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ABUSED BUT NOT BRUISED:

NEWCOMER REACTIONS TO ABUSIVE SUPERVISION

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MPhil

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

2020

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ABUSED BUT NOT BRUISED:
NEWCOMER REACTIONS TO ABUSIVE SUPERVISION

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for

the degree of Master of Philosophy

July, 2019

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ABSTRACT

Despite the substantial research on abusive supervision, the extant literature lacks an in-depth understanding of how newcomers react to abusive supervision. To fill the research gap, the thesis examines the effects of abusive supervision on newcomers whose organizational tenure is less than one year. By integrating abusive supervision research and self-determination theory (SDT), I develop a need-based model to outline how abusive supervision affects newcomer experiences during organizational entry. In particular, building on past research findings that abusive supervision makes employees feel lonely, incompetent, and controlled, I posit that supervisory abuse thwarts newcomers' need for relatedness, competence, and autonomy. Furthermore, drawing on SDT's needs-as-motives perspective, I hypothesize that the thwarted relatedness, competence, and autonomy motivate newcomers to engage in activities that would specifically ameliorate the deficient need(s). To test the hypotheses, I collected six waves of data from a sample of 62 newcomers and conducted within-person analysis. The within-person analysis results revealed that abusive supervision thwarted newcomers' need for relatedness and competence, but did not thwart newcomers' need for autonomy. In addition, I found that relatedness deficiency did not influence newcomers, competence deficiency motivated newcomers to restore competence, and autonomy deficiency demotivated newcomers to regain the sense of autonomy. The theoretical and practical implications for abusive supervision and SDT are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"It's often said there's nothing certain in life except death and taxes. The parallel in organizational life is that at some point in your career you'll have a bad boss."

~ John Beeson, Harvard Business Review, 2012

1.1 Research Background and Research Needs

Supervisors play major roles in influencing newcomer experiences during organizational entry (Cooper-Thomas & Burke, 2012; Ellis, Nifadkar, Bauer, & Erdogan, 2017; Nifadkar, Tsui, & Ashforth, 2012). Earlier research has provided abundant evidence for the beneficial impact of supervisor supporting behavior on newcomer feelings of acceptance, job performance, and other adjustment outcomes (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1998; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Rubenstein, & Song, 2013). It is fortunate to have a supportive supervisor, but not everyone has that fortune. The quote above indicates that any individual will have a bad boss at some point in his or her career. Hence, it makes sense to believe that some newcomers may encounter a supervisor who scolds them, puts them down in front of people, or gives them silent treatment (e.g., Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Nifadkar et al., 2012). These negative supervisory behaviors are referred to as abusive supervision, defined as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000: 178). Given that a supervisor plays an important role in influencing new hires, supervisor's abusive behavior may significantly call new hires' attention and propel them to think through how to react. Therefore, a question emerges: how newcomers react to abusive supervision?

Previous research has largely advanced our knowledge of employee reactions to abusive supervision. For example, typical reactions to abusive supervision are increased negative work outcomes such as workplace deviance behaviors (e.g., Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005; Mawritz,

Dust, & Resick, 2014; Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011), and decreased positive work outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). However, we have limited knowledge about newcomer reactions to abusive supervision. The majority of past abusive supervision research uses organizational veterans as research sample. Unfortunately, we cannot generalize the research findings on veterans to newcomers because of differences between the two populations. For example, different from veterans, newcomers are plagued with unfamiliarity, ambiguity, and uncertainty about the working contexts (Saks & Ashforth, 2000). In ambiguous, unfamiliar, and uncertain situations, abused newcomers may have no idea who (themselves or their supervisors) holds causal responsibility for abuse, whether the supervisory abuse will continue in the future, how much potential they have in coping with abuse (cf. Oh & Farh, 2017). In contrast, due to a long tenure with their supervisors, organizational veterans tend to be clear about the responsibility of abusive supervision, occurrence certainty of future abuse, and their coping potential in handling abuse. These differences between newcomers and veterans indicate that newcomer reactions to abusive supervision differ from veteran reactions. Therefore, it is essential to conduct a study to understand newcomer reactions to abusive supervision.

Obtaining an understanding of newcomer reactions to abusive supervision is of importance to newcomers, managers, and scholars. First, abusive supervision obviously poses significant impacts on newcomers because initial socialization experiences have long-lasting effects on their job attitudes and behaviors (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). Gaining a deeper understanding of how to adaptively respond to abusive supervision enables newcomers to obtain long-term benefits. For managers, knowledge of newcomer responses to abusive supervision can help them prevent financial loss. Past research has found that abusive supervision leads to voluntary turnover (Tepper, 2000). If this is also the case for newcomers, then managers should pay much attention to newcomer abusive supervision because newcomer turnover is costly. Especially if

newcomers are leaving their jobs after organizations have invested a lot in recruitment, selection, and training, but before organizations can realize returns on these investments (Fang, Duffy, & Shaw, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), the financial cost of newcomer abusive supervision will be substantial. It is also important for scholars to gain an in-depth understanding of newcomer reactions to abusive supervision because exploring the specific sample may offer a novel perspective to extant abusive supervision literature. Accordingly, the thesis explores newcomer reactions to abusive supervision to provide valuable knowledge for newcomers, managers, and scholars.

1.2 Thesis Overview

To understand newcomer reactions to abusive supervision, I integrate abusive supervision research with self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Different from past abusive supervision research which employs social exchange theory (e.g., Aryee et al., 2007; Xu, Huang, Lam, & Miao, 2012), ego depletion theory (e.g., Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012b; Thau & Mitchell, 2010), transactional theory of stress (e.g., Mawritz et al., 2014; Nandkeolyar, Shaffer, Li, Ekkirala, & Bagger, 2014), etc., the current research applies SDT to explain newcomer reactions to abusive supervision. The reason of applying SDT is that the various theoretical lenses presented in past abusive supervision research have developed in isolation from each other in explaining the effects of abusive supervision, whereas SDT provides a point of convergence for the various theoretical lenses. I suggest that the various theoretical lenses presented in past abusive supervision research share a common basis – a focus on SDT needs (cf. Rosen, Ferris, Brown, Chen, & Yan, 2013). For instance, social exchange theoretical lens is premised on *relatedness* because the tenet of social exchange is reciprocal relatedness (Aryee et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2012); and transactional theory of stress lens is associated with *autonomy* because abused employees generally feel that the abusive supervision stressor is out of their control (Mawritz et al., 2014). Given that other theoretical lenses are premised on SDT needs, the thesis uses SDT as the overarching theoretical foundation.

According to SDT, humans have three basic psychological needs – relatedness, competence, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Relatedness is a human need to care about and be cared about by others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), competence refers to a human need to feel effective in one's behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2000), and autonomy represents a human need to exercise control over one's actions (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Drawing upon past abusive supervision research, I argue that abusive supervision thwarts newcomer's SDT needs – relatedness, competence, and autonomy. First, past research has found that abusive supervision is toxic to the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Aryee et al., 2007), indicating abuse is likely to impede newcomers' relatedness to their abusive supervisor. Moreover, abusive supervision includes behaviors that can negatively affect newcomers' sense of competence. For instance, an abusive supervisor may ridicule newcomers, put them down in front of others, and tell them their thoughts or feelings are stupid (Tepper, 2000). These behaviors are likely to make employees feel incompetent (Lian et al., 2012; Trépanier, Fernet, & Austin, 2015). What's worse, due to power imbalance, abused employees generally have to behave in line with their supervisor's request and thus experience autonomy deficiency (Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001a; Zellars et al., 2002). In a nutshell, past research suggests that abusive supervision results in relatedness, competence, and autonomy deficiencies.

There is some empirical support for the negative impact of abusive supervision on SDT needs. For exmaple, Lian et al. (2012) has found that abusive supervision thwarted SDT needs, which in turn triggered employees' maladaptive reactions, i.e., deviant behaviors. Yet, Lian et al. (2012) ignored the possibility of abused employees' adaptive reactions to need deficiencies. There are some debates on individual reactions to need deficiencies. SDT researchers pose two different, and sometimes conflicting, perspectives on how individuals react to need deficiencies. The prevalent perspective is dubbed "needs-as-requirements" perspective. This perspective maintains that the SDT triplets (i.e., relatedness, competence, and autonomy) are essential nutrients for optimal human functioning (e.g., Chen et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2010). When any one of the triplets is

deficient, individual well-being and performance outcomes will get bruised. On the contrary, a relatively novel perspective, called "needs-as-motives" perspective, states that need deficiencies may not bruise individuals, but motivate personal growth (Maner, DeWall, Baumeister, & Schaller, 2007; Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). Advocates of the "needs-as-motives" perspective reason that if autonomy, relatedness, and competence are essential for optimal human functioning, individuals are unlikely to passively accept need deficiencies without activating restoration responses (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). Lian et al.'s research followed the "needs-as-requirement" perspective, indicating abused victims' maladaptive reactions to need deficiencies. My research seeks to extend Lian et al. (2012) by adopting the "needs-as-motives" perspective, exploring the possibility of abused victims' adaptive reaction to need deficiencies.

Although the needs-as-motives perspective and needs-as-requirements seem contradictory, the two perspectives are not at opposite poles. Sheldon (2011) indicates that needs-as-motives and needs-as-requirements are not at opposite poles but at different phases of a dynamic process. When experiencing need deficiencies for the first time, individuals generally react in a needs-as-motives manner (Prentice, Halusic, & Sheldon, 2014; Sheldon, 2011). That is, initial need deficiencies motivate individuals to engage in remedial acts, which may or may not change one's situation from need deficiency to need satisfaction. If the ameliorative behaviors chronically fail to satisfy SDT needs, individuals will fall into a needs-as-requirements phase (Prentice et al., 2014; Sheldon, 2011). In the phase, need deficiencies demotivate individuals to take remedial acts, and result in individual ill-being and poor performance outcomes.

On the basis of Sheldon's (2011) view, I propose that newcomer reactions to abusive supervision are abused but not bruised in that newcomers tend to deal with abusive supervision in a needs-as-motives manner. Newcomer abusive supervision thwarts newcomers' basic psychological needs and precipitates experiences of need deficiencies. Nonetheless, the experiences of need deficiencies motivate newcomers to actively engage in activities that would specifically restore their

deficient need(s). In a word, I predict that newcomers tend to go through the “needs-as-motives” path when their psychological needs are thwarted by abusive supervision. There are at least three reasons to believe that abused newcomers respond to need deficiencies in a needs-as-motives manner. First, past research shows that individuals most often start with constructive strategies to solve workplace mistreatments (Zapf & Gross, 2001). Besides, some research suggests a honeymoon period in which newcomer reactions are generally positive (Boswell, Boudreau, & Tichy, 2005). Third, due to ambiguity and uncertainty during organizational entry, newcomers are likely to live in hope that adaptive responses can help prevent future abuse (Oh & Farh, 2017).

To test whether need deficiencies motivate abused newcomers to actively get their deficient need(s) met, I gauge newcomers’ work group integration, task performance, control during leisure time. As demonstrated in previous studies, work group integration reflects people’s relatedness restoration efforts (Maner et al., 2007), task performance represents people’s competence restoration efforts (Fang, He, Fu, & Meng, 2017), and control during leisure time indicates people’s effort in restoring the sense of autonomy (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Taken together, in alignment with abusive supervision literature and SDT’s needs-as-motives perspective, the thesis examines how abusive supervision influences newcomer work outcomes through a needs-as-motives process. Specifically, I test how newcomer abusive supervision is associated with work group integration through relatedness deficiency, how newcomer abusive supervision is related to task performance through competence deficiency, and how newcomer abusive supervision is linked with control during leisure time through autonomy deficiency. Figure 1.1 depicts the research model of the thesis.

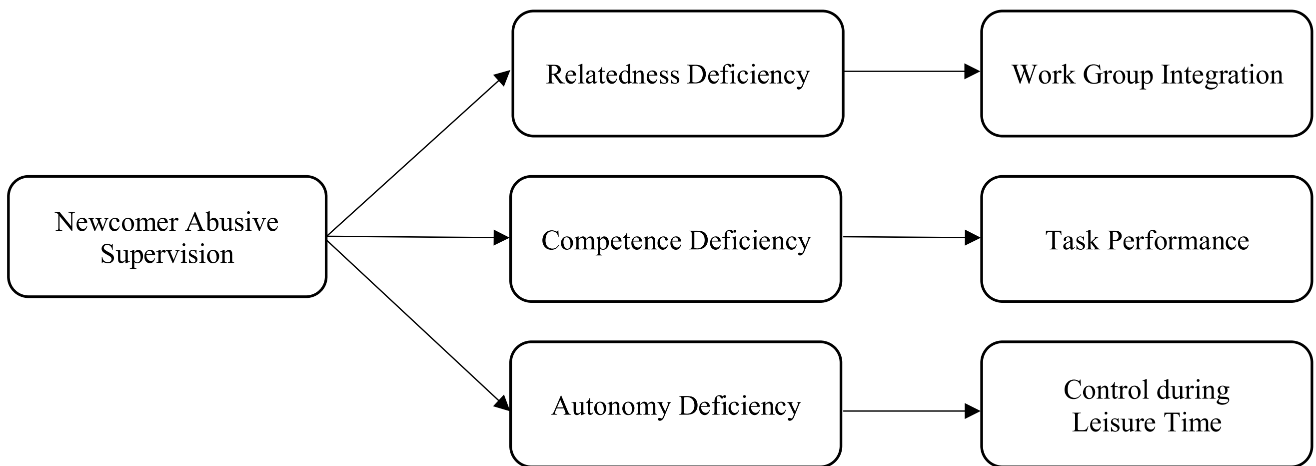

Figure 1.1 Research Model

A six-wave biweekly study is conducted to test the predictions. It has been recently suggested that abusive supervision is not a static leadership style but dynamic behavior that may fluctuate within any supervisor (Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, & Christian, 2015). Emerging evidence indicates that any supervisor might be more (or less) abusive on some days than on others (e.g., Barnes et al., 2015; Courtright, Gardner, Smith, McCormick, & Colbert, 2016; Liao, Yam, Johnson, Liu, & Song, 2018). Along these lines, this study moves beyond traditional static approaches studying between-person effects of abusive supervision on newcomers; instead, this study adopts a longitudinal dynamic approach to capture within-person effects of newcomer abusive supervision. Through the six-wave longitudinal study, I aim to capture within-person relationships between newcomer abusive supervision, basic psychological needs, and related individual outcomes (including work group integration, task performance, and control during leisure time).

