

**Deviant Followers Across Cultures:
An Investigation of Destructive Leadership, Workplace Deviance, and National Context**

by

Katherine Crawford Alexander

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
August 7, 2021

Keywords: cross-cultural management; leadership; GLOBE; meta-analysis; deviance

Copyright 2021 by Katherine Crawford Alexander

Approved by

Jeremy D. Mackey, Chair, Associate Professor of Management
Michael Wesson, Professor and Department Chair of Management
H. Jack Walker, Professor of Management
Garry L. Adams, Associate Professor of Management
Charn P. McAllister, Assistant Professor of Management - Northern Arizona University
Jesse S. Michel, Associate Professor of Psychology - Outside Reader

Abstract

Despite continued scholarly and practitioner interest in destructive leadership, the field has an incomplete understanding of the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance, especially with regard to how this relationship manifests differently across cultures. Drawing on implicit leadership theory and the target similarity model of social exchange, my dissertation examines the moderating effects of the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness' (GLOBE's) cultural value dimensions of performance orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance on the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance across national contexts. My study utilizes a meta-analytic database of primary studies for the relationships between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance ($k = 91$; $N = 28,616$), as well as destructive leadership and organizational deviance ($k = 59$; $N = 20,752$) to test the hypotheses. Ultimately, my study meaningfully extends theory, adds nuance to our knowledge on the impact of cultural context, and improves evidence-based recommendations for practice.

Acknowledgements

First, I would like to acknowledge my mentor and the chair of my committee, Dr. Jeremy Mackey. Dr. Mackey, thank you for preparing me to be an independent scholar, supporting my professional goals, and inviting me to be a part of your team. Learning from you has truly been one of the best experiences of my academic career. I appreciate all the opportunities that you have created and the support you have shown me over the past four years. Thank you for always treating me like a peer and coauthor through this whole process. I am grateful to you and your whole family for investing in my growth and future so wholeheartedly.

Thank you to my whole committee (Dr. McAllister, Dr. Wesson, Dr. Walker, and Dr. Adams) for their support throughout my doctoral education. Each of you has invested a tremendous amount of time and energy into supporting my research goals. I am so grateful for your encouragement and believing that I could finish my dissertation so unexpectedly this year. I appreciate your insights and help in improving the theory, methodology, and contributions of my study.

Next, I would like to thank my loving family, both those who are with us and those who have gone ahead of us. Reaching this level of higher education is a dream that my grandfathers (Gilbert and Jeff) never imagined for their children or grandchildren, and I am so grateful for the family legacy that they established to make this milestone possible. To my grandmothers (Alice and Katherine), thank you for sending me lovely notes of encouragement and reminding me of all the progress our society has made towards equality and the work still to be done.

To my mother (Selena), you are the reason I ever had this dream to begin with. When I walk across the stage at graduation, it will be because of your love and passion for learning, which you instilled in each of us. You are the best life coach a child could ask for, and I am so

grateful to be your daughter. To my father (Wilton), thank you for being the inspiration for so much of my research and curiosities about the business world. More importantly, I am grateful to you for modeling work (hard work) in our home and reminding me to put God and family first. To my “little” brother (Wil), thank you for making me laugh, being so encouraging, and humbling me on more than one occasion. To my big sister, Alicia, I appreciate you reminding me to speak like a normal person a few times a week. You are the reason that I will write a book one day, and why I am a decent teacher most semesters. Thank you for listening to all my research model ideas and supporting my ambitions. To my husband’s family (Amy, Gary, Christopher, Hannah, Ashton, and Liam), thank you for supporting us during this dissertation season and making sure that Zach and I took mental breaks at least once a month.

Additionally, I would like to thank my entire doctoral program cohort. I am grateful for our lively conversations about research ideas and teaching mishaps. Thank you all for being my friend above all else. Each of you has made a positive impact on my life personally and professionally. I look forward to catching up at conferences, meet-ups, and cross-country visits for many years to come.

Most importantly, I would like to acknowledge and thank my husband and partner, Zachary. I am so grateful for his support, love, encouragement, shoulder (to cry on), and overall optimism that we were on the right path over the last several years. Thank you, Love, for supporting my dreams for the future and reminding me that I could do this even when I thought I couldn’t. I can’t wait to see what are able to accomplish together in the next chapter of our lives.

Table of Contents

Abstract	2
Acknowledgements	3
List of Tables	8
List of Figures	10
List of Supplements	12
Chapter 1: Introduction	13
Statement of Problem.....	13
Contributions of the Study	16
Structure of the Dissertation	17
Chapter 2: Literature Review	19
Overview	19
Destructive Leadership	19
Workplace Deviance	21
Implicit Leadership Theory.....	23
Social Exchange Theory and the Target Similarity Model of Social Exchange	25
Theoretical Integration.....	28
GLOBE Cultural Value Dimensions	29
Summary	30
Chapter 3: Hypotheses	31
Destructive Leadership and Workplace Deviance	32
GLOBE Cultural Values	34
Performance Orientation	35

Assertiveness.....	37
Future Orientation	38
Humane Orientation.....	39
Institutional Collectivism.....	40
In-Group Collectivism	42
Gender Egalitarianism	43
Power Distance	44
Uncertainty Avoidance	45
Summary	46
Chapter 4: Method	
Overview.....	48
Literature Search.....	48
Inclusion Criteria	51
Coding.....	54
Analytical Approach	55
Summary	58
Chapter 5: Results	60
Interpersonal Deviance Overview.....	60
Organizational Deviance Overview	61
Hypothesis Testing.....	62
Supplementary Analyses of Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance.....	66
Supplementary Analyses for Overall Deviance	69
Summary	72

Chapter 6: Discussion	73
Overview	73
Contributions to Theory and Research	76
Study Strengths and Limitations	78
Actionable Agenda for Future Research	81
Practical Implications.....	85
Conclusion	87
References.....	89

List of Tables

Table 1: Destructive Leadership Styles and Definitions.....	107
Table 2: GLOBE Values for Countries That Were Included in the Analyses	111
Table 3: Main Codes and Input Values for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance	112
Table 4: Interpersonal Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country	116
Table 5: Interpersonal Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country for Studies That Were Excluded from the Meta-Analyses.....	117
Table 6: Interpersonal Deviance Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations among Study Variables	118
Table 7: Summary of GLOBE Hypothesis Testing for Interpersonal Deviance	119
Table 8: Main Codes and Input Values for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance.....	120
Table 9: Organizational Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country	123
Table 10: Organizational Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country for Studies That Were Excluded from the Meta-Analyses.....	124
Table 11: Organizational Deviance Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations among Study Variables	125
Table 12: Summary of GLOBE Hypothesis Testing for Organizational Deviance.....	126
Table 13: Meta Mean Inputs for the Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance Analyses	127
Table 14: Interpersonal Deviance Meta-Mean Results by Country.....	131
Table 15: Meta Mean Inputs for the Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance Analyses.....	132
Table 16: Organizational Deviance Meta-Mean Results by Country	135
Table 17: Main Codes and Input Values for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance	136

Table 18: Overall Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country	142
Table 19: Overall Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country for Studies That Were Excluded from the Meta-Analyses.....	143
Table 20: Overall Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations among Study Variables....	144
Table 21: Summary of GLOBE Supplementary Analyses for Overall Deviance	145
Table 22: Meta Mean Inputs for the Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance Analyses..	146
Table 23: Overall Deviance Meta-Mean Results by Country	151

List of Figures

Figure 1: Summary of Conceptual Model	152
Figure 2: Summary of Hypothesized Relationships	153
Figure 3: Summary of Research Model for Interpersonal Deviance	154
Figure 4: Scatter Plot for Performance Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	155
Figure 5: Scatter Plot for Assertiveness and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	156
Figure 6: Scatter Plot for Future Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	157
Figure 7: Scatter Plot for Humane Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	158
Figure 8: Scatter Plot for Institutional Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	159
Figure 9: Scatter Plot for In-Group Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	160
Figure 10: Scatter Plot for Gender Egalitarianism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	161
Figure 11: Scatter Plot for Power Distance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	162
Figure 12: Scatter Plot for Uncertainty Avoidance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance	163
Figure 13: Summary of Research Model for Interpersonal Deviance	164
Figure 14: Scatter Plot for Performance Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance	165
Figure 15: Scatter Plot for Assertiveness and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance	166
Figure 16: Scatter Plot for Future Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance	167

Figure 17: Scatter Plot for Humane Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance	168
Figure 18: Scatter Plot for Institutional Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance	169
Figure 19: Scatter Plot for In-Group Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance	170
Figure 20: Scatter Plot for Gender Egalitarianism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance	171
Figure 21: Scatter Plot for Power Distance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance.....	172
Figure 22: Scatter Plot for Uncertainty Avoidance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance	173
Figure 23: Scatter Plot for Performance Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance	174
Figure 24: Scatter Plot for Assertiveness and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance	175
Figure 25: Scatter Plot for Future Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Overall Deviance.....	176
Figure 26: Scatter Plot for Humane Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Overall Deviance.....	177
Figure 27: Scatter Plot for Institutional Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Overall Deviance.....	178
Figure 28: Scatter Plot for In-Group Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Overall Deviance.....	179
Figure 29: Scatter Plot for Gender Egalitarianism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Overall Deviance.....	180
Figure 30: Scatter Plot for Power Distance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Overall Deviance	181
Figure 31: Scatter Plot for Uncertainty Avoidance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Overall Deviance.....	182

List of Supplements

Supplement A: References for the Primary Studies That Were Included in the Meta-Analyses	183
Supplement B: References for the Studies That Were Excluded from the Meta-Analyses.....	198
Supplement C: Codes and Input Values Excluded for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance	201
Supplement D: Codes and Input Values Excluded for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance	202
Supplement E: Codes and Input Values Excluded for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance	203

Deviant Followers Across Cultures:

An Investigation of Destructive Leadership, Workplace Deviance, and National Context

Chapter 1

Introduction

“Culture is a way of coping with the world by defining it in detail.” ~ Malcolm Bradbury

Statement of Problem

Understanding the relationship between destructive leadership (e.g., abusive supervision; Tepper, 2000) and workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) has been of ongoing interest to management researchers. Destructive leadership is defined as “volitional behavior by a leader that can harm or intends to harm a leader’s organization and/or followers” that is carried out through manipulation of followers or the use of harmful influence tactics (Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013, p. 1310). Destructive leadership scholars continue to examine the nuances of this phenomenon theoretically and empirically (Mackey, Ellen, McAllister, & Alexander, 2021a; Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2017). More importantly, leadership scholars are increasingly interested in the contexts in which the dark side of leadership is most prevalent and impactful on subordinates (e.g., the toxic triangle of destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments; Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007). Although of scholarly interest, studying destructive leaders and their impact on individuals’ deviant behavior from an interactionist approach is time consuming and costly, and therefore, less commonly found in the literature.

Calls for research on the context of destructive leadership have focused mostly on conducive organizational environments (e.g., organizational climate) rather than the cultural values that were originally introduced in the toxic triangle (Padilla et al., 2007). In their

conceptualization of conducive environments, Padilla and colleagues (2007) argued that cultural norms heavily affect the emergence and impact of destructive leaders and predicted that uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, and power distance may be most influential (Hofstede, 1991; Luthans, Peterson, & Ibrayeva, 1998). My dissertation tests and extends these predictions by using the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) framework's (House et al., 1999; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; House, Javidan, & Dorfman, 2001; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002) cultural value dimensions of performance orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance to explain the extent to which differences in these cultural values across national contexts moderate the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance. Similar to the quote above attributed to Malcolm Bradbury, I suggest that these cultural norms greatly impact followers' actions because they enable followers to "describe in detail" the expectations they have for their leaders and their behavior.

Workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556), which is "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both," is a possible reciprocal reaction to destructive leader behavior (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). I propose that this relationship is heavily influenced by the cultural norms of each national context due to the differing follower expectations of what constitutes acceptable leadership behavior (Lord, Epitropaki, Foti, & Hansbrough, 2020) and social exchange norms (Emerson, 1976) in each country. Drawing on implicit leadership theory (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord et al., 2020) and the target similarity model of social exchange

(Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007), my study examines the moderating effects of GLOBE's cultural value dimensions on the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance (i.e., interpersonal and organizational deviance). The full conceptual model can be found in Figure 1.

Implicit leadership theory (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord et al., 2020), which serves as the theoretical foundation for the seminal research on GLOBE's cultural dimensions, suggests that individuals develop cognitive schemas to make sense of their surroundings. Individuals use these schemas to categorize others in their environment and guide their actions and/or reactions. These schemas allow individuals to create scripts to describe what they consider desirable, undesirable, and neutral attributes associated with their leaders (Junker & Van Dick, 2014; Lord & Maher, 1991). In this study, I draw from the schemas outlined in implicit leadership theory to hypothesize the impact of cultural norms on the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance.

Further, I leverage insights from social exchange theory in tandem to inform my implicit leadership-based predictions. The target similarity model of social exchange (Lavelle et al., 2007) proposes that reactionary behavior most closely aligns with its source. I utilize this model to make theory-based predictions about differences between targets of employee reactions (e.g., different targets of deviance) to the experience of destructive leadership. The foundations of social exchange (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976), as well as the recent developments on target similarity (Lavelle et al., 2007), closely align with the target-driven focus of interpersonal and organizational deviance and serve as a valuable tool for explaining the relationships of interest. Drawing from these theoretical frameworks, I argue that followers' leadership expectations are influenced by their national culture, which affects the extent to which perceptions of destructive

leadership impact deviant behavior.

In order to test the proposed relationships, my study utilizes a unique methodological approach which includes a meta-analytic dataset created from published (e.g., journal articles) and unpublished (e.g., dissertations, theses, and conference papers) primary studies. The final dataset was analyzed at the country level to determine the impact of cultural values on destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. This dataset includes the country-level GLOBE cultural dimensions for each country represented in the meta-analytic dataset. Ultimately, this methodological approach helps facilitate the examination of my primary research question:

To what extent do GLOBE's cultural values moderate cross-national differences in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance?

Contributions of the Study

My dissertation makes several meaningful contributions to the literature. First, my theoretically-driven research model extends previous findings on destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance by incorporating the unique perspective of cross-cultural differences. Specifically, I investigate the meaningful impact that national context (i.e., country) has on the relationship between destructive leadership and two targets of deviance: interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance. Recent research has investigated the moderating effect of cultural norms on destructive leadership and job performance (Mackey, Alexander, Maher, McAllister, & Ellen, working paper), as well as destructive leadership and job satisfaction (Mackey, Ellen, McAllister, Alexander, Phillipich, Mercer, & Palmer, working paper). However, the present dissertation is unique in that it is focused on interpersonal and organizational

deviance so it can meaningfully contribute to the counterproductive workplace behavior literature (see Robinson, 2008 for a review).

Second, I extend implicit leadership theory and the target similarity model of social exchange by empirically testing culture's impact on the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. By utilizing these theoretical frameworks, I am able to hypothesize the impact of national culture on the relationship between destructive leadership and deviance as it relates to followers' leadership and social exchange expectations. By conducting this dissertation, I respond to calls to consider the impact of national culture on followers' expectations of leader behavior and the role of context on leader-follower interactions (Padilla et al., 2007).

Third, I make a contribution by generating knowledge about the ability of the GLOBE cultural value dimensions to individually and collectively predict cross-national differences in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. The proposed supplementary analysis adds nuance to my overall findings by clarifying which cultural value dimensions are the strongest predictors individually, as well as provide the collective explained variance of all the cultural value dimensions in tandem when examining the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance. Ultimately, my examination of the individual and collective predictive validity of GLOBE's cultural value dimensions as moderators of the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance extends theory, add nuance to our knowledge, and improve evidence-based recommendations for practice.

Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation study begins with a review of the destructive leadership and workplace deviance literatures with an emphasis on the examination of these phenomena across cultures. Then, I review the theoretical frameworks utilized to make the theory-based predictions in my hypotheses: implicit leadership theory (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord et al., 2020) and the target similarity model of social exchange (Lavelle et al., 2007). Next, I outline my research model and present my hypotheses along with the theoretical justification for each. Then, I provide a detailed explanation of my methodology for investigating my research question. Finally, I describe a discussion of the theoretical contributions and practical implications of my study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Overview

My literature review is structured as follows. First, I provide an overview of the destructive leadership construct and the empirical findings regarding antecedents and outcomes associated with this leadership process. Second, I review the workplace deviance literature and provide an overview of interpersonal and organizational deviance as potential responses to destructive leadership. Next, I review implicit leadership theory and social exchange theory in organizational research, outline the recent development of the target similarity model of social exchange, and describe its relevance to my conceptual model. Finally, I highlight the importance of incorporating GLOBE's culture value dimensions as an important contextual factor currently unexplored in destructive leadership and workplace deviance literatures.

Destructive Leadership

Conceptual overview. Krasikova and colleagues' (2013) conceptualization of destructive leadership identifies it as an overarching construct encompassing many of the widely studied forms of negative leadership. For example, much of destructive leadership research examines this leadership process as a leader-centric style from the perspective of the follower (Ashford & Sitkin, 2019; Mackey et al., 2021a). This intentionally broad leadership process accounts for dozens of forms of destructive leadership, including abusive supervision, which reflects *“subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact”* (Tepper, 2000, p. 178, italics original). Since its introduction, Tepper's abusive supervision construct has been widely influential in both the destructive leadership realm, as well as the study of supervisor-subordinate

relationships overall (Mackey et al., 2017; Tepper, 2000). Recently, abusive supervision has been theorized as a traumatic workplace experience leading to either post-traumatic stress disorder or personal growth, depending on an individual's self-concept (Vogel & Bolino, 2020). As the most widely cited form of destructive leadership, theoretical and empirical reviews (e.g., meta-analyses) report that the detrimental effects of abusive supervision align with the effects of the broader destructive leadership construct overall (Mackey et al., 2017, 2021a; Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013; Tepper, 2007; Tepper, Simon, & Park, 2017).

Construct proliferation and new developments. Unfortunately, construct proliferation has adversely impacted the destructive leadership literature, which has generated scholarly debates on how the creation of slightly unique destructive leadership styles has detracted from the conceptual and empirical impact of the field overall (Hershcovis, 2011; Martinko, Harvey, & Mackey, 2014; Shaffer, DeGeest, & Li, 2016; Tepper & Henle, 2011). For example, destructive leadership styles include both active and passive forms of leadership like aversive leadership (i.e., leadership characterized by intimidation, threats, and punishment; Bligh, Kohles, Pearce, Justin, & Stovall, 2007) and pseudo-transformational leadership (i.e., leaders interested in “becoming personal idols [rather] than in the collective ideals that might benefit their followers”; Barling, Christie, & Turner, 2008, p. 852). Most recently, active destructive leadership has been introduced into the literature to emphasize the intentionality of norms violation and the adverse effects associated with this phenomenon (Itzkovich, Heilbrunn, & Aleksic, 2020). To highlight the conceptual differences between various styles of active and passive destructive leadership, I provide a full list of destructive leadership conceptualizations in Table 1.

Despite the challenges associated with construct proliferation, scholarly and managerial interest in destructive leadership persists due to new conceptual and empirical questions around

the contextual factors impacting the emergence of destructive leaders (e.g., Padilla et al., 2007). One such exploration includes examining the effect of organizational context on destructive leadership and followers' behavioral outcomes, or in the case of my study, the impact of national context on the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance. As such, Krasikova et al.'s (2013) definition of destructive leadership continues to serve as a broad theoretical foundation for this growing literature.

Workplace Deviance

Conceptual overview. Workplace deviance has attracted considerable research attention since Robinson and Bennett (1995, p. 556) defined it as an individual's "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both." One reason for this attention is that deviant behavior is a common and costly issue for organizations (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Murphy, 1993). In the United States, for example, close to one-third of all employees have perpetrated some form of theft (Russakoff & Goodman, 2011), and deviant behaviors cause around one-third of all organizational bankruptcies (Bennett, Marasi, & Locklear, 2018). In a recent study, 90% of employees admitted to engaging in at least one form of workplace deviance in the past six months (Marasi, Bennett, & Budden, 2018). Thus, workplace deviance continues to be an area of interest for researchers and managers alike.

Interpersonal and organizational deviance. Workplace deviance encompasses two primary targets: interpersonal deviance toward people in organizations and organizational deviance toward organizations themselves. Interpersonally-directed deviant behaviors target individuals, such as coworkers (Robinson & Bennett, 1997), customers (Swimberghe, Jones, & Darrat, 2014), and even supervisors (Liu, Kwan, Wu, & Wu, 2010). These adverse behaviors

include acts such as gossip, violence, pranks, and rudeness. Within the Bennett and Robinson typology (1997, 2000), interpersonal deviance has two main forms: political deviance (e.g., displaying favoritism) and personal aggression (e.g., sexual harassment; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Mackey, McAllister, Ellen, & Carson, 2021c). In contrast, organizationally-directed deviant behaviors target the organization and include withholding effort, working slowly, employee theft, time theft, disclosing confidential information, and substance abuse on the job (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Research shows that interpersonal mistreatment (e.g., abusive supervision) can lead to organizational deviance despite the source-target misalignment of the experienced abuse and retaliatory behavior (e.g., Lian, Ferris, Morrison, & Brown, 2014b).

Scholarly measurement of workplace deviance relies heavily on Bennett and Robinson's (2000) scales for interpersonal and organizational deviance; however, some scholars have incorporated measurement from the counterproductive work behavior literature in an effort to better align these two related streams of research (e.g., Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Robinson, 2008). However, more modern approaches to measurement in deviance research have reiterated the importance of the alignment between conceptualization and operationalization, especially when addressing meta-analytic research questions (e.g., Mackey, McAllister, et al., 2021c). Therefore, my study follows this direction and draws from empirical studies that utilized Bennett and Robinson's (2000) workplace deviance scales, as well as other deviance scales reviewed in the data collection process.

Theoretical frameworks and relevant research findings. Workplace deviance has been studied from various theoretical frameworks that include social exchange theory (e.g., Ellen, Alexander, Mackey, McAllister, & Carson, in press), personality theories (e.g., Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004), affective events theory (e.g., Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008),

social learning theory (e.g., Marwitz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012), and self-regulation theory (e.g., Christian & Ellis, 2011). In addition, sleep deprivation, abusive supervision, negative reciprocity, and perceived interpersonal justice violations have all been found to be significant antecedents of this negative workplace behavior (Christian & Ellis, 2011; Holtz & Harold, 2013; Lian, Brown, Ferris, Liang, Keeping, & Morrison, 2014a; Lian et al., 2014b; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Interpersonal mistreatment research findings suggest that destructive leadership is a process comprised of reciprocal negative interactions between leaders and followers (e.g., Mackey, McAllister, & Alexander, 2021b; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2008; Tepper et al., 2017). Destructive leadership is measured from the perspective of the follower, which in turn leads to negative reactions like workplace deviance (Robinson, 2008). Therefore, my research model focuses on followers' behavioral responses to their perceptions of destructive leadership within the leader-follower relationship. Determining the potential reaction from either a follower or leader benefits from taking into account the norms and expectations of each role within the organization and the societal context at large. Next, I cover the importance of implicit leadership theory in considering the impact of culture on the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance.

Implicit Leadership Theory

In general, implicit leadership theory asserts that followers have specific expectations of their leaders and that these expectations impact their behavior in kind (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). According to implicit leadership theory, followers create cognitive schemas of what leadership should be and should look like, which allows them to efficiently assess and categorize leaders into prespecified archetypes (Lord et al., 2020; Sy, 2010). These schemes allow followers to

assess leaders across diverse organization types, including new ventures and large corporations because they are able to depend on information processing driven by their semantic memory (i.e., general categories of leadership) instead of episodic memory (i.e., individual leader interactions) (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Schank & Abelson, 1977).

Thus, these schemas allow followers to create scripts, which enable them to determine their reactionary behavior towards their leaders. These scripts are based entirely on a follower's perceptions, which creates situations where, "even if receiving the label is not justified by objective data," followers may carry out their predetermined script (Junker & Van Dick, 2014, p. 1156). In interactions between leaders and their followers, leader archetypes are used by followers so they can quickly compare the interaction against their expectations and react accordingly (Junker & Van Dick, 2014; Shondrick, Dinh, & Lord, 2010). Thus, when perceiving leader behavior as destructive, employees are at risk of reacting negatively (e.g., deviantly) even if the leader archetype is incorrectly assigned.

Forms of negative leadership like destructive leadership are just one archetype developed and reinforced in followers' categorical schemas. For example, leadership schemas account for neutral, desirable (i.e., positive), and undesirable (i.e., negative) attributes of leaders (Junker & Van Dick, 2014). According to Junker and Van Dick (2014, p. 1157), "the worst possible leader is rated low on the positive attributes and high on the negative attributes". I argue that destructive leaders fall into this highly undesirable category (e.g., few positive attributes *and* many negative attributes) for most followers because destructive leaders serve as the prototypical example of negative leadership.

In sum, implicit leadership theory generates the theoretical foundation for explaining the assumptions each party makes for the interactions between leaders and their followers. These

assumptions create the experiential scripts driving behavior between the two parties. Further, I suggest that followers' existing expectations for how a leader should behave are often violated when experiencing destructive leadership. Generally, followers assume the following about their workplaces and their relationships with their leaders: (1) their leaders will act in their best interest and treat them well, (2) they should not experience poor treatment from their leaders, and (3) if their leader is harmful, perhaps it was something they did to deserve said harm (Lord et al., 2020). Thus, destructive leadership violates these assumptions and brings into question the norms and expectations of a functional workplace.

Social Exchange Theory and the Target Similarity Model of Social Exchange

Social exchange theory stems from the collective understanding of social norms and treatment expectations within relationships and, by extension, the workplace. Social exchange relationships are started and maintained through the combination of costs and rewards extended and received between parties. Within the organizational setting, employees work based on an exchange of direct rewards like pay and benefits, as well as indirect rewards such as status and encouragement (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). Rooted in the foundation of trust, the norm of reciprocity theorizes that a given behavior towards one party creates an obligation for others to respond similarly (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960).

Employees react similarly to the treatment they receive from either an organization or an individual despite not knowing when their actions will be reciprocated. These interactions create norms over time resulting in like-for-like social exchange relationships (Emerson, 1976). Norms of reciprocity can include both positive and negative behavior along with positive or negative reactions. New developments on social exchange theory argue that there is activity and intensity alignment between the actions and reactions within exchange relationships (Cropanzano,

Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017). Applying these tenets to this study, workplace deviance behaviors are voluntary behaviors that violate organizational norms and serve as a potential reaction to the violation of leadership norms (e.g., destructive leader behavior). Social exchange theory is especially useful for my study because norms are a central tenet for social exchange theory, the conceptualization of workplace deviance, and the foundations of GLOBE's cultural value dimensions (Gouldner, 1960; House et al., 1999, 2004; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Deviance scholars have relied on various theoretical frameworks, such as social exchange theory, justice theory, displaced aggression theory (i.e., the frustration-aggression hypothesis), and social information processing theory to explain the connection between antecedents and the resulting deviant behaviors (Bennett et al., 2018; Robinson, 2008). As emphasized above, no unifying theoretical framework currently exists. However, social exchange theory has gained popularity for both primary studies and meta-analyses of workplace deviance (Ellen et al., in press; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012).

According to Robinson and Bennett (1995; 1997, p. 14), deviant behavior is often the outcome of a "perceived specific event(s) that triggers or provokes the employee to take a specific action". These triggers include employee perceptions of workplace stressors (i.e., financial, social, or physical demands), unjust treatment, undesirable working conditions, or organizational changes. The triggers can create a sense of unfairness, disparity, or outrage in employees. Employees who experience a sense of unfairness, disparity, or outrage desire to resolve these feelings with misbehavior, leading to acts of workplace deviance (Colbert et al., 2004). Resolving these feelings of unfairness, disparity, and outrage can take the form of interpersonal mistreatment or organizational harm.

Target similarity model of social exchange. Recent developments in the social exchange literature have established the importance of source-target similarity when considering actions and reactions within relationships (Lavelle et al., 2007). Specifically, Lavelle and colleagues' (2007) target similarity model of social exchange suggests that exchanges are dependent upon the source of the initial action. For example, a destructive leader may verbally abuse a follower over a workplace mistake. According to this model, it is expected that the follower would react in kind towards their leader or interpersonally towards a coworker, customer, or another individual in their workplace. This creates a chain of abuse based on the initial source of the negative social exchange relationship experience.

Additionally, recent research shows the possibility of source-target misalignment in social exchange actions and reactions (e.g., abusive supervision and organizational citizenship behaviors: Mackey, McAllister, Brees, Huang, & Carson, 2018). For example, a follower may experience leader aggression and respond with punishing their organization instead of their leader directly (Lian et al., 2014b). However, in the following hypothesis development section, I argue that the target similarity between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance may be more aligned and generate a stronger relationship than the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance due to the theoretical foundations rooted in social exchange.

Social exchange theory has been previously used to explain the connection between destructive leadership styles and deviant behaviors (e.g., Lian et al., 2014b), as well as other forms of retaliatory behavior in the workplace (e.g., insubordination: Mackey, McAllister, et al., 2021b). Meta-analytically examining specific relationships (i.e., destructive leadership and

workplace deviance) through the lens of social exchange and the target similarity model further unifies the deviance literature around this theoretical framework.

Research has shown a consistent and stable positive relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance (Mackey, Ellen et al., 2021a; Mackey, McAllister, et al., 2021c). However, the variance in this relationship allows for further theorizing on the contexts impacting this relationship. Social exchange theory and the target similarity model of social exchange serve as important theoretical foundations for explaining the established positive relationships between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance, as well as destructive leadership and organizational deviance (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano et al., 2017; Lavelle et al., 2007).

Theoretical Integration

Collectively, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the target similarity model of social exchange (Lavelle et al., 2007), and implicit leadership theory (Eden & Leviatan, 1975) work together to explain the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance. Specifically, social exchange theory serves as the foundational underpinnings of the negative reciprocity at play in relationships between destructive leaders and their deviant followers (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Further, the target similarity model of social exchange provides a more nuanced view of social exchange to more narrowly explain the differing reactions to destructive leadership across different targets of workplace deviance despite the source of the negative social exchange experienced being the same (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Lavelle et al., 2007).

Then, I draw from implicit leadership theory to further our understanding of the relationships between destructive leadership and both forms of deviance. Implicit leadership

theory explains the impact of expectations and norms placed on the relations between leaders and their followers. Moreover, expectations and norms are culturally and societally specific to national context (House et al., 2004). By utilizing implicit leadership theory, I improve my theorizing of each national context's impact on the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance. This theoretical integration is necessary to parsimoniously explain the interplay between the micro- and macro-level phenomena examined in this study (i.e., interpersonal mistreatment behaviors and cultural values).

GLOBE Cultural Value Dimensions

Nationality (i.e., country) is an important contextual factor impacting followers' differences in their expectations of leaders' behavior because these assumptions can evolve as followers are socialized into specific cultures or societies (Offermann & Coats, 2017). Specifically, cultural values across countries are dependent upon the context (e.g., national norms), which means that followers' archetypes of desirable and undesirable leadership types vary across nationalities (Junker & Van Dick, 2014; Lord et al., 2020). The GLOBE framework includes cultural value dimensions assess performance orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance within the 62 countries studied (House et al., 1999, 2004). This study examines followers' perceptions of destructive leadership (Mackey et al., 2021a), so I have chosen to utilize GLOBE framework's societal *values* (i.e., how things are expected or desired to be) instead of societal *practices* (i.e., how things exist in reality) (Brewer & Venaik, 2010; Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & de Luque, 2006). This cross-cultural differences approach allows me to draw from implicit leadership theory and the

target similarity model of social exchange to hypothesize why each of GLOBE's cultural value dimensions likely moderate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Throughout my hypothesis development section below, I outline the definition of each GLOBE cultural value dimension and the relevant findings impacting my theory-driven hypotheses for the exacerbating or attenuating effect of each cultural value on the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Overall, I assert that destructive leadership serves as a salient violation of cultural and exchange norms in the workplace, which are driven by the implicit leadership schemas influenced by national context and norms of reciprocity assumed in leader-follower interactions (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Lord et al., 2020). This violation of norms ultimately impacts a follower's response, leading to incidences of interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance.

Summary

In short, my review of destructive leadership and workplace deviance literatures indicates an opportunity to improve our understanding of national context and cultural values. In the leadership and deviance literatures, there is a limited amount of research specifically focused on cross-cultural differences due to the costs, time, and professional connections necessary to conduct high-quality individual-level data collections around the world (House et al., 1999, 2004). Therefore, incorporating GLOBE's cultural value dimensions as moderators of existing findings on destructive leadership and workplace deviance allows for a unique perspective and opportunity to extend our knowledge and understanding on these phenomena. In the following section, I develop my hypotheses for each GLOBE cultural value dimension while drawing on the tenets of implicit leadership theory and the target similarity model of social exchange.

Chapter 3

Hypotheses

In this hypothesis development section, I outline my theory-driven predictions for the exacerbating or attenuating effect of each GLOBE cultural value on the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance. First, I argue the expected relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance, as well as the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. Next, for each GLOBE cultural value, I define the value, highlight relevant research findings, and argue for the predicted effect on the proposed relationships. Each hypothesis draws on the theoretical tenets of implicit leadership theory and the target similarity model of social exchange, as well as previous findings in the destructive leadership and international business literatures. The full conceptual model is presented visually in Figure 1.

First, for parsimonious theorizing, I draw from social exchange theory and the target similarity model of social exchange to explain why it is important to examine interpersonal and organizational deviance separately. The notion of source-target alignment or misalignment (e.g., Mackey et al., 2018) best captures how deviance can manifest differently despite similar origins of destructive behavior (i.e., destructive leadership). Thus, I outline theoretical arguments for the meaningful differences affecting the direct relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance (i.e., Hypothesis 1a), as well as the direct relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance (i.e., Hypothesis 1b).

Next, I introduce implicit leadership theory to explain the moderating effects of cultural values within these relationships. Most notably, I use implicit leadership theory to argue that destructive leadership more meaningfully violates expectations for some followers than others

based on cultural and societal norms. Finally, I utilize the theoretical arguments on whether expectations are met or violated to hypothesize whether each GLOBE cultural value either attenuates or exacerbates the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Destructive Leadership and Workplace Deviance

Social exchange theory serves as the theoretical underpinning for explaining the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). The norm of reciprocity (Emerson, 1976) established in exchange relationships between leaders and their followers helps to explain why followers may react deviantly toward destructive leaders, especially when followers perceive that they were targeted by destructive leaders' behavior. Given the established positive relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance (Mackey et al., 2021b, 2021c), the target similarity model of social exchange allows us to improve our theorizing on the alignment between origins (i.e., destructive leaders) of abuse and targets of response (i.e., interpersonal in nature).

Interpersonal deviance captures rude, hurtful, and harmful actions towards a follower's supervisor, coworkers, or other organizational stakeholders (e.g., customers) (e.g., Mackey et al., 2021c). Previous research suggests that abusive leader behaviors are associated with interpersonal deviance (Mawritz et al., 2012). Similarly, the target similarity model of social exchange argues that experienced harm from an individual will result in reactionary behaviors towards a similar target (e.g., an individual or group of individuals). Social exchange theory suggests that individuals will react in kind to maintain relational equilibrium due to the norms of reciprocity embedded in leader-follower relationships (Blau, 1964; Ellen et al., in press). Drawing from target similarity of model of social exchange, I argue that the similarities between

interpersonal sources and targets invokes followers' negative reciprocity, which compels them to react to experienced interpersonal mistreatment (i.e., destructive leadership) with perpetrated interpersonal mistreatment (i.e., interpersonal deviance). Thus, I hypothesize that there will be a positive relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 1a: Destructive leadership will be positively associated with followers' interpersonal deviance.

Organizational deviance includes behaviors such as theft of company property, daydreaming on the job, and disclosing confidential company information to someone outside the organization (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Similar to interpersonal deviance, previous meta-analytic studies of workplace deviance have shown a positive relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance (Berry et al., 2007; Mackey et al., 2021a, 2021c). In his original theorizing of social exchange relationship quality, Blau (1964) argued that individuals develop social exchange relationships with their organizations based on the costs and benefits (both financial and social in nature) given and received over time between parties (i.e., an employee and his or her organization). The target similarity model of social exchange argues that misalignment of source and targets of exchanges may impact the strength of relationships; however, there is still an important and impactful exchange relationship between employees and their organizations due to the shared environment (i.e., workplace context; Lavelle et al., 2007).

