

Abusive Supervision and Employee Deviance: A Multifoci Justice Perspective

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Abstract

In order to address the influence of unethical leader behaviors in the form of abusive supervision on subordinates' retaliatory responses, we meta-analytically examined the impact of abusive supervision on subordinate deviance, inclusive of the role of justice and power distance. Specifically, we investigated the mediating role of supervisory- and organizationally focused justice and the moderating role of power distance as one model explaining why and when abusive supervision is related to subordinate deviance toward supervisors and organizations. With 79 independent sample studies ($N = 22,021$), we found that abusive supervision was more strongly related to supervisory-focused justice, compared to organizationally focused justice perceptions, and both types of justice perceptions were related to target-similar deviance (deviance toward the supervisor and organization, respectively). Finally, our results showed that the negative implications of abusive supervision were stronger in lower power distance cultures compared to higher power distance cultures.

Keywords: Abusive supervision; Organizational justice; Supervisory justice; Deviance; Power distance

Introduction

Departing from the traditional emphasis of positive leadership, recently scholars have sought to document the detrimental effects of the “dark side” of leadership on employee outcomes (for a review see Schyns and Schilling 2013). A commonly studied construct is abusive supervision, which refers to “subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper 2000, p. 178). The age old popular phrase among children, “sticks and stones will break my bones, but names will never hurt me,” has been shown through empirical research to be a fallacy. Indeed, demeaning language can be very hurtful and have negative effects on

targets' self-worth, attitudes, and behaviors. Given the pervasive negative way abusive language can affect people, using such language constitutes unethical behavior. Abusive supervision is particularly detrimental to an ethical work environment not only because it violates moral standards and therefore is perceived to be unethical behavior, but because it acts to sanction other ethically questionable behaviors among targets of the abuse. Abusive supervision trickles down to affect lower-level managers' leadership behavior (Liu et al. 2012; Mawritz et al. 2012) as well as subordinates' deviant behavior. Specifically, research has shown that abusive supervision prompts subordinates' deviant reactions to their supervisors' behavior (e.g., Inness et al. 2008; Lian et al. 2014a, b). Deviant reactions include swearing at and threatening to throw something at supervisors, as well as deviance toward organizations (e.g., Mitchell and Ambrose 2007; Shoss et al. 2013; Tepper et al. 2008), such as taking property from work without permission and falsifying receipts for business expenses not accrued.

From the subordinates' perspective, scholars have suggested two methods of retaliation to abusive supervision. First, subordinates attempt to retaliate reciprocally toward the supervisor, that is, they focus on who they think is responsible for the mistreatment (Gouldner 1960; Sahlins 1972). Such target-specific reactions have received support in the literature and are often labeled deviant behavior (Bennett and Robinson 2000; Bowling and Beehr 2006; Hershcovis et al. 2007). Second, subordinates may also engage in deviance toward other parties beyond the supervisor, such as their organization, because subordinates may be afraid of further retaliation by the perceived harm-doer (Dollard et al. 1939; Lian et al. 2012a). In a supervisor–subordinate relationship, where a significant power differential is assumed between parties, this type of displaced aggression is common (Hoobler and Brass 2006; Mitchell and Ambrose 2007).

While the abusive supervision research thus far has supported both target-specific and displaced aggression propositions, the literature is not clear about *why* and *when* aggression is directed back to the provocateur, versus when it is displaced onto other parties (Barling et al. 2009). Some empirical findings imply reasons for direct retaliation versus displaced aggression responses to abusive treatment (Mitchell and Ambrose 2007; Thau et al. 2009), but more detailed attention on why and when either occur is necessary to understand and possibly predict subordinates' responses to abusive supervision. In this study, we test one model that specifies *why* employees who experience abusive supervision display deviance toward the supervisor and/or deviance toward their organization, and *when* the links between abusive supervision and employee justice and deviance may be particularly strong.

As far as the “why,” studies have illustrated that employees evaluate and react to abusive supervision through a justice lens (Burton and Hoobler 2011; Mackey et al. 2017; Tepper 2000; Zhang and Liao 2015). Tepper's (2000) original theory of abusive supervision specified that abusive supervisory behavior perceived by subordinates as being unjust results in negative subordinate outcomes. In this vein, Mackey and colleagues (2017) proposed justice theory as the theoretical framework that explains how subordinates react to abusive supervision, and their meta-analytic results showed that abusive supervision is negatively related to subordinates' perceptions of distributive (i.e., outcome distributions), procedural (i.e., procedures

used to distribute outcomes), and interactional (i.e., interpersonal treatment in organizations) justice. Similarly, Zhang and Liao (2015) also considered these three types of organizational justice as possible outcomes of abusive supervision. Although these studies provide insights into the potential justice issues that stem from abusive supervision, questions surrounding the type of justice that is most relevant to the experience of abusive supervision, and whether targets must perceive injustice to be prompted to retaliate, remain unanswered. Multifoci justice (Rupp and Cropanzano 2002; Liao and Rupp 2005; Rupp et al. 2014), which holds that individuals' reactions are determined by who is responsible for the harmful behaviors rather than which justice principles are violated, can be helpful in providing answers to these issues. Focusing on the targets to which abused subordinates direct their reactions, we meta-analyze (1) the relative strength of the impact of abusive supervision on employee perceptions of justice from two different targets (i.e., supervisor and organization), and (2) the mediating effects of supervisor- and organization-focused justice on the relationships between abusive supervision and supervisory- and organizationally focused deviance. In doing so, we contribute to the abusive supervision literature above and beyond extant individual empirical studies and other meta-analytic studies.

As far as *when* abusive supervision influences outcomes for subordinates, scholars have suggested that abusive supervision may operate differently according to levels of *power distance* in relationships (Tepper 2007; Martinko et al. 2013; Mackey et al. 2017). Power distance, a national cultural value that captures the extent to which people tolerate power differentials in interpersonal relationships (Hofstede et al. 2010), should play a role in qualifying the effects of abusive supervision on subordinate attitudes and behaviors due to the inherent power differential between supervisors and employees (Hu et al. 2011; Kernan et al. 2011; Lian et al. 2012b; Liu et al. 2010; Tepper 2007; Wang et al. 2012). In light of this, scholars have called for systematic research on how the level of power distance affects subordinates' responses to abusive supervision (Tepper 2007; Martinko et al. 2013). Answering this call, we provide meta-analytical evidence on how employees' responses to abusive supervision differ across multiple countries with different levels of power distance. Specifically, we investigate (1) how power distance may influence the impact of abusive supervision on employee justice perceptions and deviance (the "when" of abusive supervision's association with justice and deviance), and (2) whether employees from different cultures tend to either displace their aggression or directly retaliate against the supervisor when they perceive abusive supervision. Exploring these cross-cultural differences with meta-analysis is particularly beneficial, because this technique allows us to compare studies from multiple countries and offer more comprehensive information on boundary conditions of the relations between abusive supervision, justice, and deviance.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Abusive Supervision and Subordinate Justice Perceptions

Following from Tepper's (2000) seminal research on abusive supervision, scholars have documented its negative implications for employees and organizations (see Mackey et al. 2017; Martinko et al. 2013; and Tepper 2007 for reviews). Although scholars have well summarized the deleterious outcomes of abusive supervision, why abusive supervision causes such outcomes has not been fully explained. In this study,

we provide a meta-analytic summary that delineates mechanisms through which abusive supervision influences subordinates' deviant behaviors.