1.3 Research Objectives and Contributions

The objectives of the present research are as follows: (1) to confirm the detrimental effects of newcomer abusive supervision on newcomer psychological needs, including relatedness, competence, and autonomy; (2) to explore whether need-thwarted newcomers will engage in specific activities to restore the thwarted psychological need(s); (3) to address the mediating role of basic

psychological needs on the relationships between newcomer abusive supervision and newcomers' need-related individual outcomes.

The thesis contributes to the abusive supervision literature and SDT in four primary ways. First, the current study is one of the first empirical studies testing newcomers reactions to abusive supervision. Although much is known about organizational veterans' reaction to abusive supervision, few studies have considered newcomer responses to supervisory abuse (for an exception, see Nifadkar et al., 2012). Collecting data from newcomers whose organizational tenure is less than one year, the current study sheds light on newcomer responses in face of abusive supervision. Besides, the present study furthers our theoretical understanding of abused victim's reaction to supervisory abuse, indicating that newcomers react to abusive supervision in a self-regulatory manner. This provides empirical evidence for Oh and Farh's (2017) proposal that some employees tend to respond to abusive supervision in a self-regulatory manner. Moreover, given that most organizations expect newcomers to be on board as quickly as possible, figuring out how newcomer abusive supervision affects the process of on-boarding allows practitioners to prevent potential losses induced by newcomer abusive supervision.

The second contribution of this study is identifying three need-based psychological mechanisms – relatedness, competence, and autonomy deficiencies – through which newcomer abusive supervision influences newcomer work outcomes. Lian et al. (2012b) reported the three SDT needs (i.e., relatedness, competence, and autonomy) mediated the influence of abusive supervision on the work outcomes. However, Lian et al. (2012b) modeled the three SDT needs as an overall construct. In contrast, following Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, and Rosen's (2016) recommendations that the three needs are not interchangeable, this study models the three SDT needs separately to highlight different mediating role of each SDT need in the abusive supervision context.

My research also contributes to the SDT by providing new empirical evidence for SDT's needs-as-motives perspective (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). Although SDT is a well-established

framework with considerable breadth and predictive power, the needs-as-motives perspective is a relatively novel perspective in the SDT research. Previous studies have provided between-person evidence for the needs-as-motives perspective, but there is a paucity of within-person evidence. The current study is one of the first empirical studies that provide within-person evidence for SDT's needs-as-motives perspective.

Finally, I take a dynamic within-person approach to capture how changes in newcomer abusive supervision affect newcomers' need deficiencies and corresponding remedial responses. In doing so, I provide a complementary perspective to the static between-person paradigm of abusive supervision research by unfolding within-person relationships between abusive supervision and newcomer reactions through SDT needs. More importantly, a dynamic within-person view of newcomer abusive supervision allows for practical interventions that help abused newcomers adaptively manage supervisory abuse.

1.4 Structure of The Thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction. Chapter 2 presents a detailed literature review of abusive supervision research and SDT. In Chapter 3, I develop hypotheses on the basis of abusive supervision literature and SDT. Chapter 4 presents method, results, and discussion of my multi-wave longitudinal study. In Chapter 5, I conclude the thesis and provide theoretical and practical implications, strengths and limitations of this study, and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I firstly review the literature of abusive supervision, including its definition, overlaps and differences with other relevant constructs, outcomes and mechanisms through which abusive supervision influences outcomes. This review serves as the foundation for developing the research model of the thesis. Next, I review the literature of self-determination theory to illustrate the theoretical background of this thesis. I then review newcomer socialization literature to present newcomers' characteristics. Following the propositions of recent abusive supervision literature, the needs-as-motives perspectives of self-determination theory, and newcomers' distinctive characteristics, I introduce newcomers' abused but not bruised reactions to abusive supervision.

2.1 Abusive Supervision

Since Tepper introduced the concept of abusive supervision in 2000, research in the area of abusive supervision has exploded. Past research has found that at the individual level, abusive supervision harms employees in countless ways – for example, by diminishing individual well-being, impeding task performance, triggering work-family conflict (e.g., Nandkeolyar et al., 2014; Restubog et al., 2011; Tepper, 2000); at the organizational level, abusive supervision costs organizations millions in employee turnover, lost productivity, and litigation (e.g., Barnes et al., 2015; Farh & Chen, 2014; Wee et al., 2017). Given these significant impacts of supervisory abuse on employees and organizations, researchers and practitioners should pay considerable attention to this phenomenon. In the following subsections, I review the definition of abusive supervision, its overlaps and differences with other relevant constructs, and present various theoretical lenses used to explain the effects of abusive supervision.

2.1.1 Definition of Abusive Supervision

Abusive supervision is defined as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding

physical contact" (Tepper, 2000: 178). Supervisory abusive behavior can take many forms, including silent treatment, making negative comments, behaving in a nasty manner, yelling at employees, and lying to employees (Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, & Chang, 2012; Tepper, 2000). To fully understand abusive supervision, it is essential to clarify how abusive supervision overlaps with and differs from other relevant constructs. Overlooking distinctions among the relevant constructs may evoke interpretation problems and even invalidate empirical examinations (Tepper & Henle, 2011). In the section to follow, I compare abusive supervision with other three often-examined workplace mistreatment constructs - bullying, social undermining, and workplace incivility.

2.1.2 Abusive Supervision and Related Constructs

Abusive supervision, bullying, social undermining, and workplace incivility fall under a broad rubric of workplace mistreatment (Hershcovis, 2011; McCord, Joseph, Dhanani, & Beus, 2018; Tepper, 2007). Workplace mistreatment refers to a situation where one or several individuals execute counter-normative negative behaviors against another organizational member (Cortina & Magley, 2003). Table 2.1 lists the definition, perpetrator, intensity, intention, and sample items of the four forms of workplace mistreatment.

Table 2.1

Overlaps and Differences of Workplace Mistreatment Constructs

Construct and Definition	Sample Items	Perpetrator	Intensity	Intention To Cause Harm
Abusive Supervision **Definition**: "Subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000: 178).	Gave you the silent treatment. Told you that you're incompetent. Told you your thoughts or feelings are stupid. Did not give you credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort. (Tepper, 2000)	Supervisor	High	Ambiguous
Bullying **Definition**: "A situation where one or several individuals persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from one or several persons, in a situation where the target of bullying has difficulty in defending him or herself against these actions" (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996: 191).	Being ignored or excluded. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes Having allegations made against you. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work. (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009)	Supervisor, or coworker	Extremely high	Yes
Social Undermining **Definition**: "Behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation" (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002: 332).	Gave you the silent treatment. Made you feel incompetent. Belittled you or your ideas. Undermined your effort to be successful on the job. (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002)	Supervisor, or coworker	Low to high	Yes
Workplace Incivility **Definition**: "Low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999: 457)	Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie. Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you. Doubted your judgement on a matter over which you have responsibility. Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion. (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001)	Supervisor, or coworker	Low	Ambiguous

From an operational standpoint, items used to measure abusive supervision overlap with items used to measure bullying, social undermining, and workplace incivility (please see the "Sample Items" column in Table 2.1). The overlap indicates abusive supervision aligns closely with the other three forms of workplace mistreatment. Nonetheless, abusive supervision is distinct from other workplace mistreatment behaviors. In particular, three dimensions of mistreatment – perpetrator, intensity, and intention - can facilitate us to distinguish between abusive supervision and other mistreatment behaviors. The three dimensions are summarized in the last three columns in Table 2.1

The first dimension that enables us to distinguish abusive supervision from the other three workplace mistreatments is the perpetrator. The perpetrator of abusive supervision is a supervisor, whereas the perpetrator of the other mistreatment behaviors can be a supervisor or a coworker.

Intensity is the second dimension that makes the four mistreatment constructs different. In terms of intensity, we can rely on a low-to-high continuum to understand the distinctions of the four mistreatment constructs precisely. At the low end of the intensity continuum is workplace incivility. As Andersson and Pearson (1999) defined, workplace incivility is "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999: 457). Social undermining researchers do not explicitly indicate the intensity of undermining behaviors in the definition. Nonetheless, the definition of social undermining states that this behavior hinders interpersonal relationships over time (Duffy et al., 2002). Therefore, it is reasonable to suspect that the intensity of social undermining changes from low to high over time (Hershcovis, 2011).

The definition of bullying (i.e., persistent negative actions over a period of time) indicates that this form of mistreatment is at the high end of the intensity continuum. In

general, bullying researchers include in their analysis only those participants that experienced bullying over a long time (at least six months) and with a high frequency (at least once a week) (Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Zapf & Gross, 2001). In view of persistence (at least six months) and frequency (at least once a week), bullying is more intensive than the other three mistreatment behaviors.

Similar to bullying, abusive supervision lies at the high end of the intensity continuum. Abusive supervision researchers emphasize the high-intensity feature of supervisory abuse by emphasizing the word "sustained" in the definition of abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000). Tepper (2007: 265) further explained that

> [A]busive supervision involves continuing exposure to hierarchical mistreatment — a boss who has a bad day and takes it out on his or her subordinates by exploding at them would not be considered an abusive supervisor unless such behavior became a regular feature of his or her repertoire.

Recently, some researchers challenge the "high intensity" assumption of abusive supervision. The researchers point out that this assumption restricts abusive supervision to a leadership style, assuming that some supervisors always abuse employees and some never do so (Barnes et al., 2015). Notably, this assumption precludes the possibility that any supervisor could be high in abusive supervision on one day and low on another day (Barnes et al., 2015). To address this possibility, recent research maintains that abusive supervision is not a sustained leadership style but behavior that may fluctuate within any supervisor (e.g., Barnes et al., 2015; Courtright et al., 2016; Qin, Huang, Johnson, Hu, & Ju, 2018). Moreover, this stream of research advocates taking a within-person approach to capture fluctuations in abusive supervision. Along these lines, this thesis discards the "high intensity" assumption of

abusive supervision and focuses on the within-person fluctuations in abusive supervision behaviors.

After reviewing two dimensions (i.e., source and intensity of workplace mistreatment), I next review the third dimension (i.e., intention of workplace mistreatment) to further elaborate the similarities and differences between abusive supervision and other relevant constructs. Among the four mistreatment behaviors analyzed here, social undermining is explicitly defined as malicious. By definition, behavior is not considered social undermining if it is not perceived as intentionally executed to hinder the target (Duffy et al., 2002). Similar to undermining, bullying is intentionally executed to harm the target. Although the definition of bullying does not mention the intention part, we can judge the intention of bullying to be malicious according to the high-intensity features of bullying (Zapf & Gross, 2001).

Different from social undermining and bullying, workplace incivility and abusive supervision are not always considered malicious. From the definition of workplace incivility, we get that workplace incivility is "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999: 457). That is to say, the perpetrator of workplace incivility may or may not intend to harm the target. Although the definition of abusive supervision does not refer to intention, research on abusive supervision advises that the intention of abusive supervision is ambiguous (Liu et al., 2012; Oh & Farh, 2017; Tepper, 2007). In some cases, abusive supervisors intend to harm the target, while in other cases, abusive supervisors intend to promote employee performance by executing abusive behaviors (Tepper, 2007; Oh & Farh, 2017). This view is supported by empirical studies. For instance, Liu et al. (2012) found that some employees interpreted the intention of abusive supervision as promoting performance rather than initiating harm.

The above review on mistreatment intention lays a foundation for the thesis because perpetrator's mistreatment intention plays an essential role in determining victim reactions (Oh & Farh, 2017). When a victim perceives mistreatment as intentionally designed to cause harm, the victim's negative reactions are intensified (Liu et al., 2012). In contrast, when a victim does not assume malicious intention of mistreatment, the victim's reactions are less likely to be negative (Liu et al., 2012). Through the above review, we note that the intention of abusive supervision is ambiguous, implicating that employee reactions to abusive supervision may not be negative and may even be positive. However, previous abusive supervision research lacks an in-depth understanding of this possibility. The present study aims to fill the research gap.

Taken together, what has been discussed above shows the overlaps and differences between abusive supervision and other relevant constructs. Two important points warrant scholarly inquiry. First, abusive supervision is behavior that may fluctuate within any supervisor (Barnes et al., 2015; Courtright et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2018). This point indicates the importance of examining abusive supervision from a within-person perspective. Accordingly, this study takes a within-person approach to explore newcomer abusive supervision. Second, the intention of abusive supervision may be performance-promotion rather than harm-initiation (Liu et al., 2012; Oh & Farh, 2017; Tepper, 2007). This point hints the possibility of employees' adaptive reactions in face of suupervisory abuse. Surprisingly, no research has examined abused employees' adaptive responses. The thesis seeks to address this possibility. Before I hypothesize abused employees' adaptive reactions, I provide a review on outcomes of abusive supervision and underlying mechanisms in the following section, in order to lay a solid theoretical foundation for my hypothesized model.