Previous theorizing on the role of social exchange on organizational deviance suggests that followers have social exchange relationships with their organizations, and their quality of social exchange relationships within workplaces likely share some overlap with the quality of their interpersonal social exchange relationships within that specific workplace environment (e.g., relationships with leaders or coworkers) (Blau, 1964; Ellen et al., in press). Further,

followers may have justification for engaging in organizational deviance instead of interpersonal deviance based on the perceived consequences of each deviant behavior in their workplace environment or societal context. Drawing from the target similarity model of social exchange, I argue that differences between interpersonal sources and organizational targets still invoke followers' negative reciprocity; however, it can be misdirected within the same context (i.e., workplace environment) for any of a number of reasons (e.g., availability of easy opportunities [such as cyberloafing or stealing office supplies] and/or decreased likelihood of detection and punishment)). Therefore, I predict a positive relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 1b: Destructive leadership will be positively associated with followers' organizational deviance.

GLOBE Cultural Values

Management scholars have demonstrated a continued interest in understanding culture and its influence on individuals' behaviors. Culture, or a "shared meaning system" (Shweder & LeVine, 1984, p. 110), serves as a way to describe the values, norms, and beliefs held by the individuals and groups present in a given society. Overall, interest in culture and its impact has led to international business research focused on cross-cultural values and their impact on employee behavior (e.g., Gelfand, Harrington, & Jackson, 2017; Javidan et al., 2006; Reiche, Lee, & Allen, 2019). In my study, national contexts serve as the environment in which destructive leadership and workplace deviance behavior are embedded. Thus, investigating these contexts provides a more complete understanding of the role of cultural values on interpersonal mistreatment behaviors in the workplace around the world. Further, social values are culturally and contextually specific, leading to differing expectations, norms, and assumptions of what

constitutes positive and negative leadership styles (Junker & Van Dick, 2014; Lord et al., 2020), which means that nationalities provide a rich context for understanding how implicit leadership theories and social exchange expectations captured by cultural values impact the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance.

The GLOBE framework captures cross-national differences in the cultural value dimensions of performance orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance (House et al., 1999, 2004). Throughout the section below, I describe the GLOBE cultural value dimensions, as well as outline theory-based predictions about why each dimension moderates the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance. My core arguments draw from my theorizing that destructive leadership either aligns or contradicts the societal and cultural norms in a given national context and the associated GLOBE cultural value in question. Ultimately, I examine micro-level destructive leadership processes and follower reactions (i.e., workplace deviance) at the macro country-level. The micro and macro levels embedded in my hypotheses requires that I predict the direction of the direct effect of each of GLOBE's cultural value dimensions on the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Performance Orientation

Defined as “the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) group members for performance improvement and excellence,” performance orientation highlights cultural norms that value high standards, personal improvement, and professional success (House et al., 2004, p. 30). Drawing from Max Weber's

works on Protestant professions and work ethic (1904/1930), House and colleagues (2004) argued that performance orientation captures a previously unidentified cultural value that impacts wealth creation, need for achievement, and self-reliance (McClelland, 1961). Societies, or national contexts, characterized as high in performance orientation tend to reward results above people and ascribe to personal responsibility (House et al., 2004). In contrast, national contexts characterized as low in performance orientation value harmony with nature, tradition, and familial relationships above personal financial success (House et al., 2004).

Drawing on implicit leadership theory (Lord et al., 2020), employees in high performance-oriented societies expect their leaders to be assertive, results-oriented, and driven by financial gain. Therefore, many followers may perceive destructive leadership practices as necessary to achieve the rewards valued by society. Previous research on the intentionality of destructive leadership captures how leaders may attempt to use harmful methods to achieve desirable workplace outcomes (Mackey et al., 2021a).

For example, strategic expressions of hostility (Tepper, Duffy, & Breaux-Soignet, 2012) and strategic bullying (Ferris, Zinko, Brouer, Buckley, & Harvey, 2007) are intentional leader behaviors that may be perceived as destructive; however, a leader's constructive goals may influence employee behavior like individual and team-level creativity (Liu, Liao, & Lio, 2012). Thus, the fast pace, demanding outcome targets, and overall intensity in performance-oriented cultures may align destructive leadership behaviors with the assumed normal behavior expected from a leader in the workplace. Further, employees are less likely to engage in workplace deviance in performance-oriented societies due to the unwanted financial and professional punishments associated with deviance (Mackey et al., 2021c; Robinson, 2008).

Based on the expected results-driven nature of leaders in performance-oriented national contexts, I predict that performance orientation will attenuate the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. Implicit leadership theory suggests that alignment between schema expectations and reality will result in desirable relationship quality and behavior outcomes between a leader and his or her follower (Lord et al., 2020). As such, I argue that followers may expect, tolerate, and even welcome harsh leadership behaviors in performance-oriented societies. Thus, I hypothesize that performance orientation will attenuate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 2a: Performance orientation will be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 2b: Performance orientation will be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Assertiveness

Assertiveness, or “the degree to which individuals are (and should be) assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationship with others”, captures a meaningful cultural value impacting the relationships between leaders and their followers (House et al., 2004, p. 30). Highly assertive societies endorse toughness, overt confidence, goal achievement even at the expense of others, and conformity to authority (House et al., 1999, 2004; Peabody, 1985; Pearce & Wassenaar, 2014). In contrast, societies low in assertiveness encourage modesty, tenderness, harmony, and trust within warm relationships (House et al., 2004). In general, assertiveness determines the extent to which individuals are expected to embody competition versus cooperation in relationships.

In the leader-follower relationship, it is likely that direct, dominant, and even toxic leader behavior may be expected and even encouraged in highly assertive societies. For example, assertiveness has been theorized to be associated with exploitive paternalism between leaders and followers, which demands undisputed obedience of leader directives and harsh punishment in the workplace (Mansur, Sobral, & Goldszmidt, 2017; Wu & Xu, 2012). Implicit leadership theory asserts that the endorsement of assertiveness in society may lead to the acceptance of destructive leadership behaviors. Moreover, assertive societies create workplace environments where interpersonal and organizational deviance are less likely due to the general expectation of destructive leadership tactics and the fear of severe punishment. Thus, I hypothesize that assertiveness will attenuate the relationships between destructive leadership and both forms of workplace deviance.

Hypothesis 3a: Assertiveness will be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 3b: Assertiveness will be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Future Orientation

According to the GLOBE framework, the future orientation cultural value is “the extent to which individuals engage (and should engage) in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification” (House et al., 2004, p. 30). Highly future-oriented societies emphasize behaviors like preparation and decision-making with the future in mind. Societies with low levels of future orientation value instant gratification and elect to enjoy life now versus planning for the future. Overall, future orientation as a cultural value dictates the

time horizon of decision-making and the perception of short- versus long-term gratification (House et al., 1999, 2004; Venaik, Zhu, & Brewer, 2013).

Cultures characterized as high in future orientation often encourage long-term financial success, saving for the future, and long-term strategizing at both the individual and organizational levels (House et al., 2004). In the context of the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance, I assert that destructive leaders in performance-oriented cultures violate the long-term perspective infused in the cultural norms of the society. Rather, according to implicit leadership theory, destructive leadership behaviors go against the expectations of leaders to embrace future-oriented organizational and team building strategies (House et al., 2004).

Thus, I predict that followers are more likely to engage in either form of deviance despite the risks and long-term consequences associated with being caught engaging in deviant behavior (e.g., job loss, demotion, or other forms of professional punishment). Drawing from implicit leadership theory, I predict that violations of cultural expectations (i.e., long-term perspective) will exacerbate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 4a: Future orientation will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 4b: Future orientation will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Humane Orientation

Defined as “the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others,”

humane orientation highlights valuing others, benevolence, and social support at various levels of society (House et al., 2004, p. 30). Cultures characterized as high in humane orientation emphasize obedience between parents and children due to the overall familial nature of these societies. In contrast, cultures characterized as low in humane orientation include people interested in self-enhancement, hedonistic values (i.e., short-term pleasure), and familial independence in adulthood. In general, humane orientation establishes the cultural expectations associated with family, relation to others, and the treatment of others in one's society.

Destructive leaders in highly humane-oriented societies are likely considered to be in violation of the norms associated with the need for belongingness, kindness to others, and generosity of spirit (House et al., 2004; McClelland, 1961). In this situation, followers could feel righteous in reacting poorly to these salient violations. Therefore, I argue that followers who are members of high humane orientation countries are more likely to engage in interpersonal or organizational deviance in response to destructive leadership. Based on implicit leadership theory, I suggest that these societies allow for retaliatory behavior when leaders defy benevolent social and societal norms. Thus, I hypothesize that humane orientation will exacerbate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 5a: Humane orientation will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 5b: Humane orientation will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Institutional Collectivism

Institutional collectivism, or "the degree to which organizational and societal institutional

practices encourage and reward (and should encourage and reward) collective distribution of resources and collective action,” highlights the role of economic resources and collective action on the generation of opportunity across society (House et al., 2004, p. 30). For example, societies with high levels of institutional collectivism believe that group goals are more important than individual goals. In contrast, societies low in institutional collectivism, or what is sometimes referred to as individualism, emphasize autonomy, professional achievement, and capitalistic market structures. Overall, institutional collectivism creates expectations regarding whether action should be individual-focused or group-focused across society.

Drawing from implicit leadership theory, destructive leaders in societies characterized as high in institutional collectivism are likely considered to be in violation of the norms associated with group harmony due their selfish actions and harm of others (House et al., 2004). Therefore, followers could feel empowered to react deviantly based on these salient violations. Thus, I argue that followers who are members of high institutional collectivism countries are more likely to engage in interpersonal or organizational deviance in response to destructive leadership. I suggest that these societies discourage selfish leadership tactics and empower followers to right wrongs against their institutional identities (e.g., organizational membership). In high institutional collectivism cultures, individuals are encouraged to maintain group-level behavioral norms like seeking peace, the common good, and conformity and use deviant behaviors as a tool to punish their destructive leaders. Thus, I hypothesize that institutional collectivism will exacerbate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers’ interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 6a: Institutional collectivism will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers’ interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 6b: Institutional collectivism will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

In-Group Collectivism

Defined as “the degree to which individuals express (and should express) pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families,” in-group collectivism is associated with high levels of social group and organizational identification (House et al., 2004, p. 30). Societies characterized with high levels of in-group collectivism emphasize group decision-making practices, prosocial behavior towards peers, and commitment toward one’s given (i.e., family) and chosen (i.e., social and professional) groups. In contrast, cultures with low levels of in-group collectivism are individualistic in nature and emphasize individual decision-making, autonomy from others, and personal responsibility (House et al., 2004).

According to implicit leadership theory, destructive leaders in cultures with high levels of in-group collectivism are likely considered to be in violation of the norms associated with group loyalty and support due to their self-enhancement actions (House et al., 2004; Krasikova et al., 2013). Due to the group-level nature of in-group collectivism, I argue that followers are more likely to react poorly towards their leaders’ destructive behaviors. Destructive leadership is an explicit violation of assumed loyalty, commitment, and even identification with one’s organization (House et al., 2004). Thus, I suggest that individuals will seek to rectify the wrongs against their work group or organization carried out by their destructive leaders by engaging in workplace deviance. In-group collectivism highlights a salient and impactful violation of behavioral norms, and therefore, is likely to embolden followers to act out deviantly. Thus, drawing on implicit leadership theory, I argue that in-group collectivism will exacerbate the

relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 7a: In-group collectivism will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 7b: In-group collectivism will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Gender Egalitarianism

Gender egalitarianism, or “the degree to which a collective minimizes (and should minimize) gender inequality,” captures how gendered attitudes like gender stereotypes and gender-role ideology (e.g., accepted role relationships between men and women) can lead to drastically different behavioral outcomes like gender discrimination and gender equality (House et al., 2004, p. 30). For example, societies with high levels of gender egalitarianism are motivated to create modern gender-role ideologies that emphasize the similarities between men and women specific to their skills, knowledge, and contributions to society. In contrast, cultures with low levels of gender egalitarianism are less likely to emphasize the equal role of genders in society, leading to more instances of gender discrimination. Research shows that when genders are perceived as more equal overall, females participate more in higher education and the work force across countries (Williams & Best, 1990).

In the context of leader-follower relationships, mistreating an employee or harming one's organization (i.e., destructive leadership) goes against the relational norms set out in the goals of modern gender-role ideologies. In cultures of high gender egalitarianism, there may be a wider assumption that destructive behavior of any kind (e.g., sexual harassment or other otherwise) should not be tolerated in the workplace. Conversely, cultures characterized as low in gender

egalitarianism may put followers in the position of submission as it relates to leader status and obedience. In many ways, submissive roles between leaders and followers mirror those of traditional gender-role ideologies between men and women (House et al., 2004). Thus, drawing on implicit leadership theory, I argue that gender egalitarianism will exacerbate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 8a: Gender egalitarianism will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 8b: Gender egalitarianism will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Power Distance

According to the GLOBE framework, the power distance cultural value captures “the extent to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally” (House et al., 2004, p. 30). Cultures with high levels of power distance accept power differences, hierarchical authority, and assigned status privileges in relationships between leaders and their followers. However, societies with low levels of power distance expect more equitable status and power distribution in the workplace (Daniels & Greguras, 2014). In the original theorizing behind power distance, House and colleagues (2004) argued that the role of power in society is viewed differently in high versus low power distance societies. For example, in high power distance cultures, power differences provide social order, stability, and relational distinctions. In contrast, in low power distance cultures, power differences create opportunity for corruption and misuse of authority in society.

Destructive leaders in low power distance societies are likely considered to be in violation of the norms and assumptions associated with leaders being viewed as equitable peers

with their followers (House et al., 2004). Thus, followers may react to this norm violation negatively by behaving deviantly either interpersonally or organizationally. In the context of high power distance cultures, destructive leadership tactics may be relatively more expected and acceptable norms for behavior in leader-follower relationships. Therefore, I argue that those followers who are members of high power distance countries are less likely to engage in interpersonal or organizational deviance in response to destructive leadership than followers in low power distance countries. Drawing on implicit leadership theory, I suggest that high power distance societies prepare individuals to tolerate all types of leadership behaviors due to the expectation of unwavering respect, obedience, and hierarchical structures present in daily life (House et al., 2004). Thus, I hypothesize that power distance will attenuate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 9a: Power distance will be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 9b: Power distance will be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty Avoidance, or “the extent to which a society, organization, or group relies (and should rely) on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events,” captures a culture's reliance on orderliness, consistency, and formality to provide structure for daily life (House et al., 2004, p. 30). In societies with high levels of uncertainty avoidance, workplace interactions are characterized by formal documentation, risk aversion, and high levels of control. In contrast, cultures with low levels of uncertainty avoidance emphasize prevalent informal interactions, less calculated risk taking, and less formalized control.

In the context of leader-follower relationships, mistreating a follower or harming an organization (i.e., destructive leadership) goes against the orderliness and procedural nature valued in countries with high levels of uncertainty avoidance. This clear orderliness violation may drive followers to engage in workplace deviance. When experiencing severe violations of leadership expectations, I suggest that individuals in cultures with high levels of uncertainty avoidance are more likely to engage in their own violation of organizational norms in order to restore order back to the workplace (Robinson, 2008). When behaving deviantly, individuals may gain a sense of control in their relationship with their destructive leader. Therefore, drawing from implicit leadership theory, I hypothesize that uncertainty avoidance will exacerbate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 10a: Uncertainty avoidance will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 10b: Uncertainty avoidance will be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Summary

In sum, the hypotheses presented in this dissertation highlight the importance of norms on both the organizational and cultural level when examining the moderating effect of GLOBE's cultural values on the relationship between destructive leadership and two targets of workplace deviance: interpersonal and organizational deviance. The very violation of leadership schemas (Junker & Van Dick, 2014; Lord & Maher, 199) impacts a follower's decision to behave deviantly; however, the higher-level influence of cultural norms may influence the likelihood of these undesirable workplace behaviors. Further, many of my

arguments rely on the original theorizing of GLOBE's cultural values and outline how these values ultimately impact leader-follower relationships in the workplace. These hypotheses remain aligned with the tenets of implicit leadership theory and the target similarity model of social exchange while extending the destructive leadership and deviance literatures to include the unexplored impact of national contexts and their cultural values on the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. The full hypothesized model can be found in Figure 2.

Chapter 4

Method

Overview

My study used meta-analysis to examine my hypotheses in order to build and test a generalizable set of implicit leadership theory and social exchange predictions across an array of national contexts (Shaw & Ertug, 2017). More specifically, I conducted random-effects meta-analyses and correlation analyses so I am able to examine the relationship between (1) each of the GLOBE cultural value dimensions and (2) the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance.

First, I followed rigorous meta-analytic techniques and implemented best practice reporting standards to create a replicable and transparent meta-analytic dataset (Aguinis, Cascio, & Ramani, 2017; Aguinis, Hill, & Bailey, 2019; Aguinis, Ramani, & Alabduljader, 2018; Aguinis, Ramani, & Cascio, 2020; Geyskens, Krishnan, Steenkamp, & Cunha, 2009; Moher et al., 2015; Steel, Beugelsdijk, & Aguinis, 2021). Next, I estimated the country-level meta-analytic correlations via sub-group moderator analyses. Then, I used IBM's SPSS 27.0 (Field, 2005) to conduct correlation analyses to determine the magnitude of the relationship between (1) each GLOBE cultural value dimension and (2) the meta-analytic correlations between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance across countries. Finally, I conducted relative weight analysis (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015) in order to examine the GLOBE cultural values in parallel and determine the amount of explained variance (i.e., R^2) the nine cultural value dimensions collectively explain and the percentage of the explained variance that is uniquely attributable to each cultural value dimension individually.

Literature Search

In order to build my meta-analytic dataset, I searched for primary studies relevant to my meta-analysis that were available as of January 2021 so I could develop a dataset representative of empirical research that examines the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance. I followed best practice recommendations for literature searches and explicitly documented my search process (Harari, Parola, Hartwell, & Riegelman, 2020). I used seven strategies in my search process to find empirical primary studies that were relevant to my dissertation study.

First, I reviewed the reference sections from recent meta-analyses and reviews of destructive leadership for applicable primary studies to include in my meta-analytic dataset (i.e., Krasikova et al., 2013; Mackey et al., 2017, 2021a, 2021c; Martinko et al., 2013; Park, Hoobler, Wu, Liden, Hu, & Wilson, 2019; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2017; Zhang & Bednall, 2016; Zhang, Liu, Xu, Yang, & Bednall, 2019). I cross-referenced each reference from the reference sections of these systematic and empirical reviews with my own list of primary studies to ensure that I examined the text of each article for potential studies.

Second, I used Google Scholar to systematically search for studies citing destructive leadership measure development papers (i.e., Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Larsson, Brandebo, & Nilsson, 2012; Schmid, Verdofer, & Peus, 2019; Shaw, Erickson, & Harvey, 2011; Tepper, 2000; Thoroughgood, Tate, Sawyer, & Jacobs, 2012). This search strategy allowed for a systematic approach to searching all empirical and conceptual studies that cited commonly used measures of destructive leadership.

Third, I utilized Google Scholar to search for studies that included the following key words: (1) abusive, aversive, bullying, corrupt, derailed, despotic, destructive, evil, exploitative, incivility, insincere, insular, narcissistic, negative, personal(ized), charismatic, petty, pseudo-

transformational, psychopathic, toxic, tyrannical, or undermining and (2) supervision or leadership in the full text to locate studies. More specifically, I looked for studies that examined these phenomena in organizational contexts that include leadership or supervisory behaviors. I included this search strategy because destructive leadership is conceptualized as a broad topic that captures various leadership styles comprised of leaders harming or intending to harm their followers and/or organizations within the workplace (Krasikova et al., 2013; Mackey et al., 2021a).

Fourth, I searched Proquest, Web of Science, and PsycINFO for studies that included the following key words: abusive, aversive, bullying, corrupt, derailed, despotic, destructive, evil, exploitative, incivility, insincere, insular, narcissistic, negative, personal(ized), charismatic, petty, pseudo-transformational, psychopathic, toxic, tyrannical, or undermining and supervision or leadership located anywhere in the full text of the paper. This strategy was included as part of my literature search process to account for and locate unpublished studies (e.g., conference papers, dissertations, theses, unpublished reports).

Fifth, I reviewed and searched through conference proceedings from the Academy of Management, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and Southern Management Association to find relevant conference papers. I searched the proceedings from 2000 (i.e., when Tepper's [2000] influential study was published) and 2020 (i.e., the most recent data available as of January 2021) for conference papers that included the previous outlined key terms in the full text of the manuscript. Steps four and five of my search strategy process were included in order to mitigate the impact of the file drawer problem (i.e., omission of non-significant or weak results; Rothstein, Sutton, & Borenstein, 2005) and publication bias (i.e., unrepresentative sample of research findings; Kepes, Banks, McDaniel, & Whetzel, 2012) on my dissertation

dataset and results.

Sixth, I searched in press and online first articles available for academic journals from the Financial Times 50 journal list that publish empirical leadership research (e.g., *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *Journal of International Business Studies*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Management Studies*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*) in order to locate recently accepted primary studies.

Lastly, I reviewed the reference sections from the primary studies found from the previous six search steps for additional primary studies that might be relevant to my study. Specifically, I examined the titles of the references to determine whether any studies may include destructive leadership as a focal variable or control variable.

Each review of my gathered primary studies began by determining if the study was empirical. Empirical studies were reviewed to see if they report correlations with at least one destructive leadership variable with relevance to my study. Studies that met these criteria were evaluated to determine if they met my rigorous inclusion criteria outlined below.

Inclusion Criteria

In order to be included in my meta-analytic dataset, I required primary studies to meet the six quality-based inclusion criteria described in this section. To improve the replicability and validity of my study, I adhered to the inclusion criteria as outlined by meta-analysis best practice recommendations (Aguinis, Dalton, Bosco, Pierce, & Dalton, 2011). First, I required sample respondents to be working adults because my dissertation examined destructive leadership and deviance in the workplace. I included samples with part-time and/or full-time working adults. In line with previous work (e.g., Mackey et al., 2021c), I only retained student samples if the

respondents were still currently employed at least part-time (e.g., working MBA students).

Second, I required each study to empirically measure destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance in a manner that is consistent with the definitions provided in my literature review (i.e., Chapter 2). This criterion was necessary in order to standardize the relationships of interest included in my meta-analysis as much as possible. Previously, I highlighted Krasikova and colleagues' (2013, p. 1310) definition of destructive leadership as "volitional behavior by a leader that can harm or intends to harm a leader's organization and/or followers." Further, I emphasized the conceptualization of workplace deviance as an individual's "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556).

As such, I evaluated the conceptualizations and operationalizations of the focal variables in each primary study to ensure that they were consistent with the definitions above and how destructive leadership and workplace deviance have been examined in prior meta-analyses (e.g., Ellen et al., in press; Mackey et al., 2021a, 2021c; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). For interpersonal and organizational deviance, I included studies using Bennett and Robinson's (2000) measures for workplace deviance (e.g., Mackey et al., 2021c), as well as others widely accepted in the counterproductive workplace deviance literatures (e.g., Berry et al., 2007; Ellen et al., in press), because these operationalizations align with previous empirical findings.

Third, I required studies to report destructive leadership from the follower's perspective, which is consistent with the conceptualization and operationalization of this leadership process (Krasikova et al., 2013; Mackey et al., 2021a; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2000). Studies collecting destructive leadership from the follower's perspective aligns with both the

assumptions of implicit leadership theory and the tenets of the target similarity model of social exchange (Lavelle et al., 2007; Lord et al., 2020), which I empirically tested. This third inclusion criterion is necessary to ensure appropriate theoretical and empirical alignment between my conceptualization and operationalization of destructive leadership.

Fourth, I required studies to report individual-level destructive leadership because I examined followers' perceptions of leader-follower and supervisor-subordinate relationships. As such, I excluded group-level variables and reports of third-party destructive leadership perceptions (i.e., witnessing destructive leadership directed towards others). I also excluded diary or daily reports (e.g., studies that use the experiential sampling method) of destructive leadership due to my focus on destructive leadership as a process experienced over time.

Fifth, I required that the sample respondents from each study were from a single national context (i.e., the same country). My goal was to include all relevant studies if authors were able to confirm their study results are specific to one country. Sixth, I confirmed that cultural value dimension ratings were available for the respondents' countries within the GLOBE database (https://globeproject.com/study_2004_2007?page_id=data#data), which includes scores for 62 countries. This inclusion criterion was necessary so I was able to locate the cultural value dimension scores for each country located within my dataset. Studies that drew respondents from countries not included in the GLOBE database did not meet this criterion requirement.

Finally, I ensured that there was no data overlap across studies (e.g., unpublished conference papers and published articles) to ensure adherence to the sample independence assumption necessary for the psychometric meta-analytic method (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004; Wood, 2008). The references and main coding information can be found in the appendices of this dissertation.

Coding

I created a low-inference coding form in Microsoft Excel to limit the number of errors and coder-related judgment calls (Aguinis, Pierce, Bosco, Dalton, & Dalton, 2011). The coding form included the primary studies' authors, years, study/sample numbers (when relevant), destructive leadership variables, deviance variables, and notes (when relevant). In order to align with meta-analysis best practices, I had two independent coders record the required information from each vetted primary study (Aguinis et al., 2011). The coders were asked to document the primary studies' publication types (e.g., journal article, master's thesis), study designs (i.e., self-report or dyadic data), and sample sizes (i.e., n), as well as the countries from which the sample data were collected.

Additionally, the coders reported relevant factors associated with the focal variables' measures: their low and high scale points, response scales (e.g., agreement scale, frequency scale), respondent sources (e.g., self-rating, other-rating, objective organizational documentation), the number of items, and internal consistency estimates (i.e., I exclusively used Cronbach's alpha; α). Also, the coders were asked to document the reported means (M) and the reported standard deviations (SDs) for the measures, as well as the bivariate zero-order correlations (r) between measures. Inter-rater agreement was calculated across all coding categories. For the interpersonal deviance meta-analyses, the following inter-rater reliabilities were calculated: country of sample (96.70%), sample size (89.01%), correlations (r) (89.01%), Cronbach's alpha (α) for interpersonal deviance (91.21%), and Cronbach's alpha (α) for destructive leadership (91.21%). For the organizational deviance meta-analyses, the following inter-rater reliabilities were calculated: country of sample (89.83%), sample size (94.92%), correlations (r) (96.61%), Cronbach's alpha (α) for interpersonal deviance (91.53%), and

Cronbach's alpha (α) for destructive leadership (93.22%). For overall deviance, the following inter-rater reliabilities were calculated: country of sample (98.43%), sample size (96.06%), correlations (r) (96.06%), Cronbach's alpha (α) for overall deviance (95.28%), and Cronbach's alpha (α) for destructive leadership (95.28%). Finally, I verified all of the primary study codes that were used to create my final dataset to ensure that my results were not biased by coding errors.

When necessary, I created composite variables for either form of deviance (i.e., interpersonal or organizational) when multiple forms of either appeared in a specific study. For example, Bowling and colleague's (2020) study reported results for both coworker and supervisor directed deviance. As such, I created a composite variable (i.e., interpersonal deviance) for this study in my meta-analytic dataset. As part of this process, I used Mosier's (1943) Equation 8 to estimate the reliability of the composite variables. I decided to use Mosier's equation as it aligns with the traditional application of Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) method.

Analytical Approach

Random-effects meta-analysis. I used Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) psychometric meta-analytic technique and program (Schmidt & Le, 2004) to conduct random-effects meta-analyses. This analysis was appropriate for my purposes because I assumed that the population parameters (i.e., ρ) varied across primary studies (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2010; Schmidt, Oh, & Hayes, 2009). I used α values from each of the primary studies to correct the zero-order bivariate correlations from each individual study for measurement error (Viswesvaran, Ones, Schmidt, Le, & Oh, 2014). I utilized median α values for any primary studies not reporting α s that met all other inclusion criteria requirements (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Joo, 2013). I report the number of samples (k), number of respondents (N), mean sample-size weighted correlations ($\bar{r}$),

and population correlations that were corrected for measurement and sampling error (ρ) for each analysis. Further, I report standard deviations for the correlation estimates (i.e., $SD_{\bar{r}}$ and SD_{ρ}), 80% credibility intervals, 95% confidence intervals, and the percentage of variance attributable to artifacts in order to assess heterogeneity (i.e., variability within the estimates).

I used the data from included primary studies to run random-effects meta-analyses so I could estimate the magnitude of the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance across countries. Next, I combined the population correlation estimates (i.e., ρ) for each country with each country's GLOBE cultural value scores. Ultimately, these steps resulted in a country-level dataset that weighed each country equally in the correlation and relative weight analyses.

Correlation analyses. I used IBM's SPSS 27.0 (Field, 2005) to conduct correlation analyses. I utilized the results from the random-effects meta-analyses as inputs for my analyses to produce a correlation matrix amongst the cultural value dimension variables and correlations (ρ) between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance. Correlation analyses provided important information for evaluating my moderation hypotheses because these analyses allowed me to examine the magnitude of the relationship between (1) each GLOBE cultural value dimension and (2) the correlations (i.e., ρ) between destructive leadership and interpersonal and organizational deviance. The results of the correlation analyses were used to evaluate my proposed hypotheses in the results sections below.

Relative weight analyses. I used the meta-analytic correlation matrix created in previous steps to conduct relative weight analyses (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015). I created .csv files with my meta-analytic correlation matrix in order to use the relaimpo package in the R program to conduct this analysis (Grömping, 2006, 2015; R Core Team, 2017; Tonidandel & LeBreton,

2015). Relative weight analysis allowed me to estimate the percentage of variance in the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance that was uniquely attributable to the nine GLOBE cultural value dimensions examined in this study. Ultimately, the results of the relative weight analysis provided useful information for evaluating the independent and collective predictive validity of the GLOBE cultural value dimensions when predicting the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance.

Partial correlation analyses. Finally, I conducted descriptive statistics analyses so I could examine the measurement of destructive leadership across cultural contexts. In order to be included in this analysis, I required studies to report sample sizes, as well as the means, standard deviations, and alphas of destructive leadership. When necessary, I corrected the means and standard deviations for the destructive leadership measures to ensure that they reflected means rather than summed scores (i.e., transformed M or $SD = \text{summed score} / \text{number of items}$). Next, I corrected means to reflect the scores that would be obtained on five-point scales (i.e., 1-5; transformed $M = [5 - 1] \times [M - \text{minimum scale point}] / [\text{maximum scale point} - \text{minimum scale point}] + 1$) to ensure that means were compared on identical scales across studies. A five-point scale was chosen to be consistent with the most influential destructive leadership scale by Tepper (2000).

Then, I used the metamean package (Schwarzer, 2007) in the R program (R Core Team, 2017) to meta-analytically examine means and 95% CIs around the means across countries. These means were used to determine the impact of the average mean score of destructive leadership for each country on the relationships between destructive leadership and workplace deviance. Then, I estimated the partial correlations between (1) the correlation (ρ) between

destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance and (2) each cultural value dimension individually while controlling for the meta-analytic mean of each country using IBM's SPSS 27.0 (Field, 2005).

Overall deviance supplementary analyses. To further understand the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance across cultures, I conducted a supplementary analysis of overall deviance. First, I coded and generated composite variables to create a dataset for overall deviance. For example, I estimated the composite correlations, the reliability of destructive leadership, and the reliability of overall deviance studies when both interpersonal and organizational deviance were reported for a specific primary study. I also included studies which reported overall deviance or overall counterproductive workplace behavior. My final overall deviance dataset included all forms of deviance: interpersonal deviance, organizational, and general deviance (i.e., overall deviance). Each form was included to better assess how deviance manifests across cultures absent of target. Following the creation of this dataset, I followed a similar analytic approach to my core study including random-effects meta-analysis, correlation analysis, relative weight analysis, and partial correlation analysis while controlling for the meta-analytic mean of destructive leadership.

Summary

In sum, my methodological approach utilized a meta-analytic dataset to generate a country-level correlation between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance for each available country. I combined these results with country-level GLOBE cultural value scores. This dataset allowed me to carry out correlation analyses, partial correlation analyses, and relative weight analyses as outlined above. The following chapter provides the empirical results of my analyses and is followed by a discussion of my findings and

their contributions to research, theory, and practice.

Chapter 5

Results

My method allowed me to generate a country-level dataset that included (1) the correlations (ρ) between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance and (2) GLOBE cultural value scores for each country with available data. The final dataset is representative of existing empirical research that examines the relationships between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance, as well as between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. The country-level GLOBE scores reported are reported in Table 2.

Interpersonal Deviance Overview

The primary studies included in the meta-analytic dataset on the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance are reported in Table 3 (see Supplement A for references). After excluding countries with no available GLOBE data, my final dataset for the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance included the 10 countries listed in Table 4, each country's correlation estimate (i.e., ρ from Table 4), and the corresponding country-level GLOBE scores. Each of the 10 countries listed in Table 4 are equally weighted in the correlation analyses. Meta-analytic results for the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance for countries with no available GLOBE scores are reported in Table 5 (see Supplement B for references and Supplement C for codes). Table 6 reports my correlation results and partial correlations results for the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance. I report a summary of correlations and hypothesis testing for interpersonal deviance in Table 7.

A summary figure of the interpersonal deviance hypothesis results can be found in Figure 3. Scatter plots for (1) each of the GLOBE cultural value dimensions and (2) the correlation (i.e.,

ρ) between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance are depicted in Figures 4-12 to show the distribution of correlations and cultural values across countries.

Organizational Deviance Overview

The primary studies included in the meta-analytic dataset on the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance are reported in Table 8 (see Supplement A for references). After excluding countries with no available GLOBE data, my final dataset for the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance included the 12 countries listed in Table 9, each country's correlation estimate (i.e., ρ from Table 9), and the corresponding country-level GLOBE scores. The 12 countries listed in Table 9 are equally weighted in the correlation analyses. Meta-analytic results for the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance for countries with no available GLOBE scores are reported in Table 10 (see Supplement B for references and Supplement D for codes). Table 11 reports my correlation results and partial correlations results for the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. I report a summary of correlations and hypothesis testing for organizational deviance in Table 12.

A summary figure of the organizational deviance hypothesis results can be found in Figure 13. Scatter plots for (1) each of the GLOBE cultural value dimensions and (2) the correlation (i.e., ρ) between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance are depicted in Figures 14-22 to show the distribution of correlations and cultural values across countries. These scatter plots help to visually depict trends in the data. Finally, the inputs and summary results for my meta mean analyses can be found in Tables 13 (i.e., input values) and Table 14 (i.e., meta-analytic mean results by country) for interpersonal deviance, as well as Table 15 (i.e., input values) and Table 16 (i.e., meta-analytic mean results by country) for

organizational deviance.

Hypothesis Testing

My correlation method is appropriate for testing my proposed hypotheses because my dissertation focuses on the role of country-level cultural values as moderators of the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance across societies. This procedure is more appropriate for my study than other procedures because other approaches tend to weight results disproportionately in favor of the countries (e.g., China) that are over-represented in the primary studies included in the dataset, instead of weighting countries equally. Throughout the sections below, I report results without statistical significance tests in order to avoid mixing meta-analysis with null hypothesis significance testing (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). For ease of understanding, the hypothesis testing results are presented in two sections to highlight findings for destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance, then destructive leadership and organizational deviance.

Interpersonal deviance results. First, Hypothesis 1a predicted that destructive leadership would be positively associated with followers' interpersonal deviance. I found support for Hypothesis 1a because the meta-analytic correlation between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance ($\rho = .44$) indicated a strong positive relationship. This result aligns with previous meta-analytic findings in the deviance (e.g., Mackey et al., 2021c) and destructive leadership (Mackey et al., 2021a) literatures.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that performance orientation would be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. Thus, I did not find support for Hypothesis 2a because the results demonstrated that performance orientation was positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and

interpersonal deviance ($r = .40$). Next, Hypothesis 3a predicted that assertiveness would be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. I found support for Hypothesis 3a because the results demonstrated that assertiveness was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance ($r = -.17$). In contrast, Hypothesis 4a predicted that future orientation would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. I found support for Hypothesis 4a because the results demonstrated that future orientation was positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance ($r = .08$).

Next, Hypothesis 5a predicted that humane orientation would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. Therefore, I found support for Hypothesis 5a ($r = .01$). Similarly, Hypothesis 6a predicted that institutional collectivism would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. Thus, I found support for Hypothesis 6a ($r = .05$) because the results demonstrated that institutional collectivism was positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance.

Hypothesis 7a predicted that in-group collectivism would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. Therefore, I found support for Hypothesis 7a ($r = .11$). Likewise, Hypothesis 8a predicted that gender egalitarianism would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. I found support for Hypothesis 8a because the results demonstrated that gender egalitarianism was positively associated with the relationship

between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance ($r = .58$). Further, Hypothesis 9a predicted that power distance would be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. Thus, I found support for Hypothesis 9a because the results demonstrated that power distance was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance ($r = -.43$). Finally, Hypothesis 10a predicted that uncertainty avoidance would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. However, I did not find support for Hypothesis 10a because the results demonstrated that uncertainty avoidance was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance ($r = -.41$).