We argue that perceptions of injustice explain why abusive supervision is associated with subordinates' negative behavioral responses. Studies on employee retaliation (Bies and Tripp 2005; Skarlicki and Folger 1997) suggest that employees mistreated at work react defiantly toward the target that is presumed to be responsible for their mistreatment due to feeling of injustice. In his original theoretical work, Tepper (2000) proposed a justice-based model of abusive supervision. Specifically, he suggested that subordinates experiencing abusive supervision react negatively because abusive supervision violates normative justice rules, that is, employees' perceptions of "how things ought to be." These rules are commonly named distributive, procedural, and interactional justice rules (for a review, see Colquitt et al. 2013). Researchers have identified justice mechanisms that explain outcomes resulting from abusive supervision by employing either a composite measure of justice, as in Tepper's work (2000), or selecting only one or two justice dimensions, such as interactional justice (Aryee et al. 2007; Burton and Hoobler 2011) and/or procedural justice (Aryee et al. 2007; Zellars et al. 2002).

Despite the distinct contributions of these previous studies in understanding justice issues that stem from abusive supervision, the literature has thus far been equivocal regarding the type(s) of justice that comprise the mediating mechanism between abusive supervision and negative employee attitudes and behaviors. In fact, a significant conceptual overlap between justice dimensions makes the applicability of the three justice rules to abusive supervision unclear. For instance, individuals make inferences about procedural justice from distributive justice and vice versa (Van den Bos et al. 1997a, b). Moreover, interactional justice perceptions inferred from interpersonal treatment includes both distributive (e.g., the quality of the treatment relevant to the available amount of socioemotional resources) and procedural (e.g., how and when the treatment is directed toward the employee) components (Tyler and Bies 1990). Indeed, abusive supervision, by definition, violates multiple normative rules of justice (Tepper 2000). Given the overlap among dimensions of justice, we turned to the research that has shown that abused subordinates cognitively seek to identify a responsible harm-doer, whether that is the supervisor (Aryee et al. 2007; Burton and Hoobler 2011; Lian et al. 2012b; Tepper 2000) or the organization (Tepper 2000; Zellars et al. 2002).

The multifoci approach to justice (Rupp and Cropanzano 2002; Liao and Rupp 2005) highlights the role of a specific accountable party in justice-related situations and contends that employees react to multiple parties in their organization by assessing corresponding justice perceptions associated with these parties. According to fairness theory (Folger and Cropanzano 2001; Folger et al. 2005), individuals perceive injustice from an accountable party if the party violates normative rules and intends to harm the other party. Indeed, reciprocal attitudinal and behavioral responses are expected only if individuals can identify the source of the injustice. In this study, we chose to employ the multifoci justice approach to investigate the link between abusive supervision and justice.

Employees who experience abusive supervision identify the responsible party(ies) for injustice in two ways (Bowling and Beehr 2006). First, as stated, abusive supervision violates multiple normative rules of justice and is enacted by supervisors. Thus, employees usually conclude that the source of their perceived injustice is the supervisor (Bowling and Beehr 2006). Second, employees may also attribute their supervisor's abusive behavior as the fault of their organization. Subordinates in lower levels of organizational hierarchies often are unable to obtain sufficient information on how their organization operates. Instead, they evaluate their organization based on observations of the behavior of their own supervisors, who are seen by subordinates as a key representative of the organization (Eisenberger et al. 2010; Levinson 1965). In support of this idea, subordinates are aware that supervisors' supportive behaviors, such as coaching and mentoring, are carried out on behalf of the organization and generalize their perceptions concerning the favorableness of their treatment from the supervisor to the organization (Eisenberger et al. 2002; Shanock and Eisenberger 2006). Reframing these arguments to address abusive supervision, subordinates may attribute the cause of abusive supervision to their organization, because they perceive that the organization has fostered the context for the supervisor to behave in this way.

Hypothesis 1

Abusive supervision is negatively related to (a) supervisory-focused justice and (b) organizationally focused justice.

The target-similarity proposition (Lavelle et al. 2007) also provides a foundation for understanding to which target employees are more likely to attribute abusive supervision. That is, employees attempt to reciprocate with negative reactions directed at the observed perpetrator (i.e., their supervisor). Supporting this notion, considerable research has offered evidence that employee perceptions and behaviors of different parties in the organization tend to be target specific (Settoon et al. 1996; Wayne et al. 1997). Moreover, the target-similarity effect may still hold even when employees associate the two targets with each other. In this regard, Eisenberger et al. (2010) found that employees do not always link the treatment received from the supervisor to treatment from their organization. Taken together, while employees who experience abusive supervision may associate mistreatment from the supervisor with that from their organization, they more commonly perceive the supervisor as an individual as opposed to an agent of a larger entity, i.e., the organization. Therefore, we contend that subordinates are likely to more strongly associate justice perceptions related to abusive supervision with the supervisor as compared to the organization.

Hypothesis 2

The negative relationship between abusive supervision and supervisory-focused justice is stronger than the negative relationship between abusive supervision and organizationally focused justice.

Abusive Supervision and Subordinate Deviance

Research has shown that abusive supervision prompts employee deviance, the latter being "a broad range of behaviors that violate significant organizational norms and in so doing threaten the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson

and Bennett 1995, p. 556). Both direct and indirect forms of subordinate retaliation for abusive supervision have been identified. First, scholars proposed an abusive “tit for tat” spiral of deviance (Inness et al. 2008; Mitchell and Ambrose 2007), that is, direct retaliation against the supervisor. The aggression literature also supports target-specific retribution, suggesting deviance is usually targeted toward those who are considered the source of the mistreatment (Gouldner 1960; Hershcovis et al. 2007). Mistreated employees experience feelings of injustice, resentment, and frustration that can result in aggressive behaviors aimed at getting even with the harm-doer (Bies and Tripp 2005; Skarlicki and Folger 1997), even though such behaviors may entail a personal cost (Brown 1968). Thus, employees who experience abusive supervision can directly express their aggression to the supervisor by engaging in deviant behaviors, even though the behaviors may result in lost rewards, punishment, or counter-retaliation (Aquino et al. 2006; Tepper et al. 2009).

On the other hand, other researchers argue that abusive supervision may engender subordinates’ organizational deviance as an *indirect* form of retaliation for two reasons. First, subordinates may attribute the cause of abusive supervision to the organization that harbors the provocateur; as such, the organization is seen as at least partially responsible for the supervisor’s actions. Moreover, considering that subordinates may identify the supervisor as a representative of the organization (Eisenberger et al. 2010; Levinson 1965), employees who experience abusive supervision may express aggression toward their organization. Second, abused subordinates may displace their aggression onto others rather than the supervisor, because of their fear of further abuse from their supervisor (Dollard et al. 1939). We contend that the tendency to use indirect forms of retaliation increases when subordinates and perpetrators hold different levels of power, as in supervisor–subordinate relationships. Aligned with displaced aggression theory (Dollard et al. 1939), studies have found that employees who experience abusive supervision may express hostility aimed at other targets. As such, we expect positive relationships between abusive supervision and both deviance toward the supervisor and the organization.

Hypothesis 3

Abusive supervision is positively related to subordinate deviance toward (a) the supervisor and (b) the organization.