2.1.3 Outcomes of Abusive Supervision and Underlying Mechanisms

Previous research has found that abusive supervision produces a host of unwanted outcomes for employees and organizations, such as ill-being (e.g., Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Duffy et al., 2002), family undermining (e.g., Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Restubog et al., 2011), organization deviance (e.g., Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008), and turnover (e.g., Farh & Chen, 2014; Tepper, 2000). Moreover, past research has found different mechanisms such as justice (e.g., Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000), negative affect (e.g., Lian et al., 2014a; Simon, Hurst, Kelley, & Judge, 2015), and social exchange (e.g., Peng, Schaubroeck, & Li, 2014; Xu et al., 2012), through which abusive supervision poses detrimental effects on employees and organizations. In particular, past research suggests that abusive supervision triggers perception of injustice, negative affect, and negative social exchange, which in turn precipitate negative work outcomes. These mediation models advance abusive supervision research by specifying different psychological mechanisms linking abuse to outcomes. However, these models have adopted different theoretical perspectives and have developed in isolation from each other to explain the negative effects of abusive supervision. Under such circumstance, some researchers raise concerns that abusive supervision research risks becoming atheoretical (Lian et al., 2012b; Tepper, 2007). To address the atheoretical concerns, I suggest that basic psychological needs can provide a point of convergence for the various independent theoretical perspectives. Therefore, in the section to follow, I first review different theoretical perspectives used in previous research, and then I illustrate how these independent theoretical lenses converge to a common basis – a focus on basic psychological needs (cf. Lian et al., 2012b; Rosen et al., 2013).

A Retaliation Perspective

A large body of abusive supervision research adopts a retaliation perspective to explain how abusive supervision is related to negative outcomes. The retaliation perspective suggests that abusive supervision stimulates a desire for retaliation because the abusive treatment is a substantial affront to employees' sense of self (e.g., Lian et al., 2014a; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). When employees feel offended, they are likely to engage in retaliatory acts, even at considerable personal costs (Brown, 1968). Besides, as a source of interactional injustice, supervisory abuse induces resentment which should translate into a desire for retaliation (Tepper et al., 2001a). Moreover, research has found that abusive supervision thwarts employees' basic psychological needs (Lian et al., 2012b). Experiencing deficiency on basic psychological needs is painful, resulting in individual ill-being such as burnout, depression, and life dissatisfaction (Chen et al., 2015; Schultz, Ryan, Niemiec, Legate, & Williams, 2015). In summary, when basic psychological needs are thwarted by an abusive supervisor, abused employees may develop a desire to retaliate against their abusive supervisor (Lian et al., 2012b).

To satisfy the desire for retaliation, abused employees tend to engage in workplace deviance behaviors that cause harm to supervisors, coworkers, organizations, and family members (Bennett & Robinson, 2003). In the abusive supervision context, workplace deviance behaviors can be classified into two categories – supervisor-oriented deviance and displaced deviance (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Some abused employees directly retaliate against their supervisor through supervisor-oriented deviance, such as supervisor-oriented aggression and resistance (e.g., Dupré, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hoption, 2006; Inness et al., 2005; Liu, Kwong Kwan, Wu, & Wu, 2010; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2001a). However, some abused employees restrict their impulse to execute supervisor-oriented deviance behaviors. Instead, the employees displace deviance behaviors towards other targets, such as organization,

coworkers, and family members, to satisfy their retaliation desire (Farh & Chen, 2014; Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012a; Mawritz et al., 2014; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Restubog et al., 2011; Tepper et al., 2008). For instance, abused employees take property from their organization without permission (organizational deviance; Mawritz et al., 2014), act rudely toward coworkers (coworker-oriented deviance; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), and insult family members (family undermining; Restubog et al., 2011). There are several explanations for displaced deviance. First is fear of retaliation by supervisors (Mawritz et al., 2014; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Restubog et al., 2011; Tepper et al., 2008). Supervisor-directed deviance is risky because it holds the possibility of breaking the working relationship with supervisors and inducing retaliation from supervisors (Lian et al., 2014a; Lian, Ferris, Morrison, & Brown, 2014b). Second is self-resignation. That is, abused employees give up taking actions because they think no action would be effective to change the abusive situation (Bies, 1996; Oh & Farh, 2017). Third, some abused employees do not exert supervisor-directed deviance because they are concerned with future outcomes rather than immediate retaliatory gratification (Lian et al., 2014a; Oh & Farh, 2017).

In conclusion, the retaliation perspective suggests that abusive supervision triggers a retaliation desire, which in turn translates into supervisor-directed deviance and displaced deviance. Notably, employees are motivated to restrict supervisor-directed deviance due to fear of supervisor retaliation, self-resignation, and concern with future goals, etc. This implicates that not all abused employees tend to retaliate against their supervisor. In fact, it has recently been suggested that some considerations (such as concern with future goals, self-regulatory focus) propel abused employees to channel their retaliation impulse into motivation to thrive (Oh & Farh, 2017; Wee et al., 2017).

An Ego Depletion Perspective

Some researchers point out that the retaliation perspective is possibly inaccurate in explaining why abused employees respond to abusive supervision with deviance (e.g., Lian et al., 2014a; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). The researchers suspect the retaliation perspective by challenging its assumption. Fundamental to the retaliation perspective is a self-gain assumption: given the principle of rational man, abused employees choose to execute retaliation behavior when the gains of the behavior exceed its costs, otherwise abused employees would not do so (Thau & Mitchell, 2010). The potential gains of retaliation comprise satisfying retribution desire (Liu et al., 2010; Tepper et al., 2001a), balancing unfavorable exchange (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Zellars et al., 2002), and attempting to deter future abuse (Oh & Farh, 2017; Wee et al., 2017). However, the self-gain assumption is possibly inaccurate (Thau & Mitchell, 2010). As previously described, most employees recognize that retaliation incurs a costly risk of punishment from their supervisor and organization, but still retaliate against supervisor and organization through deviance behavior. Thus, the question becomes: why do abused victims irrationally engage in deviance behavior when they recognize the costs of the behavior are greater than the gains?

Several empirical studies answer the question by demonstrating that abused employees' deviant behavior is not always driven by retaliation desire but simply caused by inability to refrain from deviance behavior (Lian et al., 2012a; Lian et al., 2012b; Lian et al., 2014; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). This perspective is derived from ego depletion theory, which argues that individuals require self-control abilities to refrain from deviant behaviors (Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). However, some stressful situations deplete self-resources, impairing one's ability to constrain deviant behaviors (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Abusive supervision is one of the stressful situations that deplete self-resources (Nandkeolyar et al., 2011).

A large body of research has found that abusive supervision depletes victims' cognitive, emotional, and physical resources. First, abusive supervision taxes victims' cognitive resources because it propels victims to interpret the causes of this event, to appraise their coping capabilities, and to design appropriate coping strategies (Lian et al., 2012b; Oh & Farh, 2017; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Abusive supervision also drains victims' emotional resources because it triggers intense negative emotions, including anger and fear (Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen, & Fatimah, 2016; Simon et al., 2015). To manage the negative emotions, employees need to execute surface acting and deep acting, which in turn result in emotional exhaustion (Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Tepper, 2000). Third, abusive supervision requires employees to focus physical resources, such as time and energy, on dealing with stress caused by abuse (Nandkeolyar et al., 2014). Therefore, as a result of abusive supervision, abused employees will be short of cognitive, emotional, and physical resources to refrain from workplace deviance.

In a word, ego depletion perspective suggests that sometimes it is ego depletion, rather than retaliation desire, that mediates the relation between abusive supervision and workplace deviance. Notably, ego-depletion effect can be temporarily overcome by motivation (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). When abused employees have strong self-control motivation, they can constrain their deviant behaviors even at a low level of self-control resources (Lian et al., 2014a). This point hints the importance of taking motivation into account when examining employee reactions to abusive supervision.

A Social Learning Perspective

Besides above-mentioned retaliation desire and ego depletion mechanisms, extant research has proposed a third mechanism – social learning - through which abusive supervision increases workplace deviance. Drawing on social learning theory, abusive supervision researchers advise that abused employees may unintentionally or intentionally

learn and mimic deviance behaviors from their abusive supervisor (e.g., Duffy, Shaw, Scott, & Tepper, 2006; Farh & Chen, 2014; Lian et al., 2012a; Liu et al., 2012; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Restubog et al., 2011). At a subconscious level, employees who are exposed to abusive supervision may unintentionally learn deviant behaviors from their supervisor and display similar deviant behaviors toward their coworkers (Duffy et al., 2006; Farh & Chen, 2014).

Although observation of abuse poses a prime effect on employees' deviance tendencies, observation is not necessarily related to emulation and execution of deviance behaviors (Lian et al., 2012a; Liu et al., 2012). Social learning theory proposes that whether an individual emulates certain behaviors of other social agents depends on three factors – retention (recalling the behavior that one has observed), reproduction (having the capability to reproduce the behavior), and motivation (having a good reason for mimicking the behavior) (Bandura, 1973). The motivation component underscores a fact that the likelihood of employees mimicking supervisor's abusive behavior depends on the presumed favorable outcomes of mimicking behavior (Liu et al., 2012). If mimicking abusive behavior engenders unfavorable outcomes, then an abused employee should have low motivation for emulation. Conversely, if mimicking abusive behavior brings about favorable outcomes, then an abused employee is motivated to emulate the behavior. For example, Liu et al. (2012) demonstrated that certain team leaders perceive their manager's abusive behavior is instrumental in promoting their performance, and subsequently they emulate and execute the abusive behavior toward their subordinates (Liu et al., 2012). On this point, we can see that the social learning perspective is different from retaliation and ego depletion perspectives in explaining the abuse-deviance relation. Whereas retaliation and ego depletion perspectives suggest that abused employees perceive abusive supervision as detrimental, social learning perspective argues that abused employees may interpret abusive supervision as an instrumental force that

motivates them to work harder, work smarter, and make greater progress (Liu et al., 2012). So, within the social learning perspective, there are hints that employees may be motivated by abusive supervision to improve performance.

A Stress Coping Perspective

Among the three perspectives mentioned above, the social learning perspective implicates that abusive supervision can induce eustress that promotes work performance, whereas the retaliation and ego depletion perspectives hold that abusive supervision causes distress that triggers hostile emotion and depletes personal resources. All the three perspectives indicate that abusive supervision is a workplace stressor that may trigger eustress or distress. Along this line of reasoning, some researchers analyze how abusive supervision influences employees through a stress perspective (Mawritz et al., 2014; Nandkeolyar et al., 2014; Restubog et al., 2011; Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007; Wee et al., 2017).

To deal with stress triggered by abusive supervision, different employees may adopt different coping strategies. According to the transactional theory of stress, when individuals perceive a stressor as uncontrollable, they are inclined to adopt emotion-focused coping strategies in order to regulate their emotions (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). On the contrary, when individuals perceive a stressor as controllable, they tend to use problem-focused coping strategies so as to solve stress-related problems (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Scholars have not reached a consensus for whether abusive supervision is an uncontrollable stressor or a controllable stressor. Some scholars interpret abusive supervision as an uncontrollable stressor. In accordance with the transactional theory of stress, these scholars contend that abused employees adopt emotion-focused strategies to deal with the uncontrollable stressor (e.g., Mawritz et al., 2014; Restubog et al., 2011). Examples of emotion-focused coping strategies are organizational deviance, psychological withdrawal, and family undermining.

Abused employees seek to vent their negative emotions through emotion-focused coping strategies.

However, some scholars consider abusive supervision a controllable stressor. Grounded in the transactional theory of stress, these scholars maintain that abused employees may use problem-focused strategies to handle the controllable stressor (e.g., Tepper et al., 2007; Wee et al., 2017). Problem-focused coping strategies comprise direct communication with supervisor, promotion-focused work efforts, and prevention-focused work efforts.

In summary, the stress coping perspective contends that employees react to abusive supervision with emotion-focused coping strategies or problem-focused coping strategies. While emotion-focused coping strategies (e.g., deviance behaviors) represent employees' typical destructive reactions to abusive supervision, problem-focused coping strategies exemplify employees' constructive responses to abuse.

An Emotional Perspective

From the above four theoretical lenses, we understand that abusive supervision can result in deviance behaviors through retaliation desire, ego depletion, social learning mechanism, and psychological stress. In addition to the four lenses, some research formulates an emotional perspective. This stream of research explores how abused employees' deviance behaviors arise from different types of negative emotions, such as anger, hostility, anxiety, and fear (e.g., Ferris et al., 2016; Lian et al., 2014a; Oh & Farh, 2017; Schwarzmüller, Brosi, & Welpe, 2018; Simon et al., 2015). A large body of this research applies an approach-avoidance framework to illustrate the mediating effect of negative emotion on the relation between abusive supervision and deviance behaviors. Drawing on the approach-avoidance framework, researchers categorize abused employees' emotions into two types - approach-based emotions (including anger and hostility) and avoidance-based emotions (including anxiety and fear). Empirical studies find that approach-based emotions trigger approach-

oriented deviance behaviors such as supervisor-directed aggression (Ferris et al., 2016; Lian et al., 2014a; Schwarzmüller et al., 2018; Simon et al., 2015), whereas avoidance-based emotions induce avoidance-oriented deviance behaviors such as withdrawal (Ferris et al., 2016; Simon et al., 2015). However, negative emotions do not always lead to destructive outcomes. Recent research holds that abusive supervision can boost constructive outcomes through negative emotions. For example, Oh and Farh (2017) contended that anger may propel abused employees to enhance promotion-focused work efforts, and fear may drive abused employees to increase prevention-focused work efforts.

