process.

And third, I did not fully examine the emotional aspects of the follower's reaction in the state of power imbalance. Consistent with recent theorizing on threat regulation (i.e., Petriglieri, 2011), this model draws on the two-stage threat appraisal process (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) that does not place much

attention on individual's emotional reactions. Since leaders often utilize emotions to arouse certain feelings and motivation in followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1987), I encourage future work to consider how emotional contagion may influence the follower's decision process.

Chapter 3: A Power-Dependency Perspective on When and How a Follower Can Break the Spiral of Abuse (Essay 2)

A startling 27% of U.S. workers (65.6 million people) have suffered from some form of abusive behaviors from their leaders, such as repeated intimidation, humiliation, and verbal abuse (Workplace Bullying Institute & Zieby International, 2014). These behaviors, collectively referred to as abusive supervision, are defined as expressions of non-physical hostility that leaders perpetuate against their followers (Tepper, 2000). Abusive supervision has dire, consequential effects on followers, such as psychological distress (Tepper, 2000). At the organizational level, abusive supervision also brings a substantial financial cost for organizations – the estimated cost of abusive supervision is \$23.8 billion annually for U.S. corporations (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, Lambert, 2006). Given these significant impacts, abusive supervision has received considerable attention in the literature (e.g., Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Marcus-Newhall, Pedersen, Carlson, & Miller, 2000; Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009).

Surprisingly, the common narrative in the abusive supervision literature focuses on the followers' attempts to mitigate the personal consequences of abusive supervision. Followers engage in coping strategies to manage the psychological distress introduced by abusive supervision, including alcohol use (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), psychological withdrawal (Mawritz, Dust, & Resick, 2014), or upward maintenance communication (Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007). Alternatively, the next viable strategy for the abused follower is to exit the organization (e.g., Tepper et al., 2009). Organization-level intervention for abusive

supervision is also lacking, as victims of abusive supervision often are unable to count on their organizations to hold the perpetrators accountable (Courtright, Gardner, Smith, McCormick, & Colbert, in press). Together with the knowledge that abusive behaviors tend to persist over time (Lian, Ferris, Morrison, & Brown, 2014; Shnabel & Nadler, 2008), these issues point to a bleak future for abused followers who are often portrayed as helpless against the spiral of abuse.

Similarly, current literature neglects the possibility for the follower to experience leader's reconciliation after abuse. The leader's effort to extend acts of goodwill toward the abused follower is a critical step to mend the strained relationship and secure future cooperation within the dyad (McCullough, Rachal, Sandage, Worthington, Brown, & Hight, 1998). Compared to the victim's initiation of reconciliation, leader's reconciliation is more effective in supporting relationship restoration (Andiappan & Trevino, 2010). However, the question of how a follower inspires leader's reconciliation remains unanswered. As such, it is both important and useful for scholars to explore new coping strategies that enable the follower to effectively break the spiral of abuse and receive meaningful attempts of relationship restoration from the perpetrator, the leader.

To address these important questions, this research draws on power-dependency theory (Emerson, 1962; Molm, 1991; Tepper et al., 2009) to first specify the state of power-dependency in the dyad that predicts abusive supervision, and then to highlight the type of follower's coping strategies that will not only reduce the occurrence of abusive supervision over time, but also increase the likelihood of leader's future reconciliation (see Figure 4). While the current abusive supervision

literature acknowledges the importance of power (e.g., Tepper et al., 2009; Tepper et al., 2015), studies have not fully examined the different patterns of power-dependency that explain how and when the state of power in the dyad may evolve to trigger abusive supervision.

Moreover, a more refined depiction of power-dependency in a leader-follower dyad “calls for the simultaneous consideration of the power capability of *i* in relation to *j* and the power capability of *j* in relation to *i*” (Casciaro & Piskorski, 2005: 170). Accordingly, I examine the four possible states of power-dependency from both the leader and the follower’s perspectives: (1) mutual high dependence, (2) mutual low dependence, (3) leader’s asymmetric dependence on the follower, and (4) follower’s asymmetric dependence on the leader. Among these four states of power-dependency, I propose that only follower’s asymmetric dependence on the leader will fuel abusive supervision. This state of power-dependency implies that the leader is able to unilaterally determine the fate of the follower’s valued goals and resources (Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). The leader clearly feels more powerful over the follower, and therefore, is more willing to express exploitation and abuse toward the follower (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). In this state of power imbalance, the leader experiences an increased sense of entitlement in the dyad (Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010), which may then further promote opportunistic behaviors toward the follower (Malhotra & Gino, 2012). These behaviors include not caring about the follower (Gruenfeld, Inesi, Magee, & Galinsky, 2008) or treating the follower unethically (Tenbrunsel & Messick, 2001). As a result, a more dependent follower is likely to suffer an increased sense of vulnerability (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). Put

together, follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader predicts abusive supervision.

I do not expect leader's asymmetric dependence on the follower to cultivate abusive supervision. When the follower has control over the leader's valued resources and goals, the leader will pay close attention to the follower so as to maintain a cordial relationship. Since any form of abusive behavior toward this follower is going to impede the leader's pursuit of valued goals and resources (Molm, 1997; Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003), abusive supervision is unlikely to emerge. Similarly, mutual high dependence may not predict abusive supervision. In this state, the leader-follower dyad is characterized by positive interactions, reduced use of threats and coercion, and enhanced stability and congeniality (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003) since both parties are reliant on the other to achieve their desired means and/or ends. Finally, mutual low dependence indicates that both parties do not have any valued goals and resources that are controlled by either party. In this state, since the leader does not experience power advantage over the follower (Molm, 1997), abusive supervision is unlikely to emerge. Because I incorporated a time-lagged design in Studies 1 and 2 to test the hypotheses, the measurement times of the constructs are indicated in the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader (time 1) (in contrast to mutual high dependence, mutual low dependence, and leader's asymmetric dependence on the follower) is positively related to abusive supervision (time 2).

Re-Balancing the Power-Dependency Via Balancing Operations

Individuals rely on coping strategies to manage stressful situations they encounter (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Abusive supervision is an important workplace stressor (Nandkeolyar, Shaffer, Li, Ekkirala, & Bagger, 2014) and followers often find ways to either remove, evade, or to diminish its impact (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Interestingly, most of the existing research on these strategies focuses on how the follower may cope with the consequences of abuse (e.g., Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007; Mawritz et al., 2014). For example, as a coping strategy, upward maintenance communication does not directly address the factors causing the abusive relationship, but instead serves to maintain the baseline level of relationship necessary in a functioning leader-follower dyad (Lee, 1998). In another example, upward hostility is a coping strategy for the abused follower to create self-images that are incompatible with the victim identity (Tepper et al., 2015). Upward hostility does not directly address the factors causing abusive supervision but functions to weaken the deleterious effects of abusive supervision on follower job satisfaction, affective commitment, and psychological distress (Tepper et al., 2015). To gain insights into how followers can break the spiral of abuse, we need to examine coping strategies that directly address the persistence of abusive supervision over time.

Balancing operations, based on power-dependency theory (Emerson, 1962; Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014), offer a novel and important extension to the abusive supervision literature. Since Emerson's (1962) classic work highlights the dynamic nature of power relationship in a dyad, I propose that the power-dependency framework provides a useful perspective to discuss how followers may rely on

balancing operations as coping strategies to loosen the grip of abusive supervision over time.

Approach balancing operations. Coalition formation and value enhancement are approach balancing operations because they signal the follower's motivation to approach or maintain contact with the leader (Carver & Harmon-Jones, 2009) and also to attain the follower's desired state of power-dependency by increasing the leader's dependence on him or her. *Coalition formation* is a strategy for the focal follower to enlist participation from other followers who are under the same leader to coordinate their behaviors in a way that constrains the attainment of the leader's valued goals and resources (Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014). For example, the leader may rely on a specific follower in the team for key performance outcomes (e.g., sales promotion). If the focal follower is able to convince a highly valued follower to form a united, coordinated front against the leader, the leader may view the focal follower as a "single-unit" with the valued follower. In turn, this will increase the leader's dependence on the focal follower.

Avoidance balancing operations. Motivational withdrawal and network extension are avoidance balancing operations because they signal the follower's motivation to create distance from the leader (Spielberg, Heller, Siltan, Steward, & Miller, 2011) and also to avoid the undesired state of power-dependency (i.e., follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader) by decreasing his or her dependence on the leader. Instead of relying on the leader, the follower may invest in other relationships that support the attainment of the same or similar goals and resources. Therefore,

Hypothesis 2: Follower's approach balancing operations (time 1), as opposed to avoidance balancing operations (time 1), are positively related to leader's dependence on the follower (time 2).

Breaking the Abusive Supervision Spiral

Without any intervention, abusive behaviors often continue to persist over time (Shnabel & Nadler, 2008). Abusive supervision is likely to be a repeated phenomenon because the leader's justifications for abuse tend to persist in the absence of any significant positive change in the leader's perception of the follower (Simon, Hurst, Kelley, & Judge, 2015). In line with this prediction, Lian and colleagues (2014) found a positive relationship between time 1 and time 2 abusive supervision across two independent studies. I propose that follower's approach balancing operations, as opposed to avoidance balancing operations, will break the abusive supervision spiral. Specifically, follower's approach balancing operations indicate to the leader that the follower is making tangible, proactive efforts to improve his or her instrumental value to the leader's pursuit of goals and resources. Since these efforts are directed at the leader, approach balancing operations weaken the leader's justification to abuse the follower (Nandkeolyar et al., 2014). When followers engage in more approach balancing operations, I expect the occurrence of abusive supervision to decline over time. In contrast, follower's avoidance balancing operations indicate to the leader that the follower is committed to alternative pathways to their valued goals and resources. Since these efforts create distance away from the leader and do not impact the leader's pursuit of his or her valued goals and resources, they are unlikely to change the leader's justification for abuse. Therefore,

follower's avoidance balancing operations do not reduce the occurrence of abusive supervision over time.

Hypothesis 3a: Follower's approach balancing operations (time 1), as opposed to avoidance balancing operations (time 1), attenuate the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and abusive supervision (time 3), such that this relationship will be less positive when follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) are higher.

Building on Hypothesis 2, I further propose that an increased level of leader's dependence on the follower, which results from the follower's approach balancing operations, will reduce the occurrence of abusive supervision over time. I focus on the change in the level of the leader's dependence on the follower² because the leader's behavior is more responsive to changes in his or her dependence on the follower compared to the follower's dependence on him or her. Individuals are more attuned to situational cues about their own valued goals and resources than about others' (e.g., Fiske, 2010; Galinsky et al., 2008; Overbeck & Park, 2001). When a follower successfully instigates significant changes in the leader's dependence on the follower, this will directly affect the leader's attention to the existing relationship with the follower, resulting in a significant change in the leader's behavior. This is especially so when the follower engages in more approach balancing operations, which put constraints on the leader's pursuit of valued goals and resources. In this situation, the leader is motivated to increase his or her likelihood of goal/resource attainment by reducing his abusive behavior toward the follower. Furthermore, it is the perpetrator

² Statistically, I controlled for follower's dependence on the leader in our model specification. This demonstrates the predictive power of leader's dependence on the follower over and above that of follower's dependence on the leader.

of abuse (i.e., the leader), and not the victim of abuse (i.e., the follower), that directly determines the extent of future abusive supervision. Based on these arguments, I focus on leader's dependence on the follower instead of follower's dependence on the leader in order to explain the change in abusive supervision in our model.

Hypothesis 3b. Leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) attenuates the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and abusive supervision (time 3), such that this relationship will be less positive when leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) is higher.

Promoting Leader's Reconciliation Following Abusive Supervision

Leader's reconciliation, defined as the leader's efforts to extend acts of goodwill toward the abused follower in hope of restoring the relationship, helps to de-escalate existing conflict and secure future cooperation (McCullough, Worthington, & Rachal, 1997; McCullough et al., 1998). Past discussion of reconciliation has placed the focus squarely on the victim (i.e., abused follower) (e.g., Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006). However, reconciliation efforts from the leader are more effective in restoring an abusive relationship compared to efforts from the follower. Whereas abused followers may readily reconcile with a leader out of the necessity to maintain a working relationship (Aquino et al., 2006), leaders are less motivated to engage in the reconciliation process if the impetus comes from the followers (Andiappan & Trevino, 2010). Yet, although a leader's effort to mend the existing strained leader-follower relationship is the most effective way to turn the relationship around, this effort is unlikely to follow naturally after abusive supervision. Indeed, the power differential between the leader and the follower affects the leader's intention and

action toward reconciliation such that the leader is more likely to seek reconciliation when he or she realizes the abused follower's importance to the leader's valued goals and resources (Tyler & DeGoey, 1996).

Approach balancing operations enable the follower to either (1) be part of a larger collective of followers (i.e., coalition formation) or (2) increase his or her instrumental value to the leader's goals and resources pursuit (i.e., value enhancement). When the follower engages in more approach balancing operations, the leader is prompted to recognize the need for future cooperation from the follower who is becoming more critical to the leader's valued goals and resources. This, in turn, increases the leader's intention to mend the strained relationship with the abused follower. For example, the follower who successfully enlists the participation of other followers in the team to form a united, coordinated front against their leader is likely to prompt the leader to reconsider the instrumental value of the follower (Emerson, 1962; Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014). Individuals are motivated to enhance working relationships that are instrumental in helping them achieve desired outcomes (Tepper et al., 2007). An important step for the leader to secure future cooperation from the abused follower is to first show reconciliation efforts (Andiappan & Trevino, 2010). When followers engage in approach balancing operations, an increased level of abusive supervision will be more likely to activate leaders' reconciliatory behaviors. In contrast, avoidance balancing operations do not significantly increase the leader's need for future cooperation with the follower. Engaging in more avoidance balancing operations will create a greater distance from the leader (Spielberg et al., 2011), and therefore, it is unlikely for the leader to seek reconciliation after abusive supervision

occurs. Thus,

Hypothesis 4a: Follower's approach balancing operations (time 1), as opposed to avoidance balancing operations (time 1), augment the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's reconciliation (time 3), such that this relationship will be more positive when follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) are higher.

Likewise, when the level of a leader's dependence on the follower is higher, the leader is more likely to show reconciliation efforts following abuse. When leader's dependence on the follower is high, the leader may experience future obstruction in pursuing his or her goals and resources because of the follower's control over leader's valued goals and resources. Following abusive supervision, the leader is motivated to seek reconciliation with the abused follower who increased the level of his or her dependence on the follower, which indicates that the follower is gaining control over the leader's valued goals and resources (Aquino et al., 2006). Similarly, when a leader's dependence on the follower is high, the leader is likely to experience a potential loss in power, causing the leader to be more vigilant and attentive to the follower (Stevens & Fiske, 2000). Overall, following abusive supervision, I predict that a higher level of leader's dependence on the follower will strengthen the likelihood of relationship restoration from the leader.

Hypothesis 4b. Leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) augments the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's reconciliation (time 3), such that this relationship will be more positive when leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) is higher.