Organizational deviance results. First, Hypothesis 1b predicted that destructive leadership would be positively associated with followers' organizational deviance. I found support for Hypothesis 1b because the meta-analytic correlation between destructive leadership and organizational deviance ($\rho = .41$) indicated a strong positive relationship. This finding aligns with previous meta-analytic results in the workplace deviance literature (e.g., Mackey et al., 2021c).

Second, Hypothesis 2b predicted that performance orientation would be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Thus, I found support Hypothesis 2b because the results demonstrated that performance orientation was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance ($r = -.52$). Further, Hypothesis 3b predicted that assertiveness would be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Therefore, I found support for Hypothesis 3b

because the results demonstrated that assertiveness was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance ($r = -.14$).

Next, Hypothesis 4b predicted that future orientation would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

However, I did not find support for Hypothesis 4b because the results demonstrated that future orientation was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance ($r = -.39$). Hypothesis 5b predicted that humane orientation would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Thus, I found support for Hypothesis 5b because the results demonstrated that humane orientation was positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance ($r = .33$).

Hypothesis 6b predicted that institutional collectivism would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. However, I did not find support for Hypothesis 6b because the results demonstrated that institutional collectivism ($r = -.44$) was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Similarly, Hypothesis 7b predicted that in-group collectivism would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Thus, I did not find support for Hypothesis 7b because the results demonstrated that in-group collectivism ($r = -.53$) was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Next, Hypothesis 8b predicted that gender egalitarianism would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance.

Thus, I found support for Hypothesis 8b because the results demonstrated that gender egalitarianism was positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance ($r = .06$). Hypothesis 9a predicted that power distance would be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Therefore, I found support for Hypothesis 9b because the results demonstrated that power distance was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance ($r = -.26$).

Finally, Hypothesis 10b predicted that uncertainty avoidance would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Therefore, I did not find support for Hypothesis 10b because the results demonstrated that uncertainty avoidance was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance ($r = -.36$).

Supplementary Analyses for Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance

Relative Weight Analysis. In the first three chapters of this dissertation, I outlined theory-based explanations for why I predicted that each of the GLOBE cultural value dimensions moderate the relationships between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance. Examining these relationships separately provides valuable information regarding the directionality of the moderation, as well as the individual impact of the GLOBE cultural values on the relationships in question. However, it is also important to examine the GLOBE cultural values in parallel in order to (1) add nuance to my overall findings by clarifying which cultural value dimensions are the strongest predictors individually, as well as (2) provide the collective explained variance of all the cultural value dimensions in tandem.

I conducted relative weight analysis to generate additional knowledge regarding the

relationships of interest in this study. Following relative weight analysis procedures, I created two .csv files based on the correlations reported in Table 6 (i.e., interpersonal deviance) and Table 11 (i.e., organizational deviance). I conducted relative weight analysis (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015) in the relaimpo package (Groemping, 2015) of the R program (R Core Team, 2017). I also decided to use relative weight analysis because it overcomes issues associated with correlated predictors (e.g., nine GLOBE cultural value dimensions) and power limitations (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015). Relative weight analysis helped me generate additional knowledge associated the amount of explained variance (i.e., R^2) that was uniquely attributable to each cultural value dimension (i.e., raw relative weight) and the percentage of the variance explained that was attributable to each cultural value dimension (i.e., rescaled relative weight).

Interpersonal deviance results. The relative weight analysis results reported in Table 7 indicated that, collectively, GLOBE's nine cultural value dimensions explained about 71% of the variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. Therefore, GLOBE's framework collectively has strong predictive validity in my study. The specific results indicated that power distance (rescaled relative weight = 27.90%), gender egalitarianism (rescaled relative weight = 24.01%), and humane orientation (rescaled relative weight = 15.92%) were the most uniquely predictive cultural value dimensions. However, uncertainty avoidance (rescaled relative weight = 11.52%), institutional collectivism (rescaled relative weight = 7.11%), and performance orientation (rescaled relative weight = 5.93%) accounted for at least 5.00% of the explained variance. In contrast, in-group collectivism (rescaled relative weight = 3.97%), assertiveness (rescaled relative weight = 2.23%), and future orientation (rescaled relative weight = 1.40%) explained relatively less variance.

Organizational deviance results. The results reported in Table 12 indicated that,

collectively, GLOBE's nine cultural value dimensions explained about 76% of the variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Thus, GLOBE's framework collectively has strong predictive validity in my study. The specific results indicated that performance orientation (rescaled relative weight = 27.54%) and in-group collectivism (rescaled relative weight = 23.00%) were the most uniquely predictive cultural value dimensions in the framework. However, humane orientation (rescaled relative weight = 12.12%), assertiveness (rescaled relative weight = 8.99%), and institutional collectivism (rescaled relative weight = 8.80%) accounted for at least 8% of the explained variance. In contrast, gender egalitarianism (rescaled relative weight = 5.83%), future orientation (rescaled relative weight = 5.15%), power distance (rescaled relative weight = 4.89%), and uncertainty avoidance (rescaled relative weight = 3.68%) explained relatively less variance.

Partial correlation analysis. Due to the complexities introduced by my micro- and macro-level dataset, I conducted a partial correlation analysis to control for the impact of the mean destructive leadership score of each country on the relationships of interest. I estimated the partial correlations between (1) the correlation (ρ) between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal and organizational deviance and (2) each cultural value dimension individually while controlling for the destructive leadership mean score of each country. My results rendered somewhat similar relationships to those found in my initial correlation analyses used for my hypothesis testing above.

Interpersonal deviance results. Reported in Table 6, I found that the following GLOBE cultural values were positively related to the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance: performance orientation ($r = .56$), assertiveness, (.09), future orientation ($r = .42$), humane orientation ($r = .04$), in-group collectivism ($r = .60$), and gender egalitarianism

($r = .60$). In contrast, I found that the following GLOBE cultural values were negatively related to the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance: institutional collectivism ($r = -.11$), power distance ($r = -.26$), and uncertainty avoidance ($r = -.19$). Notably, there were directionality differences for assertiveness (i.e., correlation analysis: $r = -.17$ and partial correlation analysis: $r = .09$) and institutional collectivism (i.e., correlation analysis: $r = .05$ and partial correlation analysis: $r = -.11$) between the correlation and the partial correlation analyses. These findings suggest the importance of considering destructive leadership norms (i.e., mean destructive leadership scores) in cultures high in assertiveness and institutional collectivism.

Organizational deviance results. Regarding organizational deviance (see Table 11), I found that the following GLOBE cultural values were positively related to the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance: humane orientation ($r = .32$) and gender egalitarianism ($r = .04$). In contrast, I found that the following GLOBE cultural values were negatively related to the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance: performance orientation ($r = -.54$), assertiveness ($r = -.13$), future orientation ($r = -.41$), institutional collectivism ($r = -.48$), in-group collectivism ($r = -.52$), power distance ($r = -.19$), and uncertainty avoidance ($r = -.40$). There were no considerable differences in the magnitude of the relationships found in the initial correlation analyses and partial correlation analyses for each of the nine GLOBE cultural values. These findings suggest the mean destructive leadership scores do not have a major effect on the relationships of interest in this study.

Supplementary Analyses for Overall Deviance

To improve our understanding of the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance across cultures, I conducted the same analyses for my overall deviance dataset

as those carried out for interpersonal and organizational deviance. In the following sections, I outline my findings for the random-effect meta-analysis, relative weight analysis, correlation analysis, and partial correlation analysis for the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance. This approach and findings were generated to provide additional context on the nuance of this relationship and how it may manifest differently across cultures and across targets (i.e., interpersonal, organizational, either, or both).

The primary studies included in the meta-analytic dataset for the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance are reported in Table 17 (see Supplement A for references). After excluding countries with no available GLOBE data, my final dataset for the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance included the countries listed in Table 18, each country's correlation estimate (i.e., ρ from Table 18), and the corresponding country-level GLOBE scores. The 16 countries listed in Table 18 ($k = 126$, $N = 39,245$) are equally weighted in the correlation analyses. Meta-analytic results for the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance for countries with no available GLOBE scores are reported in Table 19 (see Supplement B for references and Supplement E for codes). Table 20 reports my correlation results and partial correlations results for the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance. I report a summary of correlations, interpersonal deviance findings, organizational deviance findings, and relative weight analysis findings in Table 21.

Scatter plots for (1) each of the GLOBE cultural value dimensions and (2) the correlation (i.e., ρ) between destructive leadership and followers' overall deviance are depicted in Figures 23-31 to show the distribution of correlations and cultural values across countries. These scatter plots help to visually depict trends in the data. Finally, the inputs and summary results for my

meta mean analyses can be found in Tables 22 (i.e., input values) and Table 23 (i.e., meta-analytic mean results by country) for overall deviance.

Correlation and partial correlation results. For the overall deviance correlation analyses, I found that the following GLOBE cultural value dimensions were positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance: performance orientation ($r = .03$), humane orientation ($r = .35$), and gender egalitarianism ($r = .20$). In contrast, assertiveness ($r = -.21$), future orientation ($r = -.07$), institutional collectivism ($r = -.19$), in-group collectivism ($r = -.19$), power distance ($r = -.15$), and uncertainty avoidance ($r = -.28$) were found to be negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance. In order to conduct the partial correlation analysis, I generated the meta-analytic mean of destructive leadership for each country. My partial correlation results yielded similar results to the correlation results when controlling for the meta-analytic mean of destructive leadership (see Table 20). Notably, my correlation analyses are most similar to my organizational deviance findings. A summary of these findings and comparison across deviance forms can be found on Table 21.

Relative weight analysis results. The results reported in Table 21 indicated that, collectively, GLOBE's nine cultural value dimensions explained about 43% of the variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' overall deviance. Thus, GLOBE's framework collectively has strong predictive validity in my study. The specific results indicated that humane orientation (rescaled relative weight = 30.22%) and uncertainty avoidance (rescaled relative weight = 15.47%) were the most uniquely predictive cultural value dimensions in the framework. However, in-group collectivism (rescaled relative weight = 14.24%), institutional collectivism (rescaled relative weight = 9.65%), and assertiveness (rescaled relative weight =

9.34%) accounted for at least 9% of the explained variance. In contrast, future orientation (rescaled relative weight = 6.64%), power distance (rescaled relative weight = 6.14%), gender egalitarianism (rescaled relative weight = 5.13%), and performance orientation (rescaled relative weight = 3.17%) explained relatively less variance.

Summary

Collectively, the results of my hypothesis testing, as well as my supplementary analysis, suggest meaningful differences in the impact of GLOBE's cultural value dimensions on the relationships between destructive leadership and the two forms of followers' workplace deviance (i.e., interpersonal and organizational deviance). In the following section, I outline the theoretical and empirical contributions of my findings, as well as the implications for practice and future research.

Chapter 6

Discussion

Overview

The original purpose of this study was to build and test theory-driven predictions so I could shed light on the impact of cultural values on the magnitude of the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance, as well as the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. First, I demonstrated that destructive leadership is meaningfully related to both interpersonal ($\rho = .44$) and organizational ($\rho = .41$) deviance. For hypotheses associated with interpersonal deviance, I conducted meta-analyses and correlation analyses using data from 91 independent samples of empirical data ($k = 91$; $N = 28,616$). The results of correlation analyses demonstrated that the gender egalitarianism ($r = .58$), power distance ($r = -.43$), uncertainty avoidance ($r = -.41$), and performance orientation ($r = .40$) cultural value dimensions were the strongest moderators of the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. The results of my supplementary analyses indicated that the nine GLOBE cultural value dimensions accounted for a total of about 71% of the variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. The relative weight analyses clarified that power distance had the strongest predictive validity (i.e., rescaled relative weight = 27.90%) when the GLOBE dimensions were examined collectively.

For hypotheses associated with organizational deviance, I conducted meta-analyses and correlation analyses using data from 59 independent samples of empirical data ($k = 59$; $N = 20,752$). The results of correlation analyses demonstrated that the in-group collectivism ($r = -.53$), performance orientation ($r = -.52$), institutional collectivism ($r = -.44$), future orientation ($r =$

= -.39), and uncertainty avoidance ($r = -.36$) cultural value dimensions were the strongest moderators of the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. The results of my supplementary analyses indicated that the nine GLOBE cultural value dimensions accounted for a total of about 76% of the variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. The relative weight analyses clarified that performance orientation had the strongest predictive validity (i.e., rescaled relative weight = 27.54%) of the GLOBE dimensions when they were examined collectively.

Overall, my results show support for many of my theory-driven predictions. For example, I found support for my interpersonal deviance predictions associated with assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, and power distance. Also, I found support for my organizational deviance predictions related to performance orientation, assertiveness, humane orientation, gender egalitarianism, and power distance. These findings suggest a significant impact associated with GLOBE's cultural dimensions and the relevance of salient leadership violations for explaining their effect on the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance.

Notably, my findings suggest meaningful differences in how GLOBE cultural values impact the relationships between destructive leadership and interpersonal and organizational deviance. For example, performance orientation was shown to be a strong moderator for both relationships. However, it was positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance ($r = .40$) and was negatively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance ($r = -.52$). One possible explanation for these findings is the impact of perceived consequences for engaging in

interpersonal versus organizational deviance. In highly competitive cultures, harsh language and rude interactions amongst team members may be tolerated; however, workplace theft or other forms of organizational deviance may lead to undesirable professional consequences (e.g., job loss). These differences demonstrate the importance of examining interpersonal and organizational deviance separately both theoretically and empirically (Mackey et al., 2021c; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Surprisingly, I did not find support for the hypotheses related to future orientation and uncertainty avoidance. For Hypothesis 4b, I predicted that future orientation would be positively associated with the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. It could be that followers embedded in high future orientation contexts are heavily affected by perceived consequences of deviant behavior (e.g., demotion, firing, and/or reduction in pay) above and beyond salient leadership violations like destructive leadership behaviors, resulting in a negative impact on these relationships (i.e., $r = -.39$ for organizational deviance). For Hypotheses 10a and 10b, I predicted that uncertainty would be positively associated with the relationships between destructive leadership and both forms of deviance. Perhaps followers embedded in high uncertainty avoidance contexts are less likely to engage in workplace deviance (i.e., $r = -.41$ for interpersonal deviance and $r = -.36$ for organizational deviance) due to the fear of and the potential for personal and professional chaos that comes with being caught and punished for such negative workplace behaviors.

Collectively, my findings provide a better understanding of the extent to which GLOBE's cultural values moderate cross-national differences in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. In the following sections, I outline my study's contributions to theory, research, and practice, as well as highlight notable strengths, describe

limitations, and provide an actionable agenda for future research.

Contributions to Theory and Research

Altogether, my study makes three meaningful contributions to the destructive leadership, workplace deviance, and cross-cultural management literatures. First, I extend previous findings on destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance by incorporating GLOBE's cultural value dimensions to investigate the impact of national context on these leader-follower interactions. Further, my findings suggest that these cross-national differences are meaningful moderators of the investigated relationships. More specifically, gender egalitarianism was found to be the strongest moderator (i.e., positively associated) of the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance. In contrast, in-group collectivism was found to be the strongest moderator (i.e., negatively associated) for the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. These findings create new knowledge about the impact of GLOBE's cultural values as important contextual features of studies that examine destructive leadership and workplace deviance. As such, this knowledge helps us to interpret past and future research on the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance by considering the magnitude of the findings and the impact of cultural context that drives implicit leadership expectations (Junker & Van Dick, 2014; Lord & Maher, 1991). Thus, my unique cross-cultural perspective provides meaningful implications for nuanced theory, impactful research, and evidence-based practice.

Second, my study extends implicit leadership theory and the target similarity model of social exchange by empirically testing the impact of GLOBE's cultural value dimensions on the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. By utilizing these theoretical frameworks, my findings expand our knowledge on the manifestation of these

leader-follower interactions across cultures. Also, my study contributes to the destructive leadership field by responding to the research call to investigate the impact of national culture on followers' expectations of leader behavior and the role of context on leader-follower interactions (Padilla et al., 2007). Despite this call being made by leading scholars in destructive leadership research over a decade ago, it remained unanswered prior to my study because it required the body of empirical evidence across cultures to mature and the empirical approach used in this study had not been employed. Due to my unique combination of theoretical approach and methodological technique, I meaningfully extend implicit leadership theory and social exchange theory to account for micro-, macro-, and cross-cultural influences on the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance. Further, my results that examine GLOBE's cultural values, both individually and collectively, provide nuanced understanding of the impact of cultural values on followers' leadership and social exchange expectations.

Finally, my supplementary analysis results contribute to research by providing a new understanding of the collective and individual predictive validity of the nine GLOBE cultural value dimensions. These results suggest that cross-national differences account for a large amount of the explained variance in the relationships between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance (71%), as well as destructive leadership and organizational deviance (76%). Most importantly, this approach allowed me to clarify which cultural values are the strongest predictors of explained variance for the investigated relationships (i.e., power distance for interpersonal deviance and performance orientation for organizational deviance). These findings provide a possible explanation (i.e., cross-national differences) for previous meta-analytic results indicating high levels of heterogeneity in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance (Mackey et al., 2021a, 2021c). Determining the

factors influencing the heterogeneity in the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance is important because it adds nuanced understanding to how and why this relationship manifests in the workplace.

Study Strengths and Limitations

My dissertation study has several notable strengths. First, my meta-analytic database included large samples for both interpersonal deviance ($k = 91$; $N = 28,616$) and organizational deviance ($k = 59$; $N = 20,752$). This feature of my database reflects the maturity of the destructive leadership and deviance literatures, as well as the interest in these phenomena around the world. Further, my full meta-analytic database is representative of these literatures due to my robust data collection efforts and rigorous inclusion criteria. Another notable strength is the number of countries included in my analyses (i.e., 10 countries for interpersonal deviance and 12 countries for organizational deviance). Due to high costs and barriers associated with cross-national data collection, study designs for cross-cultural research normally include only a few countries at a time (e.g., 4 countries: Vogel et al., 2015). In contrast, a major strength of my study was that my data collection and meta-analytic approach allowed me to consider the impact of GLOBE's cultural value dimensions for 10 or more national contexts across the two relationships of interest.

Additionally, my dissertation utilizes primary study data and cross-national data (i.e., GLOBE's nine cultural values), allowing me to leverage both micro- and macro-level data. Further, my data are all publicly available and reported explicitly with the tables and figures of my study. Therefore, my meta-analytic database is transparent, allowing my results to be replicated by other scholars. Finally, my study uses multiple methodological techniques (i.e., meta-analytic correlations, zero-order correlations, partial correlations [for meta-analytic mean

results], relative weights, and scatter plots) to assess the robustness of the results from many perspectives. The results were convergent across methodological techniques, which provides robust evidence of their validity.

The primary limitations of my study are based on the common issues associated with meta-analytic data. For example, the “garbage-in, garbage-out” principle proposes that meta-analytic results are dependent on the validity of the results from the primary studies included (Aguinis et al., 2011). Thus, my findings are only as accurate, robust, and valid as the findings from the primary studies included in my analyses. In response, I have purposefully provided my database and made the results explicit, transparent, and replicable so others can evaluate the data included in my study and evaluate its inclusion in my study and future meta-analytic studies.

Second, my dataset draws from correlational data in primary studies, meaning I am unable to draw the causal conclusions that are possible with experimental data collection. Thus, my results reflect associations without claims of causality. I relied on the tenets of implicit leadership and social exchange theories to construct the research model, but additional research will be needed to fully explore the causality implied in my research model. Further, my analytic approach does not allow for temporal or survey source considerations available in survey collection research designs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), which limits my ability to evaluate the extent to which common method bias influenced my results. These limitations reflect the realities of meta-analytic data collection in the destructive leadership and deviance literatures.

Also, there were some limitations associated with examining a country-level dataset. I was only able to examine countries with available primary study data. Ultimately, some variance in GLOBE’s cultural value dimensions appeared because 10 or more countries with primary data

were included in the full meta-analytic datasets for both forms of deviance. However, using GLOBE's cultural values and my other rigorous inclusion criteria limited the statistical power of my models to 10 countries for my interpersonal deviance dataset and 12 countries for my organizational deviance dataset. Further, I was limited to including data from countries with GLOBE culture value dimensions values (House et al., 2004), which further restricted the size of the dataset. Additionally, GLOBE's cultural value dimensions do not account for regional differences and/or within-country heterogeneity (House et al., 2004). For example, there are visible cultural, religious, political, and economic differences between regions of the United States; however, the GLOBE cultural values only account for the aggregate of the cultural norms.

Despite these regional and within-country limitations, my final approach resulted in a dataset with a large number of respondents ($N = 28,616$ for interpersonal deviance and $N = 20,752$ for organizational deviance), enhancing the generalizability of my results. However, my findings were based on low levels of statistical power traditionally required for some my analyses (Schmidt, 2017). This limitation is important to understand and consider when determining the robustness of my results; however, it is a known limitation in international business research, which often suffers from low statistical power when examining data from multiple countries (Aguinis et al., 2020). In response, I conducted several different types of analyses as robustness checks for my results. In particular, relative weight analysis was a useful analytical tool for my study that assessed my results without the power limitations of some other types of analyses. Altogether, my study limitations and surprising findings provide ample opportunity for future research that examines the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance, as well as the impact of cross-cultural differences on this

relationship.

Actionable Agenda for Future Research

In this section, I outline several future research directions for scholars interested in extending my meta-analytic findings. First, scholars may consider adjusting the conceptualization and operationalization inclusion criteria in a future meta-analytic study to enhance the precision of our knowledge. For example, a scholar may choose to only include narrower forms of destructive leadership (e.g., abusive supervision or aversive leadership). Similarly, scholars may further narrow the investigation of workplace deviance to specific forms of interpersonal deviance, like coworker undermining. Alternatively, scholars may decide to consider other follower outcomes (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors) to examine the impact of GLOBE's cultural values on other behaviors of practical interest.

Second, although my study did not find support for every proposed hypothesis, my findings are in some cases surprising, and thus, allow for additional research questions and theoretical developments. For example, future research could consider further exploring the differing effect of performance orientation, institutional collectivism, and in-group collectivism on the relationships between destructive leadership and the two forms of workplace deviance. In addition, the difference in findings (e.g., positively vs. negatively associated) between the correlation analysis and partial correlation analysis (i.e., controlling for the meta-analytic mean of destructive leadership) for the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance and the impact of future orientation and institutional collectivism provide an opportunity to improve our understanding of the norms and tolerance of destructive leadership behaviors across cultures.

Additional research questions to consider relate to the overlap between interpersonal and

organizational deviance and the explained variance possible when examining the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance (e.g., as a single construct) across cultural contexts. My study relied on the justifications for meaningful differences between interpersonal and organizational deviance both conceptually and empirically (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Further, my study utilized the target similarity model of social exchange to explain why these relationships may manifest differently across cultures. However, many scholars have examined the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance without separating deviance into two separate phenomena (Mackey et al., 2021c).

One possible way to extend my study would be to further explore why the impact of GLOBE's cultural values impact interpersonal, organizational, and overall deviance differently. My supplementary analysis of overall deviance was one step in this direction, with the results suggesting that the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance may manifest similarly across cultures to the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. Previous meta-analytic findings suggest a high meta-analytic correlation between interpersonal and organizational deviance (i.e., $\rho = .67$; Mackey et al., 2021c). However, the impact of cultural values on these relationships differs across interpersonal and organizational deviance. Further exploring these differences across interpersonal, organizational, and overall deviance offers a valuable opportunity for the development of theory and recommendations for practice for handling and preventing workplace deviance across cultures.

Next, I suggest that scholars consider alternative or updated approaches to examining the impact of cross-cultural differences. For example, future research could utilize updated GLOBE data, which is currently in development, to capture additional countries left out of my analysis

(i.e., Belgium, Pakistan, and Romania). Future research would also benefit by examining the role of GLOBE's cultural practices versus GLOBE's cultural values to better understand other cultural factors impacting leader-follower relationships. GLOBE's cultural practices capture the perception of the nine GLOBE dimensions as they are, whereas the cultural values capture the nine dimensions as they should be in a specific cultural context (House et al., 2004). Thus, I suggest that future researchers consider the impact of GLOBE's nine cultural practice dimensions and compare and contrast these findings with the findings of my study. Implicit leadership theory asserts that followers have specific assumptions of their leaders' behavior, so I chose to use cultural values to capture the salient violations of these assumptions; however, examining the role of cultural practices instead of cultural values would provide meaningful understanding on the how on the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance manifests around the world.

Next, I propose that future research considers examining additional cultural value frameworks to position my findings in the broader international business literature (e.g., Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Inglehart, 1997; Schwartz, 1999). Utilizing alternative cultural value frameworks allows for opportunity to compare findings as well as consider how the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance across cultures has changed over time (e.g., GLOBE's 2004 cultural values versus GLOBE's forthcoming 2020 cultural values; https://globeproject.com/about?page_id=intro#globe2020_intro).

Future research would also benefit by considering alternative theoretical frameworks for explaining the moderating effects of GLOBE's cultural values on the relationships between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance, as well as destructive leadership and organizational deviance. My findings suggest that alternative processes may be occurring outside

those embedded in implicit leadership theory and salient leadership violations. For example, the expectation violations associated with destructive leadership impacted interpersonal and organizational deviance differently for several GLOBE cultural value dimensions (e.g., performance orientation, institutional collectivism, and in-group collectivism).

There is ample opportunity to consider alternative theoretical underpinnings driving these differences in GLOBE cultural values and their impact on the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. For example, future research may consider taking an institutional logics perspective to better account for the individual, organizational, and economic factors impacting the leader-follower relationships across cultures (Thornton, Ocasio, & Lounsbury, 2012). The institutional logics perspective, commonly found in sociology and marketing research, argues that individuals and organizations are guided by an institutional logic, or "the set of material practices and symbolic systems including assumptions, values, and beliefs by which (focal actors) provide meaning to their daily activity, organize time and space, and reproduce their lives and experiences" (Thornton et al., 2012, *Introduction*). Such a perspective may be valuable to further understand the impact of cultural values on individual-level interactions between leaders and their followers.

Finally, I suggest that leadership scholars outside of the destructive leadership literature consider utilizing a similar cross-cultural prospective for determining the role of national context on leader-follower interactions in the workplace. For example, scholars may consider using a similar meta-analytic approach for determining the impact of GLOBE's cultural values on the relationships between servant leadership and workplace deviance or leader-member exchange quality and workplace deviance. My analytic approach could lead to new and valuable insights on the impact of cross-cultural differences on these and other leader-follower interactions.

Understanding the role of cross-cultural differences on leader-follower interactions could benefit leadership scholars and management practitioners alike.

Practical Implications

My study's findings offer meaningful implications for organizational leaders and management practice. Cultural values are not something that can be changed or controlled by organizational leaders; however, understanding their effect on costly workplace behaviors like destructive leadership and workplace deviance is of interest to managers across the globe (Bennett et al., 2018). Thus, I suggest that managers consider how certain cultural values exacerbate or attenuate the relationships between destructive leadership and the two forms of workplace deviance.

For example, the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance was found to be exacerbated most strongly by gender egalitarianism ($r = .58$) and performance orientation ($r = .40$). Further, power distance ($r = -.43$) and uncertainty avoidance ($r = -.41$) were shown to attenuate the relationship most strongly between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance. In cultures high in gender egalitarianism, managers could consider engaging in destructive leadership prevention training, as well as implementing programs meant to generate goodwill between leaders and their followers. When considering the collective impact of all nine cultural values, managers may need to consider the influence of power distance ($r = -.43$) because it accounted for 27.90% of the total 71% explained variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance. In cultures with high power distance, destructive leadership may be an accepted norm and even tolerated behavior in the workplace.

For destructive leadership and organizational deviance, I found that humane orientation

most strongly exacerbated the relationship ($r = .33$). My findings also show that in-group collectivism ($r = -.53$) and performance orientation ($r = -.52$) most strongly attenuate the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. In cultures high in humane orientation, organizations could consider implementing programs centered around employee support and strongly discourage destructive leadership practices due to their adverse impact on organizational deviant behaviors.

When examining the comprehensive impact of all nine cultural values, organizational leaders would benefit from considering the effect of performance orientation ($r = -.52$) because it accounted for 27.54% of the total 76% explained variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance. In cultures with high performance orientation, destructive leadership may be expected by followers due to the competitive nature of the workplace. However, employees may be more likely to act out deviantly towards their organization rather than their supervisor due to the professional benefits available in high functioning leader-follower relationships (Mackey et al., 2021b).

Next, my overall deviance findings suggest that managers could consider the effect of humane orientation ($r = .35$), which exacerbates the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance. Humane orientation accounted for 30.22% of the total 43% of the explained variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and overall deviance. In cultures with humane orientation, destructive leadership may appear shocking and out of place to their followers due to the compassionate nature of their cultural norms. As such, followers may be more likely engage in workplace deviance to punish their supervisors and organizations for such unacceptable treatment by their leaders.

My findings demonstrate that destructive leader behaviors may be acceptable and even

expected in some cultures. However, organizations could consider the implications for managers crossing cultural boundaries through global working arrangements, expatriate assignments, and/or multinational organizational moves. For example, organizational leaders moving from a high power distance culture to a low power distance culture may experience drastic differences in their leader-follower interactions associated with interpersonally-directed deviant reactions to destructive leader behaviors. Similarly, managers moving from a high performance orientation culture to a low performance orientation culture may experience significant changes in their leader-follower relationships, especially organization-directed deviant reactions to destructive leader behaviors. Ultimately, my findings provide useful guidance for leaders to better understand the impact of cultural values and societal context on their interactions with their followers.

Conclusion

My dissertation examined the impact of GLOBE's cultural values on the relationships between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance, as well as destructive leadership and organizational deviance, across countries. Drawing from implicit leadership theory and the target similarity model of social exchange, I posited that each of GLOBE's cultural values dimensions either exacerbated or attenuated the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' workplace deviance. Overall, I found support for the majority of my hypotheses. My findings shed light on the individual effect of performance orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance on the leader-follower interactions examined in this study. My study provides unique understanding of these cultural values and provides new opportunities for future research in the destructive leadership, deviance, and cross-cultural

literatures.

Additionally, the relative weights analyses in my study provide evidence that roughly 71% of the variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and interpersonal deviance is attributable to GLOBE's nine cultural value dimensions. Further, roughly 76% of the variance in the relationship between destructive leadership and organizational deviance is attributable to the cultural value dimensions. The overall deviance findings provide support for the utilization of the target similarity model of social exchange in my study. The relative weight analysis findings indicate 70% or more of the variance explained by target (i.e., interpersonal and organizational) but only 43% when all targets of deviant behaviors were aggregated. These findings demonstrate the crucial role that national context plays in the manifestations of leader and follower interactions in the workplace.

My study combined micro-, macro-, and international business research to generate and test theory-based predictions on the impact of national context on the relationship between destructive leadership and workplace deviance. I incorporated a comprehensive sample of primary studies for analyses related to interpersonal deviance ($k = 91$; $N = 28,616$) and organizational deviance ($k = 59$; $N = 20,752$). My methodological approach incorporated meta-analysis, correlation analysis, relative weights analysis, and partial correlation analysis that all demonstrated support for the robustness of my results. Ultimately, my dissertation contributes to our knowledge of destructive leadership and workplace deviance by meaningfully advancing our ability to understand cross-national differences in the manifestation of destructive leadership and its effects on followers' workplace deviance.

References

- Aguinis, H., Cascio, W. F., & Ramani, R. S. (2017). Science's reproducibility and replicability crisis: International business is not immune. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 48, 653-661. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-017-0081-0>
- Aguinis, H., Dalton, D. R., Bosco, F. A., Pierce, C. A., & Dalton, C. M. (2011). Meta-analytic choices and judgment calls: Implications for theory building and testing, obtained effect sizes, and scholarly impact. *Journal of Management*, 37(1), 5-38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310377113>
- Aguinis, H., Gottfredson, R. K., & Joo, H. (2013). Best-practice recommendations for defining, identifying, and handling outliers. *Organizational Research Methods*, 16(2), 270-301. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428112470848>
- Aguinis, H., Hill, N. S., & Bailey, J. R. (in press). Best practices in data collection and preparation: Recommendations for reviewers, editors, and authors. *Organizational Research Methods*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428119836485>
- Aguinis, H., Pierce, C. A., Bosco, F. A., Dalton, D. R., & Dalton, C. M. (2011). Debunking myths and urban legends about meta-analysis. *Organizational Research Methods*, 14(2), 306-331. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428110375720>
- Aguinis, H., Ramani, R. S., & Alabduljader, N. (2018). What you see is what you get? Enhancing methodological transparency in management research. *Academy of Management Annals*, 12(1), 83-110. <https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2016.0011>
- Aguinis, H., Ramani, R. S., & Cascio, W. F. (2020). Methodological practices in international business research: An after-action review of challenges and solutions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 51, 1593-1608. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-020->

- Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review*, 24(3), 452-471.
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1999.2202131>
- Ashford, S. J., & Sitkin, S. B. (2019). From problems to progress: A dialogue on prevailing issues in leadership research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 30(4), 454-460.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2019.01.003>
- Ashforth, B. E. (1997). Petty tyranny in organizations: A preliminary examination of antecedents and consequences. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 14, 126-140. <https://doi-org.spot.lib.auburn.edu/10.1111/j.1936-4490.1997.tb00124.x>
- Barling, J., Christie, A. & Turner, N. (2008). Pseudo-transformational leadership: Towards the development and test of a model. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81, 851-861.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9552-8>
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1989). Potential biases in leadership measures: How prototypes, leniency, and general satisfaction relate to ratings and rankings of transformational and transactional leadership constructs. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 49(3), 509-527. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001316448904900302>
- Bennett, R. J., Marasi, S., & Locklear, L. (2018). Workplace Deviance. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia, Business, and Management*.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190224851.013.111>
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(3), 349-360. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021->

- Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(2), 410-424. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.410>
- Blau, P. M. (1964). Justice in social exchange. *Sociological Inquiry, 34*, 193-206.
- Bligh, M. C., Kohles, J. C., Pearce, C. L., Justin, J. E., & Stovall, J. F. (2007). When the romance is over: Follower perspectives of aversive leadership. *Applied Psychology, 56*, 528-557. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2007.00303.x>
- Bordia, P., Restubog, S. L. D., & Tang, R. L. (2008). When employees strike back: Investigating mediating mechanisms between psychological contract breach and workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(5), 1104-1117. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.5.1104>
- Borenstein, M., Hedges, L. V., Higgins, J. PT., & Rothstein, H. R. (2010). A basic introduction to fixed-effect and random-effects models for meta-analysis. *Research Synthesis Methods, 1*, 97-111. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jrsm.12>
- Brewer, P., & Venaik, S. (2010). GLOBE practices and values: A case of diminishing marginal utility? *Journal of International Business Studies, 41*, 1316-1324. <https://doi.org/10.1057/jibs.2010.23>
- Christian, M. S., & Ellis, A. P. J. (2011). Examining the effects of sleep deprivation on workplace deviance: A self-regulatory perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 54*(5), 913-934. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0179>
- Colbert, A. E., Mount, M. K., Harter, J. K., Witt, L. A., & Barrick, M. R. (2004). Interactive effects of personality and perceptions of the work situation on workplace deviance.

- Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(4), 599-609. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.4.599>
- Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6(1), 64-80. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.64>
- Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. (2017). Social exchange theory: A critical review with theoretical remedies. *Academy of Management Annals*, 11(1), 479-516. <https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2015.0099>
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602>
- Daniels, M. A., & Greguras, G. J. (2014). Exploring the nature of power distance: Implications for micro- and macro-level theories, processes, and outcomes. *Journal of Management*, 40(5), 1202-1229. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314527131>
- De Hoogh, A. H. B., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management team effectiveness and subordinates' optimism: A multi-method study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(3), 297-311. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.03.002>
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(2), 331-351. <https://doi.org/10.5465/3069350>
- Eden D., & Leviatan, U. (1975). Implicit leadership theory as determinant of the factor structure underlying supervisory behavior scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60(6), 736-741. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.60.6.736>
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M. S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behaviour: A

- definition and conceptual model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), 207-216.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.002>
- Einarsen, S., & Skogstad, A. (1996). Bullying at work: Epidemiological findings in public and private organizations. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 185-201. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13594329608414854>
- Ellen, B. P. III, Alexander, K. C., Mackey, J. D., McAllister, C. P., & Carson, J. E. (in press). Portrait of a workplace deviant: A clearer picture of the Big Five and Dark Triad as predictors of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000880>
- Emerson, R. M. (1976). Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 2, 335-362.
- Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (Second ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ferris, G. R., Zinko, R., Brouer, R. L., Buckley, M. R., & Harvey, M. G. (2007). Strategic bullying as a supplementary, balanced perspective on destructive leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 195-206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.004>
- Gelfand, M. J., Harrington, J. R., & Jackson, J. C. (2017). The strength of social norms across human groups. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 12(5), 800-809.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691617708631>
- Geyskens, I., Krishnan, R., Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., & Cunha, P. V. (2009). A review and evaluation of meta-analysis practices in management research. *Journal of Management*, 35(2), 393-419. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308328501>
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement source. *American Sociological Review*, 25(2), 161-178.
- Grömping, U. (2006). Relative importance for linear regression in R: The package

- relaimpo. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 17(1), 1-27.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.18637/jss.v017.i01>
- Grömping, U. (2015). Package ‘relaimpo’. Retrieved from
<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/relaimpo/relaimpo.pdf>
- Harari, M. B., Parola, H. R., Hartwell, C. J., & Riedelman, A. (2020). Literature searches in systematic reviews and meta-analyses: A review, evaluation, and recommendations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 118, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103377>
- Harris, L. C., & Ogbonna, E. (2006). Service sabotage: A study of antecedents and consequences. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34(4), 543-558.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070306287324>
- Hershcovis, M. S. (2011). Incivility, social undermining, bullying...oh my!": A call to reconcile constructs within workplace aggression research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32, 499-519. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.689>
- Hofstede, G. (1991). Empirical models of cultural differences. In N. Bleichrodt & P. J. D. Drenth (Eds.), *Contemporary issues in cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 4-20). Swets & Zeitlinger Publishers.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J. & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Holtz, B. C., & Harold, C. M. (2013). Effects of leadership consideration and structure on employee perceptions of justice and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(4), 492-519. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1825>
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. W., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Dickson, M. W., Gupta, V., et al. (1999). Cultural influences on leadership and organizations: Project GLOBE. In W. H. Mobley, M. J. Gessner, & V. Arnold (Eds.), *Advances in global leadership* (pp. 171-233). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- House, R., Javidan, M., & Dorfman, P. (2001). Project GLOBE: An introduction. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50(4), 489-505. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00070>
- House, R. J., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: An introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business*, 37(1), 3-10. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1090-9516\(01\)00069-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1090-9516(01)00069-4)
- Howell, J. M. (1988). Two faces of charisma: Socialized and personalized leadership in organizations. In J. A. Conger & R. N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness* (pp. 213-236). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hunter, J. E., & Schmidt, F. L. (2004). *Methods of meta-analysis: Correcting error and bias in research findings* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Inglehart, R. (1997). *Modernization and postmodernization: Cultural, economic, and political change in 43 societies*. Princeton University Press.
- Itzkovich, Y., Heilbrunn, S., & Aleksic, A. (2020). Full range indeed? The forgotten dark side of leadership. *Journal of Management Development*, 39(7/8), 851-868. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-09-2019-0401>
- Javidan, M., House, R. J., Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & de Luque, M. S. (2006). Conceptualizing and measuring cultures and their consequences: a comparative review of

- GLOBE's and Hofstede's approaches. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37, 897-914. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400234>
- Junker, N. M., & Van Dick, R. (2014). Implicit theories in organizational settings: A systematic review and research agenda of implicit leadership and followership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(6), 1154-1173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2014.09.002>
- Kellerman, B. (2004). *Bad leadership: What it is, how it happens, why it matters*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kepes, S., Banks, G. C., McDaniel, M., & Whetzel, D. L. (2012). Publication bias in the organizational sciences. *Organizational Research Methods*, 15(4), 624-662. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428112452760>
- Krasikova, D. V., Green, S. G., & LeBreton, J. M. (2013). Destructive leadership: A theoretical review, integration, and future research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 39(5), 1308-1338. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312471388>
- Larsson, G., Brandebo, M. F., & Nilsson, S. (2012). Destrudo-L: Development of a short scale designed to measure destructive leadership behaviours in a military context. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 33(4), 383-400. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437731211229313>
- Lavelle, J. J., Rupp, D. E., & Brockner, J. (2007). Taking a multifoci approach to the study of justice, social exchange, and citizenship behavior: The target similarity model. *Journal of Management*, 33(6), 841-866. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307307635>
- Lian, H., Brown, D. J., Ferris, D. L., Liang, L. H., Keeping, L. M., & Morrison, R. (2014a). Abusive supervision and retaliation: A self-control framework. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(1), 116-139. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0977>

- Lian, H., Ferris, D. L., Morrison, R., & Brown, D. J. (2014b). Blame it on the supervisor or the subordinate? Reciprocal relations between abusive supervision and organizational deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(4), 651-664.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035498>
- Lipman-Blumen, J. (2005). Toxic leadership: When grand illusions masquerade as noble visions. *Leader to Leader*, 36, 29-36. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ltl.125>
- Liu, J., Kwan, H. K., Wu, L.-Z., & Wu, W. (2010). Abusive supervision and subordinate supervisor-directed deviance: The moderating role of traditional values and the mediating role of revenge cognitions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83, 835-856. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317909X485216>
- Liu, D., Liao, H., & Loi, R. (2012). The dark side of leadership: A three-level investigation of the cascading effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(5), 1187-1212. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0400>
- Lord, R. G., Epitropaki, O., Foti, R. J., & Hansbrough, T. K. (2020). Implicit leadership theories, implicit followership theories, and dynamic processing of leadership information. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 7, 49-74.
<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012119-045434>
- Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1991). *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance*. Boston, MA: Unwin Hyman.
- Luthans, F., Peterson, S. J., & Ibrayeva, E. (1998). The potential for the “dark side” of leadership in post-communist countries. *Journal of World Business*, 33, 185-201.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1090-9516\(98\)90005-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1090-9516(98)90005-0)
- Mackey, J. D., Alexander, K. C., Maher, L. P., McAllister, C. P., & Ellen III, B. P. (working

- paper). An implicit leadership examination of destructive leadership and followers' task performance across societies. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Mackey, J. D., Ellen III, B. P., McAllister, C. P., & Alexander, K. C. (2021a). The dark side of leadership: A systematic literature review and meta-analysis of destructive leadership research. *Journal of Business Research*, 132, 705-718.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.10.037>
- Mackey, J. D., Ellen III, B. P., McAllister, C. P., Alexander, K. C., Phillipich, M. A., Mercer, I. S., & Palmer, J. C. (working paper). Your optimism is misplaced: An examination of cultural values as moderators of the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' job satisfaction. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Mackey, J. D., Frieder, R. E., Brees, J. R., & Martinko, M. J. (2017). Abusive supervision: A meta-analysis and empirical review. *Journal of Management*, 43(6), 1940-1965.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315573997>
- Mackey, J. D., McAllister, C. P., Brees, J. R., Huang, L., & Carson, J. E. (2018). Perceived organizational obstruction: A mediator that addresses source-target misalignment between abusive supervision and OCBs. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39, 1283-1295. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2293>
- Mackey, J. D., McAllister, C. P., & Alexander, K. C. (2021b). Insubordination: Validation of a measure and an examination of insubordinate responses to unethical supervisory treatment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 168, 755-775. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04231-7>
- Mackey, J. D., McAllister, C. P., Ellen, B. P., & Carson, J. E. (2021c). A meta-analysis of interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance research. *Journal of Management*,

- 47(3), 597-622. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206319862612>
- Mansur, J., Sobral, F., & Goldszmidt, R. (2017). Shades of paternalistic leadership across cultures. *Journal of World Business*, 52(5), 702-713.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2017.06.003>
- Marasi, S., Bennett, R. J., & Budden, H. (2018). The structure of an organization: Does it influence workplace deviance and its' dimensions? And to what extent? *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 30(1), 8-27. <https://www.pittstate.edu/business/journals/journal-of-managerial-issues.html#undefined10>
- Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., Brees, J. R., & Mackey, J. (2013). A review of abusive supervision research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(S1), S120-S137.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1888>
- Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., & Mackey, J. D. (2014). Conceptual and empirical confounds in the organizational sciences: An explication and discussion, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35, 1052-1063. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1961>
- Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., Hoobler, J. M., Wayne, S. J., & Marinova, S. V. (2012). A trickle-down model of abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, 65(2), 325-357. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2012.01246.x>
- McClelland, D. C. (1961). *The achieving society*. D Van Nostrand Company.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/14359-000>
- Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1159-1168. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1159>
- Moher, D., Shamseer, L., Clarke, M., Gherzi, D., Liberati, A., Petticrew, M., Shekelle, P.,

- Stewart, L. A., & PRISMA-P Group (2015). Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement. *Systematic reviews*, 4(1), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2046-4053-4-1>
- Mosier, C. I. 1943. On the reliability of a weighted composite. *Psychometrika*, 8, 161-168. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02288700>
- Murphy, K. R. (1993). *Honesty in the workplace*. Brooks/Cole Pub. Co.
- O'Boyle, E. H., Forsyth, D. R., Banks, G. C., & McDaniel, M. A. (2012). A meta-analysis of the Dark Triad and work behavior: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(3), 557-579. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0025679>
- Offermann, L. R., & Coats, M. R. (2017). Implicit theories of leadership: Stability and change over two decades. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 29(4), 513-522. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.12.003>
- Olson-Buchanan, J. B., & Boswell, W. R. (2008). An integrative model of experiencing and responding to mistreatment at work. *Academy of Management Review*, 33(1), 76-96. <https://doi.org/10.2307/20159377>
- Padilla, A., Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. B. (2007). The toxic triangle: Destructive leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), 176-194. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.001>
- Park, H., Hoobler, J. M., Wu, J., Liden, R. C., Hu, J., & Wilson, M. S. (2019). Abusive supervision and employee deviance: A multifoci justice perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 158, 1113-1131. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3749-2>
- Peabody, D. (1985). *National characteristics: European monographs in social psychology*. New York: Cambridge University Press, Editions de la Maison des Sciences de l'Homme.

- Pearce, C. L., & Wassenaar, C. L. (2014). Leadership is like fine wine: It is meant to be shared, globally. *Organizational Dynamics*, 43(1), 9-16.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2013.10.002>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879-903. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
- R Core Team (2017). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <http://www.R-project.org/>.
- Reiche, B. S., Lee, Y., & Allen, D. G. (2019). Actors, structure, and processes: A review and conceptualization of global work integrating IB and HRM research. *Journal of Management*, 45(2), 359-383. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318808885>
- Robinson, S. L. (2008). Dysfunctional workplace behavior. In C. L. Cooper & J. Barling (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of organizational behavior* (Vol. 1, pp. 141-159). London: Sage.
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(2), 555-572.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/256693>
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1997). Workplace deviance: Its definitions, its manifestations, and its causes. In R. Lewicki, B. Sheppard & R. Bies (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 6, pp. 3-27). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Rosenthal, S. A., & Pittinsky, T. L. (2006). Narcissistic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(6), 617-633. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.10.005>
- Russakoff, R., & Goodman, M. (2011). Employee theft: Are you blind to it? Retrieved from

- <https://www.cbsnews.com/news/employee-theft-are-you-blind-to-it/>.
- Schank, R. C., & Abelson, R. P. (1977). *Scripts, plans, goals, and understanding*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schilling, J. (2009). From ineffectiveness to destruction: A qualitative study on the meaning of negative leadership. *Leadership*, 5(1), 102-128.
- <https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715008098312>
- Schmid, E. A., Verdorfer, A. P., & Peus, C. (2019). Shedding light on leaders' self-interest: Theory and measurement of exploitative leadership. *Journal of Management*, 45(4), 1401-1433. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206317707810>
- Schmidt, F. L., & Le, H. (2004). *Software for the Hunter-Schmidt meta-analysis methods*. Iowa City: Department of Management and Organizations, University of Iowa.
- Schmidt, F. L., Oh, I. S., & Hayes, T. L. (2009). Fixed- versus random-effects models in meta-analysis: Model properties and an empirical comparison of differences in results. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, 62, 97-128.
- <https://doi.org/10.1348/000711007X255327>
- Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A theory of cultural values and some implications. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48(1), 23-47. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.1999.tb00047.x>
- Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(1), 138-158.
- <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001>
- Scott, K. D. (2007). *The development and test of an exchange-based model of interpersonal workplace exclusion* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Kentucky

- Doctoral Dissertations. https://uknowledge.uky.edu/gradschool_diss/534
- Settoon, R. P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R. C. (1996). Social exchange in organizations: Perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange, and employee reciprocity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(3), 219-227. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.81.3.219>
- Shaffer, J. A., DeGeest, D., & Li, A. (2016). Tackling the problem of construct proliferation: A guide to assessing the discriminant validity of conceptually related constructs. *Organizational Research Methods, 19*(1), 80-110. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428115598239>
- Shaw, J. B., Erickson, A., & Harvey, M. (2011). A method for measuring destructive leadership and identifying types of destructive leaders in organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(4), 575-590. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.05.001>
- Shaw, J. D., & Ertug, G. (2017). The suitability of simulations and meta-analyses for submissions to Academy of Management Journal. *Academy of Management Journal, 60*(6), 2045-2049. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2017.4006>
- Shondrick, S. J., Dinh, J. E., & Lord, R. G. (2010). Developments in implicit leadership theory and cognitive science: Applications to improving measurement and understanding alternatives to hierarchical leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*(6), 959-978. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.10.004>
- Shweder, R. A., & LeVine, R. A. (Eds.). (1984). *Culture theory: Essays on mind, self and emotion*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Steel, P., Beugelsdijk, S., & Aguinis, H. (2021). The anatomy of an award-winning meta-analysis: Recommendations for authors, reviewers, and readers of meta-analytic reviews. *Journal of International Business Studies, 52*, 23-44. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-020->

- Swimberghe, K., Jones, R. P., & Darrat, M. (2014). Deviant behavior in retail, when sales associates “go bad”! Examining the relationship between the work-family interface, job stress, and salesperson deviance. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 21(4), 424-431. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2014.03.001>
- Sy, T. (2010). What do you think of followers? Examining the content, structure and consequences of implicit followership theories. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 113(2), 73-84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.06.001>
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178-190. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1556375>
- Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 261-289. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300812>
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., & Breaux-Soignet, D. M. (2012). Abusive supervision as political activity: Distinguishing impulsive and strategic expressions of downward hostility. In G. R. Ferris, & D. C. Treadway (Eds.), *Politics in organizations: Theory and research considerations* (pp. 191-212). New York: Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Tepper, B. J., & Henle, C. A. (2011). A case for recognizing distinctions among constructs that capture interpersonal mistreatment in work organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(3), 487-498. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.688>
- Tepper, B. J., Simon, L., & Park, H. M. (2017). Abusive supervision. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 4, 123-152. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-041015-062539>

- Thornton P. H., Ocasio W., & Lounsbury M. (2012). *The institutional logics perspective: Foundations, research, and theoretical elaboration*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Thoroughgood, C. N., Tate, B. W., Sawyer, K. B., & Jacobs, R. (2012). Bad to the bone: Empirically defining and measuring destructive leader behavior. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 19(2), 230-255. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811436327>
- Tonidandel, S., & LeBreton, J. M. (2015). RWA web: A free, comprehensive, web-based, and user-friendly tool for relative weight analyses. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 30(2), 207-216. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-014-9351-z>
- Venaik, S., Zhu, Y., & Brewer, P. (2013). Looking into the future: Hofstede long term orientation versus GLOBE future orientation. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 20(3), 361-385. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CCM-02-2012-0014>
- Viswesvaran, C., Ones, D. S., Schmidt, F. L., Le, H., & Oh, I.-S. (2014). Measurement error obfuscates scientific knowledge: Path to cumulative knowledge requires corrections for unreliability and psychometric meta-analysis. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 7, 507-518. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1754942600006799>
- Vogel, R. M., & Bolino, M. C. (2020). Recurring nightmares and silver linings: Understanding how past abusive supervision may lead to posttraumatic stress and posttraumatic growth. *Academy of Management Review*, 45(3), 549-569. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2017.0350>
- Weber, M. (1903/1958). *The Protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism*. New York: Scribner.
- Williams, J. E., & Best, D. L. (1990). *Sex and psyche: Gender and self viewed cross-culturally*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Wood, J. A. (2008). Methodology for dealing with duplicate study effects in a meta-analysis. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11(1), 79-95.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428106296638>

- Wu, M., & Xu, E. (2012). Paternalistic leadership: From here to where? In X. Huang & M. H. Bond (Eds.), *Handbook of Chinese organizational behavior: Integrating theory, research and practice* (pp. 449-466). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Zhang, Y., & Bednall, T. C. (2016). Antecedents of abusive supervision: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 139(3), 455-471. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2657-6>
- Zhang, Y., Liu, X., Xu, S., Yang, L.-Q., & Bednall, T. C. (2019). Why abusive supervision impacts employee OCB and CWB: A meta-analytic review of competing mediating mechanisms. *Journal of Management*, 45(6), 2474-2497.
- <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318823935>

Table 1

Destructive Leadership Styles and Definitions

Construct	Definition
Destructive Leadership	“Volitional behavior by a leader that can harm or intends to harm a leader’s organization and/or followers by (a) encouraging followers to pursue goals that contravene the legitimate interests of the organization and/or (b) employing a leadership style that involves the use of harmful methods of influence with followers, regardless of justifications for such behavior” (Krasikova, Green, & Lebreton, 2013, p. 1310)
Abusive Supervision	<i>“Subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact”</i> (Tepper, 2000, p. 178, italics original)
Active, Destructive Leadership	“Intentional repeated active behaviour conducted by an authority figure purposely violating organizational and/or social norms. ADL [Active destructive leadership] then threatens the psychological and physical wellbeing of the organization and/or its members” (Itzkovich, Heilbrunn, & Aleksic, 2020, p. 857)
Aversive Leadership	“Leadership behaviors that emphasize the use of threats, intimidation, and punishment” (Bligh, Kohles, Pearce, Justin, & Stovall, 2007, p. 530)
Corrupt Leadership	“The leader and at least some followers lie, cheat, or steal to a degree that exceeds the norm, they put self-interest ahead of the public interest” (Kellerman, 2004, p. 44)
Derailed Leadership	“Leaders may display anti-subordinate behaviours like bullying, humiliation, manipulation, deception or harassment, while simultaneously performing anti-organisational behaviours like absenteeism, shirking, fraud, or theft” (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007, p. 212-213)

Table 1 (Continued)

Construct	Definition
Despotic Leadership	Leadership that is “self-aggrandizing and exploitative of others” because it “is based on personal dominance and authoritarian behavior that serves the self-interest of the leader” (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008, p. 298)
Evil Leadership	“The leader and at least some followers commit atrocities. They use pain as an instrument of power. The harm done to men, women, and children is severe rather than slight. The harm can be physical, psychological, or both” (Kellerman, 2004, p. 46)
Exploitative Leadership	“Leadership with the primary intention to further the leader’s self-interest. Such leaders exploit others by (1) acting egoistically, (2) exerting pressure and manipulating followers, (3) overburdening followers, or, on the other hand, (4) consistently underchallenging followers, allowing no development” (Schmid, Verdorfer, & Peus, 2019, p. 1404)
Insincere Leadership	Occurs when leaders use “a diverse set of leadership behaviours to achieve personal goals at the expense of others without direct confrontation but rather in the form of clandestine and deceitful tactics and strategies” (Schilling, 2009, p. 114)
Insular Leadership	“The leader and at least some followers minimize or disregard the health and welfare of the ‘other’ – that is, those outside the group or organization for which they are directly responsible” (Kellerman, 2004, p. 45)
Leader Bullying	Occurs when followers “persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from [leaders], in a situation where the target of bullying has difficulty in defending him or herself against these actions” (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996, p. 191)
Leader Exclusion	“Occurs when one is denied consideration or acceptance into meaningful workplace relationships, activities or events” by a leader (Scott, 2007, p. 15)

Table 1 (Continued)

Construct	Definition
Leader Incivility	Leaders use of “low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others” (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457)
Leader Narcissism	Leaders’ behaviors that are “principally motivated by their own egomaniacal needs and beliefs, superseding the needs and interests of the constituents and institutions they lead” (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006, p. 631)
Leader Undermining	Leaders’ “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, p. 332)
Negative Leadership	Leaders engage in “commonly disliked and denounced behaviours ranging from ineffective to destructive aspects” (Schilling, 2009, p. 103)
Personalized Charismatic Leadership	Leaders emphasize their own self-interest and purposefully create unbalanced relationships with their followers by manipulating and disempowering them (Howell, 1988)
Pseudo-Transformational Leadership	Occurs when “leaders advance their own self-interested agendas by dominating and controlling their followers. In focusing on self-interest, pseudo-transformational leaders are more interested in becoming personal idols than in the collective ideals that might benefit their followers” (Barling, Christie, & Turner, 2008, p. 852)
Petty Tyranny	“Someone who uses their power and authority oppressively, capriciously, and perhaps vindictively. It suggests, in short, someone who lords their power over others” (Ashforth, 1997, p. 126)

Table 1 (Continued)

Construct	Definition
Toxic Leadership	“Toxic leaders are those individuals, who by dint of their destructive behaviors and dysfunctional personal qualities generate a serious and enduring poisonous effect on the individuals, families, organizations, communities, and even societies they lead” (Lipman-Blumen, 2005, p. 30)
Tyrannical Leadership	“Tyrannical leaders may behave in accordance with the goals, tasks, missions and strategies of the organisation, but they typically obtain results not through, but at the cost of subordinates” (Einarsen et al., 2007, p. 212)

Table 2

GLOBE Values for Countries That Were Included in the Analyses

Country	Uncertainty Avoidance	Future Orientation	Power Distance	Institutional Collectivism	In-Group Collectivism	Gender Egal.	Humane Orientation	Performance Orientation	Assert- iveness
Canada	3.75	5.35	2.70	4.17	5.97	5.11	5.64	6.15	4.15
China	5.28	4.73	3.10	4.56	5.09	3.68	5.32	5.67	5.44
Germany	3.32	4.85	2.54	4.82	5.18	4.89	5.46	6.01	3.09
India	4.73	5.60	2.64	4.71	5.32	4.51	5.28	6.05	4.76
Israel	4.38	5.25	2.72	4.27	5.75	4.71	5.62	5.75	3.76
Malaysia	4.88	5.89	2.97	4.87	5.85	3.78	5.51	6.04	4.81
Netherlands	3.24	5.07	2.45	4.55	5.17	4.99	5.20	5.49	3.02
New Zealand	4.10	5.54	3.53	4.20	6.21	4.23	4.49	5.90	3.54
Nigeria	6.27	3.23	6.04	6.09	5.03	5.48	4.24	2.69	5.60
Philippines	5.14	5.93	2.72	4.78	6.18	4.58	5.36	6.31	5.14
Slovenia	4.99	5.42	2.57	4.38	5.71	4.83	5.25	6.41	4.59
South Korea	4.67	5.69	2.55	3.90	5.41	4.22	5.60	5.25	3.75
Taiwan	5.31	5.20	3.09	5.15	5.45	4.06	5.26	5.74	3.28
Thailand	5.61	6.20	2.86	5.10	5.76	4.16	5.01	5.74	3.48
Turkey	4.67	5.83	2.41	5.26	5.77	4.50	5.52	5.39	2.66
United States	4.00	5.31	2.85	4.17	5.77	5.06	5.53	6.14	4.32

Note. Egal. = egalitarianism.

Table 3

Main Codes and Input Values for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Interpersonal Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Bauer (2011)	United States	103	.75	.88	.75
Bowling et al. (2020) Study 2	China	183	.29*	.97	.93
Bozeman (2016)	Canada	211	.23	.80	.94
Braun et al. (2018) Study 3	Germany	365	.57	.69	.91
Braun et al. (2018) Study 4	Germany	50	.20	.95	.80
Bruursema (2004)	United States	116	.39	.89**	.92
Burton & Hoobler (2011)	United States	262	.35	.84	.98
Burton et al. (2011) Study 2	United States	190	.44	.71	.97
Carnevale et al. (2018)	China	262	.09*	.90	.88
Chen (2011)	United States	137	.48	.94	.96
Chen & Liu (2019)	Taiwan	336	.27	.90	.95
Chi et al. (2016) Study 1	Taiwan	203	.35	.86	.85
Chi et al. (2016) Study 3	Taiwan	417	.23	.85	.87
Chi et al. (2016) Study 4	United States	246	-.30	.88	.95
Choi et al. (2019)	South Korea	285	.34*	.93	.85
Duniewicz (2015) Study 2	United States	144	.42	.88	.96
Eissa et al. (2020) Study 1	India	262	.29	.86	.95
Eissa et al. (2020) Study 2	United States	175	.35	.90	.84
Eschleman et al. (2014)	United States	268	.45	.96	.93
Ferris et al. (2016) Study 1	China	257	.47*	.95	.96
Ferris et al. (2016) Study 2	China	357	.28*	.98	.98
Ferris et al. (2019) Study 3	China	191	.64	.96	.96
Gardner & Rasumussen (2018)	New Zealand	197	.46*	.94**	.94

Table 3 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Interpersonal Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Gardner et al. (2016)	New Zealand	826	.38*	.94	.95
Goswami et al. (2015)	India	235	.54	.89	.94
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 2	United States	175	.17	.95	.88
Haggard & Park (2018) Study 2	United States	253	.17	.80	.92
Halevy et al. (2014) Study 4	United States	494	.86*	.95	.96
Hamid et al. (2016)	Malaysia	136	.25	.81	.91
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 1	United States	396	.65	.94	.91
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 2	United States	81	.68*	.91	.90
Hussain & Sia (2017)	India	256	.43	.84	.92
Hutchinson & Spector (2016)	United States	402	.44*	.94**	.96**
Inness et al. (2008)	United States	308	.14*	.97**	.87
Kim et al. (2016)	United States	1,514	.60	.98	.97
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 1	United States	121	.55*	.91	.95
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 2	United States	163	.27	.82	.94
Lian et al. (2012) Study 1	United States	264	.36	.88	.95
Lian et al. (2012) Study 2	United States	171	.48	.84	.96
Lian et al. (2012) Study 3	United States	198	.59	.94	.95
Lian et al. (2014) Study 2	Canada	188	.52	.95	.96
Liu et al. (2010) Study 1	China	283	.24	.89	.95
Liu et al. (2010) Study 2	China	222	.26	.94	.95
Mackey et al. (2013)	United States	125	.14	.75	.92
Mackey et al. (2015) Sample 1	United States	96	.64*	.87	.90
Mackey et al. (2015) Sample 2	United States	130	.29*	.87	.93
Mackey et al. (2018a) Sample 1	United States	396	.37	.87	.95

Table 3 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Interpersonal Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Mackey et al. (2018a) Sample 2	United States	123	.29	.80	.94
Mackey et al. (2020)	China	219	.34	.94	.89
Mackey et al. (2021b) Study 5	United States	287	.26	.94	.94
Martinko et al. (2018) Study 8	United States	806	.59	.76	.93
Mawritz et al. (2017) Study 1	United States	165	.26*	.89	.95
Mawritz et al. (2017) Study 2	United States	121	.49*	.97	.99
McAllister & Mackey (2014)	United States	157	.59	.89	.94
McAllister & Perrewé (2018)	United States	136	.14	.91	.94
Michel et al. (2016) Study 1	United States	355	.73	.96	.96
Michel et al. (2016) Study 2	United States	256	.48	.90	.96
Mitchell (2006)	United States	321	.54*	.93	.92
Mitchell & Ambrose (2007)	United States	427	.34*	.89	.89
Mitchell & Ambrose (2012) Study 2	United States	278	.62*	.93	.90
Mitchell & Ambrose (2012) Study 3	United States	243	.46*	.93	.89
Mitchell et al. (2015)	United States	221	.27	.81	.91
Naeem et al. (2020)	China	326	.11	.71	.78
Nixon (2011)	United States	361	.86*	.97	.95
Ogunfowora (2009)	Canada	297	.15	.84	.86
Park & Kim (2019)	United States	183	.32	.93	.95
Peng (2013)	China	241	.11*	.97	.90
Peng et al. (2019)	China	242	.02*	.97	.92
Peng et al. (2020)	United States	614	.29	.69	.91
Pradhan & Jena (2019)	India	240	.26	.80	.79
Raver (2004)	United States	630	.21	.78	.93
Restubog et al. (2011) Study 1	Philippines	184	.58	.88	.97

Table 3 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Interpersonal Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Restubog et al. (2011) Study 2	Philippines	188	.53	.67	.95
Richard et al. (2020)	China	324	.44	.95	.92
Shao et al. (2011)	United States	490	.28	.85	.95
Shillamkwese et al. (2020)	China	298	.35	.88	.76
Simon et al. (2015)	United States	244	.67	.86	.94
Tepper et al. (2001)	United States	388	.23	.89	.91
Tepper et al. (2009)	United States	797	.44	.79	.90
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 1	United States	216	.57	.80	.91
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 2	United States	365	.54	.93	.95
Thau et al. (2009) Study 1	United States	373	.33	.76	.94
Thau et al. (2009) Study 2	United States	1,477	.59	.93	.95
Thoroughgood et al. (2012) Study 4	United States	670	.34*	.81	.97
Vogel & Mitchell (2017) Study 2	United States	221	.37	.87	.95
Walsh et al. (2018) Pilot Study	United States	214	.58	.89	.93
Wang & Jiang (2014)	China	403	.35	.83	.87
Wang et al. (2012)	China	283	.27*	.89	.95
Wu et al (2020)	China	234	.19	.97	.96
Yoo & Frankwick (2013)	South Korea	469	.39*	.88	.94
Zhang et al. (2020)	China	879	.15*	.90	.95

Note. *n* = number of respondents. *r* = zero-order bivariate correlation between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. α = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate. *=composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate.

Table 4

Interpersonal Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country

Analysis	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	$\bar{r}$	$SD_{\bar{r}}$	ρ	SD_{ρ}	80% Credibility Interval (ρ)	95% Confidence Interval (ρ)	% of Variance Attributable to Artifacts
Overall	91	28,616	.40	.19	.44	.20	(.19, .70)	(.40, .49)	6%
Canada	3	696	.27	.15	.32	.14	(.14, .50)	(.14, .49)	19%
China	17	5,204	.25	.14	.28	.14	(.10, .46)	(.21, .35)	15%
Germany	2	415	.53	.12	.65	.16	(.45, .85)	(.42, .88)	14%
India	4	993	.38	.11	.44	.10	(.31, .56)	(.33, .54)	30%
Malaysia	1	136	.25	.00	.29	.00	(.29, .29)	(.13, .45)	-
New Zealand	2	1,023	.40	.03	.42	.00	(.42, .42)	(.37, .47)	100%
Philippines	2	372	.55	.02	.64	.00	(.64, .64)	(.57, .71)	100%
South Korea	2	754	.37	.02	.41	.00	(.41, .41)	(.35, .47)	100%
Taiwan	3	956	.27	.05	.31	.00	(.31, .31)	(.25, .36)	100%
United States	55	18,067	.45	.20	.50	.20	(.24, .76)	(.45, .56)	5%

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. *N* = total sample size of all primary studies included in the analysis. $\bar{r}$ = the sample-weighted mean correlation estimate. $SD_{\bar{r}}$ = standard deviation of the sample-weighted mean correlation estimates across primary studies. ρ = the population correlation estimate that corrects the zero-order bivariate correlation for measurement and sampling error across primary studies. SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of population correlation estimates.

Table 5

Interpersonal Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country for Studies That Were Excluded from the Meta-Analyses

Analysis	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	$\bar{r}$	$SD_{\bar{r}}$	ρ	SD_{ρ}	80% Credibility Interval (ρ)	95% Confidence Interval (ρ)	% of Variance Attributable to Artifacts
Belgium	2	236	.32	.06	.35	.00	(.35, .35)	(.23, .46)	100%
Pakistan	3	1,629	.34	.09	.45	.06	(.37, .52)	(.37, .53)	39%
Romania	1	281	.26	.00	.30	.00	(.30, .30)	(.19, .41)	-

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. *N* = total sample size of all primary studies included in the analysis. $\bar{r}$ = the sample-weighted mean correlation estimate. $SD_{\bar{r}}$ = standard deviation of the sample-weighted mean correlation estimates across primary studies. ρ = the population correlation estimate that corrects the zero-order bivariate correlation for measurement and sampling error across primary studies. SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of population correlation estimates.

Table 6

Interpersonal Deviance Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations among Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Correlation _{DL & ID}	-	-	.56	.09	.42	.04	-.11	.60	.60	-.26	-.19
2. Meta-Analytic Mean for DL	.63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Performance Orientation	.40	-.06	-	.27	.19	.00	.32	.55	.55	-.08	-.33
4. Assertiveness	-.17	-.38	.27	-	.10	.19	.15	-.14	-.23	-.20	.44
5. Future Orientation	.08	-.36	.20	.22	-	-.04	-.03	.59	.03	-.25	.11
6. Humane Orientation	.01	-.04	.00	.19	-.03	-	-.01	-.38	.30	-.89	-.07
7. Institutional Collectivism	.05	.21	.31	.06	-.10	-.02	-	-.15	-.36	.15	.55
8. In-Group Collectivism	.11	-.47	.51	.06	.66	-.32	-.22	-	.37	.19	-.39
9. Gender Egalitarianism	.58	.19	.52	-.28	-.04	.29	-.31	.23	-	-.47	-.75
10. Power Distance	-.43	-.40	-.05	-.02	-.07	-.80	.05	.34	-.50	-	.08
11. Uncertainty Avoidance	-.41	-.43	-.27	.53	.24	-.05	.40	-.11	-.75	.24	-
Mean	.43	1.94	5.93	4.23	5.41	5.35	4.53	5.64	4.41	2.87	4.52
Standard Deviation	.14	.46	.30	.81	.40	.33	.40	.41	.51	.31	.69

Note. DL = destructive leadership. ID = interpersonal deviance. Pearson correlation below the diagonal. Partial correlation controlling for the meta-analytic mean of destructive leadership above the diagonal.

Table 7

Summary of GLOBE Hypothesis Testing for Interpersonal Deviance

Hypothesis	Predicted Direction of Relationship	<i>r</i>	Was The Hypothesis Supported?	Raw Relative Weight (R^2)	Rescaled Relative Weight
Hypothesis 2a: Performance Orientation	Negative	.40	No	.04	5.93%
Hypothesis 3a: Assertiveness	Negative	-.17	Yes	.02	2.23%
Hypothesis 4a: Future Orientation	Positive	.08	Yes	.01	1.40%
Hypothesis 5a: Humane Orientation	Positive	.01	Yes	.11	15.92%
Hypothesis 6a: Institutional Collectivism	Positive	.05	Yes	.05	7.11%
Hypothesis 7a: In-Group Collectivism	Positive	.11	Yes	.03	3.97%
Hypothesis 8a: Gender Egalitarianism	Positive	.58	Yes	.17	24.01%
Hypothesis 9a: Power Distance	Negative	-.43	Yes	.20	27.90%
Hypothesis 10a: Uncertainty Avoidance	Positive	-.41	No	.08	11.52%
				.71	100.00%

Note. *r* = zero-order bivariate correlation between (1) the cultural value dimension and (2) the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' interpersonal deviance. Some of the summed scores for the relative weight columns do not sum perfectly due to rounding errors.