Taken together, the emotion perspective indicates that abusive supervision elicits negative emotions, which in turn induce destructive and constructive responses. Here a broad implication is that future research may benefit by investigating a larger range of abused employees' responses, including both destructive and constructive ones.

A Social Exchange Perspective

Up till now, I have reviewed several theoretical lenses used to explain the relationship between abusive supervision and increased deviance behaviors. Although engaging in deviance behaviors is one way to reciprocate supervisory abuse, the "tit for tat" reciprocity is risky (Lian et al., 2014b). Tit-for-tat responses risk inducing greater punishments from abusive supervisors. So, some scholars, departing from social exchange theory, advise a less risky way in response to supervisory abuse: reducing positive social exchange rather than increasing negative social exchange (e.g., Aryee et al., 2007; Peng et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012; Zellars et al., 2002). I have talked about increases of negative social exchange in the *retaliation* section. Next, I discuss decreases of positive social exchange in the abusive supervision context.

An example of positive social exchange is: when a supervisor takes care of his or her subordinate, the subordinate is willing to reciprocate the supervisor with positive work

attitudes and behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). However, abusive supervision impedes positive social exchange. Several empirical studies have demonstrated this point. Scholars used trust (Peng et al., 2014), leader-member exchange (Peng et al., 2014; Xu, Loi, & Lam, 2015), and justice (Aryee et al., 2007; Zellars et al., 2002) to operationalize the positive social exchange between abusive supervisors and subordinates. The studies have found that abusive supervision decreased the level of trust, impeded leader-member exchange, and induced perceptions of interpersonal injustice. As a result, employees feel less obligation to engage in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which is beneficial to their social exchange partners (e.g., Aryee et al., 2007; Peng et al., 2014; Rafferty & Restubog, 2011; Xu et al., 2015; Zellars et al., 2002). The social exchange perspective drives our attention away from workplace deviance to OCB, indicating that decreasing OCB might be a less risky way to balance the supervisor-subordinate social exchange than increasing workplace deviance.

To summarize, Section 2.1 presented six oft-used theoretical lenses through which abusive supervision influences employee work outcomes. Please see the left column of Table 2.2 for the summary. All the six lenses represent tenable yet separate accounts of how abusive supervision affects employee work outcomes. However, a closer examination of the six lenses indicates that these lenses share a common basis, i.e., SDT's basic psychological needs. Scholars have argued that each of the six theoretical lenses reveals substantial overlap with basic psychological needs. In the right column of Table 2.2, I list scholars' theoretical arguments about how each theoretical lens overlaps with basic psychological needs.

Table 2.2
A Common Basis of The Six Theoretical Perspectives

Theoretical Perspective of Abusive Supervision	Overlap with Basic Psychological Needs
A Retaliation Perspective: AS → Retaliation Desire → Increased Deviant Reactions	AS thwarts basic psychological needs. Having basic psychological needs been thwarted is painful; so, abused employees develop a desire to a retaliation desire to punish the perpetrator (Lian et al., 2012b).
An Ego Depletion Perspective: AS → Ego Depletion → Increased Deviant Reactions	AS threatens basic psychological needs. When basic psychological needs are threatened, employees need to spend resources processing, interpreting, and understanding the causes and consequences of the harm. As a result, abused employees are likely to experience ego depletion (Lian et al., 2012b).
A Social Learning Perspective: AS → Social Learning → Increased Deviant Reactions	Some abused employees perceive that AS is beneficial for need satisfaction (e.g., competence). Consequently, these employees tend to learn and mimic abusive behavior (Liu et al., 2012).
A Stress Coping Perspective: AS → Stress → Increased Deviant Reactions AS → Stress → Increased Constructive Reactions	AS results in need deficiency. According to the conservation of resources theory, basic psychological needs are essential resources, deficiency of which induces stress (Rosen et al., 2013).
An Emotional Perspective: AS → Negative Emotions → Increased Deviant Reactions AS → Negative Emotions → Increased Constructive Reactions	AS is an emotionally salient event partly because it disturbs employees need satisfaction (Simon et al., 2015).
A Social Exchange Perspective: AS → Social Exchange → Decreased Constructive Reactions	AS is detrimental to basic psychological needs. Detriments to psychological needs affect social exchange (Rosen et al., 2013).

Note. AS = Abusive Supervision.

Scholars' arguments about the role of basic psychological needs limit basic psychological needs to a mediating conduit, which transmits the effect of abusive supervision into subjective experiences of retaliation desire, ego depletion, social learning, negative emotion, stress, and poor social exchange. Yet, Rosen et al. (2013) proposed that the role of basic psychological needs is not limited to simply linking interpersonal conditions (such as abusive supervision) to experiences of retaliation, ego depletion, social learning, negative emotion, stress, and poor social exchange. Rather, in accordance with SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), I suggest that basic psychological needs play a larger role by influencing a great variety of affective, behavioral, cognitive, and motivational outcomes (cf. Rosen et al., 2013). Following SDT's and Rosen et al.'s (2013) proposition, I posit that the six theoretical lenses reviewed in Section 2.1 are just six of any number of outcomes that basic psychological needs can affect. Therefore, it makes sense to believe that it is not the experiences of retaliation, ego depletion, social learning, negative emotion, stress, and poor social exchange that affect abused employees' reactions, but rather these experiences are by-products of need deficiencies. Taken together, I argue that SDT's basic psychological needs are the primary underlying mechanisms linking abusive supervision to employee reactions.

Lian et al. (2012) have examined the mediating role basic psychological needs play in the relationship between abusive supervision and negative work outcome – organizational deviance. Lian and colleagues stated that abusive supervision should thwart each of the three basic psychological needs. First, supervisor's abusive behaviors, such as belittling subordinates and emphasizing their shortcomings, can negatively influence subordinates' sense of competence because these supervisory behaviors call into question one's ability and achievement. Second, abusive supervisory beahviors signal to a subordinate that he or she is not well-respected within the group, resulting in a decreased sense of belongingness and relatedness. Third, abused subordinates may begin to behave in line with what their

supervisor desire so as to prevent future abuse, leading to a loss of autonomy at work. Notably, Lian et al. (2012) modeled the three basic psychological needs - competence, relatedness, and autonomy needs - as an overall construct by reasoning that thwarting of any need produces similar negative outcomes. Specifically, Lian et al. stated that thwarting of any need would trigger a desire for retaliation as well as deplete self-regulation resources. Due to retaliation desire and resource depletion, abused employees would engage in organizational deviance.

This thesis echoes Lian et al.'s argument by proposing that abusive supervision thwarts subordinates' competence, relatedness, and autonomy. However, different from Lian et al.'s approach, the current thesis tests the three basic psychological needs separately in that the three needs are conceptually distinguishable. Further, Lian and colleagues suggested that deficit of any need produces similar negative outcomes, while I expect that different need deficiencies would lead to different outcomes, particularly for newcomers. The thesis expands Lian et al.'s research by sampling newcomers and testing different work outcomes. In particular, I examine how newcomer abusive supervision leads to constructive work outcomes, instead of destructive work outcomes, through basic psychological needs. To gain an in-depth understanding of how abusive supervision influences newcomer work outcomes through SDT's basic psychological needs, I will review SDT in the section to follow.

2.2 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) specifies three basic psychological needs – autonomy need, competence need, and relatedness need (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Relatedness need represents individual desire to feel connected with others, that is, to care and be cared about by others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Competence need is defined as the need to effectively bring about desired effects and outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Autonomy need captures human desire to exercise control over one's actions (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Scholars posit that basic psychological needs have two facets. The first facet is labeled as needs-as-requirements facet, and the second facet is needs-as-motives facet (Sheldon, 2001). Following review offers detailed information about the two facets of SDT needs.

2.2.1 A Needs-as-Requirements Facet

A needs-as-requirements facet of basic psychological needs addresses that basic psychological needs are essential nutrients for optimal functioning, and thus deficiencies of basic psychological needs result in a variety of negative outcomes, such as poor performance, individual ill-being, and deviant behaviors (e.g., Chen et al., 2015; Lian et al., 2012a; Rosen et al., 2013; Schultz et al., 2015). Here I elucidate several negative outcomes of need deficiencies, which are also outcomes of abusive supervision relevant to the current study.

Work Group Integration

SDT research has found that need deficiencies block individuals from work group integration. The first reason is that individuals who feel need deficiencies are less likely to help group members. For example, when individuals feel relatedness deficiency, they are likely to feel a diminished sense of belongingness and thus feel less motivation to help others (Baumeister, 2012). In addition, when individuals' autonomy need is thwarted, they tend to reduce their efforts on discretionary behaviors such as helping behaviors (Zellars et al., 2002). What's more, individuals who feel competence deficiency may lack self-efficacy to conduct helping behaviors (Rosen et al., 2013).

The second reason is that individuals who experience need deficiencies tend to engage in interpersonal deviance behaviors, which impede work group integration. For example, both experimental and empirical evidence shows that individuals who have been subjected to need deficiencies are more aggressive toward interaction partners than those who have not (e.g., Joussemet et al., 2008; Kirkpatrick, Waugh, Valencia, & Webster, 2002;

Leary, Kowalski, Smith, & Phillips, 2003; Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001). Moreover, a meta-analysis has shown that deficiencies of relatedness, autonomy, and competence lead to breakdowns in self-regulation (Ng et al., 2012). As a result of self-regulation breakdown, individuals find it difficult to constrain their interpersonal deviance behaviors, which cause harm to interpersonal relationships (Lian et al., 2012b; Michel & Hargis, 2017; Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Taken together, the needs-as-requirements perspective indicates that need deficiencies are inversely related to work group integration.

Performance

Past research has found that need deficiencies diminish task performance (e.g., Gagné & Deci, 2005; Hodgins et al., 2010; Van den Broeck et al., 2010). One explanation is that need deficiencies elicit cautious thinking about the causes and consequences of the harm, depleting cognitive resources and thus interfering with task performance (Hodgins et al., 2010). Another explanation emphasizes that need deficiencies threaten self-esteem (Baumeister, 1997; Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, 2015). Driven by self-verification motive, individuals tend to verify their negative image by engaging in negative behaviors, for example, decreased work engagement and task performance (Ferris et al., 2015; Swann, 2012). Third, need deficiencies may be threatening experiences that elicit emotional distress (Baumeister, 1997). Such aversive experiences are probably detrimental to individuals' work motivation (Barnes et al., 2015). Consequently, individuals who experience need deficiencies become amotivated and unwilling to put efforts in their work tasks (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

To summarize, need deficiencies deplete cognitive resources, threaten self-esteem, and elicit emotional distress. These crises probably impede individual's engagement in work tasks. Decreased task performance could therefore ensue.

Compliance

According to the needs-as-requirements view, need deficiencies may lead individuals to comply with authority figures including parents, teachers, and leaders (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). When basic psychological needs are thwarted, individuals may perceive compliance as a way to protect relatedness, competence, and autonomy from being further thwarted. For example, some abused employees choose to behave in line with what their supervisor desires (Lian et al., 2012b), in order to maintain relatedness with supervisor and prevent competence from being further assailed by supervisor. Although complying with authority figures enables individuals to protect their basic psychological needs, it does not touch the root cause of the problem. Indeed, compliance may precipitate a vicious cycle of need deficiencies in that it deprives individuals of the most fundamental need – autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In summary, the needs-as-requirements facet maintains that need deficiencies would disturb work group integration, diminish task performance, force compliance with authorities.

2.2.2 A Needs-as-Motives Facet

While the needs-as-requirements facet states that need deficiencies result in work group exclusion, poor performance, compliance with authorities, the needs-as-motives facet posits that need deficiencies drive individuals to the opposite side.

Given that basic psychological needs are essential nutrients for optimal functioning, some researchers suspect that we should get the basic psychological needs when they are unmet, just as we want food and water when these basic physical needs are unmet. This view is consistent with SDT's assumption that individuals are active agents who proactively get their needs satisfied rather than wait for the environment to satisfy their needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). Accordingly, it makes sense to believe that need deficiencies motivate individuals to get involved in work group, improve task performance, and preserve

a sense of autonomy, so as to get their deficient needs restored (Sheldon, 2011; Sheldon & Gunz, 2009).

Although the needs-as-motives facet is relatively novel, several empirical and experimental studies have provided evidence for the facet. In the following, I present these studies to show motivational functions of need deficiencies. In particular, I elucidate how different types of need deficiencies, including relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, and autonomy deficiency, motivate individuals to engage in different need restoration behaviors. That is, relatedness deficiency elicits relatedness restoration behavior (as indexed by increased work group integration in the present thesis), competence deficiency induces competence restoration behavior (as indexed by improved task performance in the present thesis), and autonomy deficiency triggers autonomy restoration behavior (as indexed by control experiences in the present thesis).

Relatedness Restoration Behaviors

It is suggested that individuals respond to relatedness deficiency with increased motivation to build interpersonal bonds, aiming at restoring relatedness (Maner et al., 2007). Empirical studies show that relatedness deficiency drives individuals to engage in interpersonal reconnection behaviors, for instance, using Facebook and making new friends (Frison & Eggermont, 2015; Masur, Reinecke, Ziegele, & Quiring, 2014; Sheldon, Abad, & Hinsch, 2011). These interpersonal reconnection behaviors provide individuals with an opportunity to meet new people, to relieve their loneliness, and to care about and be cared about by others (Frison & Eggermont, 2015; Masur et al., 2014).