Mediating Role of Justice

Returning to the multifoci approach to justice, individuals perceive justice by assessing who is accountable for the situation and then exhibit a reciprocal attitudinal and/or behavioral response toward the responsible party (Liao and Rupp 2005; Rupp and Cropanzano 2002; Rupp et al. 2014). Perceptions of justice emanating from abusive supervision may prompt a negative reciprocal relationship (i.e., retaliation) that motivates employees to reestablish a sense of justice by retaliating against the harm-doer (Greenberg and Alge 1998; Skarlicki and Folger 1997; Skarlicki et al. 1999). As a result, different sources of injustice engender hostility toward different targets (Greenberg and Barling 1999), which is consistent with the general finding that aggression is target specific (Hershcovis et al. 2007). Similarly, Rupp and colleagues’ (2014) meta-analysis demonstrated target-similarity effects in the relationship between justice perceptions and employee outcomes;

organizationally focused justice was more strongly related to organization-related outcomes, whereas supervisory-focused justice was more strongly associated with supervisor-related outcomes. As such, we propose organizational and supervisory justice as mechanisms through which abusive supervision influences deviance toward the organization and deviance toward the supervisor, respectively. In addition, we propose a partial mediation model rather than a full mediation model, because other mechanisms explaining how abusive supervision influences employee deviance have been found in the literature (Lian et al. 2012a; Mawritz et al. 2012; Zellars et al. 2002).

Hypothesis 4

Supervisory-focused justice partially mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and deviance toward supervisor.

Hypothesis 5

Organizationally focused justice partially mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and deviance toward organization.

Moderating Role of Power Distance

Power distance, an important cultural value reflecting employees' tolerance of unequal distributions of power (Hofstede et al. 2010), has recently been considered as an important boundary condition in understanding employees' responses to abusive supervision. Cultural values affect individuals' interpretations and reactions to various situations at work (see Gelfand et al. 2007 for reviews). Because power dynamics are central to understanding supervisor–subordinate relationships, scholars have begun questioning cultural invariance in the accumulated supervisor–subordinate-related academic knowledge, including abusive supervision research (Hu et al. 2011; Kernan et al. 2011; Tepper 2007). In this regard, previous studies have examined employees' reactions to abusive supervision based on levels of power distance. These investigations have compared responses collected in two different countries (Hu et al. 2011; Kernan et al. 2011), or compared individual employees' levels of power distance orientation, which is the extent to which *individuals* feel large power differences between persons are appropriate (Kernan et al. 2011; Kirkman et al. 2009; Lian et al. 2012b). These studies indicated that power distance influences employee reactions to abusive supervision, yet the generalizability of the findings is limited due to their study designs. We bring meta-analysis to bear on this question to synthesize findings from all available research, and we look at country-level power distance, to provide more widely generalizable evidence.

Abusive supervision arises when supervisors transgress normative expectations for the appropriate level of power and influence they wield with subordinates by engaging in hostile actions (Ashforth 1997; Tepper 2007). Scholars argue that power distance may indirectly foster the occurrence of abusive supervision by shaping norms regarding abusive behaviors (Tepper 2007). Power distance potentially impacts not only the degree to which subordinates perceive that their supervisor has “crossed the line” to violate workplace rules for behavior and ethics, but also may well determine the range of negative perceptual outcomes abuse motivates in subordinates (Hu et al. 2011; Lian et al. 2012b; Tepper 2007). In higher power

distance cultures, supervisors exerting a good deal of power over subordinates are presumably acceptable, so supervisory abuse may be considered a legitimate power display rather than a form of injustice (Kernan et al. 2011). In contrast, in lower power distance cultures where smaller power differences among persons in society are assumed, subordinates may perceive supervisors' abuse of power as a violation of implicit rules, and therefore perceive injustice. In sum, we argue that employees working in higher power distance cultures are less likely than those in lower power distance cultures to perceive injustice when they experience abusive supervision.

Hypothesis 6

The negative relationship between abusive supervision and (a) supervisory-focused justice and (b) organizationally focused justice is stronger in lower power distance cultures as compared to higher power distance cultures.

In addition, employees experiencing abusive supervision in higher power distance cultures may be more reluctant to display resultant deviant behaviors compared to those in lower power distance cultures. Indeed, previous studies generally have shown that abusive supervision is more strongly related to subordinate deviant reactions in lower-power-distance countries, such as the USA (e.g., Mitchell and Ambrose 2007; Tepper 2000), compared to higher-power-distance countries, such as South Korea and China (e.g., Aryee et al. 2007; Kernan et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2010). In higher power distance cultures, a significant power differential between people is seen as acceptable. In such a setting, even though an employee experiences abusive supervision, he or she may not retaliate against the supervisor because of the societal norms emboldening this type of supervisor behavior (Lian et al. 2014a, b) as well as the fear of strong retribution from the supervisor (Hoobler and Brass 2006; Mitchell and Ambrose 2007; Restubog et al. 2011). Thus, we contend that employees in higher power distance cultures show less aggressive behavioral reactions to abusive supervisors than employees in lower power distance cultures.

Hypothesis 7

The positive relationship between abusive supervision and (a) deviance toward supervisor and (b) deviance toward organization is stronger in lower power distance cultures as compared to higher power distance cultures.

Although both target-specific (Hershcovis et al. 2007; Inness et al. 2008) and displaced aggression (Hoobler and Brass 2006; Mitchell and Ambrose 2007; Restubog et al. 2011) propositions have received support in the abusive supervision literature, the conditions that foster target-specific and/or displaced aggression are yet to be delineated (Barling et al. 2009). While some empirical studies have found that abusive supervision is more strongly related to supervisory-directed deviance, compared to organizationally directed deviance (Mitchell and Ambrose 2007; Thau et al. 2009), those studies have been conducted in the USA, which is a lower power distance country. Thus, potentially different patterns of subordinates' hostile responses to abusive supervision across different cultures remain theoretically possible.

The motivation of subordinates displacing their aggression in response to abusive supervision is often subordinates' fear of the consequences of their own aggressive behaviors toward the supervisor (Dollard et al. 1939). Mistreated subordinates are commonly reluctant to confront a supervisor who has more power and is capable of further abuse (Hoobler and Brass 2006; Mitchell and Ambrose 2007; Restubog et al. 2011). Indeed, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found that subordinates are less likely to confront a supervisor, the more abusive the supervisor appears to be. Thus, employees experiencing abusive supervision may be more likely to displace their aggression rather than directly retaliate toward their supervisors when they perceive a significant power difference between themselves and their supervisors, as tends to be the case in high power distance cultures.

Hypothesis 8

Subordinates in higher power distance cultures, as opposed to lower power distance cultures, are more likely to engage in deviance toward the organization rather than deviance directed toward supervisors when they experience abusive supervision.

Methods

Literature Search and Meta-Analysis Coding Procedures

To conduct a complete search for all empirical studies related to our hypotheses, we engaged in four steps. First, we searched for research papers and doctoral dissertations published in English in Google Scholar, JSTOR, PsycINFO and ABI/Inform database from 2000 (the year of Tepper's construct development article on abusive supervision) to May of 2017, using the keyword "abusive supervision." Given our research team's language fluency, we were also able to search the China Knowledge Resource Integrated Database for studies published in Chinese and Research Information Sharing Service for papers published in Korean (e.g., Zhao et al. 2007). In doing so, we ensured we collected studies conducted in higher as well as lower-power-distance countries. Included papers were written in English, Chinese, or Korean. Second, we manually searched the tables of contents of the predominant management and psychology journals that tend to publish empirical abusive supervision research (*Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Journal of Management*, *Leadership Quarterly*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *Organization Science*, and *Personnel Psychology*). Third, we searched listings of conference papers presented at the annual meetings of the Academy of Management and Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology. We requested these unpublished conference papers from the authors by email. Fourth, we sought unpublished studies and data by sending emails to the listservs of the Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management divisions of the Academy of Management. We included 79 empirical studies ($N = 22,021$) that contained correlations between abusive supervision and at least one of the other study variables in our meta-analysis. A list of studies included in the meta-analysis is provided in "Appendix." Following meta-analytic reporting standards (Kepes et al. 2013), we report sample sizes, effect sizes, reliability information, and countries where the studies were conducted.