Table 8

Main Codes and Input Values for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Organizational Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Bauer (2011)	United States	103	.62*	.71	.75
Belschak et al. (2018)	Netherlands	196	.33	.84	.87
Biron (2010)	Israel	275	.24	.84	.91
Bowling et al. (2020) Study 2	China	183	.26	.88	.93
Bozeman (2016)	Canada	211	.37	.62	.94
Bruursema (2004)	United States	116	.46	.84**	.92
Burton & Hoobler (2011)	United States	262	.11	.70	.98
Chen (2011)	United States	137	.57*	.92	.96
Ding et al. (2018)	China	214	.43	.78	.90
Duffy et al. (2006) Study 1	Slovenia	737	.22	.92	.84
Duniewicz (2015) Study 2	United States	144	.36	.89	.96
Erkutlu & Chafra (2018)	Turkey	1219	.33	.88	.89
Eschleman et al. (2014)	United States	268	.48	.94	.93
Frieder et al. (2014) Study 1	United States	73	.34	.80	.95
Frieder et al. (2014) Study 2	United States	172	.11	.76	.94
Greenbaum et al. (2013) Study 1	United States	222	.62	.95	.89
Greenbaum et al. (2013) Study 2	United States	199	.38	.95	.93
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 1	United States	171	.34	.98	.92
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 2	United States	175	.24	.97	.88
Hamid et al. (2016)	Malaysia	136	.22	.90	.91
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 1	United States	396	.49	.82	.91
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 2	United States	81	.35*	.86	.90
Hussain & Sia (2017)	India	256	.44	.84**	.92

Table 8 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Organizational Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Joo & Witt (2015)	United States	279	.59	.70	.73
Kim et al. (2016)	United States	1514	.60	.97	.97
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 1	United States	121	.39*	.82	.95
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 2	United States	163	.25	.86	.94
Liu et al. (2019)	China	679	.52	.95	.94
Martinko et al. (2018) Study 8	United States	806	.46	.85	.93
Mawritz et al. (2014)	United States	221	.53	.95	.94
Mayer et al. (2012) Study 1	United States	367	.35	.87	.95
Michel et al. (2016) Study 1	United States	355	.68	.96	.96
Michel et al. (2016) Study 2	United States	256	.22	.87	.96
Mitchell (2006)	United States	321	.34	.82	.92
Mitchell & Ambrose (2007)	United States	427	.17	.79	.89
Nandkeolyar et al. (2016) Study 1	India	286	.17	.90	.94
Ogunfowora (2009)	Canada	297	.09	.77	.86
Peng (2013)	China	241	.11	.85	.90
Peng et al. (2020)	United States	614	.20	.75	.91
Potipiroon & Ford (2019)	Thailand	401	.15	.78	.86
Pradhan & Jena (2019)	India	240	.31	.77	.79
Raver (2004)	United States	630	.27	.81	.93
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 1	Philippines	148	.38	.85	.91
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 2	Philippines	254	.17	.84	.91
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 3	Philippines	187	.22	.75	.87
Tepper et al. (2008) Study 1	United States	243	.28	.69	.94
Tepper et al. (2008) Study 2	United States	247	.18	.75	.93

Table 8 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Organizational Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Tepper et al. (2009)	United States	797	.36	.87	.90
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 1	United States	216	.07	.79	.91
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 2	United States	365	.41	.89	.95
Thau et al. (2009) Study 1	United States	373	.32	.68	.94
Thau et al. (2009) Study 2	United States	1477	.47	.93	.95
Thoroughgood et al. (2012) Study 4	United States	670	.41*	.86	.97
Valle et al. (2019)	United States	206	.18	.75	.93
Vogel & Mitchell (2017) Study 2	United States	221	.17	.87	.95
Wang et al. (2012)	China	283	.23	.84	.95
Wei & Si (2013)	China	198	.29	.70	.93
Wu et al. (2020)	China	234	.23	.97	.96
Yoo & Frankwick (2013)	South Korea	469	.41	.72	.94

Note. n = number of respondents. r = zero-order bivariate correlation between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. α = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate. *=composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate.

Table 9

Organizational Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country

Analysis	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	$\bar{r}$	$SD_{\bar{r}}$	ρ	SD_{ρ}	80% Credibility Interval (ρ)	95% Confidence Interval (ρ)	% of Variance Attributable to Artifacts
Overall	59	20,752	.36	.15	.41	.15	(.22, .60)	(.37, .45)	11%
Canada	2	508	.21	.14	.25	.17	(.04, .47)	(.01, .50)	17%
China	7	2,032	.34	.15	.38	.15	(.19, .57)	(.27, .50)	13%
India	3	782	.30	.11	.34	.12	(.19, .50)	(.19, .50)	22%
Israel	1	275	.24	.00	.27	.00	(.27, .27)	(.16, .39)	-
Malaysia	1	136	.22	.00	.24	.00	(.24, .24)	(.08, .40)	-
Netherlands	1	196	.33	.00	.39	.00	(.39, .39)	(.26, .51)	-
Philippines	3	589	.24	.08	.28	.06	(.21, .35)	(.18, .38)	66%
Slovenia	1	737	.22	.00	.25	.00	(.25, .25)	(.18, .32)	-
South Korea	1	469	.41	.00	.50	.00	(.50, .50)	(.42, .57)	100%
Thailand	1	401	.15	.00	.18	.00	(.18, .18)	(.09, .28)	-
Turkey	1	1,219	.33	.00	.37	.00	(.37, .37)	(.32, .42)	-
United States	37	13,408	.39	.15	.44	.15	(.25, .64)	(.39, .49)	10%

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. *N* = total sample size of all primary studies included in the analysis. $\bar{r}$ = the sample-weighted mean correlation estimate. $SD_{\bar{r}}$ = standard deviation of the sample-weighted mean correlation estimates across primary studies. ρ = the population correlation estimate that corrects the zero-order bivariate correlation for measurement and sampling error across primary studies. SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of population correlation estimates.

Table 10

Organizational Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country for Studies That Were Excluded from the Meta-Analyses

Analysis	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	$\bar{r}$	$SD_{\bar{r}}$	ρ	SD_{ρ}	80% Credibility Interval (ρ)	95% Confidence Interval (ρ)	% of Variance Attributable to Artifacts
Pakistan	6	1,975	.47	.15	.59	.13	(.43, .76)	(.48, .70)	14%
Romania	2	517	.25	.19	.29	.20	(.04, .55)	(.00, .58)	10%

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. *N* = total sample size of all primary studies included in the analysis. $\bar{r}$ = the sample-weighted mean correlation estimate. $SD_{\bar{r}}$ = standard deviation of the sample-weighted mean correlation estimates across primary studies. ρ = the population correlation estimate that corrects the zero-order bivariate correlation for measurement and sampling error across primary studies. SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of population correlation estimates.

Table 11

Organizational Deviance Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations among Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Correlation _{DL & OD}	-	-	-.54	-.13	-.41	.32	-.48	-.52	.04	-.19	-.40
2. Meta-Analytic Mean for DL	.19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Performance Orientation	-.52	.02	-	.64	.07	-.08	-.06	.54	.30	.34	.11
4. Assertiveness	-.14	-.08	.64	-	-.20	-.02	-.16	.03	-.33	.74	.43
5. Future Orientation	-.39	.07	.07	-.20	-	-.16	.51	.60	-.19	-.12	.46
6. Humane Orientation	.33	.07	-.08	-.02	-.16	-	-.51	.31	.17	-.04	-.39
7. Institutional Collectivism	-.44	.14	-.06	-.17	.51	-.49	-	.17	-.39	.12	.44
8. In-Group Collectivism	-.53	-.10	.54	.04	.59	.30	.15	-	.28	-.04	.15
9. Gender Egalitarianism	.06	.11	.30	-.34	-.18	.17	-.37	.26	-	-.60	-.75
10. Power Distance	-.26	-.51	.28	.68	-.14	-.07	.03	.02	-.57	-	.61
11. Uncertainty Avoidance	-.36	.15	.12	.41	.46	-.38	.45	.14	-.72	.44	-
Mean	.32	1.95	5.87	4.16	5.52	5.40	4.56	5.65	4.51	2.71	4.61
Standard Deviation	.09	.43	.37	.85	.41	.20	.41	.33	.47	.21	.67

Note. DL = destructive leadership. OD = organizational deviance. Pearson correlation below the diagonal. Partial correlation controlling for meta-analytic mean of destructive leadership above the diagonal.

Table 12

Summary of GLOBE Hypothesis Testing for Organizational Deviance

Hypothesis	Predicted Direction of Relationship	<i>r</i>	Was The Hypothesis Supported?	Raw Relative Weight (R^2)	Rescaled Relative Weight
Hypothesis 2b: Performance Orientation	Negative	-.52	Yes	.21	27.54%
Hypothesis 3b: Assertiveness	Negative	-.14	Yes	.07	8.99%
Hypothesis 4b: Future Orientation	Positive	-.39	No	.04	5.15%
Hypothesis 5b: Humane Orientation	Positive	.33	Yes	.09	12.12%
Hypothesis 6b: Institutional Collectivism	Positive	-.44	No	.07	8.80%
Hypothesis 7b: In-Group Collectivism	Positive	-.53	No	.17	23.00%
Hypothesis 8b: Gender Egalitarianism	Positive	.06	Yes	.04	5.83%
Hypothesis 9b: Power Distance	Negative	-.26	Yes	.04	4.89%
Hypothesis 10b: Uncertainty Avoidance	Positive	-.36	No	.03	3.68%
				.76	100.00%

Note. r = zero-order bivariate correlation between (1) the cultural value dimension and (2) the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. Some of the summed scores for the relative weight columns do not sum perfectly due to rounding errors.

Table 13

Meta Mean Inputs for the Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance Analyses

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Bauer (2011)	103	.75	.21	.75	United States
Bowling et al. (2020)	183	1.84	1.63	.93	China
Bozeman (2016)	211	1.43	.76	.94	Canada
Braun et al. (2018) Study 3	365	2.80	1.24	.91	Germany
Braun et al. (2018) Study 4	50	3.52	1.88	.80	Germany
Burton & Hoobler (2011)	262	1.65	1.20	.98	United States
Burton et al. (2018) Study 2	190	1.53	1.11	.97	United States
Carnevale et al. (2018)	262	2.56	2.16	.88	China
Chen (2011)	137	1.64	1.13	.96	United States
Chen & Liu (2011)	336	1.72	.76	.95	Taiwan
Chi et al., (2016) Study 1	203	1.42	.53	.85	Taiwan
Chi et al., (2016) Study 3	417	1.89	.66	.87	Taiwan
Chi et al., (2016) Study 4	246	2.68	.92	.95	United States
Choi et al. (2019)	285	2.04	.70	.85	South Korea
Duniewicz (2015) Study 2	144	1.66	.83	.96	United States
Eissa et al. (2018) Study 1	262	1.77	1.07	.95	India
Eissa et al. (2018) Study 2	175	1.23	.77	.84	United States
Eschleman et al. (2014)	268	1.30	.67	.93	United States
Ferris et al. (2016) Study 1	257	1.68	.87	.96	China
Ferris et al. (2016) Study 2	357	1.39	.66	.98	China
Ferris et al. (2019) Study 3	191	1.87	1.05	.96	China
Gardner & Rasumussen (2018)	197	1.96	.71	.94	New Zealand

Table 13 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Gardner et al. (2016)	826	1.91	.81	.95	New Zealand
Goswami et al. (2015)	235	1.51	.72	.94	India
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 2	175	1.23	.87	.88	United States
Haggard & Park (2018) Study 2	253	1.18	.78	.92	United States
Halevy et al. (2014) Study 4	494	1.30	1.64	.96	United States
Hamid et al. (2016)	136	1.63	.59	.91	Malaysia
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 1	396	1.60	.77	.91	United States
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 2	81	1.66	.74	.90*	United States
Hussain & Sia (2017)	256	1.90	.77	.92	India
Inness et al. (2008)	308	2.90	1.11	.87	United States
Kim et al. (2016)	1514	1.47	1.86	.97	United States
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 1	121	1.74	.93	.95	United States
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 2	163	2.09	1.11	.94	United States
Lian et al. (2012) Study 1	264	1.69	.75	.95	United States
Lian et al. (2012) Study 2	171	1.62	.79	.96	United States
Lian et al. (2012) Study 3	198	1.67	.88	.95	United States
Lian et al. (2014) Study 2	188	1.76	.82	.96	Canada
Liu et al. (2010) Study 1	283	2.09	.97	.95	China
Liu et al. (2010) Study 2	222	2.04	.59	.95	China
Mackey et al. (2013)	125	1.43	.58	.92	United States
Mackey et al. (2015) Sample 1	96	1.23	.38	.90	United States
Mackey et al. (2015) Sample 2	130	1.42	.57	.93	United States
Mackey et al. (2018a) Sample 1	396	1.48	.66	.95	United States
Mackey et al. (2018a) Sample 2	123	1.39	.60	.94	United States

Table 13 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Mackey et al. (2020)	219	1.81	.91	.89	China
Mackey et al. (2021) Study 5	287	1.42	.63	.94	United States
Martinko et al. (2018) Study 8	806	1.37	.72	.93	United States
Mawritz et al. (2017) Study 1	165	1.35	.86	.95	United States
Mawritz et al. (2017) Study 2	121	1.34	.86	.99*	United States
McAllister & Mackey (2014)	157	1.47	.78	.94	United States
McAllister & Perrewé (2018)	136	1.48	.68	.94	United States
Michel et al. (2016) Study 1	355	1.64	.80	.96	United States
Michel et al. (2016) Study 2	256	1.47	.75	.96	United States
Mitchell (2006)	321	1.35	.93	.92	United States
Mitchell & Ambrose (2007)	427	1.55	1.20	.89	United States
Mitchell & Ambrose (2012) Study 2	278	1.31	.94	.90	United States
Mitchell & Ambrose (2012) Study 3	243	1.43	.93	.89	United States
Mitchell et al. (2015)	221	2.40	.74	.91	United States
Naeem et al. (2020)	326	2.90	.40	.78	China
Nixon (2011)	361	1.58	.73	.95	United States
Park & Kim (2019)	183	1.51	.63	.95	United States
Peng (2013)	241	1.27	.59	.90	China
Peng et al. (2019)	242	1.33	.67	.92*	China
Peng et al. (2020)	614	1.28	.43	.91	United States
Pradhan & Jena (2019)	240	3.36	.74	.79	India
Raver (2004)	646	1.34	.56	.93	United States
Restubog et al. (2011) Study 1	184	2.21	1.41	.97	Philippines
Restubog et al. (2011) Study 2	188	1.68	1.01	.95	Philippines
Richard et al. (2020)	324	1.59	.93	.92	China

Table 13 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	SD	Destructive Leadership α	Country
Shao et al. (2011)	490	1.69	.84	.95	United States
Shillamkwese et al. (2020)	298	2.82	.77	.76	China
Simon et al. (2015)	244	1.35	.59	.94	United States
Tepper et al. (2001)	388	1.40	.56	.91	United States
Tepper et al. (2009)	797	1.36	.70	.90	United States
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 1	216	1.39	1.01	.91	United States
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 2	365	1.33	.87	.95	United States
Thau et al. (2009) Study 1	373	1.67	.62	.94	United States
Thau et al. (2009) Study 2	1477	1.70	.94	.95	United States
Thoroughgood et al. (2012) Study 4	670	1.73	.82	.97*	United States
Vogel & Mitchell (2017) Study 2	221	1.34	.67	.95	United States
Walsh et al. (2018) Pilot Study	214	1.61	.87	.93	United States
Wang & Jiang (2014)	403	1.88	.54	.87	China
Wang et al. (2012)	283	2.09	.97	.95	China
Wu et al (2020)	234	1.69	.52	.96	China
Yoo & Frankwick (2013)	469	1.97	1.21	.94	South Korea
Zhang et al. (2020)	879	1.192	.65	.95*	China

Note. *n* = number of respondents. SD = standard deviation. α = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate. * = composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate.

Table 14

Interpersonal Deviance Meta-Mean Results by Country

Analysis	<i>k</i>	Mean	95% Confidence Interval
Overall	88	1.70	(1.60, 1.80)
Canada	2	1.59	(1.27, 1.92)
China	17	1.88	(1.57, 2.19)
Germany	2	3.11	(2.41, 3.81)
India	4	2.14	(1.27, 3.00)
Malaysia	1	1.63	(1.53, 1.73)
New Zealand	2	1.92	(1.87, 1.97)
Philippines	2	1.94	(1.42, 2.46)
South Korea	2	2.02	(1.95, 2.08)
Taiwan	3	1.68	(1.40, 1.96)
United States	53	1.53	(1.45, 1.62)

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. Mean = the calculated meta-analytic mean for each country's analysis.

Table 15

Meta Mean Inputs for the Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance Analyses

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Bauer (2011)	103	1.21	.35	.75	United States
Belschak et al. (in press)	196	1.61	.85	.87	Netherlands
Biron (2010)	275	2.13	1.40	.91	Israel
Bowling et al. (2020)	183	1.84	1.63	.93	China
Bozeman (2016)	211	1.43	.76	.94	Canada
Burton & Hoobler (2011)	262	1.65	1.20	.98	United States
Chen (2011)	137	1.64	1.13	.96	United States
Ding et al. (2018)	214	2.69	.78	.90	China
Duffy et al. (2006) Study 1	737	2.48	1.07	.84	Slovenia
Duniewicz (2015) Study 2	144	1.66	.83	.96	United States
Erkutlu & Chafra (2018)	1,219	2.61	.85	.89	Turkey
Eschleman et al. (2014)	268	1.30	.67	.93	United States
Greenbaum et al. (2013) Study 1	222	1.41	.89	.89	United States
Greenbaum et al. (2013) Study 2	199	1.48	1.07	.93	United States
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 1	171	1.37	.95	.92	United States
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 2	175	1.23	.81	.88	United States
Hamid et al. (2016)	136	1.63	.59	.91	Malaysia
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 1	396	1.60	.77	.91	United States
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 2	251	1.66	.74	.86*	United States
Hussain & Sia (2017)	256	1.90	.77	.92	India
Joo & Witt (2015)	279	2.19	.84	.73	United States
Kim et al. (2016)	1,514	1.47	1.86	.97	United States

Table 15 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Kluemper et al. (2018) Study 1	121	1.74	.93	.95	United States
Kluemper et al. (2018) Study 2	163	2.09	1.11	.94	United States
Liu et al. (2019)	679	1.36	.44	.94	China
Martinko et al. (2018) Study 8	806	1.37	.72	.93	United States
Mawritz et al. (2014)	221	1.41	.87	.94	United States
Mayer et al. (2012) Study 1	367	1.75	1.29	.95	United States
Michel et al. (2016) Study 1	355	1.64	.80	.96	United States
Michel et al. (2016) Study 2	256	1.47	.75	.96	United States
Mitchell (2006)	321	1.35	.93	.92	United States
Mitchell & Ambrose (2007)	427	1.55	1.20	.89	United States
Peng (2013)	241	1.27	.59	.90	China
Peng et al. (2020)	614	1.28	.43	.91	United States
Potipiroon & Ford (2019)	401	1.46	.65	.86	Thailand
Pradhan & Jena (2019)	240	3.36	.74	.79	India
Raver (2004)	630	1.34	.56	.93	United States
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 1	148	1.79	1.33	.91	Philippines
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 2	254	1.84	1.08	.91	Philippines
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 3	187	1.91	1.01	.87	Philippines
Tepper et al. (2008) Study 1	243	1.39	.60	.94	United States
Tepper et al. (2008) Study 2	247	1.31	.55	.93	United States
Tepper et al. (2009)	797	1.36	.70	.90	United States
Thau et al. (2009) Study 1	373	1.45	.75	.94	United States
Thau et al. (2009) Study 2	1,477	1.70	.94	.95	United States

Table 15 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Thau et al. (2010) Study 1	216	1.39	1.01	.91	United States
Thau et al. (2010) Study 2	365	1.33	.87	.95	United States
Thoroughgood et al. (2012) Study 4	670	1.73	.82	.97*	United States
Valle et al. (2018)	206	1.95	.95	.93	United States
Vogel & Mitchell (2017) Study 2	221	1.34	.67	.95	United States
Wei & Si (2013)	198	1.44	1.57	.93	China
Wu et al. (2020)	234	1.69	.52	.96	China
Yoo & Frankwick (2013)	469	1.97	1.21	.94	South Korea

Note. *n* = number of respondents. *SD* = standard deviation. α = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate.

* = composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate.

Table 16

Organizational Deviance Meta-Mean Results by Country

Analysis	<i>k</i>	Mean	95% Confidence Interval
Overall	53	1.66	(1.55, 1.78)
Canada	1	1.43	(1.33, 1.53)
China	6	1.71	(1.35, 2.08)
India	2	2.63	(1.20, 4.06)
Israel	1	2.13	(1.96, 2.30)
Malaysia	1	1.63	(1.53, 1.73)
Netherlands	1	1.61	(1.49, 1.73)
Philippines	3	1.86	(1.77, 1.95)
Slovenia	1	2.48	(2.40, 2.56)
South Korea	1	1.97	(1.86, 2.08)
Thailand	1	1.46	(1.40, 1.52)
Turkey	1	2.61	(2.56, 2.66)
United States	34	1.52	(1.45, 1.59)

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. Mean = the calculated meta-analytic mean for each country's analysis.

Table 17

Main Codes and Input Values for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (<i>n</i>)	<i>r</i>	Overall Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Akram et al. (2019)	China	350	.13*	.96	.89
An & Wang (2016)	<i>China</i>	321	.40*	.97	.93
Ball et al. (1994)	United States	89	.14*	.93	.85
Bauer (2011)	United States	103	.73*	.85	.75
Belschak et al. (2018)	Netherlands	196	.33	.84	.87
Biron (2010)	Israel	275	.24	.84	.91
Bowling et al. (2020) Study 2	China	183	.30*	.89	.93
Bozeman (2016)	Canada	211	.34*	.82	.94
Braun et al. (2018) Study 3	Germany	365	.57	.69	.91
Braun et al. (2018) Study 4	Germany	50	.20	.95	.80
Brees et al. (2014)	United States	411	.32*	.84	.95
Bruursema (2004)	United States	116	.47*	.90**	.92
Burton & Hoobler (2011)	United States	262	.26*	.85	.98
Burton et al. (2011) Study 2	United States	190	.44	.71	.97
Carnevale et al. (2018)	China	262	.09*	.90	.88
Chen (2011)	United States	137	.56	.97	.96
Chen & Liu (2019)	Taiwan	336	.27	.90	.95
Chi et al. (2016) Study 1	Taiwan	203	.35	.86	.85
Chi et al. (2016) Study 3	Taiwan	417	.23	.85	.87
Chi et al. (2016) Study 4	United States	246	-.30	.88	.95
Choi et al. (2019)	South Korea	285	.34*	.93	.85
Chu (2014)	Taiwan	212	.39*	.95	.94
Ding et al. (2018)	China	214	.43	.78	.90

Table 17 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (<i>n</i>)	<i>r</i>	Overall Deviance <i>α</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>
Duniewicz (2015) Study 2	United States	144	.42*	.93	.96
Eissa et al. (2020) Study 1	India	262	.29	.86	.95
Eissa et al. (2020) Study 2	United States	175	.35	.90	.84
Erkutlu & Chafra (2018)	Turkey	1219	.33	.88	.89
Eschleman et al. (2014)	United States	268	.49*	.97	.93
Ferris et al. (2016) Study 1	China	257	.47*	.95	.96
Ferris et al. (2016) Study 2	China	357	.28*	.98	.98
Ferris et al. (2019) Study 3	China	191	.64	.96	.96
Frieder et al. (2014) Study 1	United States	73	.34	.80	.95
Frieder et al. (2014) Study 2	United States	172	.11	.76	.94
Gardner & Rasumussen (2018)	New Zealand	197	.46*	.94**	.94
Gardner et al. (2016)	New Zealand	826	.38*	.94**	.95
Goswami et al. (2015)	India	235	.54	.89	.94
Greenbaum et al. (2013) Study 1	United States	222	.62	.95	.89
Greenbaum et al. (2013) Study 2	United States	199	.38	.95	.93
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 1	United States	171	.34	.98	.92
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 2	United States	175	.24*	.97	.88
Haggard & Park (2018) Study 2	United States	253	.17	.80	.92
Halevy et al. (2014) Study 4	United States	494	.86*	.95	.96
Hamid et al. (2016)	Malaysia	136	.25*	.92	.91
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 1	United States	396	.63*	.93	.91
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 2	United States	81	.57*	.93	.90
Hussain & Sia (2017)	India	256	.45*	.90	.92
Hutchinson & Spector (2016)	United States	402	.44*	.94**	.96**

Table 17 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (<i>n</i>)	<i>r</i>	Overall Deviance <i>α</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>
Inness et al. (2008)	United States	308	.14*	.97**	.87
Joo & Witt (2015)	United States	279	.59	.70	.73
Ju et al. (2018) Study 1	China	597	.38*	.97	.96
Ju et al. (2018) Study 2	China	345	.15*	.83	.94
Kim et al. (2016)	United States	1514	.61*	.99	.97
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 1	United States	121	.63*	.94	.98
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 2	United States	163	.29*	.90	.94
Lian et al. (2012) Study 1	United States	264	.36	.88	.95
Lian et al. (2012) Study 2	United States	171	.48	.84	.96
Lian et al. (2012) Study 3	United States	198	.59	.94	.95
Lian et al. (2014) Study 2	Canada	188	.52	.95	.96
Liu et al. (2010) Study 1	China	283	.24	.89	.95
Liu et al. (2010) Study 2	China	222	.26	.94	.95
Liu et al. (2019)	China	679	.52	.95	.94
Mackey et al. (2013)	United States	125	.14	.75	.92
Mackey et al. (2015) Sample 1	United States	96	.64*	.87**	.90
Mackey et al. (2015) Sample 2	United States	130	.29*	.87**	.93
Mackey et al. (2018a) Sample 1	United States	396	.37	.87	.95
Mackey et al. (2018a) Sample 2	United States	123	.29	.80	.94
Mackey et al. (2020)	China	219	.34	.94	.89
Mackey et al. (2021b) Study 5	United States	287	.26	.94	.94
Martinko et al. (2018) Study 8	United States	806	.58*	.88	.93
Mawritz et al. (2014)	United States	221	.53	.95	.94
Mawritz et al. (2017) Study 1	United States	165	.26	.89	.95

Table 17 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (<i>n</i>)	<i>r</i>	Overall Deviance <i>α</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>
Mawritz et al. (2017) Study 2	United States	121	.49*	.97	.99
Mayer et al. (2012) Study 1	United States	367	.35	.87	.95
McAllister & Mackey (2014)	United States	157	.59*	.89	.94
McAllister & Perrew (2018)	United States	136	.14	.91	.94
Michel et al. (2016) Study 1	United States	355	.73*	.98	.96
Michel et al. (2016) Study 2	United States	256	.40*	.92	.96
Mitchell (2006)	United States	321	.52*	.94	.92
Mitchell & Ambrose (2007)	United States	427	.31*	.91	.89
Mitchell & Ambrose (2012) Study 2	United States	278	.62*	.93	.90
Mitchell & Ambrose (2012) Study 3	United States	243	.46*	.93	.89
Mitchell et al. (2015)	United States	221	.27	.81	.91
Naeem et al. (2020)	China	326	.11	.71	.78
Nandkeolyar et al. (2016) Study 1	India	286	.17	.90	.94
Nixon (2011)	United States	361	.86*	.97	.95
Nwani et al. (2017)	Nigeria	250	.50*	.88	.95
Ogunfowora (2009)	Canada	297	.13*	.88	.86
Park & Kim (2019)	United States	183	.32	.93	.95
Peng (2013)	China	241	.12*	.96	.90
Peng et al. (2019)	China	242	.02*	.97	.92
Peng et al. (2020)	United States	614	.28*	.81	.91
Potipiroon & Ford (2019)	Thailand	401	.15	.78	.86
Pradhan & Jena (2019)	India	240	.32*	.86	.79
Raver (2004)	United States	630	.28*	.86	.93
Restubog et al. (2011) Study 1	Philippines	184	.58	.88	.97

Table 17 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (<i>n</i>)	<i>r</i>	Overall Deviance <i>α</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>
Restubog et al. (2011) Study 2	Philippines	188	.53	.67	.95
Richard et al. (2020)	China	324	.44	.95	.92
Schmid et al. (2017) Study 4	Germany	240	.33*	.74	.96
Schmid et al. (2017) Study 5	Germany	282	.32*	.83	.98
Shao et al. (2011)	United States	490	.28	.85	.95
Shillamkwese et al. (2020)	China	298	.35	.88	.76
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 1	Philippines	148	.38	.85	.91
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 2	Philippines	254	.17	.84	.91
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 3	Philippines	187	.22	.75	.87
Simon et al. (2015)	United States	244	.67	.86	.94
Steinert (2015)	United States	162	.57*	.97	.96
Tepper et al. (2001)	United States	388	.23	.89	.91
Tepper et al. (2008) Study 1	United States	243	.28	.69	.94
Tepper et al. (2008) Study 2	United States	247	.18	.75	.93
Tepper et al. (2009)	United States	797	.43*	.90	.90
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 1	United States	216	.39*	.85	.91
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 2	United States	365	.51*	.95	.95
Thau et al. (2009) Study 1	United States	373	.38*	.81	.94
Thau et al. (2009) Study 2	United States	1477	.56*	.97	.95
Thoroughgood et al. (2012) Study 4	United States	670	.43*	.90	.97
Valle et al. (2019)	United States	206	.18	.75	.93
Vogel & Mitchell (2017) Study 2	United States	221	.30*	.92	.95
Walsh et al. (2018) Pilot Study	United States	214	.58	.89	.93
Wang & Jiang (2014)	China	403	.35	.83	.87

Table 17 (Continued)

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (<i>n</i>)	<i>r</i>	Overall Deviance <i>α</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>
Wang et al. (2012)	China	283	.31*	.90	.95
Watkins et al. (2019) Study 2	China	176	.51*	.93	.93
Wei & Si (2013)	China	198	.29	.70	.93
Wu et al. (2020)	China	234	.22*	.98	.96
Yoo & Frankwick (2013)	South Korea	469	.51*	.86	.94
Zhang et al. (2020)	China	879	.15*	.90	.95

Note. *n* = number of respondents. *r* = zero-order bivariate correlation between destructive leadership and followers' overall deviance. *α* = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate. * = composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate; if composite, median alpha was used in calculation.

Table 18

Overall Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country

Analysis	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	$\bar{r}$	$SD_{\bar{r}}$	ρ	SD_{ρ}	80% Credibility Interval (ρ)	95% Confidence Interval (ρ)	% of Variance Attributable to Artifacts
Overall	126	39,245	.38	.18	.42	.18	(.19, .66)	(.39, .46)	8%
Canada	3	696	.30	.16	.34	.15	(.14, .54)	(.15, .53)	16%
China	25	8,084	.30	.15	.33	.15	(.13, .52)	(.26, .39)	12%
Germany	4	937	.41	.13	.48	.16	(.27, .69)	(.31, .65)	14%
India	5	1,279	.35	.13	.39	.13	(.22, .55)	(.26, .51)	2%
Israel	1	275	.24	.00	.27	.00	(.27, .27)	(.16, .39)	-
Malaysia	1	136	.25	.00	.27	.00	(.27, .27)	(.12, .43)	-
Netherlands	1	196	.33	.00	.39	.00	(.39, .39)	(.26, .51)	-
New Zealand	2	1,023	.40	.03	.42	.00	(.42, .42)	(.37, .47)	100%
Nigeria	1	250	.50	.00	.55	.00	(.55, .55)	(.45, .64)	-
Philippines	5	961	.36	.17	.42	.18	(.19, .65)	(.26, .59)	14%
Slovenia	1	737	.22	.00	.25	.00	(.25, .25)	(.18, .32)	-
South Korea	2	754	.45	.08	.50	.08	(.40, .60)	(.38, .62)	27%
Taiwan	4	1,168	.29	.06	.33	.02	(.30, .36)	(.27, .38)	88%
Thailand	1	401	.15	.00	.18	.00	(.18, .18)	(.09, .28)	-
Turkey	1	1,219	.33	.00	.37	.00	(.37, .37)	(.32, .42)	-
United States	69	21,129	.44	.19	.48	.19	(.24, .73)	(.43, .53)	6%

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. *N* = total sample size of all primary studies included in the analysis. $\bar{r}$ = the sample-weighted mean correlation estimate. $SD_{\bar{r}}$ = standard deviation of the sample-weighted mean correlation estimates across primary studies. ρ = the population correlation estimate that corrects the zero-order bivariate correlation for measurement and sampling error across primary studies. SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of population correlation estimates.

Table 19

Overall Deviance Meta-Analytic Results by Country for Studies That Were Excluded from the Meta-Analyses

Analysis	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	$\bar{r}$	$SD_{\bar{r}}$	ρ	SD_{ρ}	80% Credibility Interval (ρ)	95% Confidence Interval (ρ)	% of Variance Attributable to Artifacts
Belgium	2	236	.32	.06	.35	.00	(.35, .35)	(.23, .46)	100%
Pakistan	9	3,378	.42	.15	.51	.16	(.30, .72)	(.40, .62)	9%
Romania	2	517	.32	.12	.37	.12	(.21, .53)	(.18, .56)	21%

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. *N* = total sample size of all primary studies included in the analysis. $\bar{r}$ = the sample-weighted mean correlation estimate. $SD_{\bar{r}}$ = standard deviation of the sample-weighted mean correlation estimates across primary studies. ρ = the population correlation estimate that corrects the zero-order bivariate correlation for measurement and sampling error across primary studies. SD_{ρ} = standard deviation of population correlation estimates.

Table 20

Overall Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations among Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. CorrelationDL & Overall Deviance	-	-	.03	-.20	-.06	.34	-.20	-.18	.18	-.13	-.27
2. Meta-Analytic Mean for DL	.08	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Performance Orientation	.03	-.06	-	.44	.12	.13	.01	.36	.28	.09	.11
4. Assertiveness	-.21	-.16	.44	-	-.10	-.02	-.28	.11	-.20	.20	.28
5. Future Orientation	-.07	-.16	.13	-.07	-	.10	.34	.53	-.21	-.14	.53
6. Humane Orientation	.35	.03	.13	-.03	.09	-	.08	-.24	.14	-.61	.12
7. Institutional Collectivism	-.19	.06	.01	-.28	.32	.08	-	-.13	-.36	-.07	.47
8. In-Group Collectivism	-.19	-.12	.37	.13	.54	-.24	-.13	-	.13	.32	.07
9. Gender Egalitarianism	.20	.19	.27	-.22	-.24	.14	-.35	.11	-	-.52	-.69
10. Power Distance	-.15	-.41	.11	.25	-.06	-.57	-.09	.34	-.54	-	.19
11. Uncertainty Avoidance	-.28	-.13	.11	.29	.54	.11	.45	.09	-.69	.23	-
Mean	.37	1.92	5.89	3.94	5.49	5.38	4.62	5.63	4.47	2.77	4.60
Standard Deviation	.10	.36	.34	.83	.42	.34	.41	.34	.44	.29	.75

Note. DL = destructive leadership. Pearson correlation below the diagonal. Partial correlation controlling for the meta-analytic mean of destructive leadership above the diagonal.

Table 21

Summary of GLOBE Supplementary Analyses for Overall Deviance

Hypothesis	Interpersonal Deviance Findings	Organizational Deviance Findings	<i>r</i>	Raw Relative Weight (<i>R</i>²)	Rescaled Relative Weight
Performance Orientation	Positive	Negative	.03	.01	3.17%
Assertiveness	Negative	Negative	-.21	.04	9.34%
Future Orientation	Positive	Negative	-.07	.03	6.64%
Humane Orientation	Positive	Positive	.35	.13	30.22%
Institutional Collectivism	Positive	Negative	-.19	.04	9.65%
In-Group Collectivism	Positive	Negative	-.19	.06	14.24%
Gender Egalitarianism	Positive	Positive	.20	.02	5.13%
Power Distance	Negative	Negative	-.15	.03	6.14%
Uncertainty Avoidance	Negative	Negative	-.28	.07	15.47%
				.43	100.00%

Note. *r* = zero-order bivariate correlation between (1) the cultural value dimension and (2) the relationship between destructive leadership and followers' overall deviance. Some of the summed scores for the relative weight columns do not sum perfectly due to rounding errors.