Experimental studies demonstrate that manipulated social exclusion, which thwarts individuals' relatedness need (DeWall, Maner, & Rouby, 2009), triggers a variety of interpersonal reconnection behaviors. For instance, individuals who experience social exclusion tend to form more positive impressions of new partners and assign greater rewards

to new partners than those who do not experience social exclusion (DeWall, Baumeister, & Vohs, 2008; Knowles, Haycock, & Shaikh, 2015; Maner et al., 2007). Notably, previous research findings also suggest some boundary conditions for the interpersonal reconnection hypothesis (DeWall et al., 2008; Maner et al., 2007). For example, individuals who feel a low level of relatedness are not likely to reconnect with the perpetrators who thwart their relatedness; these individuals will try to build social bonds with other new partners (Maner et al., 2007). This boundary condition is relevant to the current research. It implicates that abused employees whose relatedness is thwarted by their abusive supervisors will not seek reconnection with the perpetrators, i.e., their supervisors. Instead, abused employees may turn to their coworkers who hold promising possibilities for social connections. If this is the case, work group integration could therefore be improved.

Competence Restoration Behaviors

According to SDT, competence is a basic psychological need that must be procured to maintain personal growth, optimal functioning, and individual well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). If experiencing competence is vital for individuals, it is unlikely that individuals would passively accept competence deficiency without activating a restoration process (Fang et al., 2017). Thus, different from the needs-as-requirements facet, the needs-as-motives facet predicts that competence deficiency can lead individuals to take actions to rebalance competence deficiency.

For example, in an experimental study, Fang et al. (2008) found that individuals who feel competence deficiency had a greater motivation (measured by electrophysiological data) to win in a subsequent task, especially when this task helps restore competence. Besides, empirical research indicates that individuals who experience competence deficiency express greater willingness to participate in competence development projects (Charatsari, Lioutas, & Koutsouris, 2017). It has also been demonstrated that individuals whose competence need is

thwarted in real life tend to seek competence satisfaction through online activities (Li et al., 2016; Wong, Yuen, & Li, 2015).

In contrast, competence satisfaction may not motivate individuals to exert more effort on their work tasks and even lead to coasting effect. SDT research has found that competence satisfaction was strongly correlated with positive affect (Demir & Özdemir, 2010; Howell, Chenot, Hill, & Howell, 2011; Mouratidis, Vansteenkiste, Michou, & Lens, 2013). Positive affect indicates that current efforts are sufficient, things are going well, and no more efforts are needed; consequently, positive affect leads to decreased effort (George & Zhou, 2002; Louro, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2007). This effect is referred to as coasting (Carver & Scheier, 2004). Therefore, I suggest that compared with competence satisfaction state, competence deficiency state is more likely to boost work effort and improve task performance.

Autonomy Restoration Behaviors

The existence of an autonomy restoration process has been well-established in SDT literature (e.g., Li et al., 2016; Radel, Pelletier, & Sarrazin, 2013; Radel, Pelletier, Sarrazin, & Milyavskaya, 2011; Wong et al., 2015). Conceptual papers advise that autonomy deficiency motivates individuals to increase control over activities, so as to compensate for the sense of autonomy deficiency (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Empirical studies demonstrate that autonomy-disturbed individuals are more likely to become addicted to internet because internet online activities can provide a sense of autonomy (Li et al., 2016; Wong et al., 2015). Experimental research has found that autonomy-deprived participants tend to approach potential sources of autonomy and avoid potential threats of autonomy to restore a sense of autonomy (Radel et al., 2011).

It is worth noting that Radel and colleagues (2013) found that autonomy restoration process depends on the level of perceived competence. When perceived competence is high, autonomy-deprived individuals strive to restore autonomy. However, when perceived

competence is low, autonomy-deprived individuals relinquish autonomy. Radel et al. (2013) suggested that autonomy-deprived individuals who perceive a low level of competence seem to favor competence rather than autonomy. This view indicates that individuals may prioritize competence over autonomy when these two psychological needs are simultaneously deficient.

In addition to SDT literature, abusive supervision literature and newcomer socialization literature have also established evidence for the relationship between autonomy deficiency and autonomy restoration behaviors. Although these two literatures do not directly build theoretical arguments based on SDT's "needs-as-motives" hypothesis (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009), they employ other theories to explain the autonomy restoration process.

For example, abusive supervision researchers employ reactance theory to argue that abused employees may perceive decreased sense of autonomy and enact certain behaviors to restore the sense of autonomy (Peng et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012; Zellars et al., 2002). According to reactance theory, one potential way to restore the sense of autonomy is to experience discretion in one's behavior (Brehm, 1966). Therefore, abused employees may withdraw their organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) over which they have discretion (Xu et al., 2012; Zellars et al., 2002). Besides withdrawing OCB, individuals can also choose to experience control during leisure time to restore the sense of autonomy (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Importantly, experience control during leisure time does not mean that one has to engage in leisure activities (such as watching TV, hiking, and playing sports) to regain feelings of autonomy. Recovery research suggests that as long as an activity is self-determined, individuals can feel a sense of autonomy even if the activity is work-related (Trougakos, Hideg, Cheng, & Beal, 2014).

In addition to abusive supervision research, newcomer socialization research has also explored the relationship between autonomy deficiency and autonomy restoration behaviors.

For instance, Ashford and Black (1996) suggested that newcomers are likely to experience a loss of control during organizational entry because of uncertainty and ambiguity associated with the new work environment. Driven by a desire for control, newcomers are likely to actively engage in the proactive activities, such as feedback seeking, positive framing, and job negotiation, in order to regain feelings of control (Ashford & Black, 1996).

Taken together, SDT literature, abusive supervision literature, and newcomer socialization literature state that autonomy-thwarted individuals react to autonomy deficiency by engaging in a variety of compensatory behaviors, such as withdrawing OCB, experiencing control during leisure time, and seeking feedback. Importantly, previous research hints that individuals may prioritize competence restoration over autonomy restoration when competence and autonomy needs both are thwarted (Radel et al., 2013).

To summarize this section, I make a comparison between SDT's needs-as-requirements facet and needs-as-motives facet (Table 2.3). In Table 2.3, we note that research of the needs-as-requirements facet generally models SDT triplets as an overall construct, while research of the needs-as-motives facet typically model SDT triplets separately. A possible explanation is that researchers of the needs-as-requirements facet argue that all three needs are essential elements for optimal functioning, deficit of any need would result in negative outcomes (Chen et al., 2015); whereas researchers of the needs-as-motives facet state that a specific type of need deficiency triggers behaviors that would specifically restore the deficient need (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). Here, a question comes out: should the current research model SDT's three needs as an overall construct or model them separately.

Table 2.3
Comparison between Needs-as-Requirements and Needs-as-Motives Facets

Needs-as-Requirements Facet	Needs-as-Motives Facet
Need deficiency → Decreased work group Integration	Relatedness deficiency → Increased work integration
Need deficiency → Decreased task performance	Competence deficiency → Increased task performance
Need deficiency → Increased compliance	Autonomy deficiency → Increased compensatory control

Although a large body of research models the three basic psychological needs as an overall construct (Lian et al., 2012b; Mayer et al., 2012; Rosen et al., 2013; Trépanier, Fernet, & Austin, 2015), a recent meta-analysis suggests ceasing this practice (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Van den Broeck and colleagues (2016) justified their suggestion through a meta-analysis of 99 studies. To evaluate the (in)appropriateness of modeling three needs as an overall construct, Van den Broeck and colleagues examined the incremental predictive validity of each need in predicting SDT-related outcomes. Given that SDT conceptualizes the three basic needs as separate and noncompensatory entities (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009), each of the three needs should demonstrate incremental predictive validity in predicting SDT-related outcomes; otherwise, the three needs should be combined into an overall construct (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Through relative weight analyses, Van den Broeck et al. demonstrated relatedness, competence, and autonomy each incrementally predict SDT-related outcomes beyond each other. Hence, these scholars argue that the three SDT needs should be considered separately. Following Van den Broeck et al.'s (2016) recommendations, the thesis models the three psychological needs separately. In doing so, I seek to add more precision to the argument that relatedness, competence, and autonomy deficiencies motivate different individual reactions.

From Table 2.3, we can see that the two facets make opposite predictions about individual reactions to need deficiency. Although needs-as-requirements facet and needs-as-

motives facet seem relatively contradictory, the two facets are not opposite poles. Sheldon's (2011) two-process model of psychological needs indicates that needs-as-requirements and needs-as-motives occur at different phases of a dynamic process. Need deficiencies motivate individuals to engage in remedial behaviors, which may or may not result in need satisfaction. When the behaviors instigated by these motives chronically fail to meet needs, people may suffer from ill-being, become amotivated to take remedial acts to meet their needs, and even engage in maladaptive behaviors, such decreasing aggressing against coworkers, decreasing task performance, and complying with external pressure (Prentice et al., 2014; Sheldon, 2011; Sheldon et al., 2011). Sheldon's (2011) two-process model hints that perhaps organizational tenure may serve as a moderator on the relationship between need deficiencies and individual reactions. When an individual's organizational tenure is short, the individual is likely to respond to need deficiencies in a needs-as-motives manner. In contrast, when an individual's organizational tenure is long, the individual tends to react to need deficiencies in a needs-as-requirements manner. Since the focus of this thesis is on newcomers whose organizational tenure is short than one year, I predict that newcomer reactions to need deficiency follow a needs-as-motives pattern. In the next section, I list some newcomer characteristics to illustrate my predictions in more detail.

2.3 Newcomer Characteristics

The current research focuses on newcomer reactions to need deficiencies caused by abusive supervision. This begs a question about differences between newcomer reactions and veteran reactions. I propose that abused newcomers respond to need deficiencies in a needs-as-motives manner while abused veterans react to need deficiencies in a needs-as-requirements manner. The proposition is supported by multiple literatures, including stress coping literature, newcomer socialization literature, and aging literature.

First, stress coping literature conceptualizes need deficiencies as psychological stress (Lian et al., 2012b; Radel et al., 2013; Radel et al., 2011). Selye et al.'s (1946) stress adaptation model describes individual reactions to psychological stress as occurring in three stages. The first stage is an alarm reaction stage, in which individuals allocate many resources to fight against stress (Selye, 1946). This stage corresponds to the needs-as-motives process, in which need deficiencies motivate individuals to remedy need deficits (Radel et al., 2011). The second stage is referred to as resistance stage. In this stage, individuals adapt themselves to live with stress (Selye, 1946). Importantly, stress coping literature suggests that adaptation might be functional as well as dysfunctional. Some individuals may adopt functional strategies to actively adapt themselves to the stressful environment (Nandkeolyar et al., 2014; Wee et al., 2017), while others may employ dysfunctional strategies to passively adapt themselves (Lian et al., 2012b; Restubog et al., 2011). The third stage is called exhaustion stage in which individuals give up fighting against stress, partly because their resources are depleted and partly because they become helpless after their coping efforts chronically fail to eradicate stress (Oh & Farh, 2017; Selye, 1946). The exhaustion stage corresponds to needs-as-requirements process. in which people become exhausted and amotivated to take remedial actions to restore deficient needs (Sheldon, 2011). Given the organizational tenure, it makes sense to believe that newcomers are more likely to be in the alarm reaction stage (which corresponds to the needs-as-motives process) and less likely to be in the exhaustion stage. In contrast, organizational veterans are less likely to be in the alarm reaction stage and more likely to be in the exhaustion stage (which corresponds to the needs-as-requirements process).

The difference between newcomers and veterans is also supported by newcomer socialization literature. For example, longitudinal within-person analyses show that newcomers will experience a honeymoon period after organizational entry, and then fall into

a hangover period (Boswell et al., 2005; Solinger, Van Olffen, Roe, & Hofmans, 2013). During the honeymoon period, an organization is likely to present its favorable side to its newcomers (Zhu, Tatachari, & Chattopadhyay, 2017), and the newcomers are inclined to portray their organization in a positive light (Ashforth, 2000). Accordingly, newcomers' initial reactions to their work environment are likely to be positive (Boswell et al., 2005; Song, Liu, Shi, & Wang, 2017; Zhu et al., 2017). As organizational tenure increases, newcomers fall into a hangover period, in which they get more knowledge about their organization and start to pay attention to less attractive aspects of their organization (Zhu et al., 2017). Hence, the hangover period may precipitate some negative effects, such as decreases in work motivation, organizational commitment, and organizational identification (Van Maanen, 1975; Zhu et al., 2017). Therefore, I expect that, in response to need deficiencies caused by abusive supervision, newcomers follow a needs-as-motives pattern due to honeymoon effects, and veterans follow needs-as-requirements pattern due to hangover effects.

Besides stress coping literature and newcomer socialization literature, aging literature maintains that newcomers are inclined to go through the needs-as-motives path whereas veterans tend to go through the needs-as-requirements path. Maurer and colleagues (2003) found that age is positively related to perceived decline in abilities and negatively related to developmental self-efficacy. These findings indicate that younger workers are more confident about their abilities and have a higher level of self-efficacy for improvement (Maurer, Weiss, & Barbeite, 2003). Here an implication is that abused newcomers are more confident in improving their need-deficient situation than abused veterans.

In summary, drawing on stress coping literature, newcomer socialization literature, and aging literature, I predict that abused newcomers react to deprived need in a needs-as-

motives manner, whereas abused veterans respond to deprived needs in a needs-as-requirements manner.

2.4 Conclusion

The literature review section revealed three research gaps. First, although past abusive supervision research has adopted various theoretical lenses in explaining the effect of supervisory abuse on employee work outcome, these theoretical lenses have developed in isolation. I suggest that SDT provides a point of convergence for these isolated theoretical lenses. Second, a large body of SDT research is grounded in SDT's needs-as-requirements tenet, suggesting that need deficiencies pose negative effects on work outcomes. There is a lack of attention on SDT's needs-as-motives facet, which indicates need deficiencies may boost some positive effects. Third, previous abusive supervision studies generally use organizational veterans as research sample to examine employee reactions to abuse. An unknown but important question is how newcomers react to abusive supervision.