Considering Hypotheses 2 to 4b together and prior mediated moderation studies (Edwards & Lambert, 2007), I propose a mediated moderation model. More specifically, the model suggests that leader's dependence on the follower functions as the pivotal psychological mechanism that transmits the moderating effect of follower's approach balancing operations on the two main relationships: (1) abusive supervision over time, and (2) abusive supervision and future leader's reconciliation (see Grant & Berry, 2011 for a similar mediated moderation model). That is,

Hypothesis 5a. The moderating effect of follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) on the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and abusive supervision (time 3) is explained through the mechanism of leader's dependence on the follower (time 2).

Hypothesis 5b. The moderating effect of follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) on the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's reconciliation (time 3) is explained through the mechanism of leader's dependence on the follower (time 2).

OVERVIEW OF THE TWO EMPIRICAL STUDIES

I conducted two empirical studies to examine the proposed hypotheses. First, to the best of our knowledge, there is no existing scale for balancing operations. Therefore, as a pilot to Study 1, I first develop and validate a new measure of balancing operations. In Study 1, I heed the call by abusive supervision scholars to rely on longitudinal, time-lagged designs to highlight and test the directionality of proposed effects between key variables (Lian et al., 2014; Mackey et al., in press; Martinko et al., 2013; Tepper, 2007). Thus, I adopt a three-wave panel field design to

reflect and test the dynamic relationships among the key constructs in our model (see Figure 4). Finally, in Study 2, I conduct a replication field study in a different industry employing a time-lagged research design to cross-validate our findings from Study 1. Hence, Study 2 can provide additional confidence in our proposed model.

STUDY 1: THREE-WAVE PANEL FIELD STUDY

Scale Development for Balancing Operations

Since there is no existing measure of balancing operations in the literature, I followed the standard scale development procedure (Hinkin, 1995) to develop the scale of balancing operations. First, I delved into the existing literature to create an initial item pool for balancing operations (Emerson, 1962; Farmer & Aguinis, 2005; Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014). I generated eight items for each of the four balancing operations, with a total of 32 items for the entire item pool. I then invited eight organizational behavior and industrial-organizational psychology doctoral students and a faculty who specialized in psychometrics (outside of the research team) to provide an expert content evaluation. These experts, who were unaware of the research purpose, sorted each item into the four categories and then rated each item under each category on its representativeness on a 7-point scale: 1 – “not representative at all”, 4 – “neutral”, and 7 – “fully representative”. I went on to retain items with good inter-rater agreements in the sorting (i.e., inter-rater agreement > .70; LeBreton & Senter, 2007), and those with highest average ratings in each category. Through this content evaluation process, I narrowed down to 16-items in total, with 4 items for each balancing operation.

I explored the factor structure of the newly created scale by surveying

participants via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk is an online platform used to collect high-quality data, and “the data obtained are at least as reliable as those obtained via traditional methods” (Buhrmester, Kwang, Gosling, 2011: 3). I included screening items in the survey to test the attentiveness of the participants (35 participants were dropped as a result). In the final usable sample of 286 participants, the average age was 30.6 years ($SD = 6.2$), the average work experience was 8.1 years ($SD = 2.9$), and 51.6% were in leadership positions.

Notably, I found an excellent fit for the four-factor model ($\chi^2 = 125.6$, $df = 98$, SRMR = .03, CFI = .98, TLI = .98) with all items loading strongly on their expected factors³. I then examined higher order factors to test our theoretical model of approach and avoidance balancing operations, which helps to explain the covariation among the first-order factors in a more parsimonious way (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). I found an excellent fit for the theorized two-factor second-order model (approach and avoidance balancing operations as second-order factors) with $\chi^2 = 125.6$, $df = 99$, SRMR = .03, CFI = .98, TLI = .98. In addition, the target coefficient (i.e., ratio of first-order model chi-square to second-order chi-square – Marsh & Hocevar, 1985) was 1, suggesting that the relationship among first-order factors is sufficiently captured by the second-order factors. Because of this, I concluded that the theorized second-order model fits no worse than the first-order factor model; based on the principle of model parsimony, the second-order factor model is preferred (Rindskopf & Rose, 1988). Finally, the theorized two-factor model demonstrated good discriminant validity compared to a nested two-factor second-order model with the

³ The intercorrelations among the four first-order factors are as follows: coalition formation and value enhancement, $r = .55^{**}$, $p < .01$; coalition formation and motivational withdrawal, $r = .25^*$, $p < .05$; coalition formation and network extension, $r = .30^{**}$, $p < .01$; value enhancement and motivational withdrawal, $r = .29^*$, $p < .05$; value enhancement and network extension, $r = .35^{**}$, $p < .01$; motivational withdrawal and network extension, $r = .50^{**}$, $p < .01$.

second-order factors correlated at 1 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 88$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .001$, SRMR = .06, CFI = .92; TLI = .90). Overall, these results provide support for our theorized two-factor model.

Research Setting, Design, and Sampling

To test the hypotheses, I used a sample from a real estate firm based in Beijing, China. This firm is considered to be one of the biggest in the real estate industry in China. I recruited all 245 leaders in the firm to create matched leader-follower dyads. From the employee roster of the followers under the supervision of each leader (obtained from the HR department), I randomly selected two real estate agents from each team to participate in the capacities of the follower and the co-worker. This randomization process of selecting two employees under each leader was critical for three reasons: (1) this approach helped to control for any potential biases in the selection process; (2) I reduced the survey fatigue on the leader and enhanced the quality of responses by asking the leader to rate one follower, as opposed to all his/her followers; and (3) I minimized common source bias by adopting a multi-rater approach in our study.

With the goal of fully examining the effects of time on our key constructs, I employed a three-wave panel design to test our model. A three-wave panel design involves assessing the same set of variables at three-time points, allowing researchers to specify both cross-lagged and synchronous effects of key constructs (Finkel, 1995). Following Singer and Willet's (2003) recommendation, I spaced the waves of data collection in a way to capture the meaning of these variables during these determined periods of time. Based on the discussions with senior management, I adopted a 4-

week time lag between every wave of the survey to synchronize with the monthly follower's performance review conducted by the direct leaders.

I obtained 219 matched and completed responses (consisting of leader, follower, and co-worker) across three waves, yielding a response rate of 89.4%. The good response rate was achieved because senior management strongly encouraged leaders and employees to participate in all three waves of the study. Following Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, and Stinglhamber's (2005) procedure, I did not find any significant attrition effect in terms of demographics. Leaders were 38.2 years old ($SD = 7.4$) on average and had an average of 3.05 years ($SD = 2.6$) with the firm. Followers were 35.6 years ($SD = 7.4$) and had an average of 1.9 years ($SD = 1.2$) with the firm; similarly, co-workers were 35.1 years ($SD = 7.3$) and had an average of 1.9 years ($SD = 1.1$) with the firm.

Measures

I administered these measures in the form of surveys to the respective participants (leader, follower, co-worker) for three waves. All participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." I followed the translation/ back-translation procedure to create the measures in Chinese (Brislin, 1980).

Follower's power-dependence on the leader (self-rated by the follower). In line with de Jong, Van de Vegt, and Molleman (2007), I asked the follower to evaluate his or her dependence on the leader in the past month, "how dependent are you on your direct leader for career goals (e.g., promotion, development) that you care about?" and "how dependent are you on the direct leader for materials, means,

information etc. that you care about?” For clarity, I also included the definition and examples of dependency: “In work relationships, employees are often dependent on their direct supervisors for desired goals and resources that they value (e.g., performance evaluation, promotion, information).” Reliabilities were .75, .77, and .77 for time 1, time 2, and time 3, respectively.

Leader’s power-dependence on the follower (self-rated by the leader).

Similarly, in line with de Jong et al. (2007), I asked the leader to evaluate his or her dependence on the follower in the past month, “how dependent are you on [name of focal follower] for career goals (e.g., promotion, development) that you care about?” and “how dependent are you on [name of focal follower] for materials, means, information etc. that you care about?” I also included the definition and examples of dependency for the leader. Reliabilities were .82, .76, and .75 for time 1, time 2, and time 3, respectively.

Abusive supervision (rated by a co-worker). Using the 5-item scale (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), the focal follower’s co-worker evaluated the leader’s abusive supervision toward the focal follower in the past month. An example of the item included, “My supervisor ridiculed [name of focal follower].” In the research setting, employees under the same supervisor had plenty of opportunities to observe the dynamics between other employees and the leader, and therefore, they were good candidates to rate the extent of abusive behavior occurring between the leader and a specific follower. Co-worker rating of abusive supervision also minimizes the possible common source bias, which may occur if the focal follower rates both dependency (independent variable) and abusive supervision (dependent variable).

Reliabilities were .88, .89, and .89 at time 1, time 2, and time 3, respectively.

Leader's reconciliation (self-rated by the leader). I used Aquino et al.'s (2006) 4-item scale to capture the leader's response toward the follower in the past month. An example of the item included, "I made an effort to be more concerned about [name of focal follower]." Reliabilities were .81, .81, and .80, at time 1, time 2, and time 3, respectively.

Follower's approach balancing operations (self-rated by the follower). Each follower responded to our coalition formation and value enhancement scales (see Table 1). I averaged responses on both scales to compute follower's approach balancing operations. Reliabilities for approach balancing operations were .87, .85, and .86, at time 1, time 2, and time 3, respectively.

Follower's avoidance balancing operations (self-rated by the follower). Each follower responded to our network extension and motivational withdrawal scales (see Table 1). Similarly, I averaged responses on both scales to compute follower's avoidance balancing operations. Reliabilities for avoidance balancing operations were .84, .88, and .88, at time 1, time 2, and time 3, respectively.

Controls⁴. I included leader's tenure with the follower because relationship length may influence the quality of interaction between leader and follower (Cogliser & Schriesheim, 2000).

Analytical Approach

I utilized polynomial regressions (Edwards & Cable, 2009) to test the

⁴ To rule out alternative explanations, I initially included more control variables in our analyses. These additional control variables included leader's dominance personality, follower's self-esteem, LMX, and follower's quit intention. I found that results from our analyses still hold with these control variables in the model. For the purpose of parsimony in the reporting (Becker, 2005) and also to minimize the possible issue of false-positives, I did not include these additional controls in the final statistical analysis.

symmetrical and asymmetrical effects of power-dependency on abusive supervision (Hypothesis 1). I also generated response surface modeling to reflect three-dimensional responses highlighting the effects of asymmetry on the outcome variable (Edwards & Harrison, 1993; Edwards & Parry, 1993). I regressed the dependent variable (i.e., abusive supervision, time 2) on the control variable, as well as five polynomial terms including follower's dependence on the leader (F), leader's dependence on the follower (L), follower's dependence on the leader squared (F^2), follower's dependence on the leader X leader's dependence on the follower ($F \times L$), and leader's dependence on the follower squared (L^2). Prior to the analyses, I scale-centered leader's dependence on the follower and follower's dependence on the leader by subtracting the midpoint of the scale and used these scale-centered F and L to derive the polynomial terms (Edwards, 1994). This procedure reduced multicollinearity and improved the interpretation of our results (Zhang, Wang, & Shi, 2012).

I then examined the slopes and curvature along two critical lines: the congruence line ($F = L$) and the incongruence ($F = -L$). According to Edwards and Parry (1993), in order to show evidence for an asymmetric effect on the dependent variable, the coefficients for the three second-order polynomial terms (i.e., F^2 , $F \times L$, L^2) are required to be jointly significant. In addition, the magnitude and direction of the lateral shift determines the nature of the asymmetric relationship regarding the dependent variable. To complete the test of mediated moderation, I relied on Edwards and Cable's (2009) block variable approach to combine the five polynomial terms into a weighted linear composite variable. This allows us to test the effect of

follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader without changing the estimated coefficients for other variables in the model (Heise, 1972). Finally, I estimated bias-corrected confidence intervals for the indirect effects using Monte Carlo simulations and conducted the analyses using Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2007).

In the analyses, I took full advantage of our three-wave panel design to provide a more stringent test of the predictive relationship in our model. For example, strong evidence would be provided for the predicted relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's reconciliation (time 3) if a significant path existed between these two variables when leader's reconciliation (time 2) was controlled for in the analyses (Finkel, 1995). I adopted this approach in our analyses by adding time-relevant control variables in our models. As auxiliary analyses, I used latent growth modeling to determine the trajectory of our key variable of interest, abusive supervision. I included leader's dependence on the follower and follower's dependence on the leader as two time-varying covariates to explicate the relationship between power-dependency and abusive supervision over time.

Results

Table 2 reports descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities of the variables in our model.

Measurement invariance test. I conducted a series of measurement invariance tests on the key variables: abusive supervision, approach balancing operations, avoidance balancing operations, and leader's reconciliation. Following the procedure from Chan and Schmitt (2000), I allowed the error variances of the same indicators to covary freely across the three time periods. In the analyses, the model in which the

factor loadings of the indicators to the respective time factors were freely estimated indicated good fit for the key variables, such as abusive supervision ($\chi^2 = 342.6$; $df = 88$; SRMR = .05; CFI = .94; TLI = .92), and leader's reconciliation ($\chi^2 = 210.2$; $df = 51$; SRMR = .06; CFI = .92; TLI = .91). A more constrained measurement model in which I set the factor loadings to be equal across the three time periods yielded fit as good as the less constrained model, as indicated for abusive supervision ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1.7$, $\Delta df = 8$, ns) and leader's reconciliation ($\Delta\chi^2 = 6.3$, $\Delta df = 6$, ns). These results showed that the same constructs were assessed over the three time periods.

Measurement model. I found that our hypothesized six-factor model (leader's power-dependence, follower's power-dependence, abusive supervision, leader's reconciliation, approach balancing operations, and avoidance balancing operations) was a better fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 668.6$, $df = 362$, SRMR = .05, CFI = .91, TLI = .91) than more parsimonious models: e.g., a six-factor model with the correlation between latent variables approach and avoidance balancing operations set to 1 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 533.6$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .001$, SRMR = .11, CFI = .75, TLI = .72); and a six-factor model with correlations among latent variables set to 1 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 644.4$, $\Delta df = 15$, $p < .001$, SRMR = .16, CFI = .72, TLI = .70).

Trajectories of abusive supervision over time. Table 3 summarizes the latent growth modeling of abusive supervision. Notably, on average, there was no significant increase in abusive supervision over the three time periods (average slope = .29, ns). However, I observed two significant time-varying covariates of abusive supervision. First, across the three time periods, leader's dependence on the follower was negatively related to abusive supervision (i.e., $-.33$, $p < .01$ [time 1]; $-.25$, $p < .01$

[time 2]; $-.29, p < .01$ [time 3]). On the contrary, across the three time periods, follower's dependence on the leader was positively related to abusive supervision (i.e., $.24, p < .01$ [time 1]; $.34, p < .01$ [time 2]; $.32, p < .01$ [time 3]). Put together, this provides evidence in support of the consequential effect of power-dependency on abusive supervision.

Hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 states that follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader (time 1) positively predicts abusive supervision (time 2). Table 4 highlights the estimated coefficients as well as the slopes and curvatures along both congruence and incongruence lines in predicting abusive supervision (time 2). First, the three second-order polynomial terms were jointly significant ($F = 77.2, p < .01$). Second, the curvature along the incongruence line was convex ($.31, p < .01$) and the quantity representing the lateral shift (slope) was negative ($-.83, p < .01$). The surface was curved upward along the incongruence line, suggesting that the dependent variable of abusive supervision (time 2) increased when follower's dependence was higher than leader's dependence. Supporting Hypothesis 1⁵, these results showed that only the follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader ($F > L$) positively predicted abusive supervision in time 2. Figure 5 shows the response surface graph.

Table 5 reports the regression analyses. I controlled for follower's dependence on the leader (time 2) and leader's dependence on the follower (time 1) to provide a more stringent test of our hypotheses. In support of Hypothesis 2, only follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) was positively related to leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) (Model 1: $b = .11, p < .05$). I used the moderated regression

⁵ To provide an illustration of the state of power-dependency among leader-follower dyads in the sample, I computed the proportion of dyads that represents each of the four types of power-dependency relationships: 44.9% follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader; 31.8% leader's asymmetric dependence on the follower; 13.9% mutual high dependence; and 9.4% mutual low dependence..

procedures (Aiken & West, 1999) to test Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 4a, and 4b. In support of Hypothesis 3a, a moderated regression analysis showed that abusive supervision (time 2) and follower's approach balancing operations⁶ (time 1) interacted to predict abusive supervision (time 3) (Model 4: $b = -.16, p < .05$), but there was no interactive effect of abusive supervision (time 2) and follower's avoidance balancing operations (time 1) on abusive supervision (time 3) (Model 4: $b = -.10, ns$). A simple slope test (Aiken & West, 1991) (Figure 6) indicated that abusive supervision (time 2) was less positively related to abusive supervision (time 3) at high levels ($b = .20, p < .01$) as compared to low levels of follower's approach balancing operations ($b = .43, p < .001$). In support of Hypothesis 3b, abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) interacted to predict abusive supervision (time 3) (Model 5: $b = -.25, p < .01$). A simple slope test (Figure 7) showed that abusive supervision (time 2) was less positively related to abusive supervision (time 3) at high levels of leader's dependence on the follower ($b = .13, p < .05$) as compared to low levels of leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) ($b = .45, p < .001$).

Moving to Hypothesis 4a, the moderated regression analysis revealed that abusive supervision (time 2) and follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) interacted to predict leader's reconciliation (time 3) (Model 2: $b = .17, p < .05$), and there was no significant interactive effect of abusive supervision (time 2) and follower's avoidance balancing operations (time 1) on leader's reconciliation (time 3) (Model 2: $b = .05, ns$). A simple slope test (Figure 8) showed that abusive supervision (time 2) was more positively related to leader's reconciliation (time 3) at high levels

⁶ I conducted supplementary analyses to examine whether each of the two approach balancing operations (coalition formation and value enhancement) was similarly related to leader's dependence on the follower, and similarly moderated the relationships of abusive supervision and leader's reconciliation. I found that the findings from each approach balancing operation separately were consistent with our reported findings from the combined approach balancing operations.

($b = .29, p < .01$) as compared to low levels of follower's approach balancing operations ($b = .04, ns$). Taking the same approach, I found that abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) interacted to predict leader's reconciliation (time 3) (Model 3: $b = .18, p < .05$). These results supported Hypothesis 4b. I then proceeded to conduct a simple slope test (Figure 9), which revealed that abusive supervision (time 2) was more positively related to leader's reconciliation (time 3) at high levels ($b = .24, p < .01$) than low levels of leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) ($b = -.02, ns$).

I followed the moderated path analysis procedures highlighted by Edwards and Lambert (2007) to test Hypotheses 5a and 5b. I computed the indirect effect by calculating the reduced-form equation for the product of (1) the path from follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) to leader's dependence on the follower (time 2), and (2) the path from the interaction of abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) to abusive supervision (time 3) or leader's reconciliation (time 3). By constructing bias-corrected confidence intervals (20,000 samples [Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006]), I found that the indirect effect of follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) via leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) on the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and abusive supervision (time 3) was $-.06$, 95% CI $[-.13, -.02]$. Hypothesis 5a was supported. Following the same procedure, I found that the indirect effect of follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) via leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) on the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's reconciliation (time 3) was $.14$, 95% CI $[.02, .20]$. Hypothesis 5b was supported.

Auxiliary Analyses. I ran structural equation models to cross-verify our theoretical predictions on the relationship between follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader and abusive supervision in the subsequent time period. Table 6 presents the path coefficients of our structural equation models based on three-wave data. Notably, the block variable in time 1 (i.e., follower's asymmetric dependence on leader) was positively related to abusive supervision in time 2 ($\beta = .30, p < .05$), and the block variable in time 2 was also positively related to abusive supervision in time 3 ($\beta = .57, p < .01$). Furthermore, the reverse paths (i.e., abusive supervision predicting block variables in the subsequent time period) were not significant. These results ruled out reverse causation and validated the causality argument for Hypothesis 1. I also tested the relationship between leader's reconciliation and abusive supervision to explore the alternative explanation of moral cleansing⁷ (Sachdeva, Iliev, & Medin, 2009). The alternative path of leader's reconciliation predicting abusive supervision (e.g., leader's reconciliation [time 1] to abusive supervision [time 2], $\beta = -.02, ns$) and the reverse alternative path of abusive supervision predicting leader's reconciliation (e.g., abusive supervision [time 2] to leader's reconciliation [time 3], $\beta = -.001, ns$) were not significant. In addition, there was no direct effect of abusive supervision in time 2 on leader's reconciliation in time 3 (Model 3: $\beta = .11, ns$). Therefore, given that our data did not show a significant direct path from abusive supervision to leader's reconciliation or vice versa, I did not find support for the alternative explanation that a leader engages in reconciliatory behaviors following abusive behaviors so as to accrue moral license to behave immorally.

STUDY 2: REPLICATION STUDY

Research Setting and Sampling

I conducted a replication study using an entirely different sample in a different industry to extend the confidence and generalizability of our findings. I used a time-lagged, three-wave research design in this replication study. Since Study 1 already incorporated the complex panel design that was well suited to address the temporal and causality issues relating to our model, I made three improvements in our replication study: (1) I addressed the limitation of our two-item measure of power-dependence in Study 1, (2) I increased the interval between every data point to 6 weeks (as compared to 4 weeks in Study 1) to provide evidence of the robustness of our findings across time intervals, and (3) I sampled a different industry (banking) from Study 1 (real estate). I collected data from one of the largest commercial banks in China and recruited the sample from the branch office based in Beijing, China. In all, I obtained 363 matched and completed responses (369 followers and 124 leaders) across three waves⁸. The senior management offered strong support for this study, which led to a response rate of 98%. Similarly, I did not find any significant attrition effect (Bentein et al., 2005). The average age of the followers was 35.4 years ($SD = 7.5$) with an average of 2.5 years ($SD = 2.0$) at the firm.

Measures and Analytical Approach

I used the same set of measures from Study 2, except for the power-dependence measure. To address the limitations of our two-item measure of power-dependence in Study 1, I added two new items for goal dependency (“how reliant are

⁸ I found that there were no significant between-leader variances in the outcome variables (e.g., abusive supervision at time 3, $F(123, 239) = 1.25, ns$).

you on the direct leader/this follower for career goals that you care about” and “how much do you count on your direct leader/this follower for career goals that are important to you”) and two new items for resource dependency (“how reliant are you on your direct leader/this follower for critical resources [e.g., materials, means, information etc.] you need in order to make progress in your work” and “how much do you count on your direct leader/this follower for resources [e.g., materials, means, information etc.] you need in order to carry out your work adequately”). As such, the power-dependence measure in Study 2 comprised of 6-items. Unlike Study 1, the abusive supervision measure was self-reported by the followers in Study 2. I followed Study 1’s analytical approaches to test our hypotheses.

Results

Table 7 reports descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities of the variables in our model. Similarly, in testing the measurement model, I found that our hypothesized six-factor model was a better fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 1159$, $df = 614$, SRMR = .06, CFI = .91, TLI = .90) than more parsimonious models: e.g., a six-factor model with correlation between latent variables approach and avoidance balancing operations set to 1 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 59.2$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .001$, SRMR = .13, CFI = .89, TLI = .88); and a six-factor model with all correlations among latent variables set to 1 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1762.36$, $\Delta df = 15$, $p < .001$, SRMR = .21, CFI = .62, TLI = .59).

In support of Hypothesis 1, Table 8 highlights the estimated coefficients as well as the slopes and curvatures along both congruence and incongruence lines in predicting abusive supervision (time 2). Similarly, the three second-order polynomial terms were jointly significant $F = 12.52$, $p < .01$, curvature along the incongruence

line was convex ($.39, p < .01$) and finally, the lateral shift (slope) was negative ($-.34, p < .01$). Hypothesis 1⁹ was supported (see Figure 10 for the response surface graph).

Table 9 reports the results of the regression analyses for Study 2¹⁰. In support of Hypothesis 2, only follower's approach, as opposed to avoidance, balancing operations (time 1) were positively related to leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) (Model 1: $b = .26, p < .01$). I found support for Hypothesis 3a: abusive supervision (time 2) and follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) interacted to predict abusive supervision (time 3) (Model 4: $b = -.26, p < .01$). There was no interactive effect of abusive supervision (time 2) and follower's avoidance balancing operations (time 1) on abusive supervision (time 3) (Model 4: $b = .02, ns$). In addition, a simple slope test indicated that abusive supervision (time 2) was less positively related to abusive supervision (time 3) at high levels ($b = .12, p < .05$) as compared to low levels of follower's approach balancing operations ($b = .55, p < .001$). Abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) interacted to predict abusive supervision (time 3) (Model 5: $b = -.08, p < .05$), therefore supporting Hypothesis 3b. Similarly, a simple slopes test revealed that abusive supervision (time 2) was less positively related to abusive supervision (time 3) at high levels ($b = .14, p < .05$), as compared to low levels, of follower's approach balancing operations ($b = .33, p < .01$).

Supporting Hypothesis 4a, abusive supervision (time 2) and follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) interacted to predict leader's reconciliation

⁹ Similar to Study 1, I computed the proportion of dyads that represents each of the four types of power-dependency relationships: 58.2% follower's asymmetric dependence on the leader; 26.9% leader's asymmetric dependence on the follower; 10.4% mutual high dependence; and 4.5% mutual low dependence).

¹⁰ The interaction effect results for Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 4a, and 4b were consistent with the results from Study 1. Therefore, I did not include the interaction plots for Study 2.

(time 3) (Model 2: $b = .33, p < .05$), whereas there was no significant interactive effect of abusive supervision (time 2) and follower's avoidance balancing operations (time 1) on leader's reconciliation (time 3) (Model 2: $b = .28, ns$). A simple slope test indicated that abusive supervision (time 2) was more positively related to leader's reconciliation (time 3) at high levels ($b = .23, p < .01$) as compared to low levels of follower's approach balancing operations ($b = .04, ns$). In support of Hypothesis 4b, abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) interacted to predict leader's reconciliation (time 3) (Model 3: $b = .15, p < .05$). Accordingly, a simple slopes test revealed that abusive supervision (time 2) was more positively related to leader's reconciliation (time 3) at high levels ($b = .30, p < .001$), as compared to low levels, of leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) ($b = .03, ns$).

In support of Hypothesis 5a, the indirect effect of follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) via leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) on the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and abusive supervision (time 3) was $-.59$, 95% CI $[-.97, -.21]$. Similarly, supporting Hypothesis 5b, the indirect effect of follower's approach balancing operations (time 1) via leader's dependence on the follower (time 2) on the relationship between abusive supervision (time 2) and leader's reconciliation (time 3) was $.91$, 95% CI $[.52, 1.3]$. Overall, the findings from Studies 1 and 2 converged.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Extending the theoretical model from Essay 1, I bring a fresh perspective to the ubiquitous phenomenon of abusive supervision in the workplace. By integrating

the power-dependency framework, I provide (1) a more in-depth explanation of when and how power predicts abusive behaviors, (2) a different narrative of the follower's agency in employing approach balancing operations as coping strategies to break the spiral of abuse. Essay 2 highlights the efficacy of follower-centric strategies, in the form of balancing operations, to protect the abused follower from future abuse and to pave the way for meaningful relationship restoration initiated by the abusive leader.

This research has several limitations, which may open up a series of interesting research directions. For example, I did not study the leader's strategies to counter the impact of the follower's balancing operations. Previous research suggests that the potential loss of power may cause leaders with dominant personality to perceive talented followers as threats to their power (Mead & Maner, 2010). It is possible for the leader to engage in a battle with the follower who is utilizing balancing operations to change the state of power-dependency. I encourage researchers to examine this potential power conflict between the leader and the follower.

Second, this research focused on dyadic relations. Future studies can consider the effects of power-dependency within the team with multiple followers under a leader. Followers are also influenced by the leader's treatment of other team members (Lau & Liden, 2008). Hence, researchers can explore the impact of a team leader's patterns of power-dependency toward multiple followers.

Third, it is valuable to identify the antecedents and contingencies that may influence the follower's use of balancing operations. For example, followers often accept their subordinated positions because of the leader's power legitimacy (Jost &

Banaji, 1994; Martorana, Galinsky, & Rao, 2005). Legitimacy is a key social process that explains the persistence and stability of power in social phenomena (Berger, Ridgeway, Fisek, & Norman, 1998) and shapes one's willingness to voluntarily defer to the power imbalance (Tyler, 1997). I posit that followers are more inclined to engage in balancing operations when they "redefine the situation [state of power-dependency] as illegitimate" (Kelman & Hamilton, 1989: 139). Future research can investigate how contextual factors might influence the follower's engagement in balancing operations. In addition, future studies can shed light on the follower's choice of balancing operations. For example, in light of event system theory (Morgeson, Mitchell, & Liu, 2015), how will individual differences such as self-efficacy and locus of control interact with organizational events to predict the follower's use of different balancing operations?

Fourth, prior studies on moral self-regulation indicate that people may engage in compensatory behaviors when their moral self-worth has been threatened (Sachdeva et al., 2009). For example, individuals tend to engage in more prosocial behaviors after experiencing a decrease in moral self-worth. Although I was able to address this alternative explanation in our auxiliary analyses for Study 1, I encourage future research to further investigate when moral licensing and cleansing may come into play in the context of abusive supervision.

Fifth, I tested the model with two independent studies (Studies 1 and 2) based in China. Since I was able to find support for our theory in two Chinese samples with high power distance, I expect to find similar, or slightly weaker support in a sample with lower power distance. The logic for this prediction is that in a context with high

power distance, followers are likely to choose less confrontation coping strategies that still maintain contact with their leaders (i.e., approach balancing operations).

Interestingly, I expect followers in low power distance context to experience less constraint in their choice of balancing operations (i.e., approach and avoidance balancing operations) and as a result, followers may choose to engage in both types of balancing operations.