Table 22

Meta Mean Inputs for the Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance Analyses

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Akram et al. (2019)	350	.86	1.30	.89	China
Ball et al. (1994)	89	2.69	.99	.85	United States
Bauer (2011)	103	.75	.22	.75	United States
Belschak et al. (2018)	196	1.61	.85	.87	Netherlands
Biron (2010)	275	2.13	1.40	.91	Israel
Bowling et al. (2020) Study 2	183	1.84	1.63	.93	China
Bozeman (2016)	211	1.43	.76	.94	Canada
Braun et al. (2018) Study 3	365	2.80	1.24	.91	Germany
Braun et al. (2018) Study 4	50	3.52	1.88	.80	Germany
Brees et al. (2014)	411	1.48	.66	.95	United States
Burton & Hoobler (2011)	262	1.65	1.20	.98	United States
Burton et al. (2011) Study 2	190	1.53	1.11	.97	United States
Carnevale et al. (2018)	262	2.56	2.16	.88	China
Chen & Liu (2019)	336	1.72	.76	.95	Taiwan
Chen (2011)	137	1.64	1.13	.96	United States
Chi et al. (2016) Study 1	203	1.42	.53	.85	Taiwan
Chi et al. (2016) Study 3	417	1.89	.66	.87	Taiwan
Chi et al. (2016) Study 4	246	2.68	.92	.95	United States
Choi et al. (2019)	285	2.04	.70	.85	South Korea
Chu (2014)	212	1.82	.62	.94	Taiwan
Ding et al. (2018)	214	2.69	.78	.90	China
Duffy et al. (2006) Study 1	737	2.48	1.07	.84	Slovenia
Duniewicz (2015) Study 2	144	1.66	.83	.96	United States

Table 22 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Eissa et al. (2020) Study 1	262	1.77	1.07	.95	India
Eissa et al. (2020) Study 2	175	1.23	.77	.84	United States
Erkutlu & Chafra (2018)	1219	2.61	.85	.89	Turkey
Eschleman et al. (2014)	268	1.30	.67	.93	United States
Ferris et al. (2016) Study 1	257	1.68	.87	.96	China
Ferris et al. (2016) Study 2	357	1.39	.66	.98	China
Ferris et al. (2019) Study 3	191	1.87	1.05	.96	China
Gardner & Rasumussen (2018)	197	1.96	.71	.94	New Zealand
Gardner et al. (2016)	826	1.91	.81	.95	New Zealand
Goswami et al. (2015)	235	1.51	.72	.94	India
Greenbaum et al. (2013) Study 1	222	1.41	.89	.89	United States
Greenbaum et al. (2013) Study 2	199	1.48	1.07	.93	United States
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 1	171	1.37	.95	.92	United States
Greenbaum et al. (2017) Study 2	175	1.23	.81	.88	United States
Haggard & Park (2018) Study 2	253	1.18	.78	.92	United States
Halevy et al. (2014) Study 4	494	1.30	1.64	.96	United States
Hamid et al. (2016)	136	1.63	.59	.91	Malaysia
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 1	396	1.60	.77	.91	United States
Harvey et al. (2014) Study 2	81	1.66	.74	.90*	United States
Hussain & Sia (2017)	256	1.90	.77	.92	India
Inness et al. (2008)	308	2.90	1.11	.87	United States
Joo & Witt (2015)	279	2.19	.84	.73	United States
Ju et al. (2018) Study 1	597	2.17	.66	.96	China
Ju et al. (2018) Study 2	345	1.98	.69	.94	China

Table 22 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Kim et al. (2016)	1514	1.47	1.86	.97	United States
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 1	121	1.74	.93	.98	United States
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 2	163	2.09	1.11	.94	United States
Lian et al. (2012) Study 1	264	1.69	.75	.95	United States
Lian et al. (2012) Study 2	171	1.62	.79	.96	United States
Lian et al. (2012) Study 3	198	1.67	.88	.95	United States
Lian et al. (2014) Study 2	188	1.76	.82	.96	Canada
Liu et al. (2010) Study 1	283	2.09	.97	.95	China
Liu et al. (2010) Study 2	222	2.04	.59	.95	China
Liu et al. (2019)	679	1.36	.44	.94	China
Mackey et al. (2013)	125	1.43	.58	.92	United States
Mackey et al. (2015) Sample 1	96	1.23	.38	.90	United States
Mackey et al. (2015) Sample 2	130	1.42	.57	.93	United States
Mackey et al. (2018a) Sample 1	396	1.48	.66	.95	United States
Mackey et al. (2018a) Sample 2	123	1.39	.60	.94	United States
Mackey et al. (2020)	219	1.81	.91	.89	China
Mackey et al. (2021b) Study 5	287	1.42	.63	.94	United States
Martinko et al. (2018) Study 8	806	1.37	.72	.93	United States
Mawritz et al. (2014)	221	1.41	.87	.94	United States
Mawritz et al. (2017) Study 1	165	1.35	.86	.95	United States
Mawritz et al. (2017) Study 2	121	1.34	.86	.99*	United States
Mayer et al. (2012) Study 1	367	1.75	1.29	.95	United States
McAllister & Mackey (2014)	157	1.47	.78	.94	United States
McAllister & Perrew (2018)	136	1.48	.68	.94	United States
Michel et al. (2016) Study 1	355	1.64	.80	.96	United States

Table 22 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Destructive Leadership <i>α</i>	Country
Michel et al. (2016) Study 2	256	1.47	.75	.96	United States
Mitchell & Ambrose (2007)	427	1.55	1.20	.89	United States
Mitchell & Ambrose (2012) Study 2	278	1.31	.94	.90	United States
Mitchell & Ambrose (2012) Study 3	243	1.43	.93	.89	United States
Mitchell (2006)	321	1.35	.93	.92	United States
Mitchell et al. (2015)	221	2.4	.74	.91	United States
Naeem et al. (2020)	326	2.9	.40	.78	China
Nixon (2011)	361	1.58	.73	.95	United States
Park & Kim (2019)	183	1.51	.63	.95	United States
Peng (2013)	241	1.27	.59	.90	China
Peng et al. (2019)	242	1.33	.67	.92*	China
Peng et al. (2020)	614	1.28	.43	.91	United States
Potipiroon & Ford (2019)	401	1.46	.65	.86	Thailand
Pradhan & Jena (2019)	240	3.36	.74	.79	India
Raver (2004)	630	1.34	.56	.93	United States
Restubog et al. (2011) Study 1	184	2.21	.41	.97	Philippines
Restubog et al. (2011) Study 2	188	1.68	1.01	.95	Philippines
Richard et al. (2020)	324	1.59	.93	.92	China
Schmid et al. (2017) Study 4	240	1.78	.74	.96*	Germany
Schmid et al. (2017) Study 5	282	1.98	.91	.98*	Germany
Shao et al. (2011)	490	1.69	.84	.95	United States
Shillamkwese et al. (2020)	298	2.82	.77	.76	China
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 1	148	1.79	1.13	.91	Philippines
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 2	254	1.84	1.08	.91	Philippines
Shoss et al. (2013) Sample 3	187	1.91	1.01	.87	Philippines

Table 22 (Continued)

Author(s)	<i>n</i>	Mean	SD	Destructive Leadership α	Country
Simon et al. (2015)	244	1.35	.59	.94	United States
Steinert (2015)	162	1.68	.83	.96	United States
Tepper et al. (2001)	388	1.40	.56	.91	United States
Tepper et al. (2008) Study 1	243	1.39	.60	.94	United States
Tepper et al. (2008) Study 2	247	1.31	.55	.93	United States
Tepper et al. (2009)	797	1.36	.70	.90	United States
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 1	216	1.39	1.01	.91	United States
Thau & Mitchell (2010) Study 2	365	1.33	.87	.95	United States
Thau et al. (2009) Study 1	373	1.67	.62	.94	United States
Thau et al. (2009) Study 2	1477	1.70	.94	.95	United States
Thoroughgood et al. (2012) Study 4	670	1.73	.82	.97*	United States
Valle et al. (2019)	206	1.95	.95	.75	United States
Vogel & Mitchell (2017) Study 2	221	1.34	.67	.95	United States
Walsh et al. (2018) Pilot Study	214	1.61	.87	.93	United States
Wang & Jiang (2014)	403	1.88	.54	.87	China
Wang et al. (2012)	283	2.09	.97	.95	China
Watkins et al. (2019) Study 2	176	1.43	.52	.93	China
Wei & Si (2013)	198	1.44	1.57	.93	China
Wu et al. (2020)	234	1.69	.52	.96	China
Yoo & Frankwick (2013)	469	1.97	1.21	.94	South Korea
Zhang et al. (2020)	879	1.19	.65	.95*	China

Note. *n* = number of respondents. SD = standard deviation. α = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate. * = composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate.

Table 23

Overall Deviance Meta-Mean Results by Country

Analysis	<i>k</i>	Mean	95% Confidence Interval
Overall	118	1.72	(1.63, 1.81)
Canada	2	1.59	(1.27, 1.92)
China	24	1.83	(1.59, 2.07)
Germany	4	2.47	(1.93, 3.01)
India	4	2.14	(1.27, 3.00)
Israel	1	2.13	(1.96, 2.30)
Malaysia	1	1.63	(1.53, 1.73)
Netherlands	1	1.61	(1.49, 1.73)
New Zealand	2	1.92	(1.87, 1.97)
Philippines	5	1.88	(1.73, 2.03)
Slovenia	1	2.48	(2.40, 2.56)
South Korea	2	2.02	(1.95, 2.08)
Taiwan	4	1.71	(1.50, 1.93)
Thailand	1	1.46	(1.40, 1.52)
Turkey	1	2.61	(2.56, 2.66)
United States	65	1.56	(1.48, 1.64)

Note. *k* = number of primary studies included in the analysis. Mean = the calculated meta-analytic mean for each country's analysis. Note that the overall mean (1.72) was used for Nigeria in the partial correlation analyses.

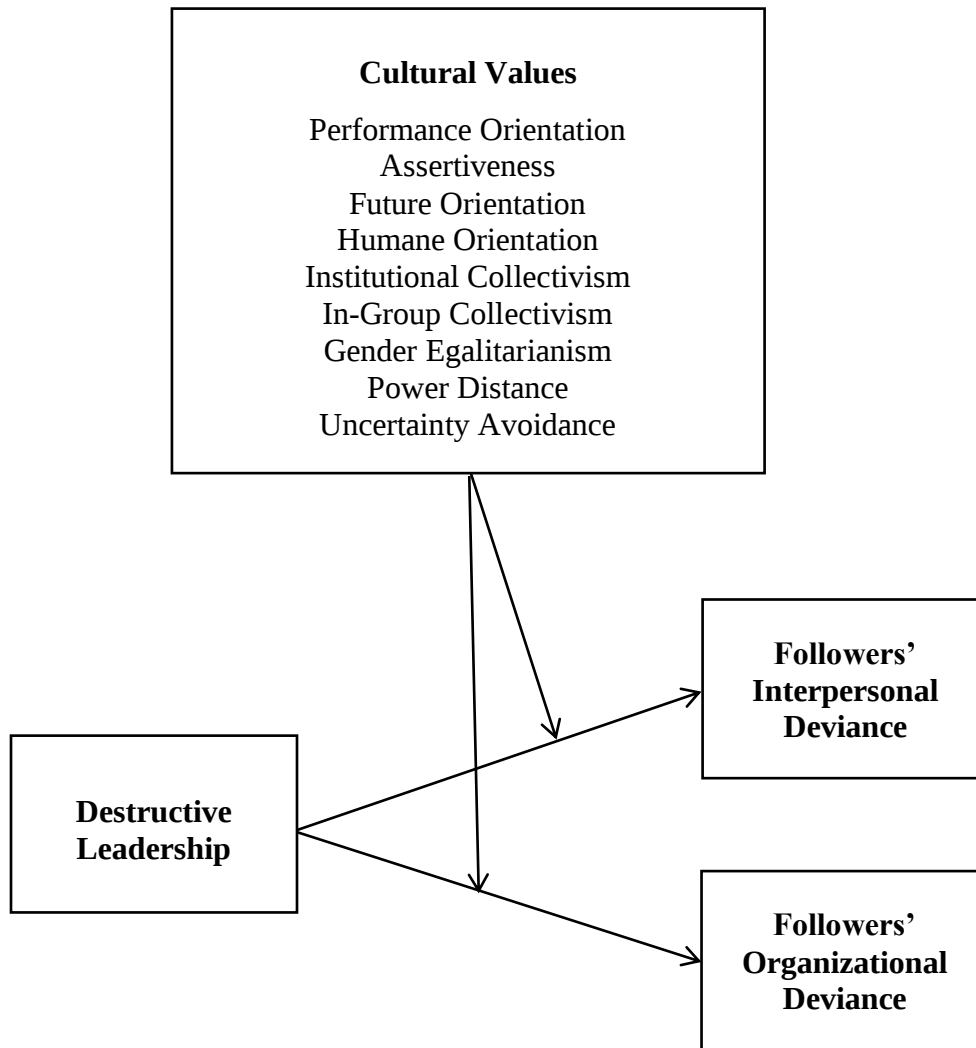


Figure 1. Summary of Conceptual Model.

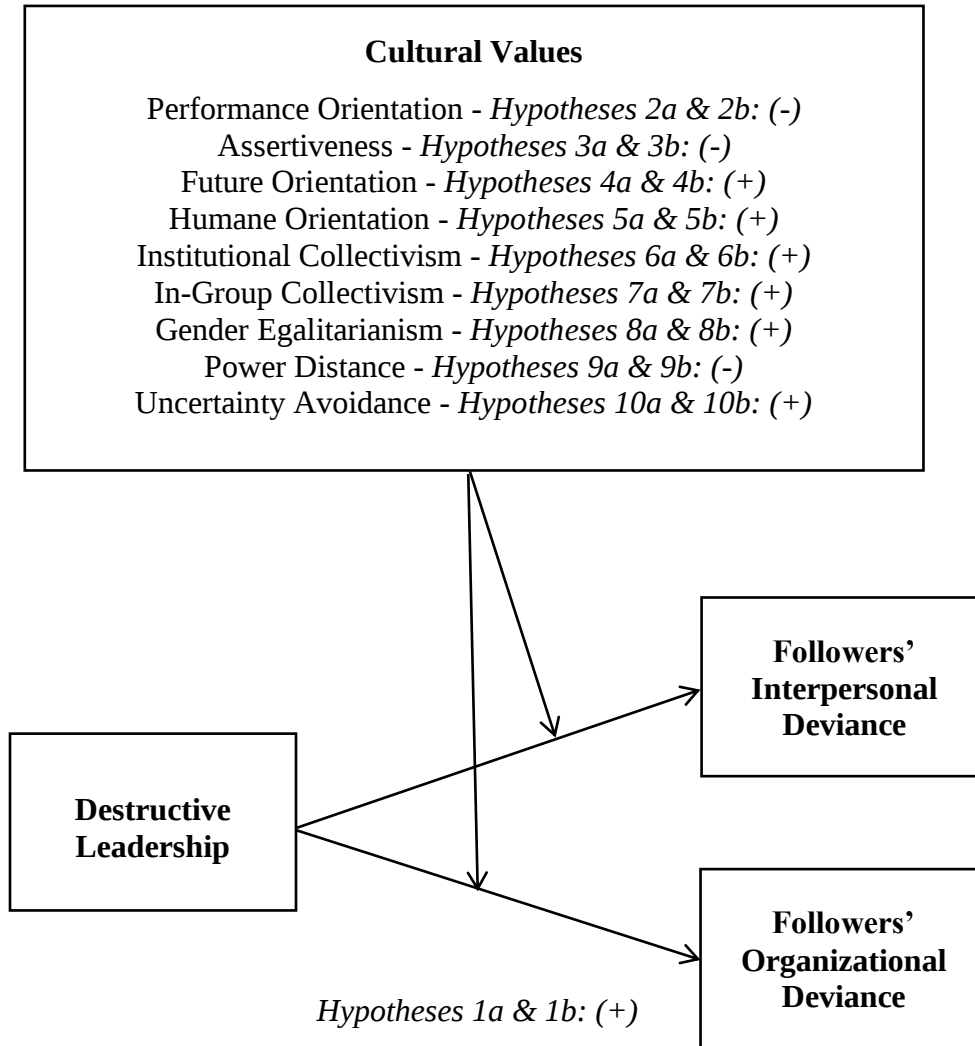


Figure 2. Summary of Hypothesized Relationships.

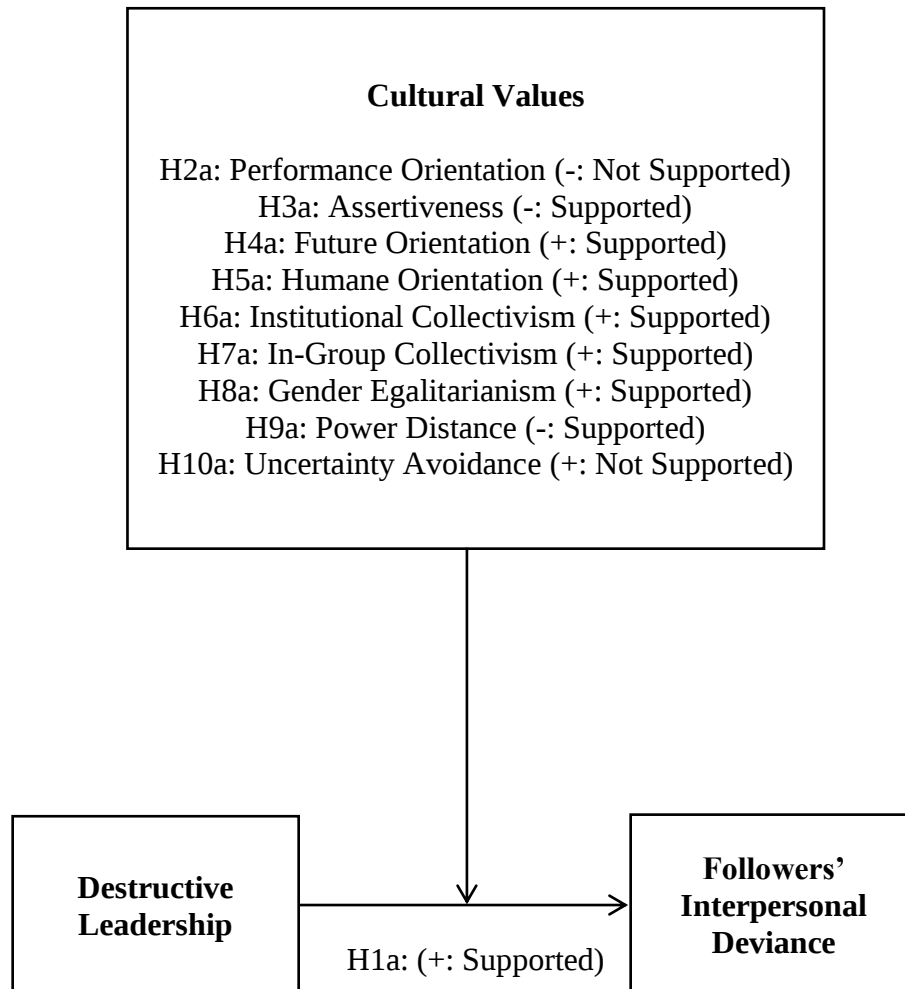


Figure 3. Summary of Research Model for Interpersonal Deviance.

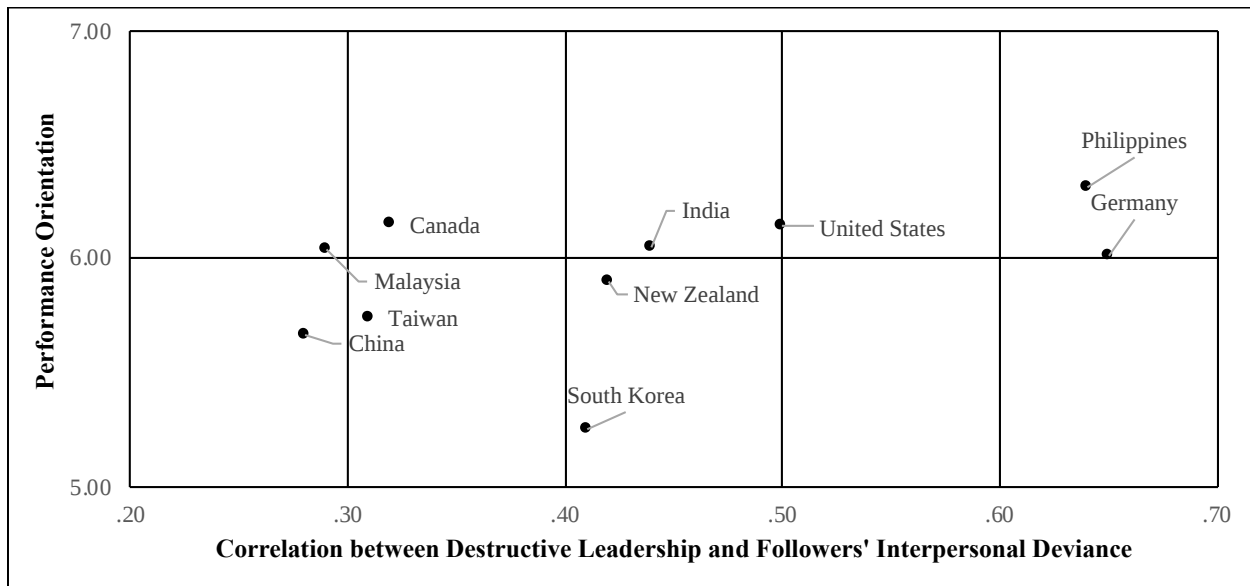


Figure 4. Scatter Plot for Performance Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance.

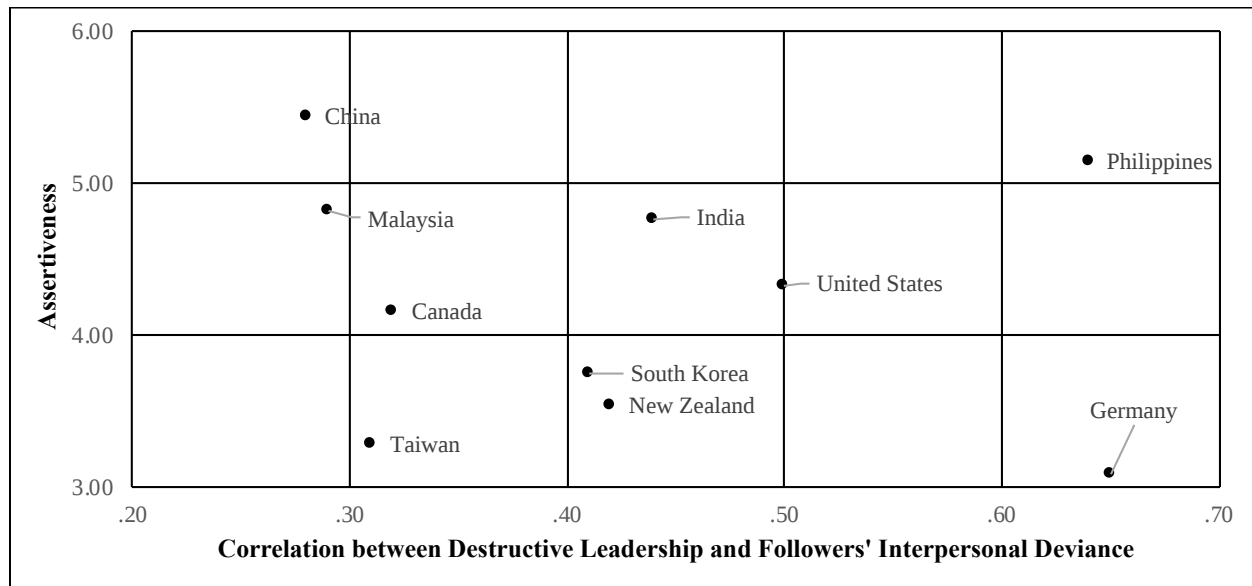


Figure 5. Scatter Plot for Assertiveness and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance.

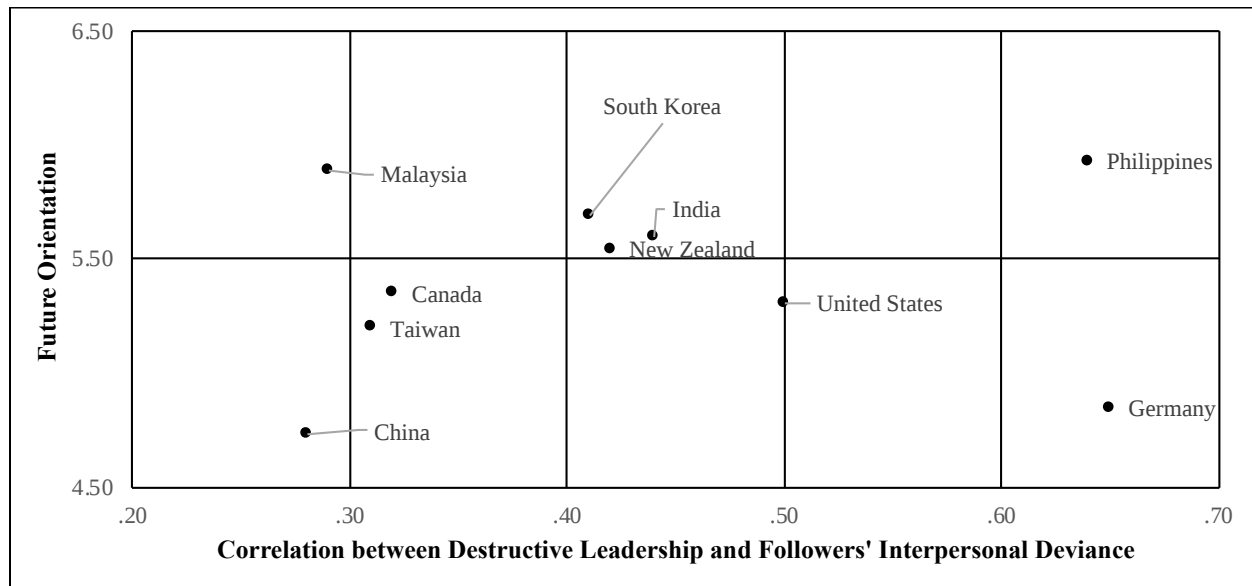


Figure 6. Scatter Plot for Future Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance.

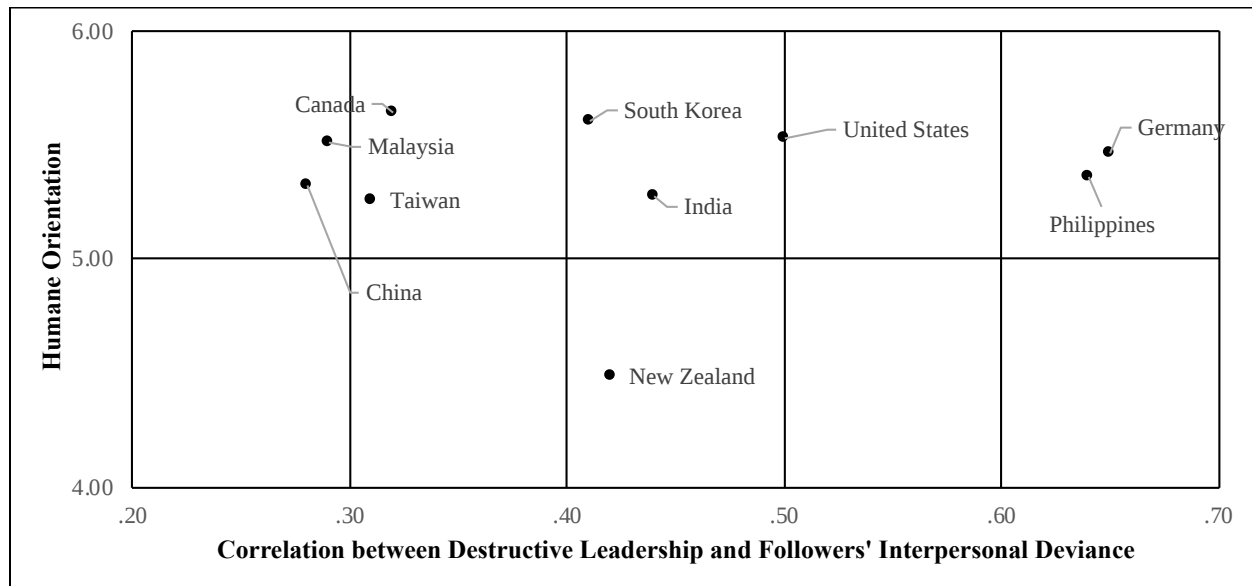


Figure 7. Scatter Plot for Humane Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance.

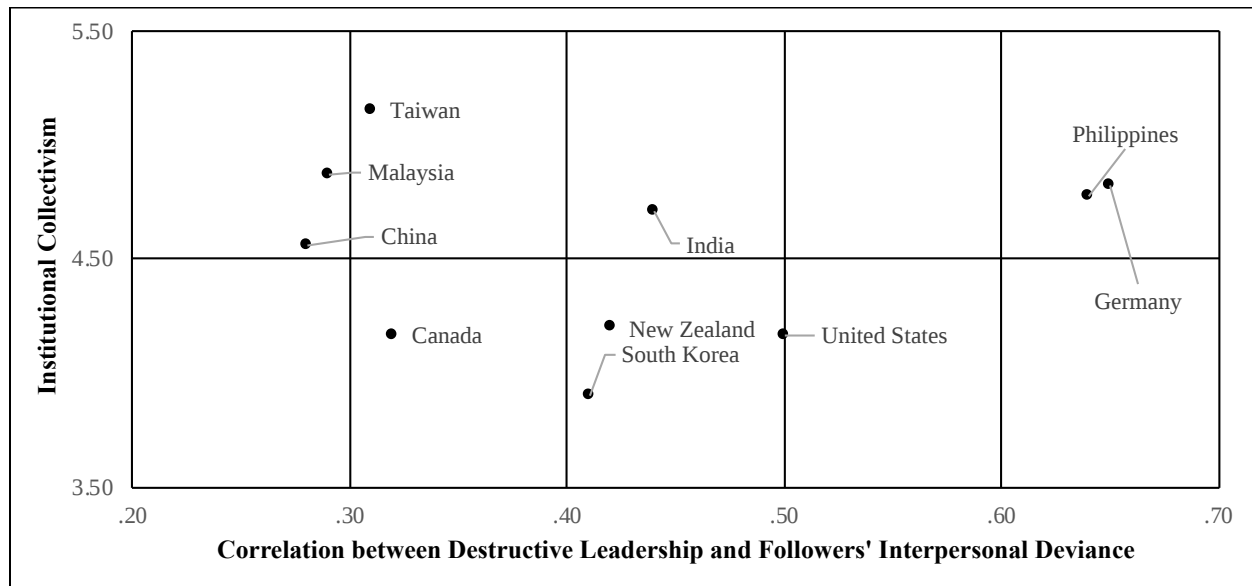


Figure 8. Scatter Plot for Institutional Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance.

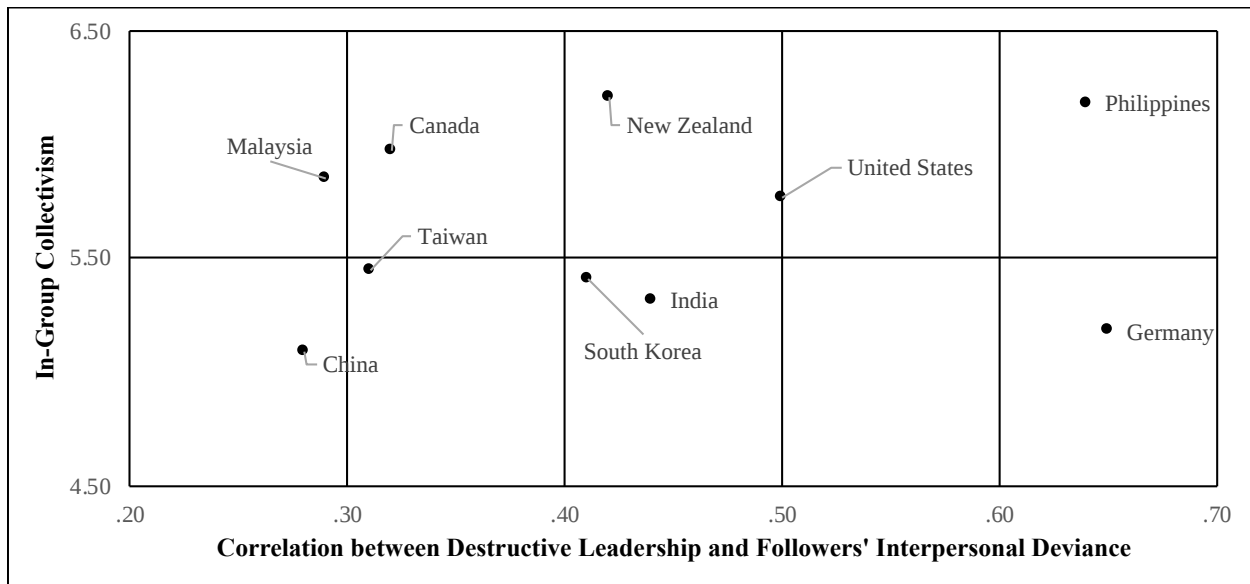


Figure 9. Scatter Plot for In-Group Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance.

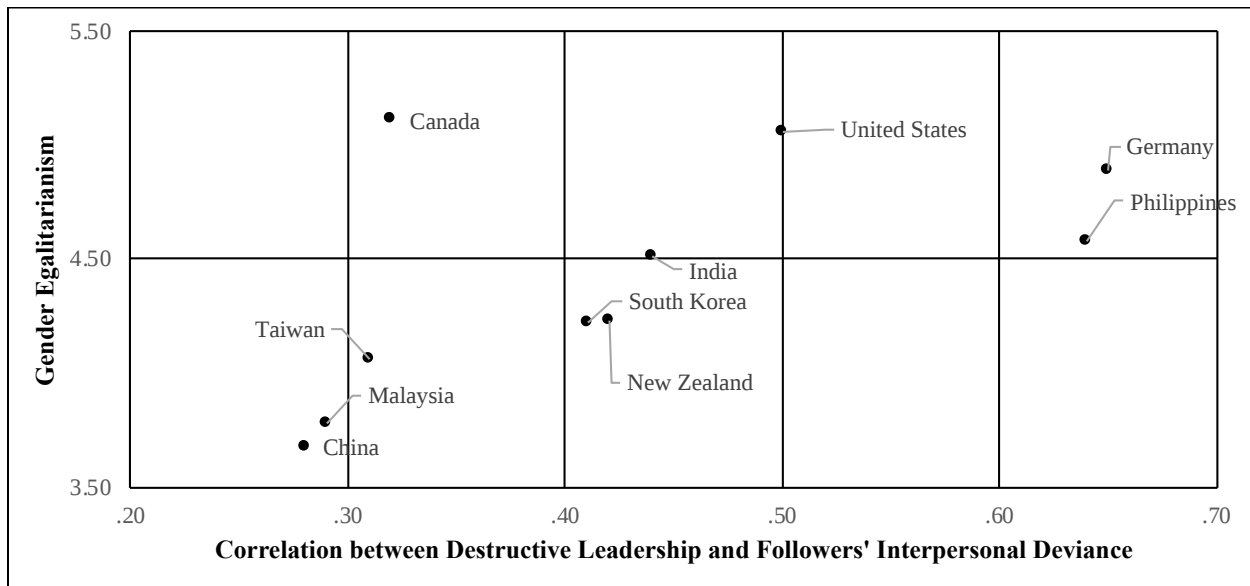


Figure 10. Scatter Plot for Gender Egalitarianism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance.

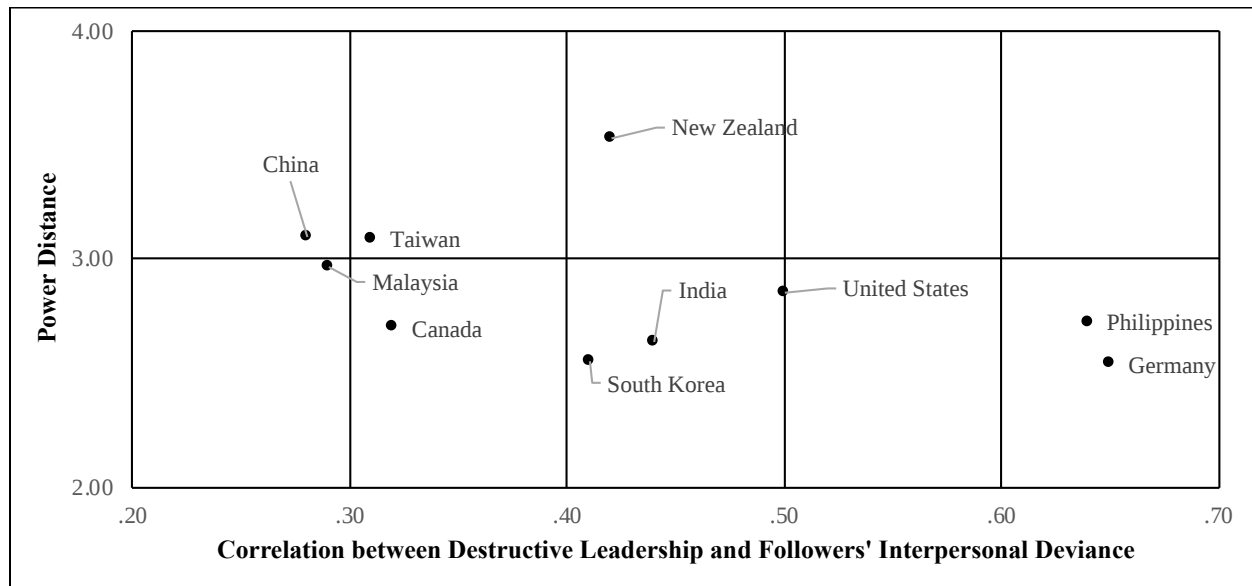


Figure 11. Scatter Plot for Power Distance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance.