To address these research gaps, I empirically test three key issues by integrating abusive supervision research and SDT. First, I investigate whether abusive supervision influences work-related well-being through SDT's basic psychological needs. Further, drawing on SDT's needs-as-motives hypothesis, I propose newcomer reactions to abusive supervision are abused but not bruised. Finally, I conduct a within-person study to capture newcomer dynamic reactions to supervisory abuse. The research framework and development of hypotheses are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

The abovementioned literature review supports the idea that newcomer reactions to abusive supervision are abused but not bruised. In addition, the above review indicates SDT is the most appropriate theory that can account for the effects of newcomer abusive supervision. SDT suggests that relatedness, competence, and autonomy are three basic psychological needs, which are essential nutrients for optimal functioning (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Unfortunately, the three needs may be thwarted by environmental stressors. As a salient workplace stressor, abusive supervision is very likely to thwart newcomers' basic needs. This brings out some important questions: do newcomers experience relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, and autonomy deficiency following abusive supervision, and what are their reactions in face of need deficiencies? Past research has not provided answers to the questions yet.

Therefore, in this section, I seek to answer the questions by exploring (1) the effects of abusive supervision on basic psychological needs, including relatedness, competence, and autonomy; (2) the influence of need deficiencies on newcomers' subsequent reactions; and (3) the mediating effects of need deficiencies on the relation between abusive supervision and newcomer reactions. The theoretical rationales for the hypotheses are presented as follows.

3.1 Newcomer Abusive Supervision, Relatedness Deficiency, and Work Group Integration

The need for relatedness represents the need to care about and be cared about by others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Given that abusive supervision connotes a poor-quality supervisor-subordinate relationship (Aryee et al., 2007; Peng et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012), it can significantly threaten newcomers' need for relatedness.

On one hand, abusive supervision threatens newcomers' need to care about others, especially their abusive supervisors. A large body of evidence suggests that abusive supervision violates employees' moral norms for how a supervisor should behave toward employees, inducing perceptions of injustice, distrust, supervisor hypocrisy (e.g., Aryee et al., 2007; Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015; Peng et al., 2014; Rafferty & Restubog, 2011; Tepper, 2000). As a result, abused employees feel less obligation to invest and maintain the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Aryee et al., 2007; Zellars et al., 2002). Along this line of reasoning, I suspect that abusive supervision demotivates newcomers to forge a social bond with their supervisor.

On the other hand, abusive supervision deprives newcomers of the need to be cared about. As stated by Xu et al. (2012), abusive supervisors' ruthless disregards, belittlements, and outrages precipitate feelings of helpless and frustration. Moreover, some abusive supervisors threaten to withhold valuable resources, such as learning opportunities and rewards, from employees (Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007; Lian et al., 2014a). These abusive behaviors communicate to newcomers that they are not cared about by their supervisors. What's worse, abusive supervision is toxic to employees' connection with coworkers. Peng et al. (2014) observed that coworkers treated the abused victim with less respect because abusive supervision led coworkers to doubt the victim's value as a group member. Accordingly, when an individual is mistreated by a supervisor, he or she is likely to be undermined by their coworkers as well.

In summary, abusive supervision thwarts newcomers' need to care for and be cared for by others. Thus, I offer the following prediction:

Hypothesis 1a. Newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer relatedness deficiency.

Considerable research has established that relatedness deficiency is highly aversive, resulting in individual ill-being and negative work outcomes (e.g., Chen et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Given the aversive experience of relatedness deficiency, SDT scholars hypothesize that relatedness deficiency should prompt remedial behaviors that help reverse the aversive situation. Sheldon and Gunz (2009) referred to this hypothesis as the "needs-as-motives" hypothesis. This hypothesis has found a considerable amount of support. For example, experimental studies show that relatedness-thwarted individuals express greater interest in making new friends, assign greater rewards to novel social targets, and form more positive impressions of new interaction partners (e.g., DeWall et al., 2008; Knowles et al., 2015; Maner et al., 2007). Empirical studies have also established that relatedness-thwarted people engage in interpersonal reconnection behaviors, such as using Facebook and making new friends (e.g., Frison & Eggermont, 2015; Masur et al., 2014; Sheldon et al., 2011). These interpersonal reconnection behaviors reveal that relatedness-thwarted individuals seek to establish new social bonds with people so as to ameliorate relatedness deficiency. Along these lines, I suggest that abused newcomers who experience relatedness deficiency would actively forge social bonds with people to restore the sense of relatedness.

Notably, past research states that individuals do not seek reconnection with perpetrators who thwart their relatedness (Maner et al., 2007). This statement implies that abused newcomers are unlikely to reconnect with the harm-doers, namely their supervisors. Instead, they tend to build interpersonal bonds with partners with whom positive social exchange are anticipated. Since coworkers serve as important social ties at the workplace (Morrison, 2002; Thau, Derfler-Rozin, Pitesa, Mitchell, & Pillutla, 2015), abused newcomers are likely to actively integrate with coworkers in order to regain the sense of relatedness. Moreover, if newcomers and their coworkers are all victims of supervisory abuse, they may form a coalition to fight against abuse (Wee et al., 2017). Although Peng et al. (2014)

mentioned that coworkers may be unwilling to interact with abused victims because abusive supervision makes them doubt victims' value in the work group. Nonetheless, newcomer socialization literature advises that coworkers are not likely to do so during newcomer socialization period (Boswell et al., 2005; Zhu et al., 2016). In fact, organizational tactics propel coworkers to communicate with newcomers, impart information to newcomers, and answer queries from newcomers (Fang et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2017).

Taken together, I predict that relatedness deficiency caused by abusive supervision propels newcomers to get more integrated with their coworkers in the work group.

Hypothesis 1b. Newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer work group integration through relatedness deficiency.

3.2 Newcomer Abusive Supervision, Competence Deficiency, and Task Performance

The need for competence is defined as the need to effectively bring about desired effects and outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Due to unfamiliarity with work tasks, it is difficult for newcomers themselves to define effectiveness of their work efforts. So, newcomers generally look at their immediate workplace environment for signals to define their effectiveness (Methot, Lepak, Shipp, & Boswell, 2017). Given that a supervisor is a legitimate social agent of the organization, supervisor's evaluations of competence represent salient and credible information to newcomers (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Peng et al., 2014). Unfortunately, an abusive supervisor's evaluations always point to employees' incompetent aspects, emphasize their mistakes, and belittle their work efforts (Tepper, 2000). Such negative evaluations can decrease newcomers' sense of competence. This view is supported by previous empirical studies. Coyne and colleagues found that victims of workplace aggression scored lower on competitiveness than nonvictims (Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000). It has also been suggested that abusive supervision decreases self-esteem, especially performance-related self-esteem, making employees perceive themselves as useless failures

(Burton & Hoobler, 2006; Ferris et al., 2015). Moreover, abusive supervision negatively affects an individual's sense of competence as a valuable organization member. For instance, Rafferty and Restubog (2011) observed that abusive supervision reduces individuals' organization-based self-esteem, which refers to the extent to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable and valued as an organizational member.

In light of the large body of evidence, I predict that newcomer abusive supervision elicits perceptions of competence deficiencies. As such, I propose:

Hypothesis 2a. Newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer competence deficiency.

The SDT states that competence is an inborn need that facilitates employees to adapt to complex workplace environment (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Schultz et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2010). If experiencing competence is important for employees, it is unlikely that employees would passively accept competence deficiency without adopting ameliorative behaviors (Fang et al., 2017). An assumption of SDT is that individuals are active agents who can proactively remedy their deficient needs, rather than passive agents who wait for the environment to meet their needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Aligning with this assumption, Sheldon and Gunz's (2009) maintains that competence deficiency can serve as an internal motive that activates competence restoration behaviors. Consistent with this line of reasoning, Fang et al. (2018) found that individuals who feel competence deficiency had a greater motivation to win in a subsequent task, especially when this task helps restore competence. Similarly, Charatsari et al. (2017) observed that deficit in the need for competence predicted individuals' willingness to participate in competence development projects. Based on the preceding account, I suspect that competence deficiency motivates newcomers to improve task performance, an indicator of an employee's competence (Yun et al., 2007), so as to regain the sense of competence.

In addition, abused newcomers may assume that performance improvement is a way to prevent future abuse. Different from veterans, newcomers are plagued with unfamiliarity, ambiguity, and uncertainty about the working environment (Saks & Ashforth, 2000). In an unfamiliar working environment, newcomers lack information to figure out who (themselves or their supervisors) holds causal responsibility for abuse and whether the supervisory abuse will continue in the future. The ambiguity of abuse causes and uncertainty about future abuse will engender hope that increased work efforts can successfully prevent future abuse (Oh & Farh, 2017). As such, competence deficiency is likely to drive newcomer to increase work efforts, resulting in performance improvement. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2b. Newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer task performance through competence deficiency.

3.3 Newcomer Abusive Supervision, Autonomy Deficiency, and Control During Leisure Time

The need for autonomy captures human desire to exercise control over one's actions (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In other words, an individual's need for autonomy is satisfied when he or she feels in control of situations that affect him or her (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008). On the contrary, the need for autonomy is thwarted when an individual feels that situations that affect him or her get out of control. In the abusive supervision context, abused employees are forced into an out-of-control situation (Tepper et al., 2001a; Trépanier et al., 2015; Zellars et al., 2002). For example, abusive supervisors often express control over employees, compelling their employees to behave in line with what they desire (Lian et al., 2012b; Mayer et al., 2012; Trépanier et al., 2015).

Organizational veterans may directly resist abusive supervisor's control (Tepper et al., 2001a; Tepper et al., 2007). However, newcomers are unlikely to resist abusive supervisor's control in the initial stage of their job. Newcomers are unfamiliar with the new working

setting and have little experience in dealing with abusive supervision. As such, newcomers may infer that following supervisor's instructions is a safe way to avoid being subject to abuse (Oh & Farh, 2017). When behaviors are shifted under abusive supervision, newcomers are likely to perceive a loss of autonomy (Lian et al., 2012b; Trépanier et al., 2015). Based on the preceding account, the hypothesis for the current research is:

Hypothesis 3a. Newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer autonomy deficiency.

Previous abusive supervision research notes that abused employees generally feel loss of autonomy and would strive to regain the sense of autonomy (e.g., Peng et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012). There are various ways to restore autonomy. For instance, abused employees may withhold OCB to preserve autonomy. OCB is discretionary behavior that is under one's control, hence withholding OCB indicates exercising control over one's actions and provides an experience of autonomy (Xu et al., 2012; Zellars et al., 2002).

Although newcomers can withhold their OCB to restore autonomy, they may hesitate to do so due to role ambiguity (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Methot et al., 2017). Although OCB is defined as extra-role behavior, Tepper and colleagues (2001) argued that different employees have different role definitions about OCB. That is, some employees define OCB as extra-role behavior while others define OCB as in-role behavior (Tepper, Lockhart, & Hoobler, 2001). If employees define OCB as in-role behavior, then they are unlikely to withdraw OCB because withdrawing in-role behavior triggers punishment (Zellars et al., 2002). Newcomers, whose role ambiguity is high during organization entry, are unclear about role expectation and costs of withdrawing OCB (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Methot et al., 2017). Under the uncertain circumstance, newcomers may look for other ways to restore autonomy.

Some research suggests that individuals who feel autonomy deficiency become eager for free lifestyle (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) have found that individuals can decide which activity to pursue during leisure time, which is a good way to experience control in life domains. For example, an individual can decide which activity to pursue during leisure time, how and when to pursue the activity (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). The experience of personal decision on after-work activities should enhance a person's sense of autonomy. Accordingly, I propose that control during leisure time serves as an important autonomy-recovery experience. Given that abused newcomers have few opportunities to restore autonomy through exercising control over work activities, they are inclined to exercise control during leisure time. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3b. Newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer control during leisure time through autonomy deficiency.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD AND RESULTS

4.1 Method

4.1.1 Participants and Procedure

To recruit participants, I approached four Chinese companies, a construction company, and a press company, and two medical companies. After obtaining consent from top management, I then collected data from employees with online surveys. Data collection processes comprised of two parts. The first part was a baseline survey, which was designed to assess potential participants' dispositional and demographic information. A total of 109 participants completed the baseline survey. Among the 109 participants, 70 participants were newcomers and 39 were veterans. Consistent with previous newcomer research (Hurst, Kammeyer-Mueller, Livingston, & Barnes, 2018; Morrison, 2002), I defined newcomers as individuals whose organizational tenure is less than one year.

One week after the baseline survey, participants were invited to the second part of the study, i.e., biweekly surveys. To capture the dynamic nature of the hypothesized relationships, I invited all the 70 newcomers to complete a series of six surveys over a 3-month period (six waves). I separated each time point by two weeks because abusive supervision occurs at a low rate (Courtright et al., 2016; Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). A daily or weekly study may be too short to capture within-person variances in abusive supervision. Through a biweekly study, I got a higher possibility to observe substantial within-person variance in abusive supervision (cf. Simon et al., 2015). All biweekly surveys were conducted online through emailing survey links to each participant. Participants would receive up to 100 RMB for their participation. All scales were translated into Chinese following best practices of translation-back translation procedures (Brislin, 1980).