Two authors coded correlations between the variables of interest, measures used, reliabilities of scales, sample size, and the nation in which each study was conducted.

To ensure coding accuracy, two authors discussed detailed coding rules for each construct and coded ten randomly selected papers. First, to code supervisory and organizational justice, we focused on the *source* (supervisor vs. organization) of justice, rather than the *type* of justice. Studies of supervisory-focused justice included interactional, procedural, and distributive justice referring to the supervisor as the source; organizationally focused justice included interactional, procedural, and distributive justice using the organization as the source. We gleaned information from justice measures, items, and theories in the paper to code these two types of justice. For papers where we could not specify the justice referent, we emailed the authors to obtain this information. Likewise, to code deviance toward supervisor and deviance toward the organization, we based our decisions on the measures, items, and theories in each paper. The agreement between the two coders was 100%. Subsequently, these two authors each coded half of the remaining studies written in English. One of the authors coded the Chinese papers, and the other coded the Korean studies, as per their respective language proficiency. After the two coders completed all coding, one checked all coding to ensure accuracy.

Analysis Procedures and Strategy

We followed the approach of Hunter and Schmidt (2004) to conduct our meta-analysis. First, we corrected for measurement error in the predictor and criterion variables, using Cronbach's alphas. Second, we calculated the sample size-weighted mean of the correlations (r) and the measurement error-corrected correlations (r_c) to reduce the influence of sampling and measurement errors. We report the standard deviation and 95% confidence interval of r_c . A confidence interval is the estimate of the r_c , and a confidence interval not containing zero indicates a significant relationship. To detect potential moderators, we calculated credibility intervals. Credibility intervals describe the distribution of the individual effect sizes after correcting for sampling error. If a credibility interval is equal to or greater than .11, a moderator is likely to exist (Hunter and Schmidt 2004; Whitener 1990). Additionally, we computed binomial effect size display (BESD), which allows us to reframe the meta-analytic results in a practical manner (Rosenthal and Dimatteo 2000). In absence of raw data, effect sizes may not be comprehensible. BESD assumes that half of the population receives a treatment and the other half does not and estimates the percentage of outcomes yielded in each situation using effect size (r_c) (Randolph and Edmondson 2005; Rosenthal and Rubin 1982). In our study, the treatment is abusive supervision, and the outcomes are employee perceptions of justice and deviant behavior. BESDs provide percentages of employees who perceive justice and display deviant behaviors among those who experience abusive supervision, and those who do not.

To test the moderating effect of power distance, we used the country where the sample was drawn as a proxy, and conducted subgroup analysis (Hunter and Schmidt 2004). In line with prior studies using Hofstede et al.'s (2010) cultural values as moderators in meta-analysis (e.g., Jiang et al. 2012), countries with power distance scores higher than 50 were categorized as higher power distance countries, whereas those countries with power distance scores lower than 50 were categorized as lower-power-distance countries. For this part of our meta-analysis, we excluded studies with mixed samples drawn from both high and low power distance countries. We compared the relationships between the two subgroups by calculating Z scores and Q statistics. The Z statistic indicates the difference in r_c between higher and

lower-power-distance countries. A significant Z score indicates that there is a significant difference in terms of the effect size across the moderator category (Hunter and Schmidt 2004). Moreover, we report Q_b , a heterogeneity statistic between categories and Q_w , a homogeneity statistic within a category (Lipsey and Wilson 2001). A significant Q_b denotes that there are significant differences between category groups. We conducted meta-analytic structural equation modeling (SEM) in Mplus to examine the mediating effects of supervisory-focused justice and organizationally focused justice and to compare the effects of abusive supervision on justice perceptions (Cheung and Chan 2005; Landis 2013; Viswesvaran and Ones 1995). We created the input matrix for SEM (Table 2) based on our meta-analysis as well as existing, published meta-analyses. In order to resolve the issue pertaining to different sample sizes for different correlation coefficients, we imputed the harmonic mean of the correlation samples sizes.

Results

Table 1 shows the meta-analytic results of the relationships between abusive supervision, justice, and deviance, as well as the moderating effect of power distance. As shown in Table 1, abusive supervision is negatively related to supervisory-focused justice ($r_c = -.54$, 95% CI = $-.61, -.47$) and organizationally focused justice ($r_c = -.36$, 95% CI = $-.41, -.31$). BESDs show that 23 and 32% of subordinates experiencing abusive supervision would perceive supervisory-focused justice, and organizational justice, respectively. These results indicate that 77 and 68% of subordinates who do not have abusive supervisors would perceive their supervisor and their organization as fair. Thus, Hypothesis 1a, b was supported. In terms of employee deviance, abusive supervision is positively related to deviance toward the supervisor ($r_c = .54$, 95% CI = $.47, .60$) and deviance toward the organization ($r_c = .41$, 95% CI = $.37, .46$), supporting Hypothesis 3a, b. The results indicate that the percentages of employees who engage in deviance toward a supervisor are 77 and 23%, if half of the population experienced abusive supervision and the other half did not. 71% of subordinates who have abusive supervisors would display organizational deviance, and 29% of those who do not have abusive supervisors would engage in organizational deviance (Table 2).

Table 1 Meta-analysis results of the relationships between abusive supervision, justice, and deviance, and the moderating effect of power distance

Outcomes	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_c</i>	<i>SDr_c</i>	95% CI of <i>r_c</i>	90% CRI of <i>r_c</i>	<i>Q_w</i>	<i>Q_b</i>	<i>Z</i>	BESD
Justice											
Supervisor focused justice ^a	19	5219	-0.50	-0.54	0.14	[-0.61, -0.47]	[-0.71, -0.37]		37.47**	-7.08**	0.23
Higher power distance	10	2289	-0.39	-0.43	0.15	[-0.53, -0.33]	[-0.60, -0.26]	49.26**			
Lower power distance	7	1701	-0.55	-0.60	0.11	[-0.68, -0.51]	[-0.72, -0.47]	18.83**			
Organization-focused justice ^a	12	3756	-0.33	-0.36	0.03	[-0.41, -0.31]	[-0.45, -0.27]		2.56	-1.62	0.32
Higher power distance	4	1039	-0.29	-0.33	0.14	[-0.46, -0.20]	[-0.48, -0.18]	18.06**			
Lower power distance	6	1488	-0.36	-0.39	0.07	[-0.44, -0.33]	[-0.44, -0.33]	6.94**			
Deviance											
Deviance toward supervisor	29	9270	0.49	0.54	0.17	[0.47, 0.60]	[0.32, 0.75]		37.95**	-7.51**	0.77
Higher power distance	9	2143	0.36	0.42	0.15	[0.31, 0.52]	[0.24, 0.59]	47.46**			
Lower power distance	20	7119	0.52	0.56	0.16	[0.48, 0.63]	[0.35, 0.76]	191.66**			
Deviance toward organization	43	13,127	0.37	0.41	0.16	[0.37, 0.46]	[0.22, 0.61]		36.68**	-7.11**	0.71
Higher power distance	12	3248	0.27	0.32	0.12	[0.25, 0.39]	[0.19, 0.46]	45.76**			
Lower power distance	31	9879	0.40	0.44	0.16	[0.39, 0.50]	[0.25, 0.64]	245.04**			

k, number of correlations; *N*, combined sample size; *r*, mean sample size-weighted observed correlations; *r_c*, mean sample size-weighted corrected correlation; *SD r_c*, standard deviation of the corrected correlation; *CI*, confidence interval; *CRI*, credibility interval

p* < .05; *p* < .01

^a2 studies used data collected in multiple countries

Table 2 Meta-analytic correlation matrix

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Abusive supervision					
K studies	–				
N total observations	–				
2. Supervisory-focused justice					
K studies	– 0.54				
N total observations	19				
3. Organizationally focused justice					
K studies	– 0.36	0.42 ^a			
N total observations	12	91			
4. Deviance toward supervisor					
K studies	0.54	– 0.27 ^a	– 0.26 ^a		
N total observations	29	12	11		
5. Deviance toward organization					
K studies	0.41	– 0.17 ^a	– 0.22 ^a	0.80 ^b	
N total observations	43	24	27	16	
	13,127	5226	13,705	6700	