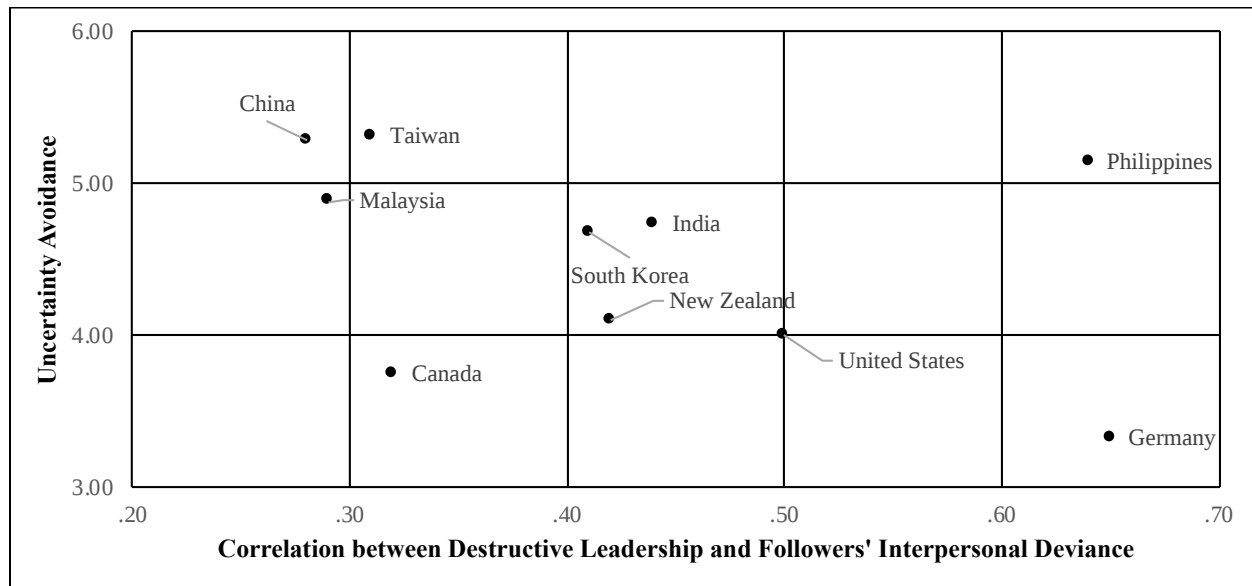


Figure 12. Scatter Plot for Uncertainty Avoidance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Interpersonal Deviance.

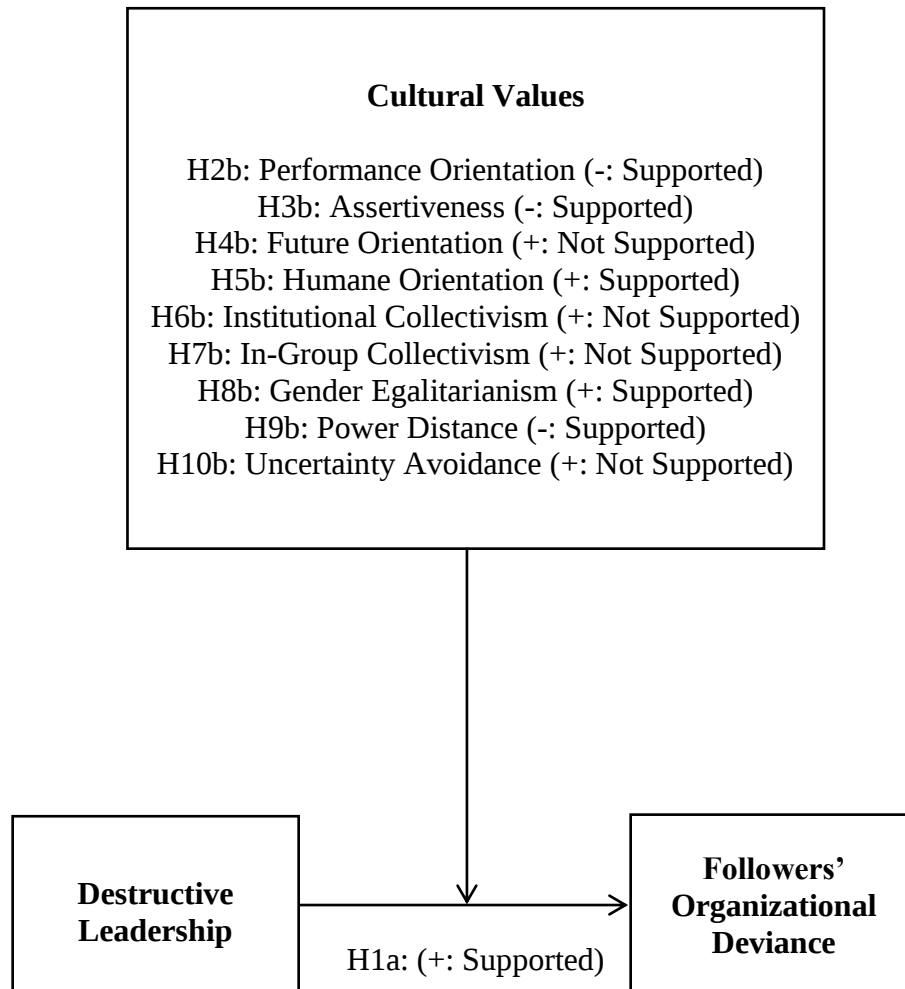


Figure 13. Summary of Research Model for Organizational Deviance.

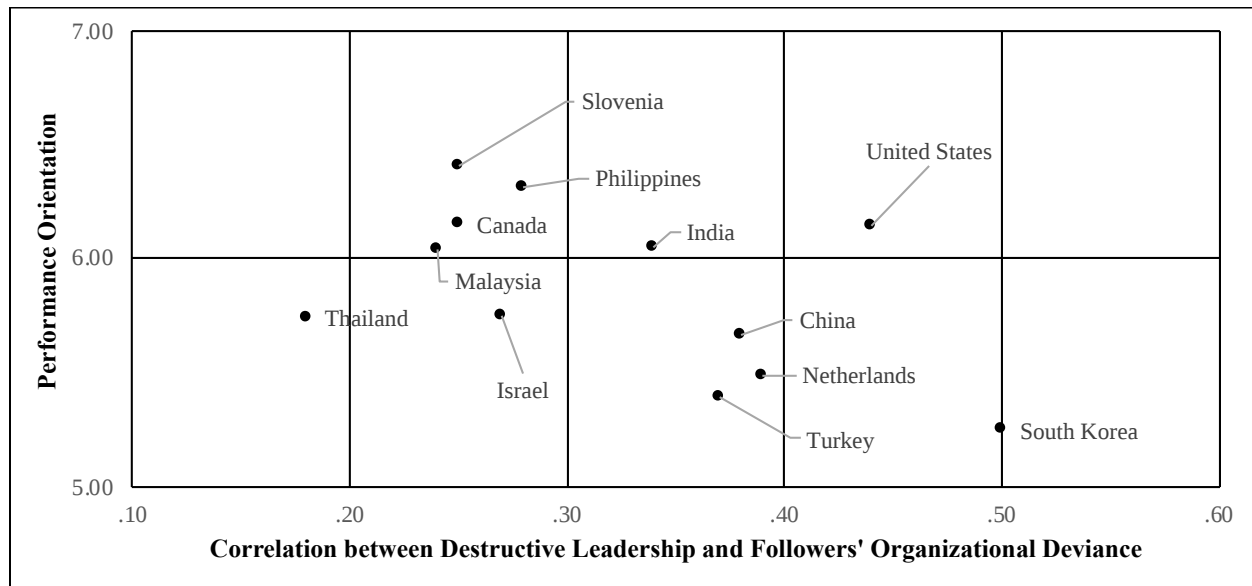


Figure 14. Scatter Plot for Performance Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance.

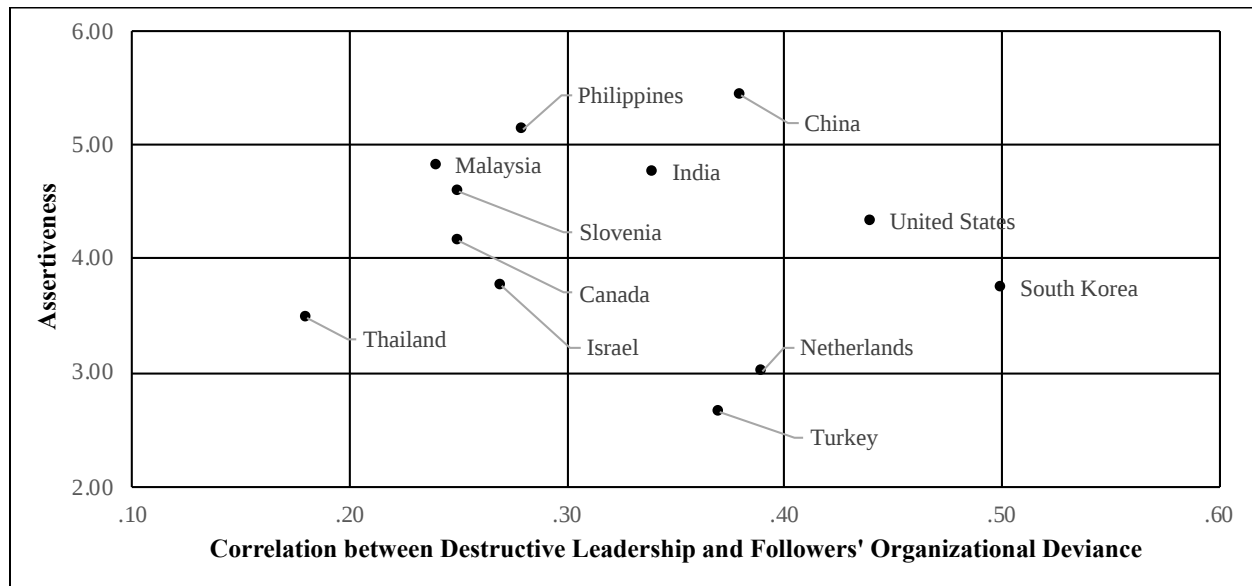


Figure 15. Scatter Plot for Assertiveness and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance.

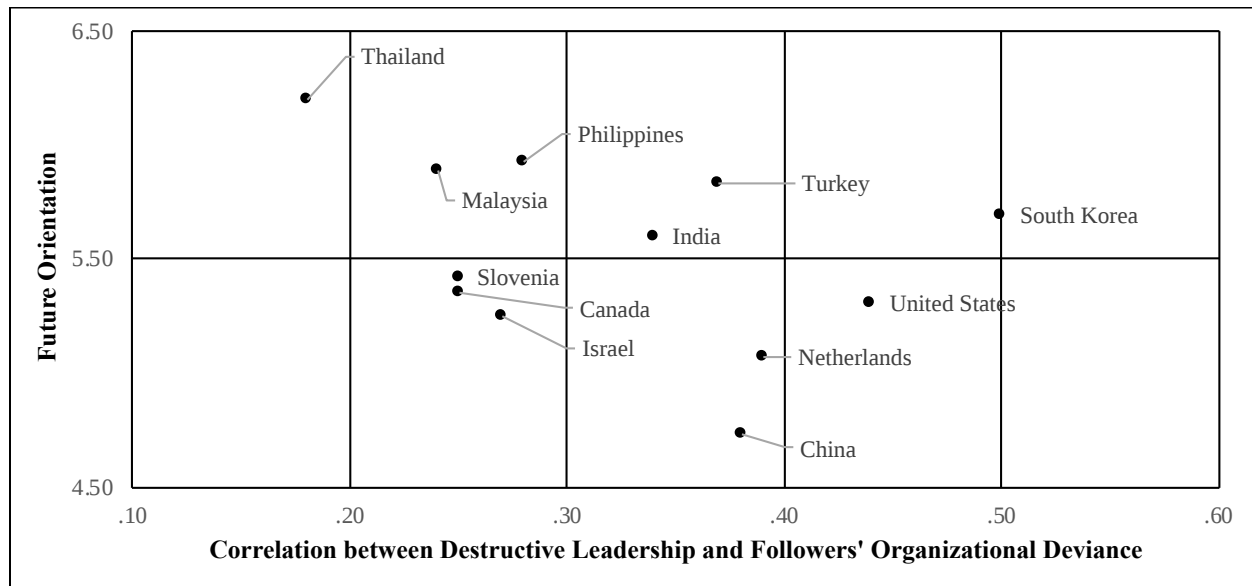


Figure 16. Scatter Plot for Future Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance.

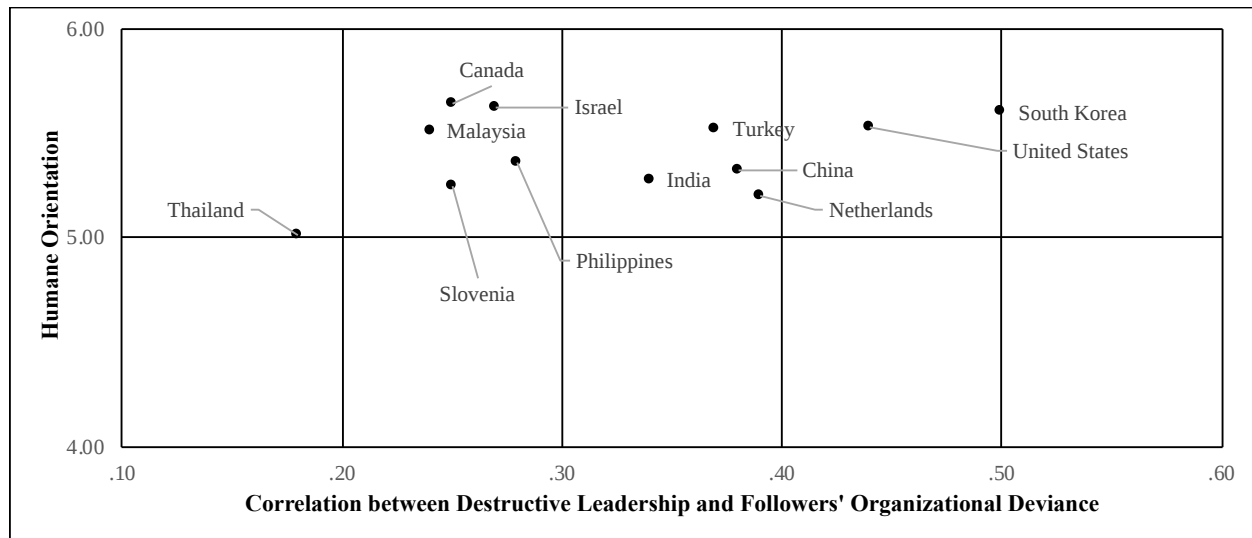


Figure 17. Scatter Plot for Humane Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance.

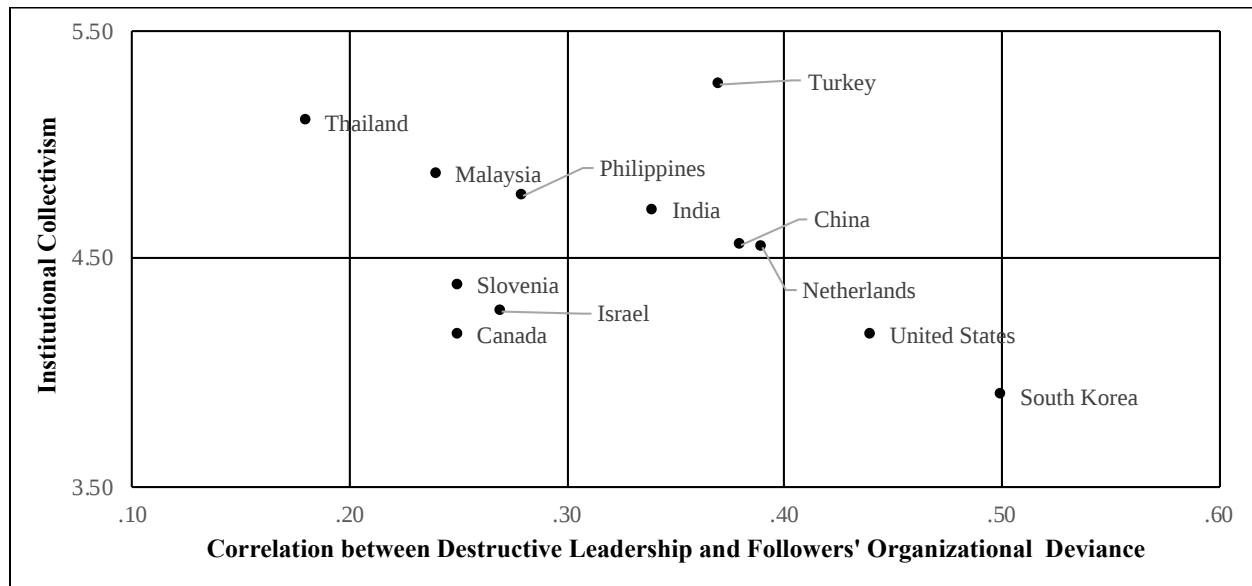


Figure 18. Scatter Plot for Institutional Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance.

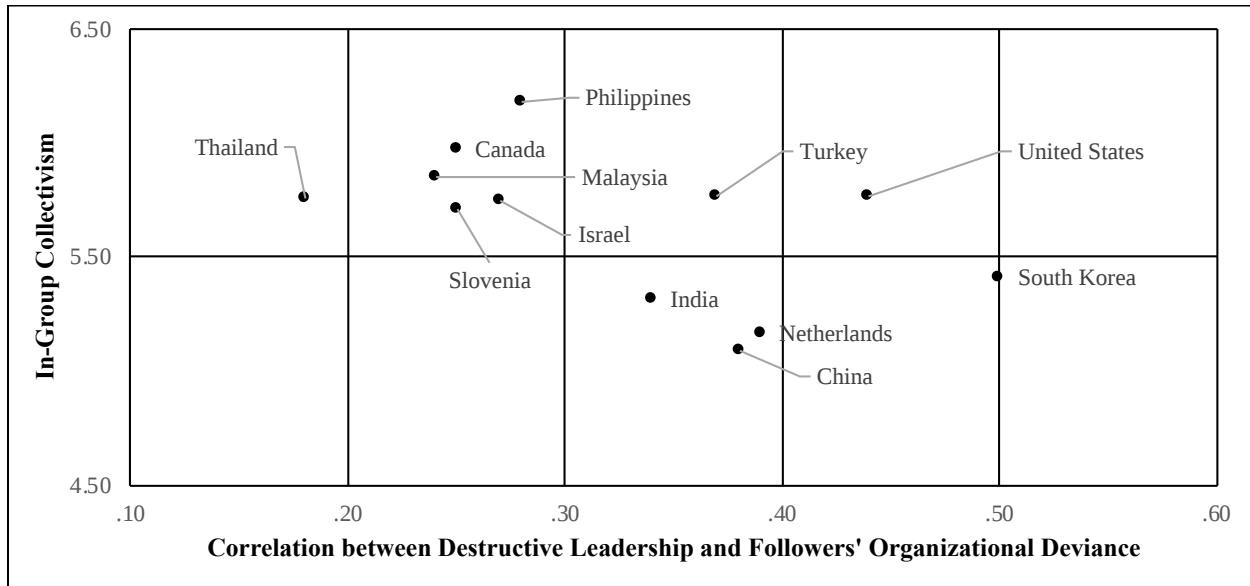


Figure 19. Scatter Plot for In-Group Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance.

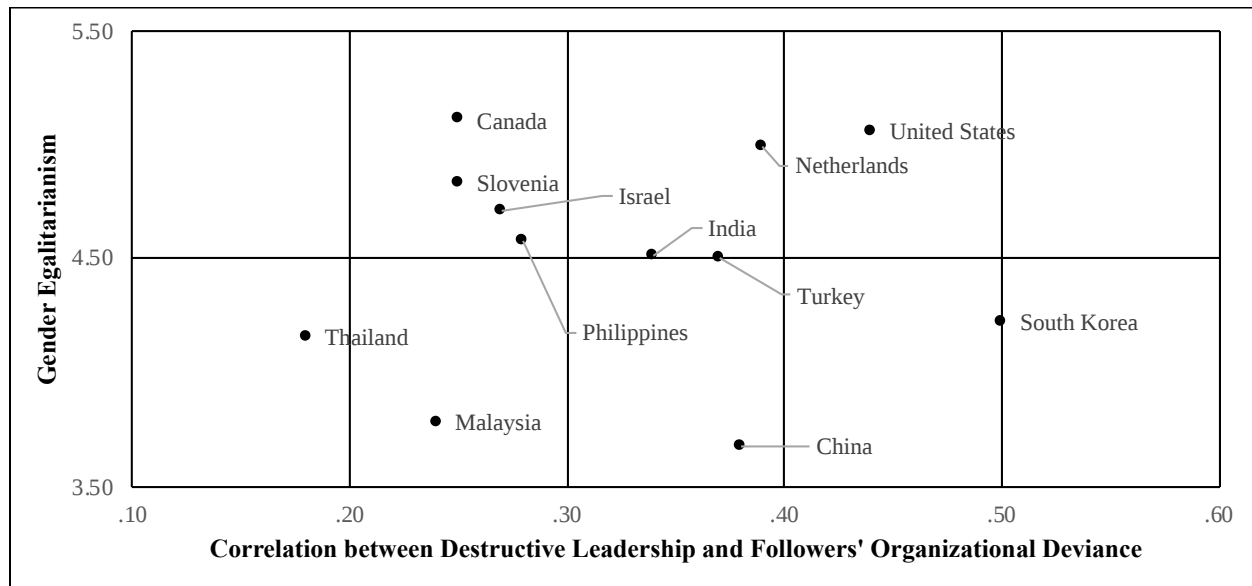


Figure 20. Scatter Plot for Gender Egalitarianism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Followers' Organizational Deviance.

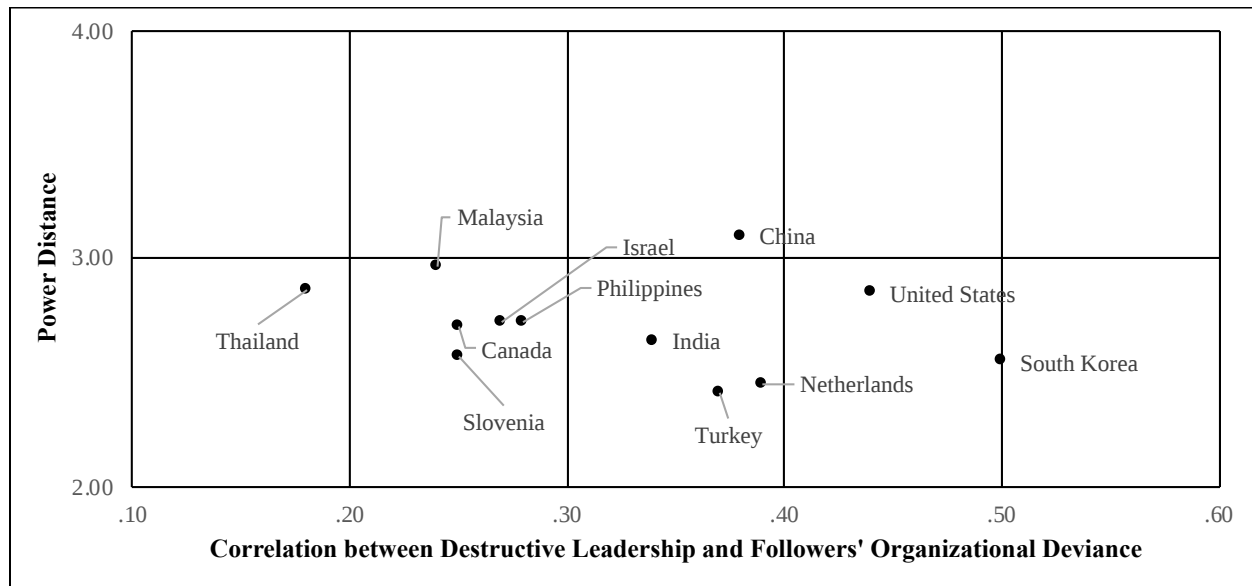


Figure 21. Scatter Plot for Power Distance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance.

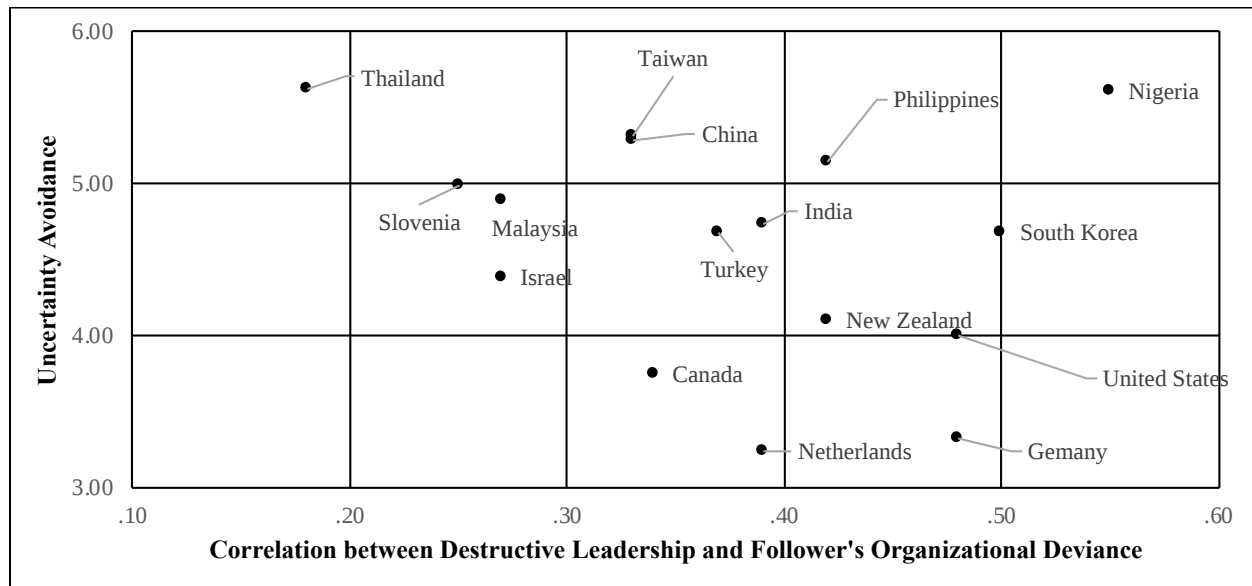


Figure 22. Scatter Plot for Uncertainty Avoidance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Follower's Organizational Deviance.

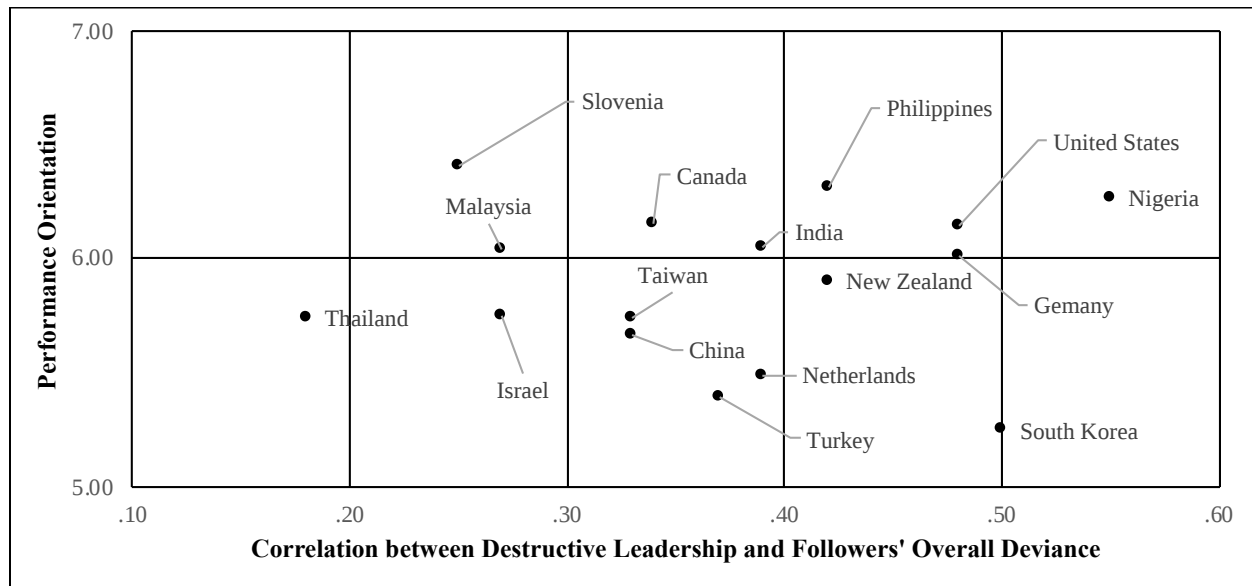


Figure 23. Scatter Plot for Performance Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

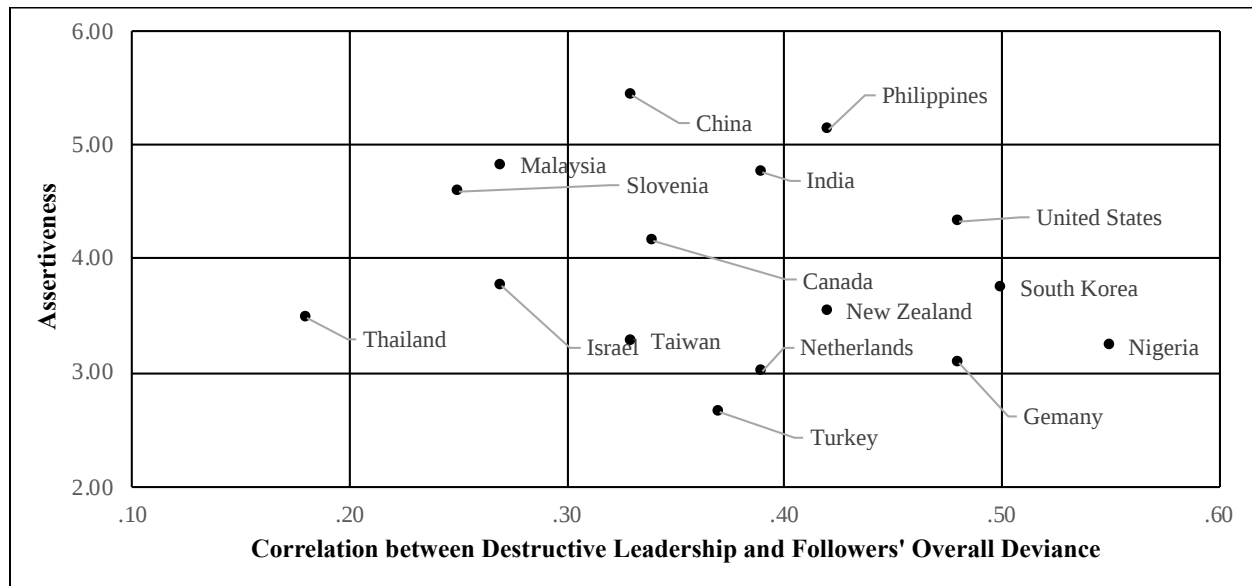


Figure 24. Scatter Plot for Assertiveness and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

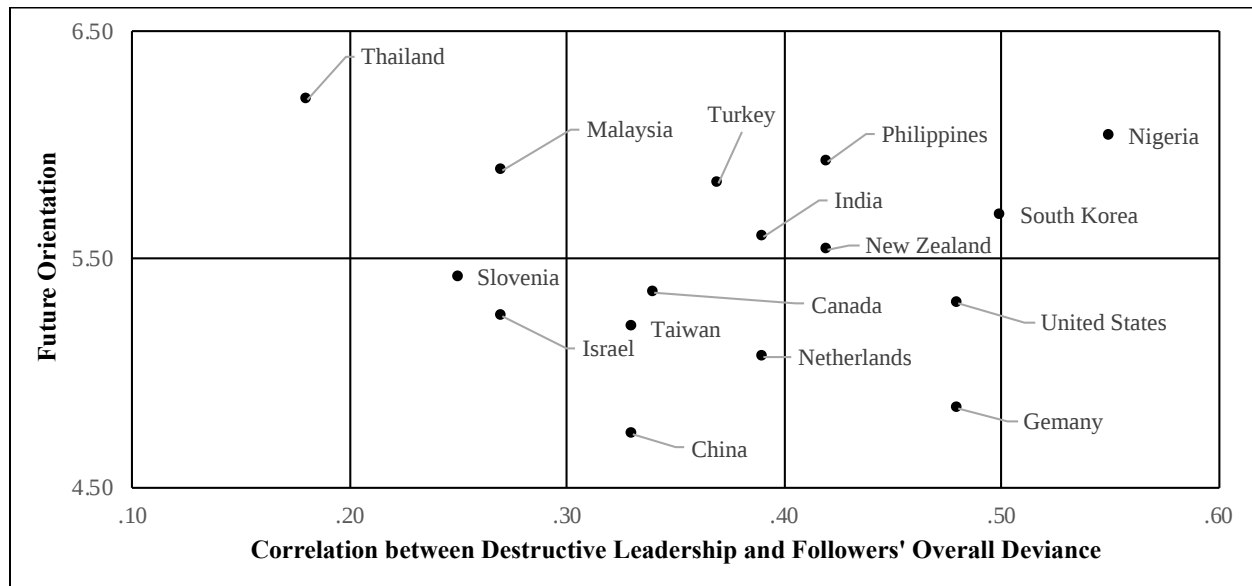


Figure 25. Scatter Plot for Future Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

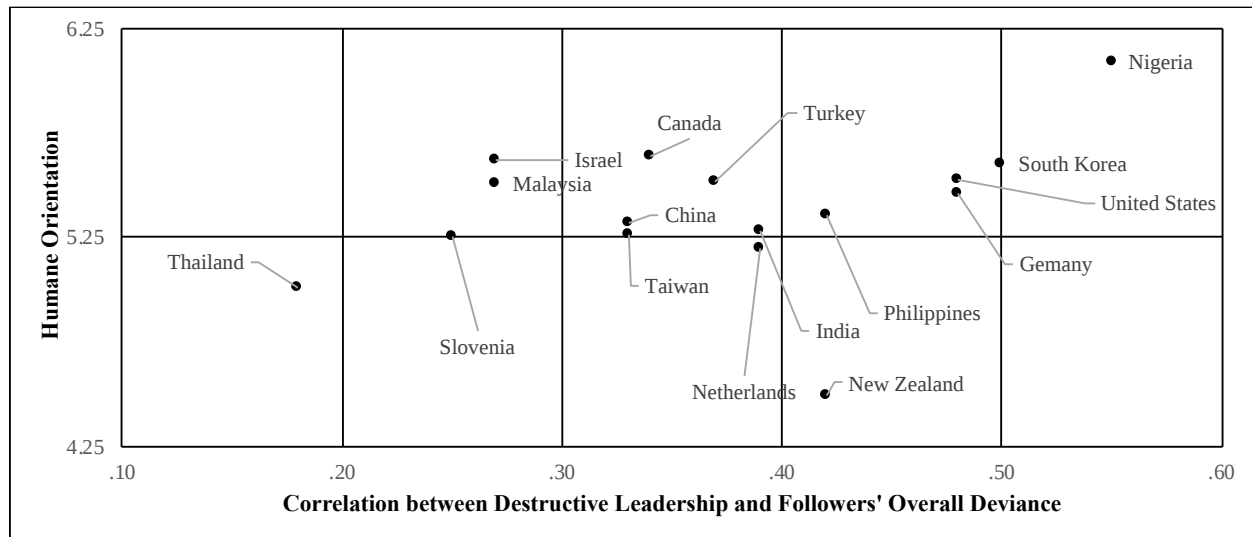


Figure 26. Scatter Plot for Humane Orientation and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