Among the 70 participants invited to participate in biweekly surveys, 8 participants responded to the surveys only once, and thus did not reveal within-person variances. Hence, the final sample consisted of 62 participants (26% women) who responded to the surveys for at least two waves. The average age of the 62 participants was 24.42 years (*SD* = 3.05), and their organizational tenure averaged 5.51 months (SD = 3.78). Regarding educational attainment, 11.48% had obtained some college or associate degree, 75.41% had a bachelor's degree, and 13.11% had a master's degree. The 62 participants came from three industries, namely press, construction, and medical industries. I compared the 8 excluded participants with the final sample (i.e., 62 participants) in terms of age, gender, tenure, and education. There were no significant differences in these variables between participants included in the final sample and the 8 excluded participants (*p values* range from .15 to .92). From the final sample of 62 participants, I received 296 completed surveys out of 372 (62 × 6) potential surveys, yielding an overall response rate of 79.57%.

4.1.2 Measures

Abusive supervision. Following previous research that captures within-person variance of abusive supervision (e.g., Barnes et al., 2015; Courtright et al., 2016), I used a five-item scale developed by Johnson et al. (2012). Participants were asked to report the frequency to which their immediate supervisor engaged in each of the five abusive supervision behaviors over the recent two weeks. Items used a response scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*). The five items were "My supervisor yelled or swore at me", "My supervisor made fun of me", "My supervisor ignored me", "My supervisor started an argument with me", and "My supervisor behaved in a nasty or rude manner at me." Coefficient α averaged across six waves was .85.

Relatedness deficiency. Relatedness deficiency was assessed with three items adapted from Sheldon and Hilpert's (2012) balanced measure of psychological needs

(BMPN) relatedness subscale. Participants were instructed to indicate the degree to which they agreed with the items based on their work experiences over the recent two weeks (1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*). The three items were “I felt lonely when staying with my supervisor”, “I felt unappreciated by my supervisor”, and “I felt a strong sense of intimacy with my supervisor” (reverse-scored). Coefficient α averaged across six waves was .70.

Competence deficiency. Relatedness deficiency was assessed using three items adapted from BMPN competence subscale (Sheldon & Hilpert, 2012). Participants rated the degree to which each statement was characteristic of their work experiences over the recent two weeks (1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*). The three statements were “I experienced some kind of failure, or was unable to do well at something”, “I did something stupid, that made me feel incompetent”, and “I struggled doing something I should be good at”. Coefficient α averaged across six waves was .80.

Autonomy deficiency. Autonomy deficiency was assessed with three items adapted from BMPN autonomy subscale (Sheldon & Hilpert, 2012). On the basis of work experiences over the recent two weeks, participants responded to the following statements: “I was free to do things my own way” (reverse-scored), “I was really doing what interests me” (reverse-scored), and “I had a lot of pressure I could do without.” I used a 5-point Likert scale in which 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*. Following an item analysis of the scale reliability, I deleted the last item because it rendered the scale unreliable. Coefficient α averaged across six waves was .63.

Work group integration. I measured participants’ work group integration using three items from established work group integration scale (Morrison, 2002). Participants were asked to report their agreement with the three statements based on their work experiences over the recent two weeks (1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*). The three

statements were “I looked forward to being with my co-workers each day”, “I felt comfortable around my co-workers”, and “I felt accepted by my co-workers.” Coefficient α averaged across six waves was .92.

Task performance. Two items of task performance were adapted to measure performance (Wayne & Liden, 1995). Following Trougakos and colleagues’ approach (2015), the two items were adapted to compare one’s performance during the last two weeks with his or her own performance before the last two weeks. Doing so helps remove participants’ self-enhancement bias (Trougakos, Beal, Cheng, Hideg, & Zweig, 2015). Participants rated the extent to which they agreed with each of the items on a five-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*). The two items were “I fulfilled my roles and responsibilities more effectively during last week than before last week” and “My performance at work during last week was much higher than before last week”. Coefficient α averaged across six waves was .80.

Control during leisure time. Control during leisure time were assessed with three items adapted by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007). Based on their experiences over the recent two weeks, participants were instructed to indicate the extent to which they experienced control after work (1 = *not at all* to 5 = *to a very great extent*). The three items were “I feel like I can decide for myself what to do after work”, “I determine for myself how I will spend my time after work”, and “After work, I take care of things the way that I want them done.” Coefficient α averaged across six waves was .91.

Control variables. In line with previous research on abusive supervision (e.g., Lian et al., 2014; Restubog et al., 2011), we controlled for the effects of employees’ gender, age, and organizational tenure. [1]

[1] I conducted additional analysis excluding all control variables. The overall pattern of findings remains the same when the control variables are excluded.

4.1.3 Analytical Approach

The multi-wave data included variables at two levels of analysis as biweekly responses were nested within each person. Within-person variables (Level 1) included newcomer abusive supervision, relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, autonomy deficiency, work group integration, task performance, and control during leisure time. Between-person variables (Level 2) included age, gender, and organizational tenure. Following recommendations of Zhang, Zyphur, and Preacher (2009), I used Mplus version 8.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2017) to establish an unconflated multilevel mediation model. In particular, I partitioned out within-person and between-person effects and removed between-person variances by group mean-centering the Level 1 predictor variables and grand mean-centering the Level 2 control variables (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; Wanberg, Zhu, & Van Hooft, 2010; Zhang et al., 2009). Moreover, the within-person effects were modeled using random slopes in order to account for individual error variances at Level 2 (Nezlek, 2001).

Importantly, I used a Bayesian estimator, rather than a Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimator, to run the multilevel mediation analysis. Different from ML analysis, Bayesian analysis does not rely on normality assumption and large sample approximations (Muthén, 2010). In other words, Bayesian analysis is robust to non-normality and small sample mediation testing. Given that my sample size was relatively small (n = 62) and the sampling distribution of the mediated effects was non-normal, Bayesian analysis is considered more trustworthy than ML analysis for the current study. Therefore, following methodological recommendations regarding mediation analysis (Kim, Park, & Headrick, 2018; Simon et al., 2015; Yuan & MacKinnon, 2009), the current study ran Bayesian multilevel analysis with two chains iterating 20,000 times.

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Preliminary Analysis

Table 4.1 presents the within- and between-person variance and percentage of within-person variance. The results show nontrival within-person variance for abusive supervision (38.85%), relatedness deficiency (37.82%), competence deficiency (39.25%), autonomy deficiency (50.33%), work group integration (44.86%), task performance (66.28%), and control during leisure time (63.62%). Therefore, multilevel modeling was appropriate for the current study.

Table 4.1
Percentage of Within-Person Variance Among Level 1 Variables

Variables	Within-person variance (e^2)	Between-person variance (r^2)	Within-person variance (%)
Abusive supervision	.21	.33	38.85
Relatedness deficiency	.24	.39	37.82
Competence deficiency	.29	.46	39.25
Autonomy deficiency	.39	.38	50.33
Work group integration	.34	.41	44.86
Task performance	.35	.18	66.28
Control during leisure time	.50	.29	63.62

Note. The percentage of variance within individuals was calculated as $e^2/(e^2+r^2)$.

Table 4.2 reports the means, standard deviations, within- and between-person bivariate correlations, and reliabilities for all variables. In addition, to provide support for the discriminant validity for the key self-reported constructs in the present study, I conducted a within-person confirmatory factor analysis (Table 4.3). In particular, I included 7 variables (i.e., abusive supervision, relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, autonomy deficiency, work group integration, task performance, control during leisure time) in the model. The model specifying the seven scales as loading onto the hypothesized seven separated scales exhibited a good fit to the data, $\chi^2(168) = 262.60$, $p < .001$, CFI = .92,

RMSEA = .04, and SRMR = .07. This model fit the data better than alternative models, providing evidence for the discriminant validity of the key variables.

Table 4.2

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	24.42	3.05	-	.34*	.05	-.34*	-.35**	-.26	-.26	.08	.03	.03
2. Gender	1.26	.44		-	.21	-.44**	-.20	-.21	-.05	-.03	-.07	.45**
3. Organizational tenure	5.51	3.78			-	-.08	-.10	-.32*	.03	-.06	.14	-.05
4. Abusive supervision	1.86	.73				**(.85)**	.67**	.47**	.26*	-.35**	-.14	-.16
5. Relatedness deficiency	2.28	.77				.56***	**(.70)**	.50**	.61**	-.61**	-.37**	-.23
6. Competence deficiency	2.74	.86				.13	.29***	**(.80)**	.25*	-.41**	-.29*	-.14
7. Autonomy deficiency	2.94	.85				.00	.10	.00	**(.63)**	-.46**	-.43**	-.28*
8. Work group integration	3.72	.84				-.03	-.05	-.03	-.24**	**(.92)**	.65**	.20
9. Task performance	3.41	.72				-.06	.06	.35***	-.21*	.30*	**(.80)**	.22
10. Control during leisure time	3.24	.88				-.21**	-.26**	-.04	-.28	.08	.14	**(.91)**

Note. Gender is coded "1" male; "2" female. Correlations below the diagonal represent within-person scores, that is, individual mean-centered variables, pooled across six waves (n = 296). Correlations above the diagonal represent between-person scores, that is, individuals' mean variables (n = 62). Reliabilities appear in parentheses along the diagonal.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Table 4.3
Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Seven-factor model: abusive supervision, relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, autonomy deficiency, work group integration, task performance, control during leisure time	262.60, $p < .001$	168	.92	.04	.07
Five-factor model: abusive supervision, relatedness deficiency (with competence deficiency and autonomy deficiency), work group integration, task performance, control during leisure time	285.36, $p < .001$	179	.83	.06	.09
Four-factor model: abusive supervision (with relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, and autonomy deficiency), work group integration, task performance, control during leisure time	483.03, $p < .001$	183	.75	.07	.09
Three-factor model: abusive supervision, relatedness deficiency (with competence deficiency and autonomy deficiency), work group integration (with task performance and control during leisure time)	715.26, $p < .001$	186	.56	.10	.12
Two-factor model: abusive supervision (with relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, and autonomy deficiency), work group integration (with task performance and control during leisure time)	808.79, $p < .001$	188	.48	.11	.13
One-factor model: abusive supervision (with relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, autonomy deficiency, work group integration, task performance, and control during leisure time)	1143.09, $p < .001$	189	.21	.13	.14

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; RSMEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

4.2.2 Hypothesis Testing

Table 4.4 displays the results of the multilevel path analysis. The estimates are unstandardized coefficients, resulting from an overall analysis including predictors (i.e., abusive supervision, relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, autonomy deficiency), criterion variables (i.e., work group integration, task performance, control during leisure time), and control variables (i.e., age, gender, tenure) in a single model. I also summarize the key results in Figure 4.1.

Hypothesis 1a predicted that newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer relatedness deficiency. The results show that the direct effect of newcomer abusive supervision on newcomer relatedness deficiency was significant ($\gamma = .29$, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.04, .51]), supporting Hypothesis 1a.

Hypothesis 1b predicted that newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer work group integration through relatedness deficiency. The results show that the direct effect of newcomer relatedness deficiency on newcomer work group integration was negative and insignificant ($\gamma = -.09$, n.s., 95% CI = [-.32, .12]). The indirect effect of newcomer abusive supervision on work group integration, through relatedness deficiency, was insignificant ($\rho = -.02$, n.s., 95% CI = [-.11, .04]). So, Hypothesis 1b was not supported.

Table 4.4

Path Analytic Results from the Estimated Multilevel Model

	Relatedness deficiency		Competence deficiency		Autonomy deficiency	
Predictors	*Estimate*	*SD*	*Estimate*	*SD*	*Estimate*	*SD*
Between level						
Intercept	.93***	.24	1.74***	.29	2.44***	.33
Age	-.05*	.02	-.04	.03	-.05	.03
Gender	.28	.18	.16	.22	.23	.25
Tenure	-.02	.02	-.06**	.02	-.00	.03
Within level						
Abusive supervision	.29*	.12	.20*	.10	-.08	.12
Residual variance	.12***	.01	.22***	.02	.28***	.03
Pseudo-R^2 at Level 1	.49		.27		.28	

	Work group integration		Task performance		Control during leisure	
Predictors	*Estimate*	*SD*	*Estimate*	*SD*	*Estimate*	*SD*
Between level						
Intercept	5.95***	.44	4.70***	.37	4.20***	.45
Age	-.04	.03	.02	.03	-.05*	.03
Gender	-.15	.21	-.12	.18	.84***	.21
Tenure	-.03	.02	.01	.02	-.03	.02
Within level						
Abusive supervision	-.03	.12	-.01	.13	-.19	.13
Relatedness deficiency	-.09	.11	-.16	.10	-.12	.12
Competence deficiency	-.04	.09	.23**	.08	-.02	.09
Autonomy deficiency	-.14*	.18	-.08	.08	-.24*	.12
Residual variance	.24***	.03	.25***	.03	.34***	.04
Pseudo-R^2 at Level 1	.29		.27		.32	

Note. Level 1, n = 296; Level 2, n = 62. *Estimate* = unstandardized regression coefficient. *SD* = standard deviation of the posterior distribution. The pseudo-R^2 at Level 1 was calculated by subtracting the residual variance in the complex model from the residual variance in the empty model, divided by the residual variance in the empty model (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002; van Woerkom, Bakker, & Nishii, 2016).