Chapter 4: Are you Political? Impact of Political Skill On Success of Coalition Formation (Essay 3)

The organizational setting is largely considered to be a political arena (Mintzberg, 1985; Pfeffer, 1981). The idea is that although an individual's performance, competence, and career success are determined in part by one's intellect and diligence, other political factors such as social astuteness and positioning, also contribute to one's success in the workplace (Ferris et al., 2007; Luthans, Hodgetts, & Rosenkrantz, 1988; Mintzberg, 1983). Because of this political nature of organizational life, scholars regard political skill as one of the most important social competence necessary for individuals to adapt and shape work environments (e.g., Ferris, Treadway, Brouer, & Munyon, 2012). Political skill is defined as "the ability to effectively understand others to act in a way that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ferris et al., 2005, p. 127).

Being politically skilled in an organization is regarded as an important predictor of an individual's success in one's influence effort (Ferris et al., 2007). Political skill ability involves social astuteness (i.e., observing and attuning to the workplace interpersonal interactions), interpersonal influence (i.e., adapting one's behaviors in a way that elicit desired responses from others across different situations), networking ability (i.e., identifying and developing social networks), and apparent sincerity (i.e., perceived to be authentic and having high integrity by others) (Ferris et al., 2005). Political skill underscores an individual's competence in terms of coping with and leveraging politics in the workplace (Shi, Johnson, Liu, & Mo,

2013). Along this line of research, I concur that political skill is a critical personal attribute that facilitates the success of agentic behavior in organizations (Ferris et al., 2012). In particular, I propose that political skill will influence the success of a follower's balancing operation in shaping the state of power-dependency in the dyad.

Guided by the intent of developing a more focused test of this idea, I propose to focus on coalition formation coping strategy in this essay. There are several reasons for this decision. First, building on the findings of approach balancing operations (i.e., coalition formation and value enhancement) from Essay 2, coalition formation, which is a form of primary control, is a more complicated strategy compared to value enhancement because the former involves changing the external relations with other followers. Therefore, this focus on coalition formation should shed light on the intricate processes behind this strategy. Second, compared to the other balancing operations, coalition formation has more established research paradigm (e.g., Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010; Michener, Fleishman, & Vaske, 1976; Urruti & Miller, 1984) that will allow me to take a closer examination of this strategy in the leader-follower context.

Interestingly, despite the prominence of political skill in predicting work behaviors, there has been little or no example of how an individual's level of political skill can be enhanced. Political skill is considered as a pattern of social competencies (Ferris et al., 2007), and therefore, is malleable. As such, an individual should be able to train or develop his or her level of political skill. In this essay, I seek to develop and test an effective intervention to help individuals enhance their existing political skill ability (see Figure 11).

Effects of Political Skill on Coalition Formation

Coalition formation is a strategy for the focal follower to rally other followers to coordinate their behaviors in a way that constrain the exchange of resources or goals important to the leader (Gargiulo & Ertug, 2014). Since the success of coalition formation is largely dependent on the focal follower's ability to convince and persuade other followers in the team to form a collective unit against the leader, political skill should have consequential effects on the efficacy of coalition formation.

Political skill is defined as “the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives” (Ferris et al., 2005, p. 127). The literature further delineates four key dimensions of political skill: one, social astuteness related to one's sensitivity to others and understanding of social interactions (Pfeffer, 1992); two, interpersonal influence relates to one's ability to adapt and calibrate behaviors to different situations so as to elicit the desired responses from others (Pfeffer, 1992); three, networking ability relates to the extent of creating and taking advantage of opportunities through contacts (Pfeffer, 1992); and four, apparent sincerity relates to the extent the individual's behavior is not interpreted as manipulative or coercive (Jones, 1990). Because of this enhanced cognitive capability to effectively interpret social cues and behavioral flexibility to generate situation-specific behaviors (Ferris et al., 2005), politically skillful individuals are expected to achieve better outcomes (Sun & Van Emmerik, 2014).

In the context of coalition formation, I propose the follower with a higher level of political skill will be more likely to be successful with his or her attempt at

forming coalition with other followers in the team. There are two main reasons supporting my prediction. First, a critical step in coalition formation is for the focal follower to successfully convince the other followers to present a unified front against the leader in order to increase the leader's dependence on the follower. A follower with higher level of political skill will possess social astuteness to develop a more precise and detailed understanding of the social situation with the other followers (Munyon et al., 2013). Similarly, higher level of political skill is likely to elevate the follower's ability to create a common goal or purpose that will unite the followers and galvanize the collective group to pressurize the leader (Ferris et al., 2005; Munyon et al., 2013).

Second, another critical step in coalition formation is for other followers to perceive the focal follower's intention as sincere. Influence strategies, including coalition formation, that are perceived by the targets (e.g., other followers) to be sincere are more likely to be received positively, and as a result, likely to be successful (e.g., Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007). A follower with higher level of political skill is more likely to calibrate his or her coalition formation strategy in a way that conveys subtlety and genuineness (Ferris et al., 2012), which then directly translates to greater likelihood of success.

Hypothesis 1: A follower with higher (lower) level of political skill is more likely to be more (less) successful in translating intention of coalition formation to actual outcome.

Study 1: Political Skill Intervention

Study 1 Method

Participants. Two hundred and eighteen participants completed a laboratory experiment at a Mid-Atlantic university-affiliated behavioral laboratory for course credit. On average, participants were 21.4 years old ($SD = 4.57$), had an average of 2.3 years of working experience ($SD = 1.3$), and 56.4% were male.

Design and Procedure. I employed a pretest-posttest experimental design with a control condition (Campbell et al., 1963). In this study, participants were randomly assigned to two conditions: experiment (with political skill intervention) and control (alternative task). In both conditions, participants received instructions that they would be partaking in a salary negotiation exercise. To maintain the participant's level of engagement in the study, the following information was emphasized, "Salary negotiation is an important predictor of career success – research has shown that individuals who are good at salary negotiation are more likely to advance their careers more effectively and are more likely to experience greater satisfaction at work, compared to those who lack such abilities."

The participant was asked to assume the role of a follower, who was considering a salary increment from his or her direct leader. Each participant received information packets containing the context background (e.g., information on the participant's achievement, team member's interaction with the leader, organizational chart). The participant was told that he or she was a member of a product development team and they report directly to the team leader, Matthew. The participant has been with the organization for a year and made several contributions in the past year, including working with other team members on the development of a new product and working as a product tester in a cross-collaboration team headed by

another team leader. The team leader, Matthew, valued Derek's, one of the team members, opinion the most because of his technical expertise.

After reading this information, the participants were asked to indicate their level of political skill (pretest). Participants were then randomly assigned to either the experimental condition (political skill training) or the control condition (alternative task). Upon completion of the political skill training/alternative task, the participants were tasked to write an email to the leader stating their case for a salary increment. Participants were asked to indicate the level of their intention to write another email to someone else in the organization and then proceed to write the email. To conclude the study, participants were asked to indicate their level of political skill (posttest).

Political Skill Intervention. To date, there are no political skill interventions in the literature. I design the political skill manipulation for this study based on existing research protocol on related skills (e.g., perspective-taking – Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2001; negotiation skill – Nadler, Thompson, Van Boevn, 2003; networking skill – De Janasz & Forret, 2007). In addition, I followed the recommended procedures in these studies (e.g., using two different scenarios – position and negative examples, using short vignettes and debriefs) to create the political skill intervention. Specifically, based on existing training protocol (Ferris et al., 2002), I introduced the participants to a negative vignette and then a positive vignette. Since the development of one's active empathic listening enhances the individual's level of social astuteness, apparent sincerity, and interpersonal influence (Comer & Drollinger, 1999), I included examples of active empathic listening in the positive vignette.

First, the participant assigned to the experiment condition read a negative example – “Picture John who is in a similar situation as you. John is dependent on his leader, Patrick, to achieve his valued goal of a high salary increment. Going into the negotiation, John did not think through the leader’s possible considerations, and circumstances regarding the salary increment. Because of this, John was not able to adjust his behavior to allow him to bring about a more favorable negotiation outcome with the leader. In the end John failed to attain his valued goal of a high salary increment.” Then, the participant would respond to the first open-ended question - “After reading John’s plight, what are some of the circumstances that you should pay attention to before entering the negotiation? Think of the possible considerations from the leader, particularly in terms of the leader’s dependence on John.” The second open-ended question was “What are the different ways in which you could take advantage of your circumstances to achieve your desired goal? Think about the different ways in which you could take advantage of your circumstances to achieve your valued goal.”

Second, the participant would read a positive example – “If John could go back in time, he would approach the salary negotiation differently. First, John would carefully examine his immediate social environment and try to understand the motivations and behaviors of his leader. For example, John would observe the leader’s interaction with other followers in the team to determine what are the resources and goals that are important to the leader. Second, John would change and adapt his communication style to the context in a way that put the leader at ease and promote a positive response from the leader. For example, John would listen

attentively to the leader and try to understand the leader's underlying meaning by putting himself in the position of the leader. Third, John would develop his existing network in a way that strengthens his position to receive and generate opportunities. For example, John would examine his current relationship with the other followers in the team and also with other leaders outside of the team to build alliance with these valued partners”

Alternative Task for Control Condition. I included a separate task for participants assigned to the control condition. The structure of the task was equivalent to the political skill intervention (i.e., negative followed by positive vignette); instead, the participants were asked about the performance of a stand-up comedian.

Study 1 Measures

Participants indicated their responses to the following measures on a seven-point scale from 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much).

Political skill. Participants provided self-rating on their level of political skill using a six-item scale (Ferris et al., 1999). Although this scale is shorter compared to the 18-item inventory, this concise six-item scale adequately captures the four components of political skill (Ahearn et al., 2004; Shi et al., 2013). Sample items are “I am good at getting others to respond positively to me” and “I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me”.

Intention for coalition formation. Participants responded to this question, “to what extent do you intend to reach out to other follower in the team after sending the email to the leader?”

Success of coalition formation. I recruited two managers from an international organization to evaluate the effectiveness of the email written by the participant in terms of convincing the other follower (i.e., Derek) to form a coalition. The inter-rater agreement between the two raters were strong, $rwg = .87$. I averaged the two evaluations to arrive at an overall score of effectiveness.

Manipulation checks. I assessed the efficacy of the political skill training in multiples ways. First, there was no significant difference in political skill (pre) for participants in both experimental and control conditions (experimental: $M = 4.80$, $SD = 1.45$, control: $M = 4.83$, $SD = .1.50$; $F(1, 216) = .02$, ns). This indicated that the participants across the two conditions started with comparable level of political skill. Second, there was a significant difference in political skill (post) for participants in both conditions (experimental: $M = 6.00$, $SD = .76$. control: $M = 4.80$, $SD = .1.50$; $F(1, 216) = 56.0$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .21$). This finding demonstrated the efficacy of the political skill training. Third, a repeated measures ANOVA revealed that the increase in political skill from pre to post was significantly higher for participants who were assigned to the experimental condition compared to those assigned to the control condition, $F(1, 216) = 43.5$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .17$).

Study 1 Results

First, as Table 10 indicates, while controlling for political skill (pre), political skill intervention positively predicted political skill (post), $\beta = 1.22$, $p < .01$. In addition, there was a significant main effect of political skill (post) on the effectiveness of coalition formation, $\beta = .43$, $p < .01$. This suggests that individuals with higher level of political skills are likely to be more effective at forming coalition.

Similarly, there was a significant interaction between intention for coalition formation and political skill (post) on effectiveness of coalition formation, $\beta = .15, p < .01$. A simple slope test (Cohen et al., 2003) revealed that intention for coalition formation was positively related to effectiveness of coalition formation only in the presence of higher political skill (+1 *SD*) ($\beta = .42, p < .01$) and not in the presence of lower political skill (-1 *SD*) ($\beta = -.04, ns$). The interaction plot is provided in Figure 12. As such, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

The purpose of Study 1 is to design and test the political skill intervention. The findings showed that the intervention enhanced participants' level of political skill. In addition, the findings suggested that those with higher level of political skills were more effective in creating coalition. However, I did not test the actual behavior of coalition formation in a team. This leaves open the possibility that the political skill intervention might not lead to a significant behavioral change. To address these limitations in Study 1, I proceed to design another high-involvement laboratory study with specific roles (i.e., leader, follower A, follower B) that reflect the realism of coalition formation in the workplace.

Study 2: Impact of Political Skill

Study 2 Method

Participants. One hundred and sixty participants completed a laboratory experiment at a Mid-Atlantic university-affiliated behavioral laboratory for course credit and monetary rewards (performance-based). For this experiment, the participants were randomly group in groups of two (total of 80 groups). In each group, the participants were randomly assigned to the role of Follower A and

Follower B. They were told that another participant was assigned the role of the Leader and would be joining the group later. Leader and Follower A were mutually dependent (both participants were informed that they depended on each other for their valued goals and resources) while Follower B was asymmetrically dependent on Leader.

Eighty participants were assigned to the role of Follower B. Since the unit of analysis was Follower B (i.e., the weaker party), a total of 80 samples were in the analyses. Of which, 47.5% were male, the average age was 21.3 years old ($SD = 2.0$), and they had an average of 2.76 years of working experience ($SD = 2.1$).

Design and Procedure. Participants arrived at the laboratory in groups of two. Each session was one-hour long. The experimenter explained that the study was about team interaction with three rounds of different activities. In reality, the experiment would inform the participants that there was not sufficient time to proceed with the study after the first round of activity. To incentivize the participants, the experimenter emphasized that the leader with the best performance and the top five followers with the best performance would be awarded \$10 each. The incentive for the follower was awarded to the top 5 rather than the top performing follower so as to minimize the possible effect of competition between Follower A and Follower B in each group.

The experimenter then handed out specific scripts on the background information of each role to the participants. For example, the script for Follower B stated that Follower A and B's performance in round 1 and 3 were important to the Leader such that a high performance from the followers would increase the Leader's chances of becoming the best performing leader. In round 2, however, both Follower

A and B's goal (to be top 5 ranked follower) were solely dependent on the Leader's decision. In addition, the script indicated that Follower A "would receive specific training that will be beneficial to the Leader's goal. The Leader is aware of Follower A's contribution to the Leader's goal. At this point, the Leader and Follower A are unsure of your contribution to the leader's goal." Therefore, participants who were randomly assigned the role of Follower B understood that the nature of power dynamics within the team.

Once the participant read the scripts, the experimenter provided a list of questions to the group for them to take turns asking and answering these questions in the next three minutes. The list of questions was derived from the Relationship Closeness Induction Task (RCIT) with the purpose of inducing relationship closeness among the three participants (Sedikides, Campbell, Reader, Elliot, 1999).

Next, the experimenter directed the participants to the respective computers to complete the first survey. The participants were told that there were some individual tasks for them to complete.

Training for Follower A. Only Follower A received the training that would help his or her performance in the task in round 1 and 3. Follower A was told that the task would involve solving anagrams and he or she was the only person who knew about the task. The training included strategies for solving anagram (e.g., the key letters in any particular grouping tend to be consonants. When the number of vowels is small, it is more likely that consonant combinations will occur – PR-, SP-, and STR-). In addition, 11 solutions to the anagrams were revealed to Follower A, and it

was stated that if Follower A remembered these solutions, he or she would likely receive at least 11 points in round 1 and round 3 of the activities.