All values are from our meta-analysis unless otherwise noted

^aFrom Rupp et al. (2014)

^bFrom a separate meta-analysis, we conducted for the purpose of our SEM

Figure 1 presents the meta-analytic SEM results. The hypothesized model of partial mediation effects of supervisory-focused justice and organizationally focused justice on the relationship between abusive supervision and two types of deviance, specified in Hypotheses 4 and 5, yielded a satisfactory fit ($\chi^2 = 89.23$, $df = 2$, $RMSEA = 0.09$, $CFI = 0.99$, $TLI = 0.96$, $SRMR = 0.03$, $AIC = 55,158.26$). To further verify the mediating effect, we performed a Sobel test (Sobel 1982). According to the Sobel test, the effects of abusive supervision on deviance toward supervisor through supervisory-focused justice ($Z = 3.00$, $p < .01$) and the indirect effects of abusive supervision on deviance toward the organization via organizationally focused justice ($Z = 2.99$, $p < .01$) were significant. Thus, the mediation hypotheses were supported.

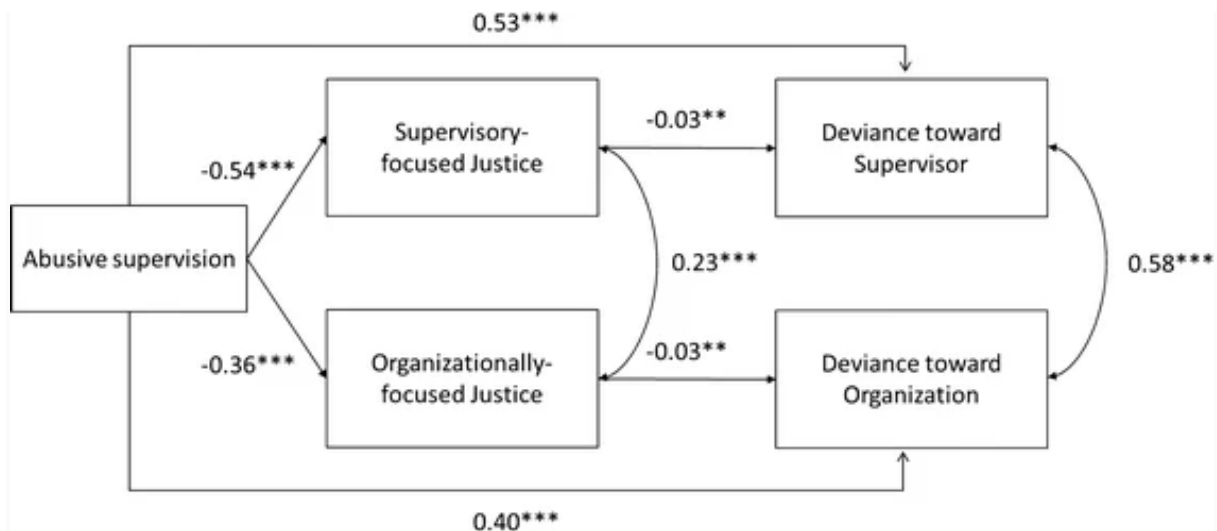


Fig. 1. Structural path estimates of the partial mediation model (Hypotheses 7, 8). Note: $\chi^2=89.23$, $df=2$, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.96, SRMR = 0.03, RMSEA = 0.09. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

To test Hypothesis 2, we compared the paths from abusive supervision to supervisory-focused justice and organizationally focused justice in the path model. We found that the path from abusive supervision to supervisory-focused justice was stronger than the path from abusive supervision to organizationally focused justice ($difference = .18$, S.E. = .01, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 2. Additionally, as a supplementary analysis, we also tested for differences in the paths from abusive supervision to deviance toward supervisor and organization. The result indicates that the target-similar path is stronger than the target-dissimilar path ($difference = .13$, S.E. = .01, $p < .01$).

We compared the hypothesized model with two alternative models. Table 3 presents model comparisons. First, we compared our hypothesized model to a partial mediation model with the paths from abusive supervision to supervisory-focused justice and to organizationally focused justice constrained to be equal, and found further support for Hypothesis 2 ($\chi^2 = 255.21$, $df = 3$, RMSEA = 0.12, CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.93, SRMR = 0.05, AIC = 55,322.24). Second, we compared our model to a full mediation model ($\chi^2 = 1771.40$, $df = 4$, RMSEA = 0.28, CFI = 0.85, TLI = 0.61, SRMR = 0.17, AIC = 56,836.44). The results show that the partial mediation model yielded better model fit compared to the full mediation model.

Credibility intervals reported in Table 1 indicate that potential moderators exist for the relationships between abusive supervision and outcomes. The results of subgroup analysis supported most of the remaining hypotheses. Consistent with Hypothesis 6a, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and supervisory-focused justice was stronger in lower power distance cultures ($r_c = -.60$) than it was in higher power distance cultures ($r_c = -.43$) ($Q_b = 37.47$, $p < .01$; $Z = -7.08$, $p < .01$). However, we did not find significant differences in the relationship between abusive supervision and organizationally focused justice in lower power distance cultures ($r_c = -.39$) versus higher power distance cultures ($r_c = -.33$) ($Q_b = 2.56$, n.s.; $Z = -1.62$, n.s.). Thus, Hypothesis 6b was not supported. Supporting Hypothesis 7a, abusive supervision is more strongly related to both types of deviance in lower power distance cultures than it is in higher power distance cultures.

Table 3 Results of model comparisons

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	AIC
Hypothesized partial mediation model	89.23	2	0.09	0.99	0.96	0.03	55,158.26
Model 1 ^a	255.21	3	0.12	0.98	0.93	0.05	55,322.24
Model 2 ^b	1771.40	4	0.28	0.85	0.61	0.17	56,836.44

N = 5859

RMSEA root-mean-square error of approximation; *CFI* comparative fit index; *TLI* Tucker Lewis Index; *SRMR* standardized root-mean-square residual; *AIC* Akaike information criterion

^aModel 1 is the model that constrains paths from abusive supervision to supervisory-focused justice and to organizationally focused justice to be equal

^bModel 2 is a full mediation model with no paths from abusive supervision to deviance toward supervisor and deviance toward organization

Specifically, abusive supervision was more strongly related to deviance toward supervisors in lower power distance cultures ($r_c = .56$) than it was in higher power distance cultures ($r_c = .42$) ($Q_b = 37.95$, $p < .01$; $Z = -7.51$, $p < .01$). In addition, the positive relationship between abusive supervision and deviance toward the organization was significantly stronger in lower power distance cultures ($r_c = .44$) than it was in higher power distance cultures ($r_c = .32$) ($Q_b = 36.68$, $p < .01$; $Z = -7.11$, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 7b.