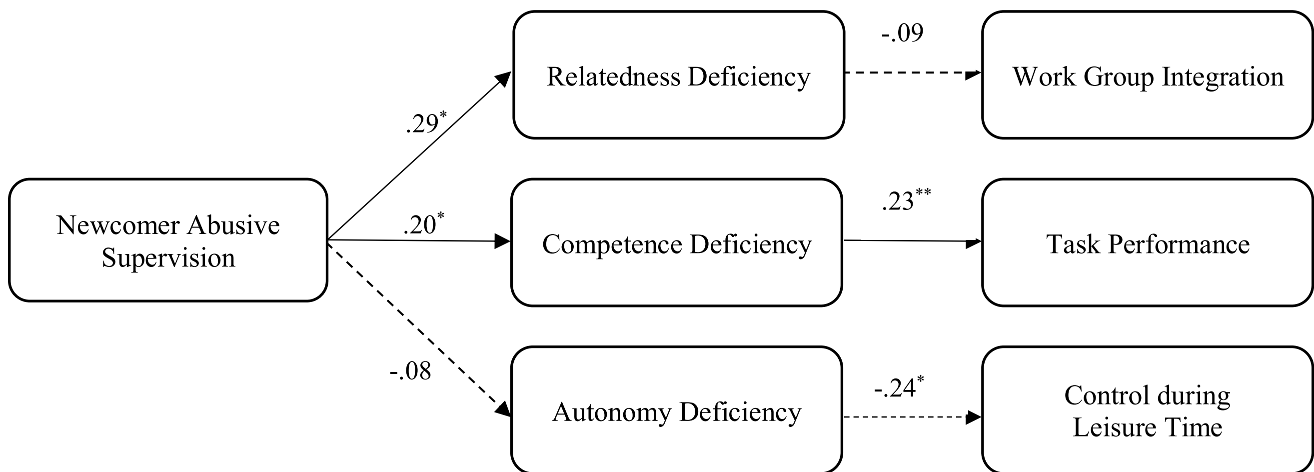

Figure 4.1. Multilevel path analysis results of the research model. Level 1, n = 296, Level 2, n = 62. The estimates are unstandardized coefficients. Solid lines refer to hypothesized relationships supported, and dashed lines refer to hypothesized relationships not supported.
$^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer competence deficiency. The direct effect of newcomer abusive supervision on competence deficiency was significant (γ = .20, p < .05, 95% CI = [.01, .40]).

Hypothesis 2b, which posited that newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to task performance through competence deficiency, received empirical support. There was a positive relationship between newcomer competence deficiency and task performance (γ = .23, p < .01, 95% CI = [.07, .39]). The indirect effect of newcomer abusive supervision on task performance through competence deficiency was significant (ρ = .04, p < .01, 95% CI = [.00, .11]). Although 95% CI of the effect included zero, 90% CI did not include zero (90% CI = [.01, .10]). According to similar multilevel design in the management research (e.g., Liao et al., 2018; Uy et al., 2017), 90% CI are justifiable when testing multilevel mediation models. Therefore, the indirect effect of task performance on abusive supervision was considered significant.

Hypothesis 3a stated that newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to newcomer autonomy deficiency. The direct effect of newcomer abusive supervision on autonomy deficiency was not significant (γ = -.08, n.s., 95% CI = [-.33, .15]).

Hypothesis 3b, which maintained that newcomer abusive supervision is positively related to control during leisure time through autonomy deficiency, was not supported by the empirical data. There was a negative relationship between autonomy deficiency and control during leisure time (γ = -.24, p < .05, 95% CI = [-.46, -.004]). The indirect effect of abusive supervision on control during leisure time was not significant (ρ = .02, n.s., 95% CI = [-.04, .10]).

Overall, the results of the multilevel mediation model indicated that newcomer abusive supervision was positively related to newcomer task performance through competence deficiency.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Implications for Theory and Research

Although the experience of abusive supervision is generally associated with negative behaviors and outcomes, researchers have largely overlooked the possibility that abusive supervision can propel employees to thrive. Integrating abusive supervision research and SDT's needs-as-motives hypothesis (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009), I proposed a needs-as-motives model of newcomer abusive supervision. Specifically, I used a multiwave design to test the model, examining the within-person relationships among newcomer abusive supervision, subsequent need deficiencies (including relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, and autonomy deficiency), and newcomer outcomes. My results have several implications for theory and research.

To begin with, this is one of the first studies that examine newcomer reactions to abusive supervision. Almost all of the previous studies use organizational veterans as research sample (for an exception, see Nifadkar et al., 2012). However, the veteran sample can limit our understanding of how newcomers react to abusive supervision. To address the limitation, the thesis uses newcomers as research sample. Whereas past research generally depicts a depressing picture of abused employees and suggests that abused employees take retaliatory reactions in face of supervisory abuse, the current research shows that abused newcomers react to abusive supervision in an adaptive manner. For example, past research has found that abused employees decreased task performance (e.g., Harris et al., 2007; Nandkeolyar et al., 2014; Peng et al., 2014), the present research found that abused newcomers increased task performance. This finding indicates that newcomers' task performance may not suffer from abusive supervision. As long as abused newcomers can adaptively react to abusive supervision by actively reversing the situation of need deficiency

rather than passively accepting the harm of need deficiency, they can survive in the abusive supervision context.

Second, although past abusive supervision research has employed SDT to illustrate the relation between supervisory abuse and basic psychological needs and related work outcomes, it has modeled the three psychological needs as an overall construct (e.g., Lian et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2018). For example, Lian et al. (2012) examined how abusive supervision triggered workplace deviance through SDT needs. One major difference between my research and Lian et al.'s research is that they modeled SDT needs as an overall construct, while I modeled the three needs separately. In my research, a basic assumption is that the three needs are not interchangeable. Different need engenders different effects and outcomes. This assumption is proved to be true by Van den Broeck's (2016) meta-analysis. The meta-analysis found incremental predictive validity of each need in predicting outcomes. Therefore, Van den Broeck and colleaues (2016) suggested it's inappropriate to model SDT needs as an overall construct. Following Van den Broeck et al.'s (2016) suggestion, the thesis modeled the three psychological needs separately. In doing so, I provide a nuanced view on how abusive supervision triggers different newcomer reactions through relatedness, competence, and autonomy. My data results indicated that each of the psychological needs has differential relationships with important outcomes. For instance, competence deficiency was significantly related to task performance, but was not associated with work group integration and control during leisure time; whereas autonomy deficiency was significantly related to control during leisure time, but had no relationship with task performance. Furthermore, Lian et al.'s research adopted SDT's needs-as-requirement perspective, stating abused victims' maladaptive reactions to need deficiencies. My research extends Lian et al. (2012) by adopting SDT's needs-as-motives perspective, revealing the possibility of abused victims' adaptive reaction to need deficiencies.

Moreover, this research contributes to SDT by providing new empirical evidence for SDT's needs-as-motives hypothesis. The needs-as-motives hypothesis was proposed by Sheldon and Gunz in 2009. Although ten years past, no research has applied the needs-as-motives hypothesis to abusive supervision context. This study showed that abused newcomers are likely to react to abusive supervision in a needs-as-motives manner. In particular, it has been found that competence deficiency caused by abusive supervision motivates abused newcomers to improve task performance.

Finally, the thesis offers insights into newcomer reactions to abusive supervision by adopting a within-person analysis paradigm. Because the frequency of newcomer abusive supervision may vary over time (Barnes et al., 2015; Simon et al., 2015), it is expected that newcomers' responses to abusive supervision may also change over time. From this view, a between-person analysis paradigm may mask within-person variances on abusive supervision, need deficiencies, and related work outcomes, thus yielding an underestimate of the relationships. Therefore, the thesis adopts a within-person analysis paradigm to test newcomer abusive supervision. In doing so, I provide a complementary perspective to the between-person analysis paradigm of abusive supervision research.

5.2 Limitations and Future Research Directions

The thesis has several limitations that should be acknowledged, which indicate future research directions. In accordance with previous studies, I proposed that abusive supervision led to relatedness deficiency, competence deficiency, and autonomy deficiency. However, I found support for relatedness and competence deficiencies but not for autonomy deficiency. Although several researchers have indicated that abused employees often experience a decreased sense of autonomy (e.g., Lian et al., 2012b; Xu et al., 2012; Zellars et al., 2002), the current research indicated that abused newcomers did not experience a decrease in autonomy. It is possible that newcomers do not have a strong need for autonomy during

organizational entry when they are highly dependent on supervisors' instructions to adjust (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Saks & Ashforth, 2000). Past research has demonstrated that the weaker that a person's need for autonomy, the less likely one will experience autonomy deficiency (Chen et al., 2015). Future research can explore the moderating effect of need strength on the relation between abusive supervision and autonomy deficiency. An alternative possibility is that the three items I used to measure autonomy (e.g., I was really doing what interests me; Sheldon & Hilpert, 2012) did not touch the specific type of autonomy (e.g., autonomy to voice; Van den Broeck et al., 2010) that newcomer abusive supervision thwarts. Besides, the reliability of autonomy scale (α = .63) used in the current study was low. In the future, researchers may consider using other autonomy scales to test the relationship between abusive supervision and autonomy deficiency.

Another result contradictory to my prediction was the significant negative relationship between autonomy deficiency and autonomy-restoration behaviors. According to the needs-as-motives hypothesis, individuals who feel autonomy deficiency should be motivated to preserve a sense of autonomy (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009). However, my results indicated that newcomers who experienced autonomy deficiency did not increase control during leisure time to restore a sense of autonomy. Conversely, these newcomers decreased control during leisure time. A possible explanation is that job stressors such as abusive supervision decrease the opportunity to experience control during leisure time (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). For example, work pressure triggered by abusive supervision results in longer work hours and leaves less time available for leisure activities. As indicated by the current research, abused newcomers are motivated to improve task performance. It is possible that they sacrifice their leisure time to work longer and harder. Consequently, newcomers have less time to experience control outside work. Future research can explore this direction by examining the interaction effect of autonomy deficiency and work hours on control during leisure time.

Another explanation is that abusive supervision depletes employees' internal resources (Lian et al., 2012b; Nandkeolyar et al., 2014), which means less resources are available for self-control and decision making (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2003). As a result, newcomers may perceive to have lower control during leisure time. This indicates the level of internal resources may moderate the relation between autonomy deficiency and pursuit of control during leisure time. Future research may do well to examine this question.

Besides, the hypothesized positive effect of relatedness deficiency on work group integration did not receive support. Although researchers noted that relatedness-thwarted individuals are motivated to re-establish social bonds with people, it is worth noting that these individuals only seek reconnection with people who hold potential for favourable social responding (Maner et al., 2007). Work group members may not hold the potential for favourable social responding because they may treat abused victims with less respect and less trust (Peng et al., 2014). It has also been found that newcomer abusive supervision triggers interaction avoidance, which negatively relates to helping behaviour toward work group members (Nifadkar et al., 2012). Accordingly, relatedness-thwarted newcomers are not likely to get integrated with their work group members, instead they may seek integration with people outside work, such as friends and family members. I did not measure relationship building with people outside work. Future studies that expand on my results might benefit from measuring this kind of relationship building.

Moreover, I could not draw firm conclusions of the causal relationships due to the self-reported data for all variables in the current research. Because obtaining the measures of all variables from the same source would cause method bias, future studies can obtain measures of predictor and criterion variables from different sources to minimize the common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). An alternative way to alleviate

common bias is to set a temporal separation by creating a time lag between the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Finally, the present study claims that newcomer characteristics (such as stress coping paradigm and honeymoon effect) lead newcomers to react to abusive supervision in a needs-as-motives manner. Nonetheless, I did not examine what newcomer characteristics would affect newcomers' needs-as-motives response pattern. A potential area for future research might be specific newcomer characteristics that motivate need-deficient newcomers to actively restore the deficient need. Despite newcomer characteristics, it is possible that the current model applies to organizational veterans as well. To explore this question, future research should collect data from both newcomers and veterans, and then compare abused newcomers' reaction pattern with abused veterans' reaction pattern. In doing so, researchers can figure out whether newcomers tend to react to abusive supervision in a needs-as-motives manner and veterans tend to react in a needs-as-requirements manner.

5.3 Practical Implications

Given the importance of basic psychological needs, the results of the current study have significant practical implications for newcomers and organizations. First, although abusive supervision thwarts newcomers' competence deficiency, the current research suggests that newcomers can actively prevent themselves from the harm of need deficiencies by improving task performance. By leveraging the motivating power of competence deficiency, abused newcomers are able to transfer abused pain into performance gain.

Although the thesis showed that newcomers can adaptively manage abusive supervision by enhancing task performance, supervisors should be cautious about newcomers' maladaptive reaction to abusive supervision. The reason is that abusive supervision can negatively influence newcomers by precipitating relatedness deficiency. Although the thesis did not figure out how newcomers can adaptively deal with relatedness

deficiency, organizations should be aware that relatedness deficiency is associated with less OCB and more interpersonal deviance (Aryee et al., 2007; Peng et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012). Because OCB is valuable to organizations and interpersonal deviance is detrimental to organizations, organizations should take measures to uplift newcomers' sense of relatedness. For example, organizations can enact formal procedures to protect newcomers' relatedness from being thwarted by abusive supervisors. Besides, organizations can execute some institutional socialization tactics to help newcomers establish relatedness with coworkers so as to enhance newcomers' sense of relatedness in the organization.

5.4 Concluding Remarks

I began this thesis by noting that employees' adaptive reactions to abusive supervision have not received much attention from organizational researchers. In face of a negative event, such as abusive supervision, employees have two instinctive responses. One is to feel hurt and take "tit-for-tat" responses to equal the negative reciprocity. The other is to survive and take adaptive responses to not be defeated by the negative event. By integrating abusive supervision research and SDT's needs-as-motives view, I demonstrate that newcomers strive to survive in the abusive supervision context by improving task performance, as an adaptive reaction to competence deficiency caused by abusive supervision. This finding contributes to the scholarly understanding of employee adaptive reactions to abusive supervision. On the whole, I found that newcomer reactions to abusive supervision were abused but not bruised. If this thesis can serve as a good starting point for research that examines newcomers' adaptive reactions to abusive supervision and inspire future research and practice, then all efforts will be worth it.

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