Political skill manipulation for Follower B (experimental condition). I administered the same political skill intervention explained in Study 1.

Alternative Task for Follower A and Follower B (in control condition). In order not create suspicion (i.e., Follower B in experimental group taking long time to complete the first survey because of political skill intervention), I included the same alternative task for control condition in Study 1.

Before start of round 1 (Anagrams). Once the participants completed the first, the experimenter directed them back to main table in the laboratory. The experimenter announced, “For this particular round, the two Followers will work on solving anagrams. The Followers’ performance is important to the Leader’s goal. Every correctly solved puzzle will be added to the Leader’s score. The Followers will have three minutes to complete as many anagrams as possible. The points you earn in round 1 and round 3 will also count towards your performance. Therefore, the more point you receive will also increase your chances of becoming the top 5 Follower. Follower A has received training that will be beneficial to the performance. The Leader will not be solving the anagram. The Leader will be informed of the performance. Before the start of round 1, the Followers will have 5 minutes to discuss how the both of you plan to approach the task.” Despite having the training was beneficial to task performance, Follower A would still enjoy the advantage of forming a coalition with the weaker party, Follower B. The reason is that there is limited time for one individual to complete all the anagram puzzles and since there is

an incentive for the top five performing followers, Follower B would benefit from the assistance from Follower A.

Round 1 (Anagrams). Once the participants completed their discussion, the experimenter then distributed 30 to them. They were given two minutes to solve the anagrams. Once the time was up, the experimenter picked up the solution sheets and scored their performance. The experimenter then announced that the participant assigned the role of the leader was unable to turn up for the study. Instead, the participants were asked to complete another round of survey before the completion of the study.

Study 2 Measures

Intention for Coalition Formation. In the first survey, Follower B was asked about his or her intention for coalition formation, using the same item from Study 1.

Coalition Formation. The experimenter who observed the interaction between Follower A and Follower B before the start of the anagram task indicated whether Follower A agreed to form a coalition upon the request from Follower B (Yes/No).

Perception of Follower B's Political Skill. Follower A was asked to evaluate Follower's B in survey 2 using the same six-item political skill scale in Study 1.

Manipulation checks. I assessed the efficacy of the political skill intervention by asking participants assigned to the role of Follower B to self-report their level of political skill before receiving the intervention (or alternative task for those assigned to control condition) and after completing the intervention (or alternative task for those assigned to control condition). First, there was no significant difference in political skill prior to the intervention for participants in experimental and control

conditions (experimental: $M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.34$, control: $M = 4.50$, $SD = .1.51$; $F(1, 79) = .003$, *ns*). Second, there was a significant difference in political skill following the intervention (experimental: $M = 5.83$, $SD = .80$, control: $M = 4.65$, $SD = 1.63$; $F(1, 79) = 16.8$, $p > .01$, $\eta^2 = .18$). Finally, a repeated measures ANOVA revealed that the increase in political skill from before and after the intervention was significantly higher for participants assigned to the experimental condition compared to those assigned to the control condition, $F(1, 78) = 24.7$, $p > .01$, $\eta^2 = .24$.

Study 2 Results

I first examined the effect of political skill intervention on the Follower A perception of Follower B's political skill. The results showed that political skill intervention positively predicted perception of political skill, $\beta = 2.10$, $p > .001$. Consistent with the findings from Study 1, the political skill intervention created a significant increase in participants' level of political skill.

I then tested the interaction effect of intention for coalition formation and perception of political skill on the success of coalition formation. Since the dependent variable, success of coalition formation, is a binary variable (i.e., yes or no), I proceeded to test the model using logistic regression (see Table 11). The interaction term was significant and positively predicted success of coalition formation, $\beta = .57$, $p < .01$. The simple slopes test indicated that at higher level of political skill (+1 SD), $\beta = .27$, $p < .01$, the odds of successful coalition formation is increased compared to at lower level of political skill (-1 SD), $\beta = .07$, *ns* (see Figure 13). Put together, these findings were consistent with those from Study 1 and supported Hypothesis 1.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

In Essay 3, I demonstrated how political skill elevates the success of follower's coalition formation strategy. The integration of the political skill literature to the discussion on the state of power imbalance directly answers the question of how follower may enhance the efficacy of his or her balancing operations through political skill ability.

There are several limitations in the design of the two studies. First, I did not capture other types of balancing operations. In Essay 3, I take the first step to investigate the effect of political skill on coalition formation. I encourage future research to take a more comprehensive study on balancing operations.

Second, I did not capture the effects of coalition formation from the leader's perspective. Accordingly, a successful coalition formation by the follower should lead to a significant increase in the leader's dependence on the follower. Therefore, it is important for future research to investigate and test the temporal effects of coalition formation on key outcomes (i.e., interpersonal and power dynamics).

Finally, in terms of the design of the intervention, I incorporated different components in the program. As a result, it might be difficult to see if one component is driving the effects more than other. I encourage future research to disentangle these components in order to determine their independent, unique effects on political skill.

Chapter 5: Overall Discussion

Theoretical Implications

This dissertation generates three central theoretical contributions. First, in Essay 1, I reconcile the contrasting perspectives on power by developing a dependency-risk model to explain the follower's decision process in the face of power imbalance. The question of whether the nature of power is stable or dynamic in the leader-follower dyad masks the complexity behind the follower's intricate decision process on whether to engage in coping strategies to challenge the current state of power-dependency. This essay shifts the focus of the research to resolve the follower's competing tensions between the concern of self-protection and concern of connectedness. In doing so, the proposed dependency-risk model adds to the power literature by creating consensus on the nature of power-dependency in several important ways. For example, the model provides a fine-grained perspective to explain why the follower may be motivated to change the existing state of power-dependency with the leader. Given the limited literature of followership (Carsten et al., 2010; Sy, 2010), this discussion enriches existing leadership theories and perspectives by highlighting the agentic role of followers. Notably, while the path-goal theory is a dyadic theory of supervision (House, 1996), the theory focuses exclusively on the impact of the leader's behavior in shaping the course of the follower's goal pursuit. As such, the path-goal theory neglects the agentic role of the follower in shaping his or her own goal pursuits. This research makes a significant extension to the path-goal theory by explaining follower-centric strategies to challenge the state of power-dependency that is disadvantageous to the follower.

Going further, Essay 1 makes significant headway in the explanation and understanding of balancing operations. These strategies are fundamental to our discussion of power-dependency because they represent the follower's coping mechanisms to manage the state of power-dependency in the workplace. The proposed two-by-two typology of approach/avoidance motivation and personal control articulate the psychological underpinning of each balancing operation and create an opportunity to discuss the temporal consequences of each balancing operation on interpersonal and power dynamics. Interestingly, while some balancing operations may yield short-term effectiveness in rebalancing the state of power-dependency, the same balancing operations may lead to costly long-term consequences, including possible retaliation from the leader. As such, Essay 1 answers the call by organizational scholars (e.g., George & Jones, 2000; Mitchell & James, 2001) to qualify how the concept of time may affect the relationship between two constructs. This discussion on the temporal consequences of balancing operations will not only contribute to a deeper understanding of how follower's actions may shape the state of power dynamics at the theoretical level, but also shed light to the complex, iterative power tussle that happens in the workplace between the leader and follower.

Second, Essay 2 adds to the abusive supervision research by highlighting the unique functioning of the follower's balancing operations. Current studies on abusive supervision tend to focus on the follower's strategies that focused on coping with the consequences of abusive supervision (e.g., Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Tepper et al., 2007; Tepper et al., 2015). In Essay 2, I demonstrate that approach balancing

operations, which are understudied in the extant literature, represent coping strategies that directly address the issue of power imbalance in the dyad – a key factor behind the persistence of abusive supervision over time (Tepper et al., 2009). By showing how and why followers can rely on approach balancing operations to break the spiral of abuse, I challenge the current portrait of the follower as someone who is often defenseless in the face of abusive supervision. Our discussion of balancing operations offers a refreshing view of the follower as someone who can be agentic, strategic, and resourceful in the face of abusive supervision. Going further, this research also elevates the limited development and understanding of balancing operations in the literature by integrating the approach/avoidance motivation framework to show the differential effects of balancing operations. I hope that this approach-avoidance distinction of balancing operations, together with our developed scale, will encourage the proliferation of research on these unique follower coping strategies.

Approach balancing operations also equip the follower with the strategy to turn the abusive relationship around over time. There has not been much attention on follower-centric strategies that effectively break the repeated cycle of abusive supervision (Simon et al., 2015). While the strategy of quit intention (Tepper et al., 2009) might allow the abused follower to escape from the abusive relationship, this strategy does not provide much respite for followers who are still keen to stay in the organization. The effectiveness of relationship restoration following abuse is higher if the leader takes the first step to making amendments (Andiappan & Trevino, 2010). Unfortunately, leader's effort to mend strained leader-follower relationships does not follow naturally after abuse (Andiappan & Trevino, 2010; Aquino et al., 2006). These

findings suggest that only when the leader realizes that the abused follower can be instrumental to his or her future attainment of valued goals and resources, is the leader then motivated to seek reconciliation. Because of these reasons, followers who engage in approach balancing operations are able to promote their leaders' reconciliation efforts following abusive supervision.

Despite the call from numerous scholars to examine the upward impact of follower behaviors on leaders (Popper, 2011; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014), there has not been substantial progress in this area of research. Even when followers are featured in the theorizing, more often than not, these studies concentrate on leadership behaviors directing downward toward followers (e.g., shared leadership, self-leadership, path-goal theory), instead of followership behaviors directing upward toward leaders. A followership perspective helps to “reverse the lens” (Shamir, 2007) by highlighting the role of the followers in creating and maintaining effective and functional leader-follower relationships. In particular, the discussion of balancing operations in Essay 2 enriches this conversation by showing both theoretically and empirically how followers are able to steer away from the destructive, cyclical course of abusive supervision and even promote relationship restoration from the leaders. Indeed, approach balancing operations elevate the capability of the follower in the context of abusive supervision and they are important manifestations of followership behaviors in the workplace.

And third, I theorized and tested the effect of political skill on coalition formation in Essay 3. Given that political skill is one of the most important social competence necessary for individuals to adapt and shape work environments (e.g.,

Ferris et al., 2012), the integration of political skill literature to the discussion of coalition formation further extends our understanding of balancing operations and how these coping strategies work. Followers may be motivated to coalition with other followers in the team, however, whether these intentions translate to actual change in the existing state of power-dependency are depended largely on how well they executed the strategy. Since political skill represents an individual's competence in terms of coping with and leveraging politics in the workplace (Shi et al., 2013), this particular ability plays a key role in shaping the success of one's coalition formation.

In addition, despite the assertion that political skill is malleable (Ferris et al., 2007), there has been little or no discussion of a viable intervention to increase one's level of political skill. In Essay 3, I make a contribution by designing and testing a political skill intervention. This intervention brings the focus of the political skill conversation back to the idea that this ability can be trained, developed, and shaped by the environment.

Practical Implications

This dissertation expands followers' repertoire of coping strategies in managing the complex state of power-dependency with their respective leaders. In particular, in the context of abusive supervision, other than leaving the organization (Tepper et al., 2009) or struggling to manage the personal consequences of abusive behaviors (e.g., Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Mawritz et al., 2004; Tepper et al., 2007), approach balancing operations offer strategic solutions for the followers to significantly change the nature of the power dynamics. This follower-centric research paradigm departs from the conventional thinking of organizational-level interventions

and places the emphasis on the follower's own conscious, volitional attempts to regulate and respond to abusive supervision. Many of the issues leading to the emergence of abusive supervision in the workplace demand organization-level interventions (selection of leaders [Tepper, 2007]; zero-tolerance policy on abuse [Tepper et al., 2009]). Since these solutions are initiated at the organization-level, they are often out of reach for abused followers. Despite the push to implement policies and practices that promote diversity and fairness, most organizations still do not hold all perpetrators of abusive supervision accountable (Courtright et al., in press). Given that abusive behaviors tend to persist over time (Lian et al., 2014; Shnabel & Nadler, 2008), followers should be equipped with a set of coping strategies that enable them to effectively break away from the spiral of abuse and to establish better relationships with leaders. This research provides follower-centric solutions that will complement and enhance the current emphasis on organization-level solutions for abusive supervision.

In addition, this research suggests that leaders and followers should consider go beyond the structural aspect (i.e., positions in the organization) and consider the state of power in terms of its relational aspect. There are two meaningful implications of this notion. First, leaders and followers can consider their state of power-dependency as a barometer to forecast interpersonal and power dynamics in the workplace. For example, the current state of power-dependency in a leader-follower dyad can help leaders and followers to determine whether the risk of abuse toward a particular follower is high. The idea is for both leaders and followers to be mindful of the power imbalance in the dyad before it becomes too polarized. Second, the mutual

high dependence between managers and followers is characterized by positive interactions, reduced use of threats and coercion, and more importantly, enhanced stability and congeniality in the dyadic relationship (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). In this regard, organizations should implement human resource policies and practices (e.g., shared performance goals) that encourage their managers and followers to work together toward a state of mutual high dependence.

CONCLUSION

Applying a power-dependency framework, I propose an agentic, resourceful, and strategic portrait of the follower, which is contrasting to the dominant portrait of the follower as someone who is passive and resigned to the state of power imbalance in the workplace. Through approach balancing operations, the follower is able to not only shift the state of power-dependence, but also reduce the persistent effect of abusive supervision over time and strengthen the likelihood of leader's future reconciliation. It is my hope that these series of essays on power-dependency will encourage more follower-centric research to uncover more creative and viable solutions for followers to navigate both interpersonal and power dynamics in organizations.

TABLES

TABLE 1

Items from Follower's Balancing Operations Scale

Approach Balancing Operations

Coalition Formation

I emphasized how cohesive my co-workers and I were during interactions with my supervisor.

I emphasized the cohesiveness among the co-workers when I interacted with my supervisor.

I encouraged my co-workers to be cohesive in front of our supervisor.

I supported the efforts of my co-workers to be cohesive, especially in the presence of our supervisor

Value Enhancement

I focused on developing new skills that my supervisor regards as important.

I improved myself on the skills that my supervisor regards as important.

I learned new skills that might increase my supervisor's reliance on me.

I improved my job performance so that I can achieve the goals that my supervisor values.

Avoidance Balancing Operations

Network Extension

I strengthened networks outside of my team that might help me get what I desire.

I took the initiative to meet other colleagues outside of my team who could help me get what I desire.

I reached out to colleagues outside of my team to increase my chances of getting what I desire.

I built new relationship outside of my team that might help me achieve what I desire.

Motivational Withdrawal

I increased my focus on other goals and resources that my supervisor did not influence.

I focused on other goals and resources that did not rely entirely on my supervisor.

I put my energy into pursuing new goals and resources that were not dependent on the supervisor.

I directed my attention to other goals and resources that my supervisor had little control over.