To examine Hypothesis 8, we compared the difference in effect sizes for deviance toward supervisor and for deviance toward organization, between higher and lower power distance cultures (Table 1). This difference represents how much employees are relatively more likely to engage in deviance toward the organization, compared to deviance toward the supervisor. A smaller gap indicates that employees engage in both deviance toward the supervisor and the organization at similar rates. On the contrary, the larger the gap between effect sizes, the less likely employees would be to displace their aggression and more likely they would be to directly retaliate against the supervisor. The results indicate that the difference in effect sizes for deviance toward the supervisor and for deviance toward the organization was .10 in higher power distance cultures, while it was .12 in lower power distance cultures. In other words, employees in higher power distance cultures are more likely to engage in organizational deviance compared to supervisory deviance, compared to those in lower power distance cultures. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was supported.

Discussion

In the current study, we quantitatively assessed the way in which abusive supervision relates to subordinates' perceptions of justice and subsequent deviant behaviors as well as cultural effects. We found that abusive supervision is negatively associated with supervisory-focused justice and organizationally focused justice, but has a stronger negative impact on supervisory-focused justice. Moreover, our meta-analytic results supported the target-similarity effects of perceptions of justice on subordinates' deviance: supervisory-focused justice and organizationally focused justice more negatively relate to subordinates' supervisor-targeted deviance and organization-targeted deviance, respectively. In addition, we explored whether the

impact of abusive supervision on employees' perceptions of justice and deviant behavior differ based on cultural values. Using the country where research samples were collected as a proxy for the level of cultural power distance in each sample, we conducted subgroup meta-analyses. We found that abusive supervision is more strongly associated with subordinates' perceptions of supervisory-focused injustice in lower power distance cultures compared to higher power distance cultures. However, power distance differences did not seem to impact the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' perceptions of organizationally focused justice. Moreover, the positive relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' deviance is stronger in lower power distance cultures than in higher power distance cultures. Finally, we found evidence that employees in higher power distance cultures are more likely to displace their aggression rather than directly retaliate against their abusive supervisor compared to employees in lower power distance cultures.

Regarding our unsupported hypothesis—no significant differences in the relationship between abusive supervision and organizationally focused justice in lower power distance cultures versus higher power distance cultures—the influence of power distance on individuals' attribution processes related to abusive supervision may provide a plausible explanation. Cultural values influence how individuals perceive and interpret situations and lead people to make different attributions regarding the cause of an action. In higher power distance cultures, employees are less likely to question supervisors' behaviors on moral grounds (Shao et al. 2013), but may try to find the cause of non-normative behavior in factors surrounding the supervisor (Kernan et al. 2011). When mistreated by a high-status person, rather than doubting the person's morality, they are likely to attribute this to their organization, believing that the organization hired and trained the person, and failed to correct the mistreatment.

Moreover, collectivistic cultural values that go hand-in-hand with higher power distance cultures ($r = .67$; Hofstede 2001) may lead employees to attribute abusive supervision to the organization. Indeed, countries that are higher in power distance are also likely to be higher in collectivism, whereas those that are lower in power distance are likely to be lower in collectivism (Triandis 1995). Compared to employees in individualistic cultures, those in collectivistic cultures tend to view individuals as a part of the social context rather than an independent entity. In this regard, Shao and Skarlicki (2014) suggested that employees in Canada, an individualistic society, are more likely to sabotage customers who mistreated them, compared to employees in China, a collectivistic society.

Related to our study, employees in collectivistic cultures may perceive the supervisor as an organizational agent who manages them on behalf of the organization rather than as an individual actor. Even though subordinates in higher power distance cultures tend to be more tolerant of abusive supervision, employees perceive similar levels of organizationally focused injustice as those in lower power distance cultures because employees in higher power distance/collectivist cultures are more apt to attribute abusive supervision to the organization rather than the supervisor.

Theoretical Implications

Our study contributes to the literature on abusive supervision in several ways. First, fulfilling the primary goal of meta-analysis, we provide robust conclusions about the relationships among abusive supervision, employees' perceptions of justice, and deviant behaviors, as our results are based on 79 studies, for a total N of 22,021. In regard to the importance of examining abusive supervision using meta-analysis rather than individual research studies, we assert meta-analysis is especially important here given the typical range restriction on abusive supervision. Means on abusive supervision tend to be low, indicating that abusive supervision is either not widespread, not accurately reported, or a combination of the two. Through meta-analysis, the mostly medium-size effects (see Cohen 1988) of abusive supervision-related phenomena are more cleanly estimated, free from sampling variance.

Secondly, our meta-analysis explores unanswered questions about the relationship between abusive supervision and employees' justice perceptions and deviance. Several review articles have summarized the direct relationships between abusive supervision and employee outcomes (Mackey et al. 2017; Martinko et al. 2013; Schyns and Schilling 2013; Tepper 2007; Zhang and Liao 2015). Although these reviews provided comprehensive summaries of the consequences of abusive supervision, more nuanced explanations about the psychological mechanism through which abused employees display especially deviant behaviors are limited. Utilizing a meta-analytic structural equation modeling technique, we developed and examined a model that explains how employees perceiving abusive supervision respond. We took a further step by invoking a multifoci approach to justice to offer novel findings above and beyond previous studies. Specifically, Mackey and colleagues (2017) found that abusive supervision correlates with distributive justice ($\rho = -.25$), procedural justice ($\rho = -.36$), and interactional justice ($\rho = -.55$). Similarly, Zhang and Liao (2015) proposed relationships between abusive supervision and distributive justice ($\rho = -.31$), procedural justice ($\rho = -.34$), and interactional justice ($\rho = -.51$). Although the authors explained the general directions of the relationships between abusive supervision and justice, the theoretical rationale for the relative strengths of the relationships as well as their relations with employee deviance was not tested. In our study, drawing upon the multifoci approach of justice, we illustrate that abusive supervision is more strongly related to supervisory-focused justice, and both types of justice are most strongly associated with deviance toward the corresponding target.

Third, we shed light on the multifoci theory of justice, which has received relatively less research attention than justice theories based on normative rules. For decades, the majority of justice scholars have focused on normative rules. Even though they implicitly tapped into the source of justice, the three-part taxonomy of justice based on normative rules was not clear about individuals' reactions to the source of justice perceptions. In addition, some scholars have raised questions about the value of the taxonomy and have argued for the value of the multifoci approach. That is, the multifoci approach emphasizes target similarity and is useful in specifying how employees react to the target that mistreats them—a phenomenon important to predicting and understanding spiraling effects of interpersonal mistreatment in organizations. In line with this stream of research, our results support that abusive supervision is more closely related to supervisory-focused justice than organizationally focused justice, but that both justice perceptions trigger employees' target-specific deviant reactions.

Finally, our study contributes to the literature on employee deviance by offering evidence of a boundary condition specifying when employees are more likely to displace their aggression rather than engage in direct retaliation. In subgroup meta-analysis, we found different patterns of employee deviance toward different targets. That is, employees in higher-power-distance countries are more likely to engage in indirect retaliation (i.e., deviance toward the organization) rather than direct, “tit for tat” aggression (i.e., deviance toward the supervisor), as compared to those in lower-power-distance countries. Although both direct and displaced aggression propositions have received support in the literature, research that pursues only one or the other may limit our ability to predict workplace aggression (Barling et al. 2009).