TABLE 2
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Key Variables (Study 1)^a

Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Leader-follower tenure	1.85	2.08											
2 Follower's dependence on the leader, T1	2.89	.82	-.06	(.75)									
3 Follower's dependence on the leader, T2	2.82	.81	-.07	.56**	(.77)								
4 Leader's dependence on the follower, T1	2.68	.73	-.06	-.14*	-.10	(.82)							
5 Leader's dependence on the follower, T2	2.70	.71	-.10	.04	.05	.62**	(.76)						
6 Abusive supervision, T2	1.81	.94	-.08	.22**	.47**	-.38**	-.15*	(.89)					
7 Abusive supervision, T3	1.83	.72	.01	.19**	.26**	-.31**	-.35**	.41**	(.89)				
8 Leader's reconciliation, T2	2.69	.91	.05	.08	-.02	-.04	.10	.08	.01	(.81)			
9 Leader's reconciliation, T3	2.65	.97	-.02	.03	.04	.35**	.38**	.03	-.04	.32**	(.80)		
10 Follower's approach balancing operations, T1	2.89	.72	-.09	.19**	.21**	.11	.23**	.07	-.08	.11*	.22**	(.87)	
11 Follower's avoidance balancing operations, T1	2.74	.68	-.04	.13*	.10	-.08	-.07	.08	.04	.06	-.03	.17*	(.84)

^aReliabilities of the measures are noted in the diagonals. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 3
Latent Growth Modeling of Abusive Supervision Including Time-Varying
Covariates (Study 1)

Parameters	Unstandardized Coefficient
Growth Parameters	
Average intercept	.99** (.20)
Average slope	.29 (.28)
Intercept variance	.48** (.11)
Slope variance	.07 (.05)
Intercept/Slope covariance	-.14* (.06)
Time-Varying Covariates	
Leader's dependence on the follower, time 1 -> abusive supervision, time 1	-.33** (.09)
Leader's dependence on the follower, time 2 -> abusive supervision, time 2	-.25** (.06)
Leader's dependence on the follower, time 3 -> abusive supervision, time 3	-.29** (.08)
Follower's dependence on the leader, time 1 -> abusive supervision, time 1	.24** (.07)
Follower's dependence on the leader, time 2 -> abusive supervision, time 2	.34** (.06)
Follower's dependence on the leader, time 3 -> abusive supervision, time 3	.32** (.07)

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

TABLE 4
Polynomial Regressions of Abusive Supervision (Time 2) (Study 1)

Variables	Abusive Supervision, time 2
Constant	1.27** (.10)
Controls	
Leader-follower tenure	-.01 (.02)
Abusive supervision, time 1	.27** (.05)
Independent Variables	
Leader's dependence on the follower, time 1 (L)	-.43** (.06)
Follower's dependence on the leader, time 1 (F)	.40** (.06)
L^2	-.09 (.07)
F^2	.15** (.05)
L X F	-.25** (.07)
R^2	.53
Congruence (L = F) line	
Slope	-.02
Curvature	-.19
Incongruence (L = -F) line	
Slope	-.83**
Curvature	.31**
<i>F</i> for the 3 quadratic terms (L^2 , F^2 , L X F)	77.2**
<i>Incremental R</i> ²	.41

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

TABLE 5
OLS Regression Analysis (Study 1)^a

Predictor Variables	Dependent Variables				
	Leader's dependence on the follower, Time 2 (Model 1)	Leader's reconciliation, Time 3 (Model 2)	Leader's reconciliation, Time 3 (Model 3)	Abusive supervision, Time 3 (Model 4)	Abusive supervision, Time 3 (Model 5)
Intercept	-1.76** (.28)	.003 (.06)	.05 (.37)	-.13** (.05)	-.70* (.35)
Controls					
Leader-follower tenure	-.01 (.02)	-.01 (.03)	.01 (.02)	.03 (.03)	.03 (.03)
Leader's dependence on the follower, time 1	.62** (.07)		.01 (.11)		.05 (.12)
Follower's dependence on the leader, time 2	.05 (.06)		-.03 (.07)		.15* (.07)
Leader's reconciliation, time 2		.30** (.06)	.22** (.05)		
Independent Variables					
Block variable ^b , time 1	.02 (.12)	-.44** (.13)	-.07 (.15)	.23 (.12)	.06 (.15)
Abusive supervision, time 2	.02 (.06)	.13 (.08)	.11 (.07)	.31** (.07)	.28** (.07)
Leader's dependence on the follower, time 2			.71** (.09)		-.31** (.09)
Follower's approach balancing operations, time 1	.11* (.05)	.23** (.08)	.15* (.07)	-.10 (.07)	-.13 (.07)
Follower's avoidance balancing operation, time 1	.002 (.06)	-.11 (.09)	-.08 (.07)	.06 (.08)	.06 (.07)
Abusive supervision, time 2 X Follower's approach balancing operations, time 1	.10 (.06)	.17* (.09)	-.10 (.08)	-.16* (.08)	-.21* (.08)
Abusive supervision, time 2 X Follower's avoidance balancing operations, time 1	-.04 (.06)	.05 (.09)	.02 (.08)	-.10 (.08)	-.07 (.08)
Abusive supervision, time 2 X Leader's dependence on the follower, time 2			.18* (.08)		-.25** (.09)
R^2	.42	.21	.46	.24	.32
ΔR^2	-	-	.25	-	.08

^aIfollowed the block variable approach recommended by Edwards and Cable (2009) by combining the five polynomial terms into a weighted linear combination, with the respective weights based on the estimated regression coefficients. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 6
Structural Equation Models of Abusive Supervision (Study 1)^a

Variables	Model 1	Model 2
<i>Controls</i>		
Follower's tenure with leader → abusive supervision, time 2	-.02 (.02)	
Follower's tenure with leader → abusive supervision, time 3		-.05 (.04)
<i>Stability</i>		
Abusive supervision, time 1 → abusive supervision, time 2	.33** (.06)	
Abusive supervision, time 2 → abusive supervision, time 3		.69** (.21)
<i>Predicted paths</i>		
Block Variable ^a , time 1 → Abusive supervision, time 2	.30* (.09)	
Block Variable ^a , time 2 → Abusive supervision, time 3		.57** (.08)
<i>Reversed paths</i>		
Abusive supervision, time 1 → Block Variable, time 2	.46 (.25)	
Abusive supervision, time 2 → Block Variable, time 3		.80 (.59)
<i>Alternative paths</i>		
Leader's reconciliation, time 1 → Abusive supervision, time 2	-.02 (.11)	
Leader's reconciliation, time 2 → Abusive supervision, time 3		.02 (.06)
<i>Reversed alternative paths</i>		
Abusive supervision, time 1 → Leader's reconciliation, time 2	.06 (.05)	
Abusive supervision, time 2 → Leader's reconciliation, time 3		-.001 (.06)

^aIfollowed the block variable approach recommended by Edwards and Cable (2009), and Icombined the five polynomial terms into a weighted linear block variable, with the weights as their respective estimated regression coefficients. The standard errors in the estimations are reported in parentheses. * $p < .05$, $p < .01$.

TABLE 7
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Key Variables (Study 2)^a

Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Leader-follower tenure (years)	3.02	2.81									
2 Follower's dependence on the leader, T1	3.15	.78	-.12*	(.72)							
3 Leader's dependence on the follower, T1	2.51	.80	.14*	-.06	(.83)						
4 Leader's dependence on the follower, T2	2.42	.87	.09	-.02	.78**	(.72)					
5 Abusive supervision, T2	1.96	.68	-.07	.27**	-.15*	-.08	(.81)				
6 Abusive supervision, T3	1.97	.69	-.09	.16*	-.12*	-.12*	.42**	(.79)			
7 Leader's reconciliation, T3	2.61	.90	.08	.09	.15*	.16*	.01	-.01	(.86)		
8 Follower's approach balancing operations, T1	2.88	.57	-.09	.14**	.10*	.12*	.04	-.05	.18*	(.90)	
9 Follower's avoidance balancing operations, T1	2.87	.61	-.11*	.16**	-.07	-.09	.03	.02	.01	.15*	(.88)

^aReliabilities of the measures are noted in the diagonals. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 8
Polynomial Regressions of Abusive Supervision (Time 2) (Study 2)

Variables	Abusive Supervision, time 2
Constant	1.95** (.06)
Controls	
Leader-follower tenure	-0.02 (.01)
Independent Variables	
Leader's dependence on the follower, time 1 (L)	.10 (.07)
Follower's dependence on the leader, time 1 (F)	.35** (.07)
L^2	-.11 (.06)
F^2	.23** (.07)
L X F	-.17* (.03)
R^2	.10
Congruence (L = F) line	
Slope	.09
Curvature	.05
Incongruence (L = -F) line	
Slope	-.34**
Curvature	.39**
F for the 3 quadratic terms (L^2 , F^2 , L X F)	12.52**
<i>Incremental R^2</i>	.03

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

TABLE 9
OLS Regression Analyses (Study 2)^a

Predictor Variables	Dependent Variables				
	Leader's dependence on Follower, Time 2 (Model 1)	Leader's Reconciliation, Time 3 (Model 2)	Leader's Reconciliation, Time 3 (Model 3)	Abusive Supervision, Time 3 (Model 4)	Abusive Supervision, Time 3 (Model 5)
Control					
Intercept	.06 (.04)	-.08 (.06)	-.08 (.06)	.02 (.04)	.02 (.04)
Leader-follower tenure ^a	-.02 (.01)	-.04* (.02)	-.04* (.02)	-.02 (.01)	-.02 (.01)
Follower's dependence on the leader, time 2	.14* (.05)	.15* (.08)	.16* (.08)	.07 (.05)	.06 (.05)
Independent Variables					
Block variable ^b , time 1	-.45* (.20)	.85** (.31)	.93** (.31)	.40* (.17)	.33 (.18)
Abusive supervision, time 2	.43 (.09)	-.16 (.08)	-.16 (.08)	.40** (.05)	.41** (.05)
Leader's dependence on follower, time 2			.13* (.06)		-.01 (.04)
Follower's approach balancing operations, time 1	.26** (.08)	.10 (.12)	.09 (.12)	.03 (.07)	.04 (.07)
Follower's avoidance balancing operations, time 1	-.04 (.07)	.03 (.11)	.02 (.11)	.26** (.08)	.26** (.08)
Abusive supervision, time 2 X Follower's approach balancing operations, time 1	.22* (.10)	.33* (.15)	.32* (.15)	-.26** (.10)	-.26* (.10)
Abusive supervision, time 2 X Follower's avoidance balancing operations, time 1	.05 (.12)	.28 (.19)	.33 (.18)	.02 (.12)	-.01 (.12)
Abusive supervision, time 2 X Leader's dependence on the follower, time 2			.15* (.07)		-.08* (.03)
R^2	.31	.08	.11	.31	.32
ΔR^2	-	-	.03	-	.01

^aLeader-follower tenure is captured in number of years. ^bIfollowed the block variable approach recommended by Edwards and Cable (2009) by combining the five polynomial terms in to a weighted linear combination, with the respective weights based on the estimated regression coefficients.

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

TABLE 10
OLS Regression Analysis (Study 1)

Predictor Variables		Dependent Variables		
		Political Skill (Post)	Effectiveness of Coalition Formation	Effectiveness of Coalition Formation
		(Model 1)	(Model 2)	(Model 3)
Control	Intercept	2.92** (.25)	3.87** (.35)	3.82** (.35)
	Political Skill (Pre)	.39** (.05)	-.08 (.06)	-.06 (.06)
Independent Variables	Political Skill Intervention ¹	1.22** (.14)	1.30** (.19)	1.29** (.19)
	Political Skill (Post)		.45** (.08)	.43** (.08)
	Intention for Coalition Formation		.15* (.08)	.15* (.06)
	Political Skill (Post) X Intention for Coalition Formation			.15** (.05)
	R ²	.39	.44	.46
ΔR^2		-	-	.02

¹Political skill intervention is coded “1” for experimental condition and “0” for control condition. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 11
Logistic Regression Analysis (Study 2)

Predictor Variables		Dependent Variable	
		Success of Coalition Formation (Yes/No)	Success of Coalition Formation (Yes/No)
Control	Intercept	.62 (.42)	.57 (.45)
	Political Skill Intervention ¹	-1.25 (.67)	-1.16 (.72)
Independent Variables			
	Perception of Follower's B Political Skill	.23 (.24)	.36 (.26)
	Intention for Coalition Formation	.26 (.28)	.46 (.32)
	Political Skill X Intention for Coalition Formation		.57* (.23)

¹Political skill intervention is coded "1" for experimental condition and "0" for control condition. * $p < .05$

Figures

FIGURE 1
Overview of Theoretical Model

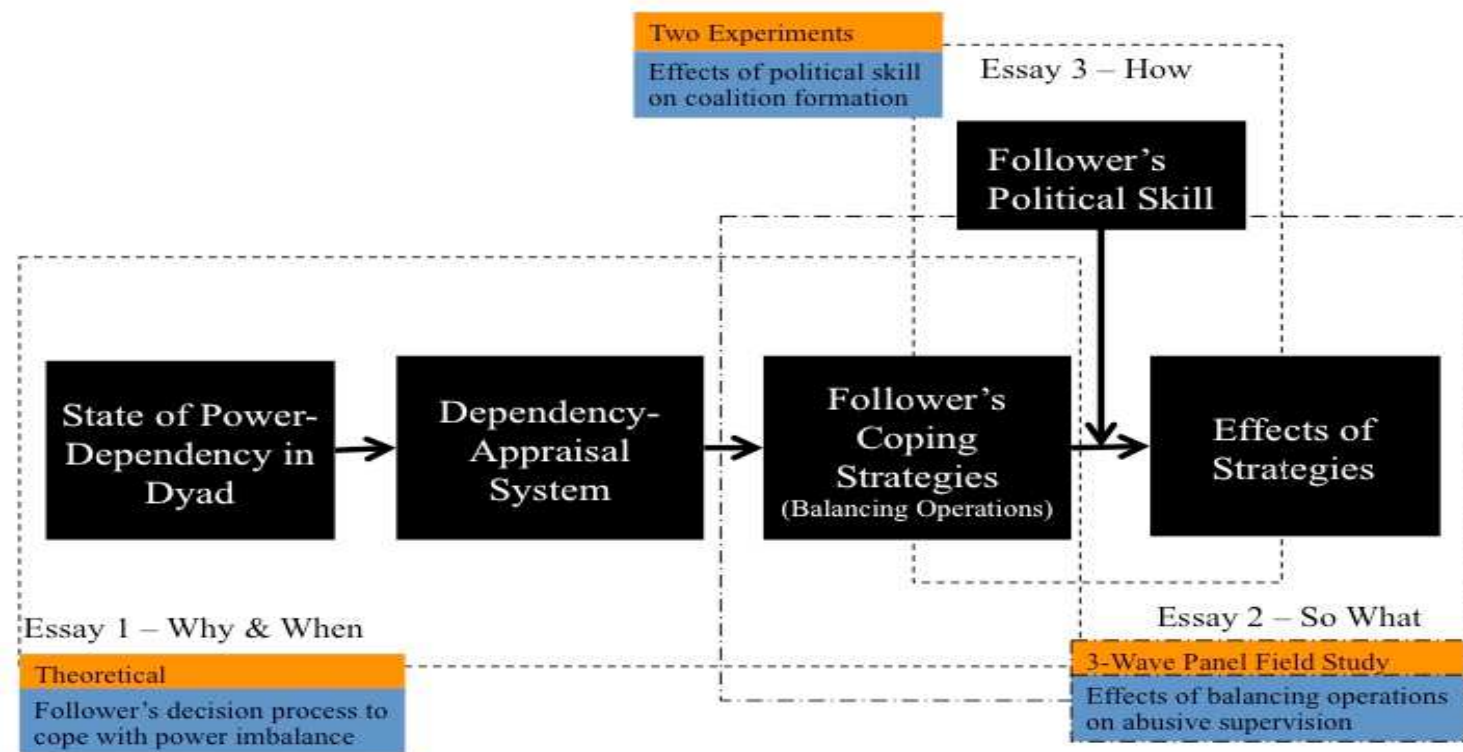


FIGURE 2
Follower's Dependency-Risk Appraisal Model

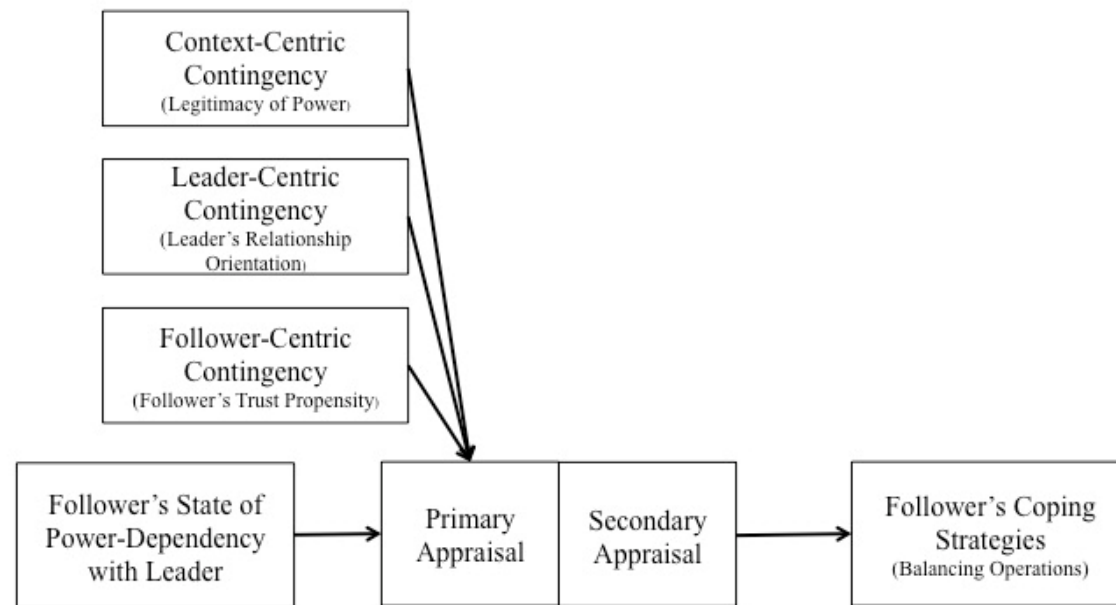


FIGURE 3
Typology of Balancing Operations

	<p style="text-align: center;">Approach Motivation</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Maintain contact with the leader</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Avoidance Motivation</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Create distance from the leader</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Primary Control</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Behaviors that reflect changes to external circumstances</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Coalition Formation</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strategy to maintain contact with the leader by rallying other followers to constrain the exchange of resources vital to the leader's goals.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Network Extension</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strategy to invest in outside options to find alternative pathways to one's valued goal</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Secondary Control</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Behaviors that reflect changes within the self</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Value Enhancement</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strategy to increase one's instrumental value to the leader</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Motivational Withdrawal</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Strategy to distance oneself from valued, leader-controlled goal</p>

FIGURE 4
Effect of Balancing Operations on Abusive Supervision

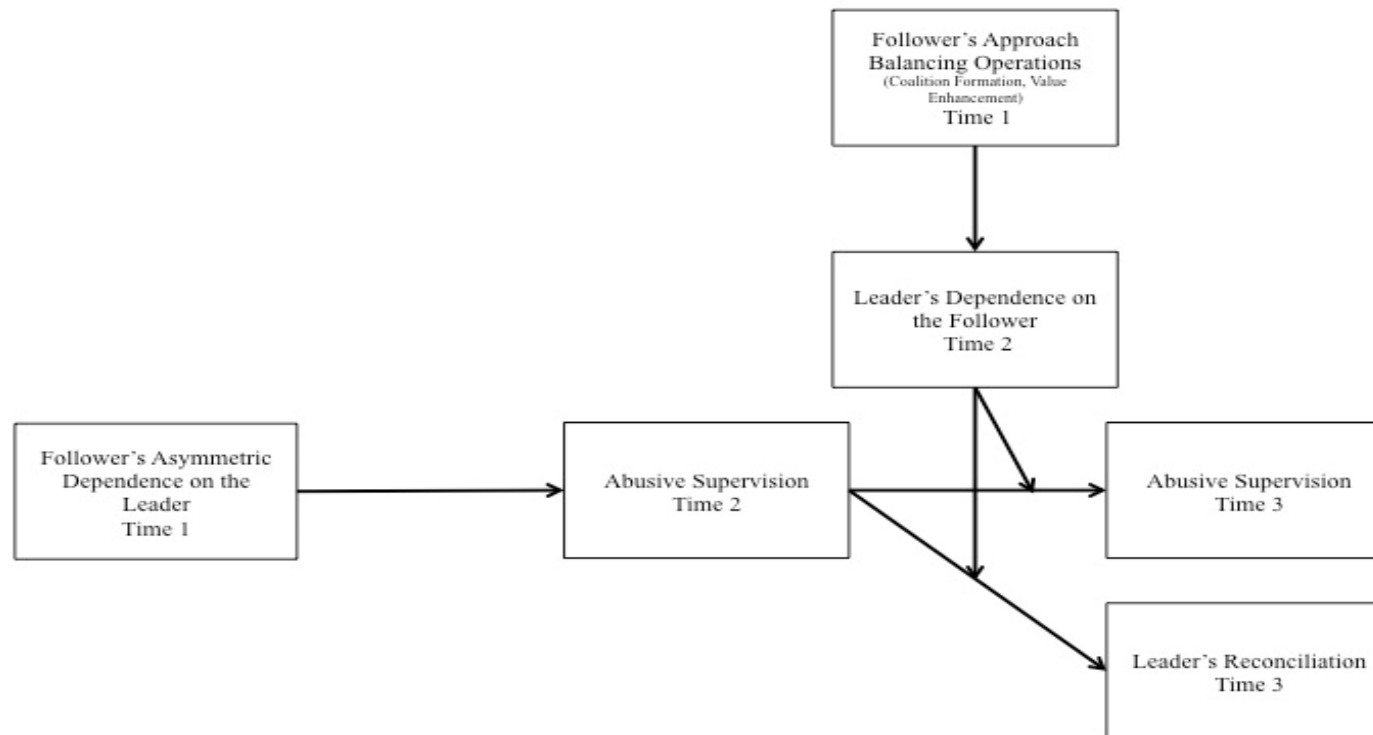


FIGURE 5
The Asymmetric Effect of Follower's Dependence on the Leader on Abusive Supervision (Study 1)

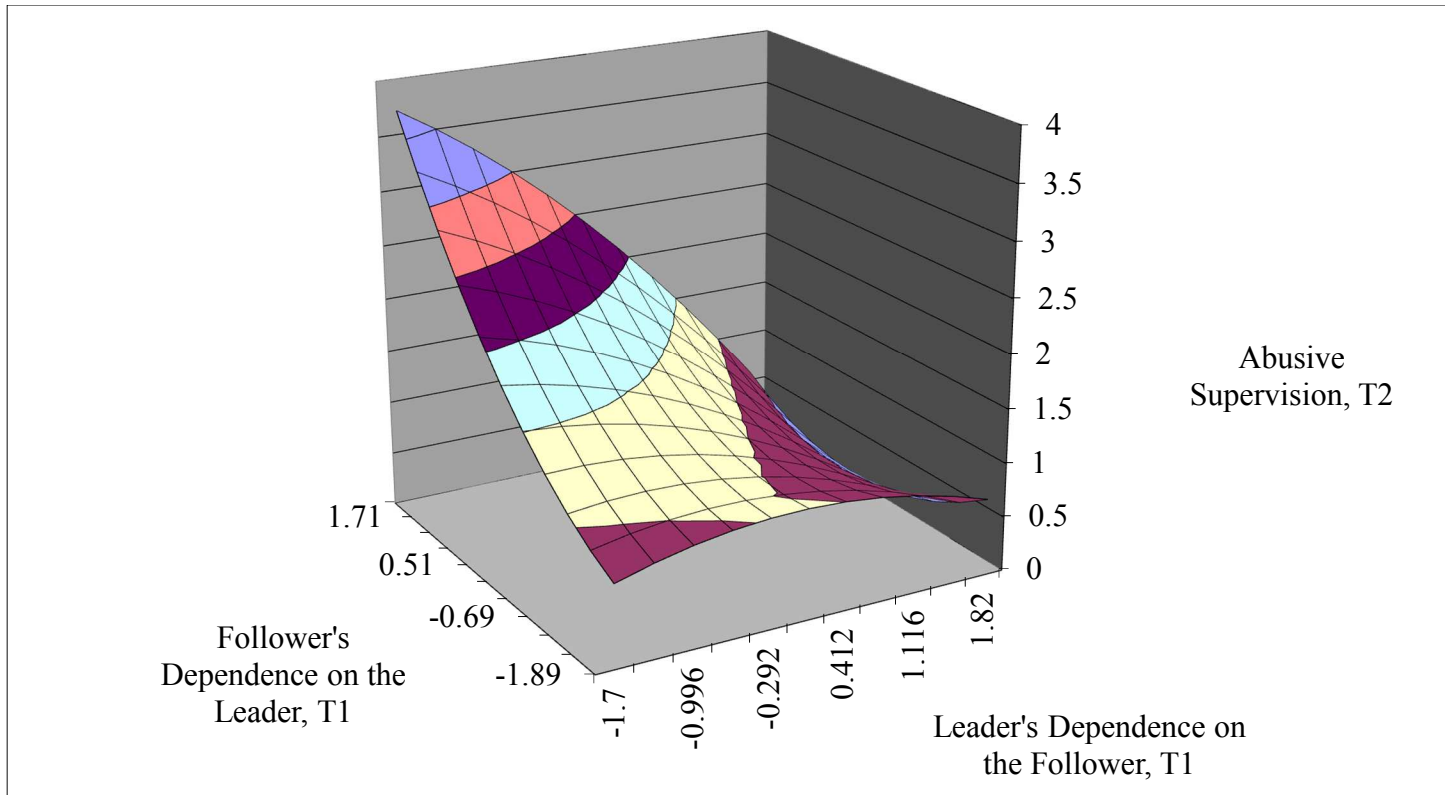


FIGURE 6
The Interactive Effect of Abusive Supervision (Time 2) and Follower's Approach Balancing Operations (Time 1) on Abusive Supervision (Time 3) (Study 1)

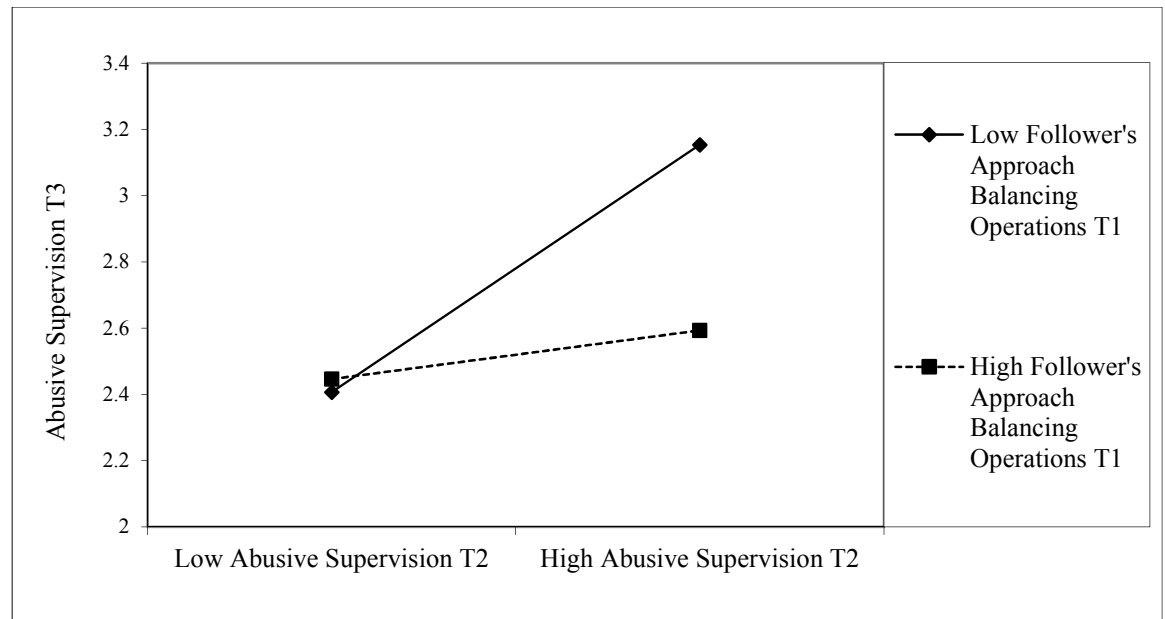


FIGURE 7
The Interactive Effect of Abusive Supervision (Time 2) and Leader's Dependence on the Follower (Time 2) on Abusive Supervision (Time 3) (Study 1)