Practical Implications

First, our meta-analytic results demonstrated supported relationships between abusive supervision and subordinate perceptions and behaviors. Even though the immediate source of injustice is the supervisor, abused employees perceive injustice from both their supervisor and organization, and extend their scope of retaliation to both the supervisor and the organization. Moreover, the negative implications of abusive supervision appear to be more significant for justice perceptions in reference to the supervisor and deviance toward the supervisor, compared to justice perceptions in reference to the organization and deviance toward the organization. Thus, leaders should be aware that the costs of abusive supervision are more strongly *quid pro quo*. Therefore, as other scholars have recommended, organizations should impose leadership development programs, coaching, and the like designed to stem abusive supervision. Based on our findings, more confidence can be placed in this recommendation, and we now know that this stands to primarily benefit harmonious supervisor–subordinate relations, but also less dysfunctional behavior toward both supervisors and organizations.

Second, our meta-analytic study of research from multiple countries enhances our understanding of how employees from different cultures interpret and respond to abusive supervision, as currently specified by Tepper’s (2000) construct. Given that the detrimental consequences of abusive supervision are stronger in lower power distance cultures than they are in higher power distance cultures, managers in lower power distance cultures should pay more attention to the consequences of abusive supervision. Yet the fact that subordinates in higher power distance cultures seem to be less sensitive to abusive supervision does not mean that supervisors in those societies should be allowed to mistreat subordinates. Although it has been shown that subordinates in higher power distance cultures are apparently not as susceptible to abusive supervision, our findings suggest that these subordinates still perceive their organizations as being just as unfair as those in lower power distance cultures. Because organizationally focused injustice appears to result in negative consequences for organizations across cultures, organizations everywhere should monitor and prevent abusive supervision.

Finally, a detailed understanding about the negative implications of abusive supervision should aid in creating and maintaining an ethical work environment. Abusive supervision violates moral standards and creates a hostile and unethical work environment. Moreover, abusive supervision undermines employees’ moral

agency (Hannah et al. 2013), an important condition for general employee well-being. And those who experience abusive supervision tend to emulate such abusive behaviors (Mawritz et al. 2012), and even bully their coworkers (Mackey et al. 2016). As such, targets' deviant behaviors may further serve to promulgate a vicious cycle of aggression (Klaussner 2014; Lian et al. 2014b). Considering such cascading effects of abusive supervision, managerial efforts, such as the development of training procedures designed to prevent abusive supervision, and the monitoring of the quality of supervisor–subordinate relationships including whistle-blowing programs and other vehicles for employee voice, are advised to promote ethical, healthy organizational climates.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

While this study has strengths, there are also limitations. First, we were limited to studies published in English, Chinese, and South Korean journals. These studies were conducted in various countries, but the studies included in our analysis are from countries with a modest range of power distance levels. That is, although we were able to create higher and lower power distance culture subgroups from the studies, these countries do not represent extreme cases (i.e., countries that have power distance index scores higher than 80 or lower than 20). Including samples from extreme case countries may yield different results. For instance, employees in extremely high power distance cultures may be too tolerant of abusive supervision to perceive organizational injustice. Thus, it would be beneficial for future meta-analyses to include studies from countries with a wider range of culture scores.

The second limitation relates to potential problems inherent to the individual studies included in our research. A meta-analysis synthesizes the results from previous studies; therefore, the many limitations of individual studies cannot be remedied via meta-analytic procedures (Hunter and Schmidt 2004), and results can be misleading. For example, most available research adopts cross-sectional research designs, which makes it difficult to argue causal relationships. Although we employed SEM procedures to specify directions of the relationships between abusive supervision and employee outcomes, empirical studies that use designs that evidence causal relationships would help reinforce our findings. For example, it is plausible that employee deviance provokes supervisors to engage in abusive behavior, an alternative hypothesis that requires longitudinal or experimental data to assess. Another limitation of the studies included in the meta-analysis are the low means and variances for abusive supervision. Although this is a problem central to organizational research in general, it is likely that less ethically oriented organizations with cultures that include higher levels of abusive supervision would be less inclined to agree to participate in research studies.

Third, we used country as a proxy for national culture, instead of using actual power distance scores to test the moderating effects of culture. Existing empirical studies have not accumulated in numbers large enough to test this interaction using actual power distance scores, so we could not treat power distance as a continuous variable. As research grows on this subject, future evidence can be strengthened by measuring power distance directly. Another limitation is that we were not able to test the moderating effect of power distance *orientation*, which captures an individual's cultural values and beliefs (Kirkman et al. 2009), due to, again, a limited number of

existing studies incorporating that construct. Future research may examine whether the supported moderating effects of power distance extend to power distance orientation as well.

Fourth, we acknowledge that at this early point in the abusive supervision literature only a relatively small number of studies were available to include in our meta-analysis. Although Hunter and Schmidt (2004) suggested that an acceptable number of studies for calculating a corrected effect size is as small as three, more empirical studies are desirable. Considering that abusive supervision is a burgeoning research area, we hope that our work may be replicated by future meta-analyses as more empirical studies accumulate.

Finally, we suggest that future studies derive more comprehensive theoretical models. One of the most important implications of meta-analysis is a more generalizable picture that synthesizes results from previous studies. Our research focused on the consequences of abusive supervision and cultural differences in subordinates' responses to abusive supervision. However, as many scholars have argued, we know less about the antecedents of abusive supervision. For example, supervisors' individual characteristics such as personality (e.g., Ashforth 1997), organizational factors such as supervisors' perceptions of psychological contract violation (Hoobler and Brass 2006), and abusive supervision from upper managers (Mawritz et al. 2012) have been considered as precursors to abusive supervision, and may be relevant to justice and deviance outcome models such as ours. Moreover, future research may investigate different mediating mechanisms underlying these relationships. Our partial mediation model indicates that other mediating mechanisms likely exist. Indeed, researchers have elucidated alternative reasons why abusive supervision fosters employee deviance (e.g., Lian et al. 2012a; Thau and Mitchell 2010). Future meta-analyses may explore other mediating mechanisms of the relationship between abusive supervision and employee deviance in addition to justice.

Conclusion

By integrating existing studies, our meta-analytic research offers a process model of the relationships among abusive supervision, subordinates' perceptions of justice (i.e., supervisory-focused and organizationally focused), and deviance (i.e., deviance toward the supervisor and the organization). Using a multifoci approach, the results supported the target-similarity effects of abusive supervision on subordinates' justice perceptions, and those of subordinates' justice perceptions on subordinates' deviant behavior. Furthermore, we found that the effect of abusive supervision on subordinates' perceptions of justice and deviance differs according to the level of cultural power distance. Results of our investigation contribute to the ethics, abusive supervision, and justice literatures.