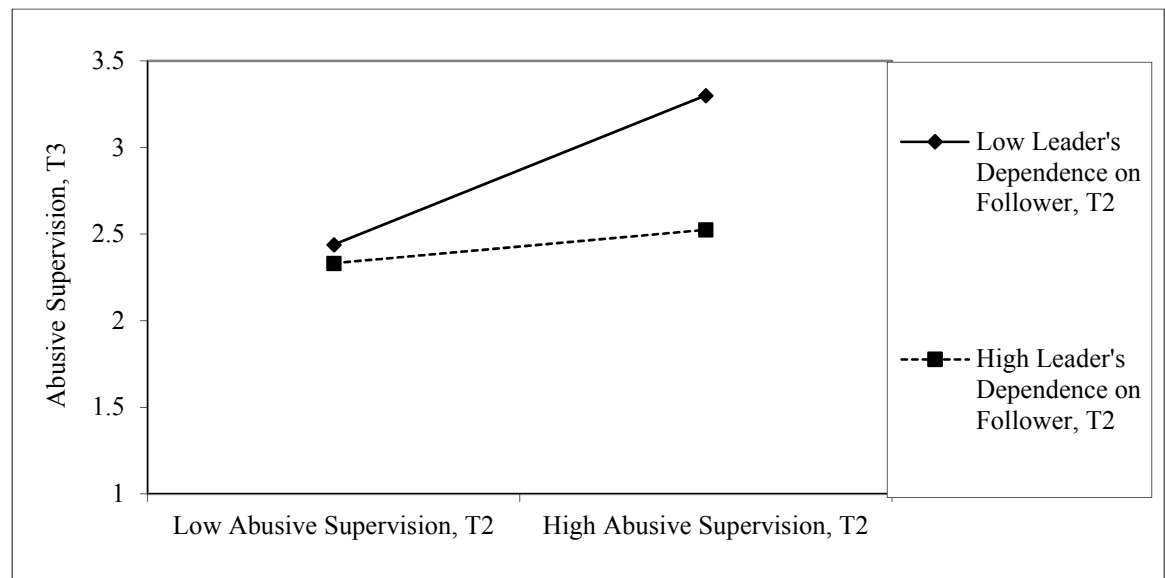
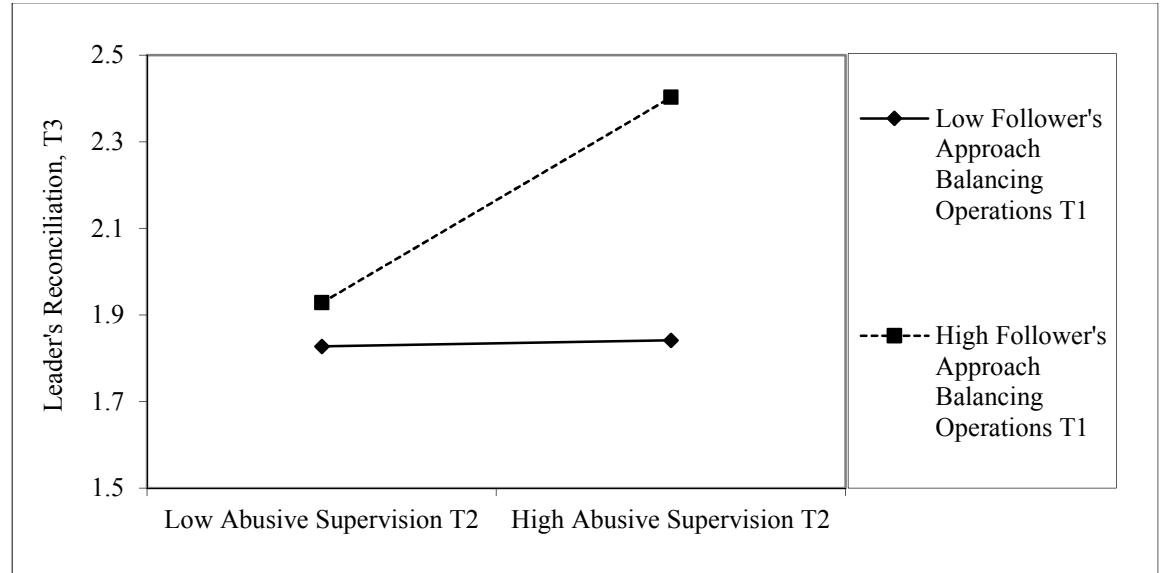


FIGURE 8

The Interactive Effect of Abusive Supervision (Time 2) and Follower's Approach Balancing Operations (Time 1) on Leader's Reconciliation (Time 3)
(Study 1)

**FIGURE 9**

The Interactive Effect of Abusive Supervision (Time 2) and Leader's Dependence on the Follower (Time 2) on Leader's Reconciliation (Time 3) (Study 1)

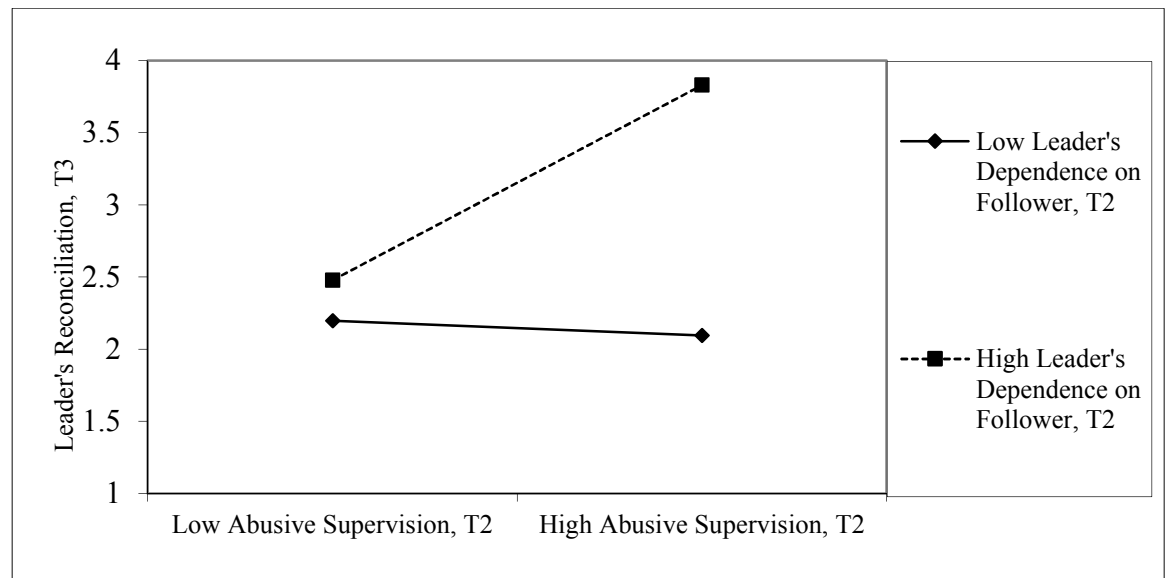


FIGURE 10
The Asymmetric Effect of Follower's Dependence on the Leader on Abusive Supervision (Study 2)

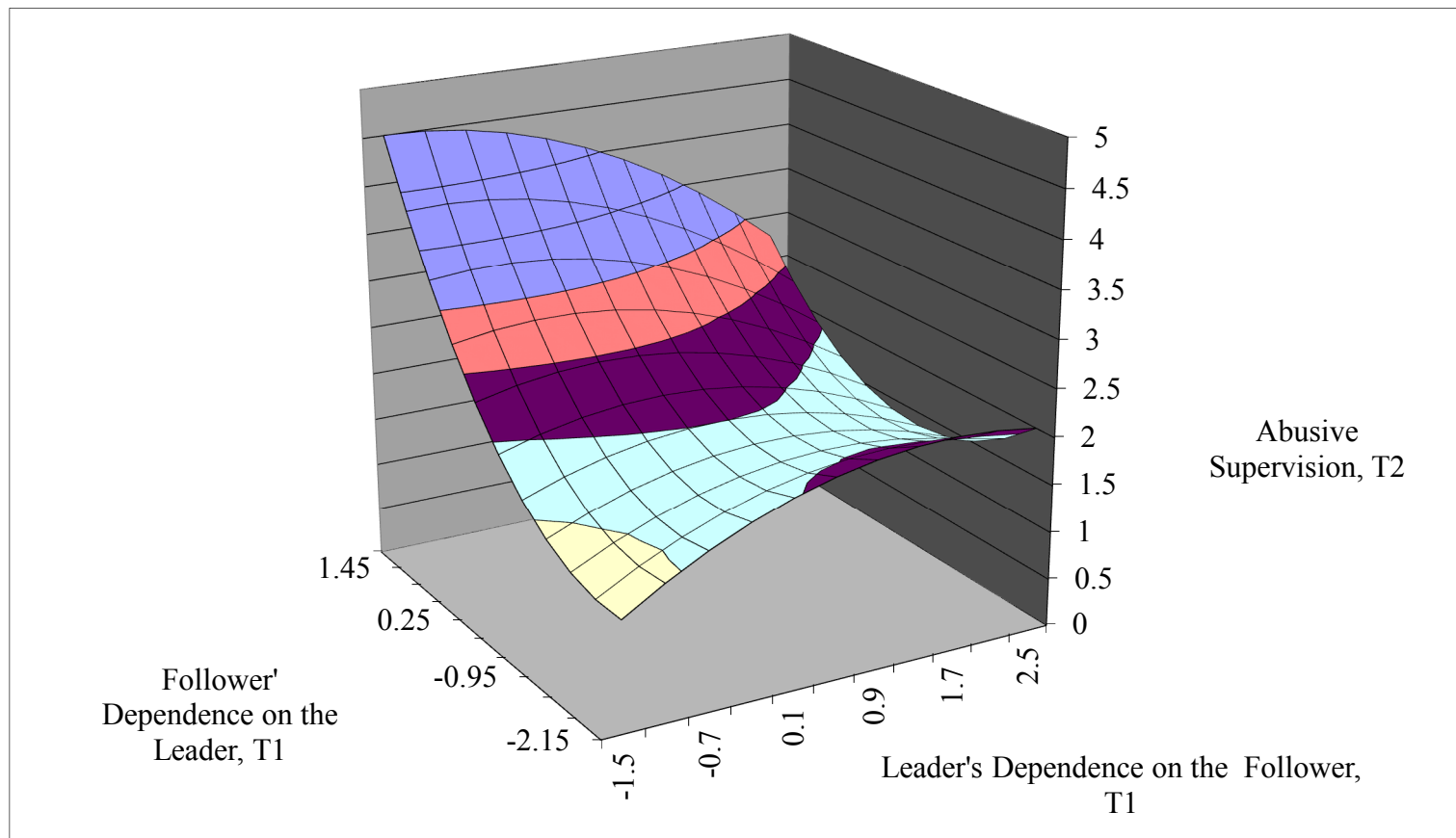


FIGURE 11
Political Skill and Coalition Formation

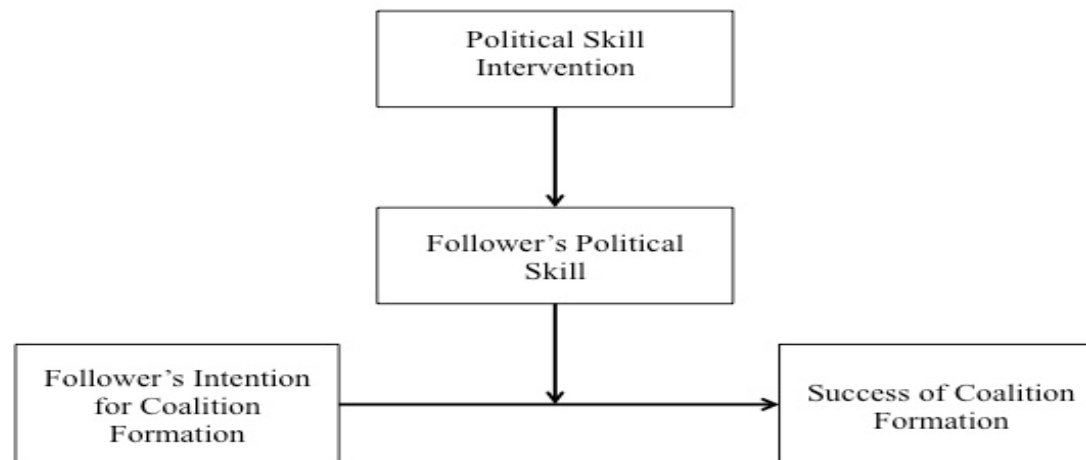
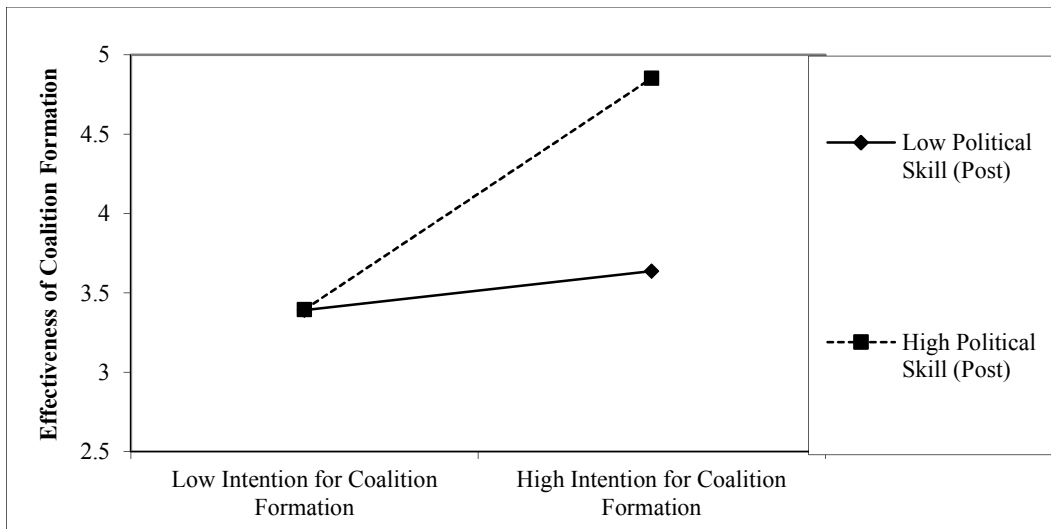
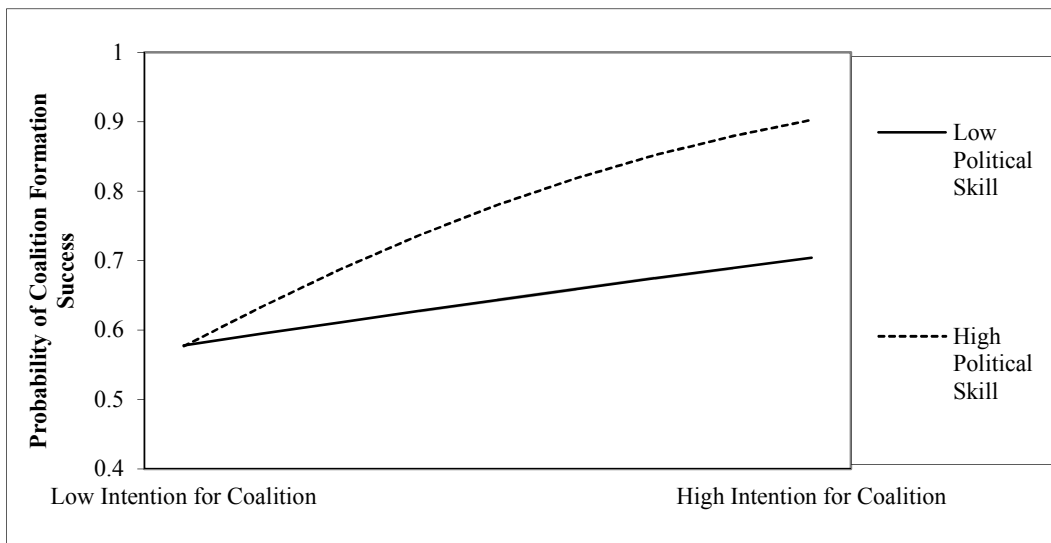


FIGURE 12

Interaction Effect of Intention for Coalition Formation and Political Skill on Effectiveness of Coalition Formation (Study 1)

**FIGURE 13**

Interaction Effect of Intention for Coalition Formation and Political Skill on Probability of Coalition Formation Success (Study 2)



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