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Appendix

Table 4 Studies included in the meta-analyses

Study	N	α_{AS}	Correlate (r/α)	Country
Aryee et al. (2007)	178	0.89	OJ (- 0.15/0.91); SJ (- 0.39/0.88)	China
Biron (2010)	275	0.91	DO (0.24/0.84)	Israel
Bowling and Michel (2011)	381	0.96	DS (0.72/0.96); DO (0.66/0.95)	USA
Brees et al. (2014)	411	0.95	DO (0.32/0.84)	USA
Burton and Hoobler (2011)	262	0.98	SJ (- 0.56/0.93)	USA
Cho et al. (2012)	289	0.92	SJ (- 0.488/0.88)	South Korea
Chung (2015)	150	0.61	DO (0.27/0.60)	South Korea
Duffy and Ferrier (2003)	105	0.85	SJ (- 0.18/0.80)	USA and Japan
Duniewicz (2015), Sample 1	200	0.94	DS (0.54/0.85); DO (0.29/0.83)	USA
Duniewicz (2015), Sample 2	144	0.96	DS (0.42/0.88); DO (0.36/0.89)	USA
Eschleman et al. (2014) Ferris et al. (2016)	268	0.93	DS (0.45/0.96); DO (0.48/0.94)	USA
Gabler and Hill (2015) Garcia et al. (2015)	122	0.84	OJ (- 0.36/0.83)	USA
	603	0.91	DO (0.25/1.00)	Philippines
Harvey et al. (2014), Sample 1	396	0.91	DS (0.65/0.94)	USA
Harvey et al. (2014), Sample 2	257	0.83	DS (0.67/0.90)	USA
Hwang and Chun (2014)	217	0.82	DO (0.21/0.71)	South Korea
Inness et al. (2008)	105	0.94	DS (0.52/0.88)	Canada
Jiang and Wang (2012) Kim and Han (2017)	271	0.90	DS (0.43/0.85)	China
	319	0.95	DS (0.39/0.74); DO (0.18/0.77)	South Korea
Kim et al. (2013)	202	0.98	OJ (- 0.18/0.91)	South Korea
Lee (2011)	205	0.71	DS (0.26/0.53); DO (0.20/0.62)	South Korea
Lee et al. (2014)	281	0.97	DO (0.57/0.88)	South Korea
Lian et al. (2012a), Sample 1	269	0.95	SJ (- 0.66/0.92)	USA
Lian et al. (2012a), Sample 2	218	0.96	SJ (- 0.58/0.92)	USA
Lian et al. (2012b), Sample 1	196	0.97	DS (0.73/0.96)	USA
Lian et al. (2012b), Sample 2	188	0.96	DS (0.52/0.95)	Canada
Lian et al. (2014b), Sample 2	125	0.97	DO (0.62/0.93)	USA
Lian et al. (2014a), Sample 1	196	0.97	DS (0.73/0.96)	USA
Lian et al. (2014b), Sample 1	151	0.98	DO (0.74/0.95)	USA
Lian et al. (2014a), Sample 2	188	0.96	DS (0.52/0.95)	USA
Liu et al. (2010), Sample 1 Liu et al. (2010), Sample 2 Liu et al. (2012)	283	0.95	DS (0.24/0.89)	China
	222	0.95	DS (0.21/0.91)	China
	283	0.90	OJ (- 0.41/0.72)	China
Mackey et al. (2015), Sample 1	96	0.90	DO (0.60/0.40)	USA
Mackey et al. (2015), Sample 2	130	0.93	DO (0.35/0.32)	USA
Mawritz et al. (2017)	169	0.95	DS (0.26/0.89)	USA
Mawritz et al. (2013)	221	0.94	DO (0.53/0.95)	USA
Mayer et al. (2012), Sample 1	367	0.95	DO (0.35/0.87)	USA
Mayer et al. (2012), Sample 4	104	0.95	DS (0.73/0.96); DO (0.63/0.95)	USA
Michel et al. (2016)	355	0.96	DS (0.73/0.96); DO (0.68/0.96) SJ	USA
Morrison et al. (2012)	188	0.96	(- 0.61/0.93); DO (0.48/0.93) OJ	USA
Nam and Yoo (2016)	376	0.93	(- 0.32/0.92); SJ (- 0.41/0.93) SJ	South Korea
Ng et al. (2012)	329	0.88	(- 0.22/0.85)	China
Ogunfowora (2009) Ogunfowora (2013)	297	0.90	SJ (- 0.54/0.90)	Canada
	297	0.86	DO (0.09/0.77)	Canada
Rafferty and Restubog (2011)	175	0.98	SJ (- 0.58/0.97)	Philippines
Raymund et al. (2015) Restubog et al. (2011), Sample 1 Restubog et al. (2011), Sample 2	156	0.91	DO (0.25/1.00)	USA
	184	0.97	DS (0.58/0.88)	Philippines
	188	0.95	DS (0.53/0.67)	Philippines

Table 4 (continued)

Study	N	α_{AS}	Correlate (r/α)	Country
Shoss et al. (2013), Sample 1	148	0.85	DO (0.38/0.85)	Philippines
Shoss et al. (2013), Sample 2	254	0.91	DO (0.17/0.84)	Philippines
Shoss et al. (2013), Sample 3	187	0.87	DO (0.22/0.75)	Philippines
Sulea et al. (2013)	236	0.85	DO (0.46/0.93)	Slovenia
Tang et al. (2012)	213	0.95	SJ (- 0.20/0.92)	China
Tepper (2000)	362	0.90	OJ (- 0.45/0.92); SJ (- 0.53/0.90)	USA
Tepper et al. (2008), Sample 1	243	0.94	DO (0.28/0.92)	USA
Tepper et al. (2008), Sample 2	247	0.93	DO (0.18/0.75)	USA
Tepper et al. (2009), Sample 1	797	0.90	DS (0.44/0.79), DO (0.36/0.87)	USA
Tepper et al. (2009), Sample 2	356	0.97	DS (0.58/0.94); DO (0.36/0.84)	USA
Thau et al. (2009), Sample 1 Thau	379	0.94	DO (0.32/0.68)	USA
et al. (2009), Sample 2 Thau and	1477	0.95	DS (0.59/0.93); DO (0.47/0.93)	USA
Mitchell (2010), Sample 1 Thau and	216	0.91	OJ (- 0.29/0.93); DS (0.57/0.80); DO (0.07/0.79)	USA
Mitchell (2010), Sample 2 Thau and	365	0.95	OJ (- 0.31/0.92); DO (0.41/0.89)	USA
Mitchell (2010), Sample 3	50	0.95	OJ (- 0.31/0.92)	USA
Thoroughgood et al. (2012) Vogel	226	0.94	DO (0.34/0.86)	USA
et al. (2015), Sample 1 Vogel et al.	951	0.96	OJ (- 0.34/0.90); SJ (- 0.63/0.93)	USA and China
(2015), Sample 2 Vogel & Mitchell.	278	0.96	OJ (- 0.30/0.93); SJ (- 0.62/0.93)	USA and China
(2015), Sample 1 Vogel & Mitchell	172	0.93	DO (0.29/0.85)	USA
(2015), Sample 2 Vog & Mitchell	221	0.95	DS (0.37/0.87); DO (0.17/0.87)	USA
(2015), Sample 3 Wang and Jiang	844	0.94	DS (0.23/0.91); DO (0.47/0.89)	USA
(2014)	403	0.87	DO (0.35/0.83)	China
Wang and Jiang (2015), Sample 1	196	0.92	SJ (- 0.53/0.91)	China
Wang and Jiang (2015), Sample 2	196	0.86	SJ (- 0.36/0.89)	China
Wang et al. (2012)	283	0.95	SJ (- 0.47/0.94); DS (0.24/0.89); DO (0.23/0.84)	China
Wei and Si (2013)	198	0.93	DO (0.21/0.75)	China
Hwang and Chun (2014)	217	0.82	DO (0.21/0.71)	South Korea
Xu et al. (2012)	54	0.85	SJ (- 0.27/0.85)	China
Zellars et al. (2002)	373	0.93	OJ (- 0.35/0.97)	USA

α , the reported reliability estimate; r , the observed correlation; AS, abusive supervision; SJ, supervisory-focused justice; OJ, organizationally focused justice; DS, deviance toward the supervisor; DO, deviance toward the organization