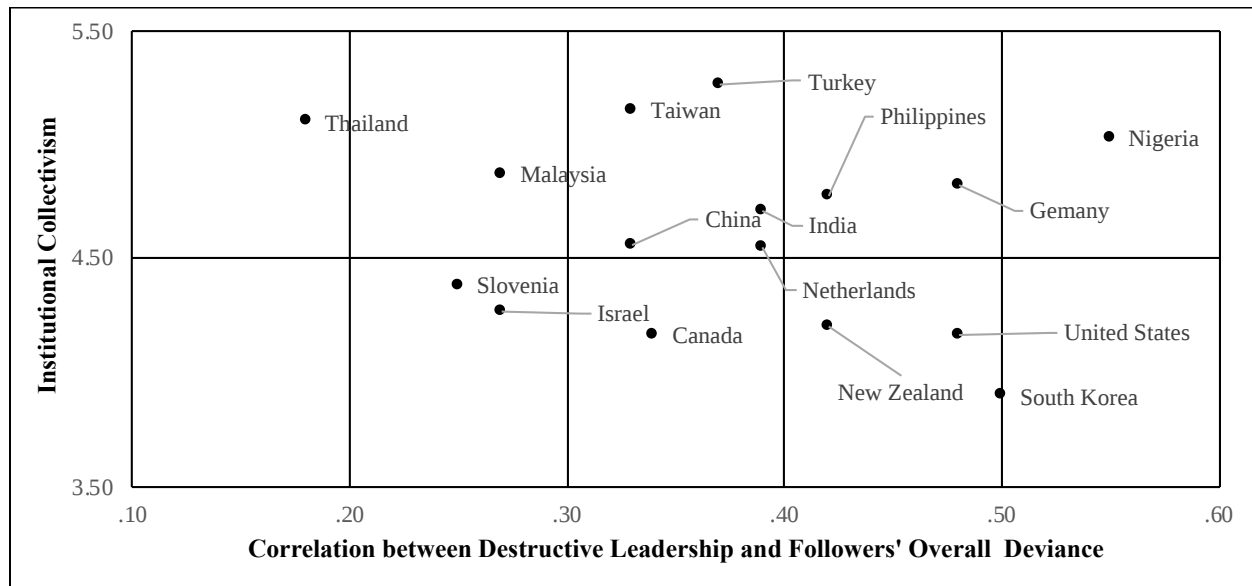


Figure 27. Scatter Plot for Institutional Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

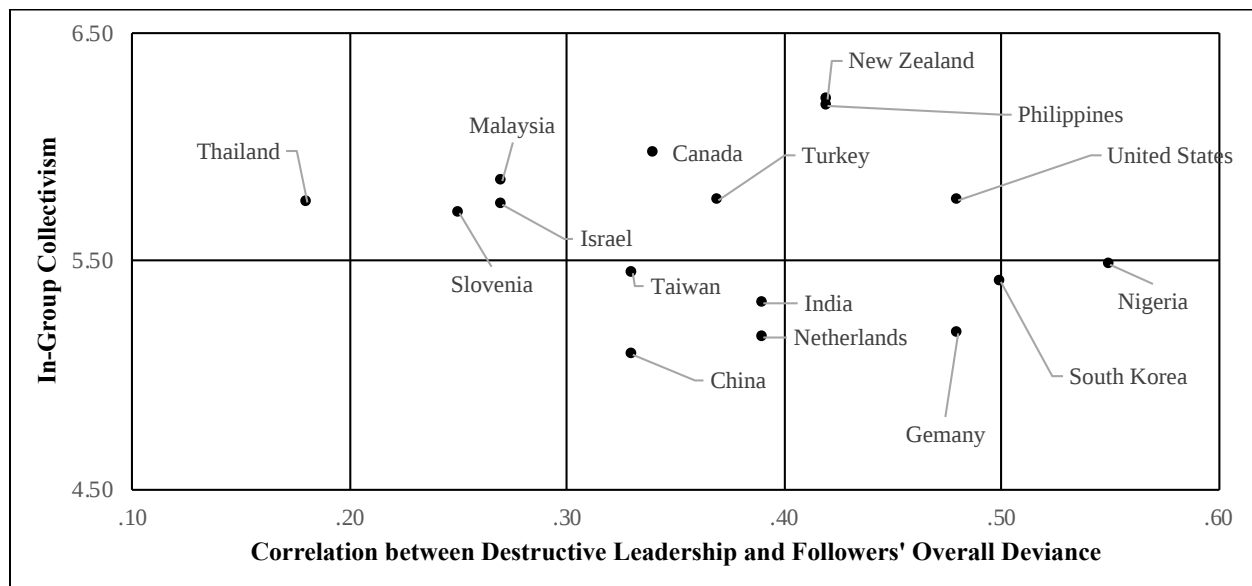


Figure 28. Scatter Plot for In-Group Collectivism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

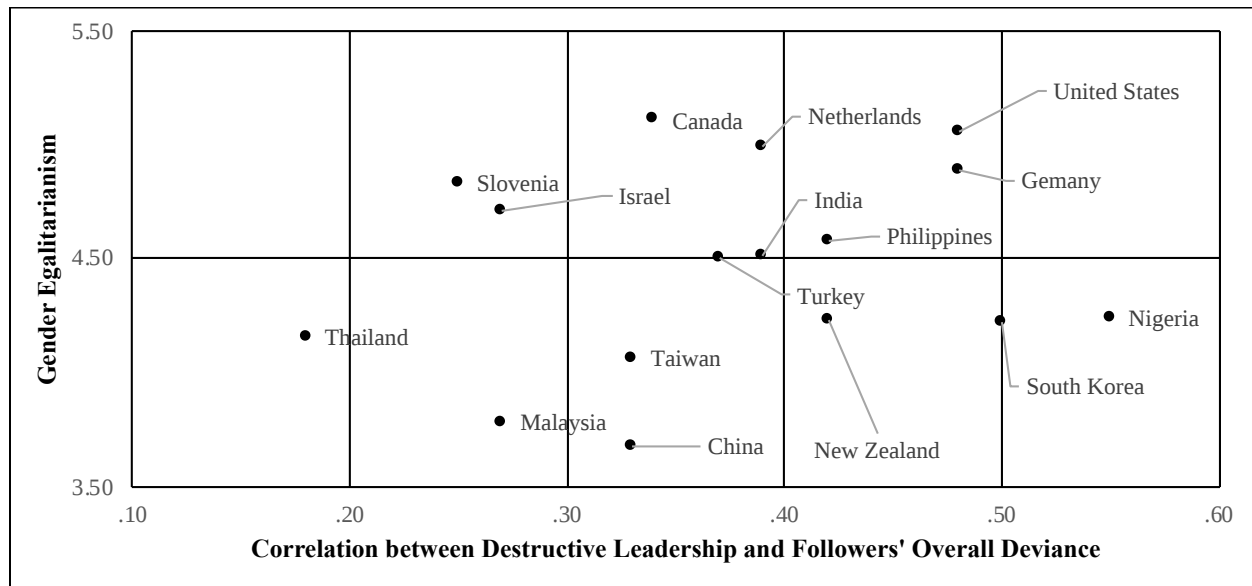


Figure 29. Scatter Plot for Gender Egalitarianism and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

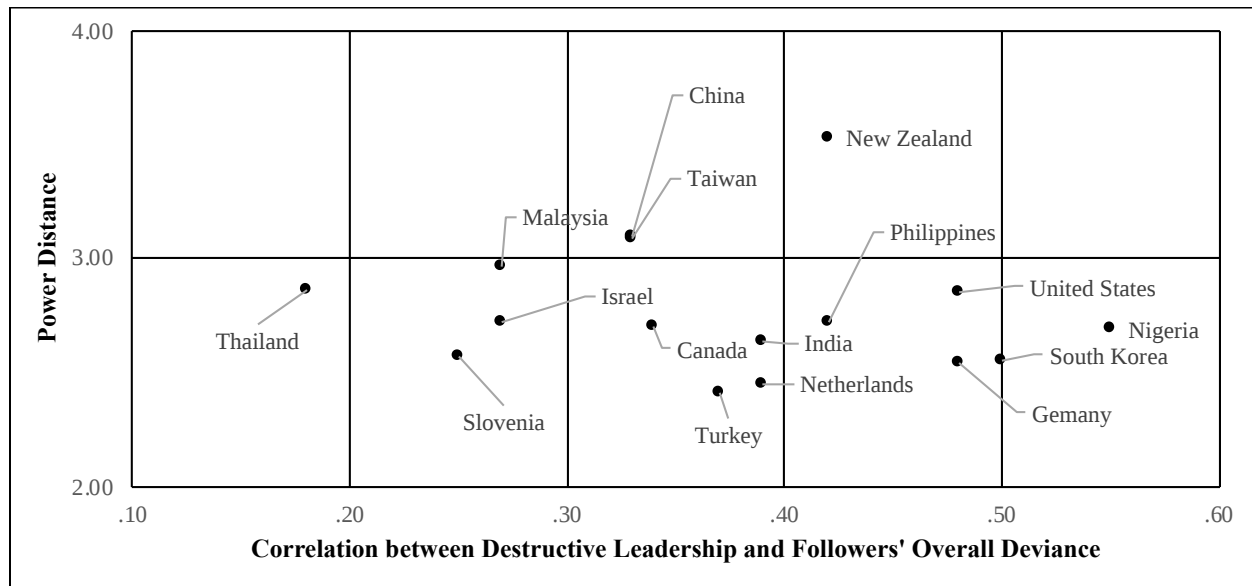


Figure 30. Scatter Plot for Power Distance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

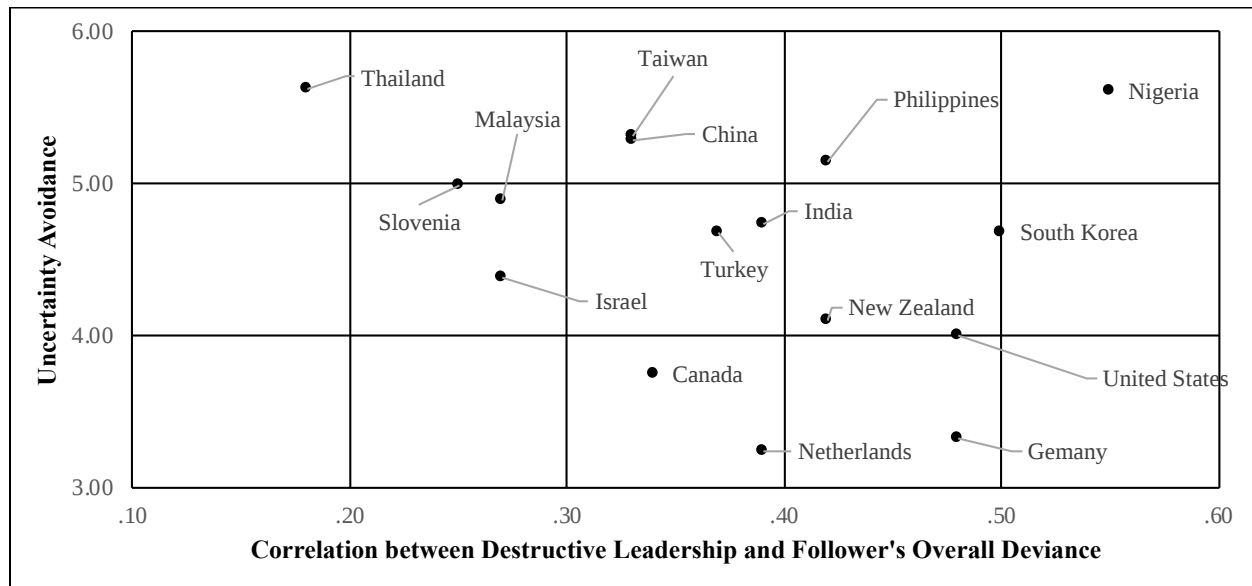


Figure 31. Scatter Plot for Uncertainty Avoidance and the Correlation between Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance.

Supplement A

References for the Primary Studies That Were Included in the Meta-Analyses

- Akram, Z., Li, Y., & Akram, U. (2019). When employees are emotionally exhausted due to abusive supervision. A conservation-of-resources perspective. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(18), 3300-3317.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16183300>
- An, F., & Wang, B. (2016) Abusive supervision and counterproductive work behavior: Moderating effect of negative affectivity. *Journal of Service Science and Management*, 9, 66-73. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/jssm.2016.91009>
- Ball, G. A., Trevino, L. K., & Sims, H. P. (1994). Just and unjust punishment: Influences on subordinate performance and citizenship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(2), 299-322. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256831>
- Bauer, J. A. (2011). *The role of discrete emotions in predicting counterproductive work behavior* [Master's Thesis, University of South Florida]. Graduate Theses and Dissertations.
<https://scholarcommons.usf.edu/etd/3002>
- Belschak, F. D., Muhammad, R. S., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2018). Birds of a feather can butt heads: When Machiavellian employees work with Machiavellian leaders. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 151(3), 613-626. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3251-2>
- Biron, M. (2010). Negative reciprocity and the association between perceived organizational ethical values and organizational deviance. *Human Relations*, 63(6), 875-897.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726709347159>
- Bowling, N. A., Wang, M., Matthews, R. A., Shi, J., & Wang, Q. (2020). Experienced aggression and target-perpetrated deviance: is the relationship linear or non-linear?

- Occupational Health Science*, 4, 287-304. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41542-020-00060-7>
- Bozeman, J. (2016). *Precipitating abusive supervision: Target factors and supervisor blame attributions* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Manitoba].
<http://hdl.handle.net/1993/31844>
- Braun, S., Aydin, N., Frey, D., & Peus, C. (2018). Leader narcissism predicts malicious envy and supervisor-targeted counterproductive work behavior: Evidence from field and experimental research. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 151(3), 725-741.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3224-5>
- Brees, J., Mackey, J., Martinko, M., & Harvey, P. (2014). The mediating role of perceptions of abusive supervision in the relationship between personality and aggression. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 21(4), 403-413.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051813505859>
- Bruursema, K. (2004). *Leadership style and the link with counterproductive work behavior (CWB): An investigation using the job-stress/CWB model* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Florida]. Graduate Theses and Dissertations.
<https://scholarcommons.usf.edu/etd/970>
- Burton, J. P., & Hoobler, J. M. (2011). Aggressive reactions to abusive supervision: The role of interactional justice and narcissism. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 52(4), 389-398.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9450.2011.00886.x>
- Burton, J. P., Hoobler, J. M., & Kernan, M. C. (2011). When research setting is important: The influence of subordinate self-esteem on reactions to abusive supervision. *Organization Management Journal*, 8(3), 139-150. <https://doi.org/10.1057/omj.2011.24>
- Carnevale, J. B., Huang, L., & Harms, P. D. (2018). Leader consultation mitigates the harmful

- effects of leader narcissism: A belongingness perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 146, 76-84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2018.04.003>
- Chen, H. (2011). *Work ethic and workplace behavior: Essays on direct and moderated relationships across national cultures* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Dallas]. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global.
- Chen, S.-C., & Liu, N.-T. (2019). When and how vicarious abusive supervision leads to bystanders' supervisor-directed deviance: A moderated-mediation model. *Personnel Review*, 48(7), 1734-1755. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-09-2018-0368>
- Chi, N.-W., Wang, A.-C., & Farh, C. I. (2016). *Turn the other cheek: The role of morality in promoting prosocial responses to abusive supervision*. Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings, 1-40. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.2016.198>
- Choi, Y., Chu, K., & Choi, E.-J. (2019). Social network services addiction in the workplace. *Journal of Asian Finance, Economics and Business*, 6(1), 249-259. [10.13106/jafeb.2019.vol6.no1.249](https://doi.org/10.13106/jafeb.2019.vol6.no1.249)
- Chu, L. C. (2014). Mediating toxic emotions in the workplace - the impact of abusive supervision. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 22(8), 953-963. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12071>
- Ding, Z., Liu, W., Zhang, G., & Wang, H. (2018). Supervisor narcissism and time theft: Investigating the mediating roles of emotional exhaustion and the moderating roles of attachment style. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02215>
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., Shaw, J. D., Johnson, J. L., & Pagon, M. (2006). The social context of undermining behavior at work. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision*

- Processes*, 101(1), 105-126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2006.04.005>
- Duniewicz, K. (2015). *Don't get mad, get even: How employees abused by their supervisor retaliate against the organization and undermine their spouses* [Doctoral dissertation, Florida International University]. ProQuest ETD Collection for FIU.
<https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/dissertations/AAI3721465>
- Eissa, G., Lester, S. W., & Gupta, R. (2020). Interpersonal deviance and abusive supervision: The mediating role of supervisor negative emotions and the moderating role of subordinate organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 166(3), 577-594. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04130-x>
- Erkutlu, H., & Chafra, J. (2018). Despotic leadership and organizational deviance: The mediating role of organizational identification and the moderating role of value congruence. *Journal of Strategy and Management*, 11(2), 150-165. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JSMA-04-2017-0029>
- Eschleman, K. J., Bowling, N. A., Michel, J. S., & Burns, G. N. (2014). Perceived intent of supervisor as a moderator of the relationships between abusive supervision and counterproductive work behaviours. *Work & Stress*, 28(4), 362-375.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2014.961183>
- Ferris, D. L., Yan, M., Lim, V. K. G., Chen, Y., & Fatimah, S. (2016). An approach-avoidance framework of workplace aggression. *Academy of Management Journal*, 59(5), 1777-1800. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2014.0221>
- Ferris, D. L., Fatimah, S., Yan, M., Liang, L., Huiwen, L., & Brown, D. J. (2019). Being sensitive to positives has its negatives: An approach/avoidance perspective on reactivity to ostracism. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 152(2019), 138-

149. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2019.05.001>

- Frieder, R. E., Mackey, J. D., & Perrewé, P. L. (2014). *Attenuating the negative effects of abusive supervision: Resilience in the face of adversity and punishment to dissuade deviance*. In P. L. Perrewé & P. Spector (Co-Chairs): *Mistreatment in organizations: The role of abusive supervision*. Symposium presented at the Southern Management Association annual meeting in Savannah, Georgia.
- Gardner, D., O'Driscoll, M., Cooper-Thomas, H., Roche, M., Bentley, T., Catley, B., Teo, S., & Trenberth, L. (2016). Predictors of workplace bullying and cyber-bullying in New Zealand. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 13(5), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph13050448>
- Gardner, D., & Rasmussen, W. (2018). Workplace bullying and relationships with health and performance among a sample of New Zealand veterinarians. *New Zealand Veterinary Journal*, 66(2), 57-63. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00480169.2017.1395715>
- Goswami, A., Nair, P. K., & Grossenbacher, M. A. (2015). Impact of aggressive humor on dysfunctional resistance. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 74, 265-269. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.10.037>
- Greenbaum, R. L., Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., & Priesemuth, M. (2013). To act out, to withdraw, or to constructively resist? Employee reactions to supervisor abuse of customers and the moderating role of employee moral identity. *Human Relations*, 66(7), 925-950. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726713482992>
- Greenbaum, R. L., Hill, A., Mawritz, M. B., & Quade, M. J. (2017). Employee Machiavellianism to unethical behavior: The role of abusive supervision as a trait activator. *Journal of Management*, 43(2), 585-609. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314535434>

- Haggard, D. L., & Park, H. M. (2018). Perceived supervisor remorse, abusive supervision, and LMX. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(10), 1252-1267.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2285>
- Halevy, N., Cohen, T. R., Chou, E. Y., Katz, J. J., & Panter, A. T. (2014). Mental models at work: cognitive causes and consequences of conflict in organizations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 40(1), 92-110. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167213506468>
- Hamid, R. A., Juhdi, N. H., Ismail, M. D., & Abdullah, N. A. (2016). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance as moderated by spiritual intelligence: An empirical study of Selangor employees. *Geografia: Malaysian Journal of Society and Space*, 12, 191-202.
- Harvey, P., Harris, K. J., Gillis, W. E., & Martinko, M. J. (2014). Abusive supervision and the entitled employee. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25, 204-217.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.08.001>
- Hussain, I., & Sia, S. K. (2017). Power distance orientation dilutes the effect of abusive supervision on workplace deviance. *Management and Labour Studies*, 42(4), 293-305.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0258042X17731981>
- Hutchinson, D., & Spector, P. (2016). *Overt and covert retaliation against abusive supervision*. Poster presentation at Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology Annual Meeting, 1-22.
- Inness, M., LeBlanc, M. M., & Barling, J. (2008). Psychosocial predictors of supervisor-, peer-, subordinate-, and service-provider-targeted aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(6), 1401-1411. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012810>
- Joo, M. K., & Witt, L. (2015). *Effects of abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion on production deviance*. Poster presentation at Society of Industrial and Organizational

- Psychology Annual Meeting, 1-27.
- Ju, D., Xu, M., Qin, X., & Spector, P. (2019). A multilevel study of abusive supervision, norms, and personal control on counterproductive work behavior: A theory of planned behavior approach. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 26(2), 163-178.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051818806289>
- Kim, Y., Cohen, T. R., & Panter, A. T. (2016). *Cause or consequence? The reciprocal model of counterproductive work behavior and mistreatment*. Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.2016.238>
- Kluemper, D. H., Mossholder, K. W., Ispas, D., Bing, M. N., Iliescu, D., & Ilie, A. (2019). When core self-evaluations influence employees' deviant reactions to abusive supervision: The moderating role of cognitive ability. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 159(2), 435-453.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3800-y>
- Lian, H., Brown, D. J., Ferris, D. L., Liang, L. H., Keeping, L. M., & Morrison, R. (2014). Abusive supervision and retaliation: A self-control framework. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(1), 116-139. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0977>
- Lian, H., Ferris, D. L., & Brown, D. J. (2012). Does power distance exacerbate or mitigate the effects of abusive supervision? It depends on the outcome. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(1), 107-123. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024610>
- Liu, J., Kwan, H. K., Wu, L.-z., & Wu, W. (2010). Abusive supervision and subordinate supervisor-directed deviance: The moderating role of traditional values and the mediating role of revenge cognitions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(4), 835-856. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317909X485216>
- Liu, S., Zhu, Q., & Wei, F. (2019). How abusive supervision affects employees' unethical

- behaviors: a moderated mediation examination of turnover intentions and caring climate. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(21), 1-14.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16214187>
- Mackey, J. D., Brees, J. R., McAllister, C. P., Zorn, M. L., Martinko, M. J., & Harvey, P. (2018a). Victim and culprit? The effects of entitlement and felt accountability on perceptions of abusive supervision and perpetration of workplace bullying. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 153(3), 659-673. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3348-7>
- Mackey, J. D., Frieder, R. E., Perrewé, P. L., Gallagher, V. C., & Brymer, R. A. (2015). Empowered employees as social deviants: The role of abusive supervision. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 30(1), 149-162. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-014-9345-x>
- Mackey, J. D., Huang, L., & He, W. (2020). You abuse and I criticize: An ego depletion and leader–member exchange examination of abusive supervision and destructive voice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 164(3), 579-591. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-4024-x>
- Mackey, J., Kane, R., Perrewé, P., & Gallagher, V. C. (2013). Abusive supervision and the high impact employee: Hurting our most valuable resource. In D. Svyantek & K. Mahoney (Eds.), *Received wisdom, kernels of truth, and boundary conditions in organizational studies (Research in Organizational Sciences)* (pp. 105-119). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Mackey, J. D., McAllister, C. P., & Alexander, K. C. (2021b). Insubordination: Validation of a measure and an examination of insubordinate responses to unethical supervisory treatment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 168, 755-775. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04231-7>
- Martinko, M. J., Mackey, J. D., Moss, S. E., Harvey, P., McAllister, C. P., & Brees, J. R. (2018).

- An exploration of the role of subordinate affect in leader evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 103(7), 738-752. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000302>
- Mawritz, M. B., Dust, S. B., & Resick, C. J. (2014). Hostile climate, abusive supervision, and employee coping: Does conscientiousness matter? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(4), 737-747. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035863>
- Mawritz, M. B., Greenbaum, R. L., Butts, M. M., & Graham, K. A. (2017). I just can't control myself: A self-regulation perspective on the abuse of deviant employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, 60(4), 1482-1503. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2014.0409>
- Mayer, D. M., Thau, S., Workman, K. M., Dijke, M. V., & Cremer, D. D. (2012). Leader mistreatment, employee hostility, and deviant behaviors: Integrating self-uncertainty and thwarted needs perspectives on deviance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 117(1), 24-40. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2011.07.003>
- McAllister, C. P., & Mackey, J. D. (2014). *Workplace reactions to perceptions of abusive supervision: The role of self-regulation*. In P. L. Perrewé & P. Spector (Co-Chairs): Mistreatment in organizations: The role of abusive supervision. Symposium presented at the Southern Management Association annual meeting in Savannah, Georgia.
- McAllister, C. P., & Perrewé, P. L. (2018). About to burst: How state self-regulation affects the enactment of bullying behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 153(3), 877-888. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3424-z>
- Michel, J. S., Newness, K., & Duniewicz, K. (2016). How abusive supervision affects workplace deviance: A moderated-mediation examination of aggressiveness and work-related negative affect. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 31(1), 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-015-9400-2>

- Mitchell, M. S. (2006). *Understanding employees' behavioral reactions to aggression in organizations* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Central Florida]. Electronic Theses and Dissertations. <https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd/848>
- Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1159-1168. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1159>
- Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2012). Employees' behavioral reactions to supervisor aggression: An examination of individual and situational factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(6), 1148-1170. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029452>
- Mitchell, M. S., Vogel, R. M., & Folger, R. (2015). Third parties' reactions to the abusive supervision of coworkers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(4), 1040-1055. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000002>
- Naeem, M., Weng, Q.(D)., Ali, A., & Hameed, Z. (2020). An eye for an eye: Does subordinates' negative workplace gossip lead to supervisor abuse? *Personnel Review*, 49(1), 284-302. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-05-2018-0174>
- Nandkeolayar, A. K., O'Reilly, J., Ekkirala, S., & Srivastava, N. K. (2016). Whose deviance provokes abuse? Role of social skills and self-evaluations in abusive supervision. Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings, 1-40.
- Nixon, A. E. (2011). *Charting a semantic jungle: A novel method for examining the moderators of workplace aggression* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Florida]. Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering.
- Nwani, E. B., Ofoke, M. S., Eze, E. O., & Udechukwu, D. C. (2018). Abusive supervision and work tension as predictors of counterproductive work behaviour among Nigerian

- police. *Journal of Psychology and Sociological Studies*, 1(1), 42-61.
<https://www.journals.aphriapub.com/index.php/JPSS/article/view/50>
- Ogunfowora, B. (2009). *The consequences of ethical leadership: comparisons with transformational leadership and abusive supervision* [Unpublished doctoral thesis]. University of Calgary, Calgary, AB. <https://doi.org/10.11575/PRISM/3157>
- Park, J., & Kim, H.J. (2019). How and when does abusive supervision affect hospitality employees' service sabotage? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 83, 190-197. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.10.014>
- Peng, A. C. (2013). *Psychological mechanisms linking direct and vicarious experiences of abusive supervision to employee deviance* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Michigan State University.
- Peng, A. C., M. Schaubroeck, J., Chong, S., & Li, Y. (2019). Discrete emotions linking abusive supervision to employee intention and behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 72(3), 393-419. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12310>
- Peng, Y., Xu, X., & Matthews R. (2020). Older and less deviant reactions to abusive supervision? A moderated mediation model of age and cognitive reappraisal. *Work, Aging and Retirement*, 6(3), 195-205. <https://doi.org/10.1093/workar/waaa006>
- Potipiroon, W., & Ford, M. T. (2019). Relational costs of status: Can the relationship between supervisor incivility, perceived support, and follower outcomes be exacerbated? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 92(4), 873-896. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12263>
- Pradhan, S., & Jena, L. K. (2019). Getting even: A study of abusive supervision, workplace deviance and intention to quit in Indian entrepreneurial organizations. *South Asian*

- Journal of Business Studies*, 8(3), 332-347. <https://doi.org/10.1108/SAJBS-06-2018-0072>
- Raver, J. L. (2004). *Behavioral outcomes of interpersonal aggression at work: A mediated and moderated model* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland]. UMD Theses and Dissertations.
- Restubog, S. L. D., Scott, K. L., & Zagenczyk, T. J. (2011). When distress hits home: The role of contextual factors and psychological distress in predicting employees' responses to abusive supervision. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(4), 713-729. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021593>
- Richard, O. C., Boncoeur, O. D., Chen, H., & Ford, D. L. (2020). Supervisor abuse effects on subordinate turnover intentions and subsequent interpersonal aggression: The role of power-distance orientation and perceived human resource support climate. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 164, 549-563. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-4019-7>
- Schmid, E. A., Verdorfer, A. P., & Peus, C. (2019). Shedding light on leaders' self-interest: theory and measurement of exploitative leadership. *Journal of Management*, 45(4), 1401-1433. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206317707810>
- Shao, P., Resick, C. J., & Hargis, M. B. (2011). Helping and harming others in the workplace: The roles of personal values and abusive supervision. *Human Relations*, 64(8), 1051-1078. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726711399940>
- Shillamkwese, S. S., Tariq, H., Obaid, A., Weng, Q., & Garavan, T. N. (2020). It's not me, it's you: Testing a moderated mediation model of subordinate deviance and abusive supervision through the self-regulatory perspective. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 29, 227- 243. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/beer.12245>
- Shoss, M. K., Eisenberger, R., Restubog, S. L. D., & Zagenczyk, T. J. (2013). Blaming the

- organization for abusive supervision: The roles of perceived organizational support and supervisor's organizational embodiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(1), 158-168.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030687>
- Simon, L. S., Hurst, C., Kelley, K., & Judge, T. A. (2015). Understanding cycles of abuse: A multimotive approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(6), 1798-1810.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000031>
- Steinert, J. K. (2015). *Workplace aggression: A reconceptualization of the construct & an exploration of strain based outcomes* [Doctoral dissertation, Florida International University]. FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations.
- Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Breaux, D. M., Geider, S., Hu, C., & Hua, W. (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 109(2), 156-167.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2009.03.004>
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D. (2001). Personality moderators of the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' resistance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 974-983. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.5.974>
- Tepper, B. J., Henle, C. A., Lambert, L. S., Giacalone, R. A., & Duffy, M. K. (2008). Abusive supervision and subordinates' organization deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4), 721-732. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.4.721>
- Thau, S., Bennett, R. J., Mitchell, M. S., & Marrs, M. B. (2009). How management style moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and workplace deviance: An uncertainty management theory perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108(1), 79-92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2008.06.003>

- Thau, S., & Mitchell, M. S. (2010). Self-gain or self-regulation impairment? Tests of competing explanations of the supervisor abuse and employee deviance relationship through perceptions of distributive justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(6), 1009-1031. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020540>
- Thoroughgood, C. N., Tate, B. W., Sawyer, K. B., & Jacobs, R. (2012). Bad to the bone: Empirically defining and measuring destructive leader behavior. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 19(2), 230-255. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811436327>
- Valle, M., Kacmar, K. M., Zivnuska, S., & Harting, T. (2019). Abusive supervision, leader-member exchange, and moral disengagement: A moderated-mediation model of organizational deviance. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 159(3), 299-312. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2018.1466776>
- Vogel, R. M., & Mitchell, M. S. (2017). The motivational effects of diminished self-esteem for employees who experience abusive supervision. *Journal of Management*, 43(7), 2218-2251. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314566462>
- Walsh, B. M., Matthews, R. A., Toumbeva, T. H., Kabat-Farr, D., Philbrick, J., & Pavisic, I. (2019). Failing to be family-supportive: Implications for supervisors. *Journal of Management*, 45(7), 2952-2977. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318774621>
- Wang, R., & Jiang, J. (2014). How narcissistic employees respond to abusive supervision: Two roles of narcissism in decreasing perception and increasing deviance. *Psychological Reports*, 115(2), 372-380. <https://doi.org/10.2466/01.21.PR0.115c22z2>
- Wang, W., Mao, J., Wu, W., & Liu, J. (2012). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance: The mediating role of interactional justice and the moderating role of power distance. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 50(1), 43-60. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744->

- Watkins, T., Fehr, R., & He, W. (2019). Whatever it takes: Leaders' perceptions of abusive supervision instrumentality. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 30(2), 260-272.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2018.09.002>
- Wei, F., & Si, S. (2013). Tit for tat? Abusive supervision and counterproductive work behaviors: The moderating effects of locus of control and perceived mobility. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 30(1), 281-296. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-011-9251-y>
- Wu, X., Kwan, H. K., Ma, Y., Lai, G., & Yim, F. H.-K. (2020). Lone wolves reciprocate less deviance: A moral identity model of abusive supervision. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 31(7), 859-885.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2017.1384929>
- Yoo, J., & Frankwick, G. (2013). Exploring the impact of social undermining on salesperson deviance: An integrated model. *The Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 33(1), 79-90. <https://doi.org/10.2753/PSS0885-3134330107>
- Zhang, Y., Liu, X., & Chen, W. (2020). Fight and flight: A contingency model of third parties' approach-avoidance reactions to peer abusive supervision. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 35, 767-782. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-019-09650-x>

Supplement B

References for the Studies That Were Excluded from the Meta-Analyses

- Ahmad, J., Athar, M. R., Azam, R. I., Hamstra, M. R. W., & Hanif, M. (2019). A resource perspective on abusive supervision and extra-role behaviors: The role of subordinates' psychological capital. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 26(1), 73-86. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051818767391>
- Ali, S. A., Ali Sair, S., Mehta, A. M., Naqvi, F. N., & Saleem, H. (2020). Impact of organizational cynicism and abusive supervisor behavior on work place deviance. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 19(5), 1-10. <https://www.abacademies.org/articles/impact-of-organizational-cynicism-and-abusive-supervisor-behavior-on-work-place-deviance-9570.html>
- Camps, J., Stouten, J., Euwema, M., & De Cremer, D. (2020). Abusive supervision as a response to follower hostility: A moderated mediation model. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 164, 495-514. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-4058-0>
- De Clercq, D., Haq, I. U., & Azeem, M. U. (2020). When does job dissatisfaction lead to deviant behaviour? The critical roles of abusive supervision and adaptive humour. *Australian Journal of Management*, 45(2), 294-316. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0312896219877679>
- Decoster, S., Camps, J., & Stouten, J. (2014). The mediating role of LMX between abusive supervision and work behaviors. *American Journal of Business*, 29(1), 61-75. <https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/AJB-06-2013-0038/full/html>
- Haider, S., Nisar, Q., Baig, F., Azeem, M., & Waseem-ul-Hameed (2018). Dark side of leadership: Employees' job stress & deviant behaviors in pharmaceutical industry. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Research & Allied Sciences*, 7(2), 125-138.

<https://ijpras.com/article/dark-side-of-leadership-employees-job-stress-deviant-behaviors-in-pharmaceutical-industry>

Kluemper, D. H., Mossholder, K. W., Ispas, D., Bing, M. N., Iliescu, D., & Ilie, A. (2019). When core self-evaluations influence employees' deviant reactions to abusive supervision: The moderating role of cognitive ability. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 159(2), 435-453.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3800-y>

Malik, S., Bakri, N., Ajmal, M., & Malik, B. (2019a). Impact of breach of psychological contract on workplace deviant behavior moderating role of procedural justice among employees of Pakistan. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 9(2), 721–733. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v9-i2/5610>

Malik, M. S., Sattar, S., Younas, S., & Nawaz, M. K. (2019b). The workplace deviance perspective of employee responses to workplace bullying: The moderating effect of toxic leadership and mediating effect of emotional exhaustion. *Review of Integrative Business and Economics Research*, 8(1), 33-50.
https://sibresearch.org/uploads/3/4/0/9/34097180/riber_8-1_m18-024_33-50.pdf

Raza, B., Ahmed, A., Zubair, S., & Moueed, A. (2019). Linking workplace deviance and abusive supervision: Moderating role of positive psychological capital. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership*, 8, 95-111. <https://doi.org/10.33844/ijol.2020.60472>

Samreen, F., Amir Rashid, M., & Hussain, G. (in press). Effect of abusive supervision on subordinates' discretionary behaviors. *Journal of Management & Organization*.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2019.57>

Sulea, C., Fine, S., Fischmann, G., Sava, F. A., & Dumitru, C. (2013). Abusive supervision and counterproductive work behaviors: The moderating effects of personality. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 12(4), 196-200. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000097>

Supplement C

Codes and Input Values Excluded for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Interpersonal Deviance

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Interpersonal Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Ahmad et al. (2019)	Pakistan	408	.21	.53	.90
Camps et al. (2018) Study 1	Belgium	122	.38*	.94	.95
Decoster et al. (2018) Study 2	Belgium	114	.25	.93	.87
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 3	Romania	281	.26*	.86	.85
Raza et al. (2019)	Pakistan	301	.30	.71	.76
Samreen et al. (2019)	Pakistan	920	.41*	.84	.80

Note. n = number of respondents. r = zero-order bivariate correlation between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. α = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate. * = composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate.

Supplement D

Codes and Input Values Excluded for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Organizational Deviance

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Organizational Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Ahmad et al. (2019)	Pakistan	408	.26	.57	.90
Ali et al. (2020)	Pakistan	220	.57	.84**	.93**
Haider et al (2018) Time 1	Pakistan	370	.57*	.76	.88
Haider et al (2018) Time 2	Pakistan	370	.57*	.79	.91
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 3	Romania	281	.08	.87	.85
Malik et al. (2019a)	Pakistan	306	.65	.96	.88
Raza et al. (2019)	Pakistan	301	.28	.71	.76
Sulea et al. (2013)	Romania	236	.46	.93	.85

Note. n = number of respondents. r = zero-order bivariate correlation between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. α = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate. * = composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate.

Supplement E

Codes and Input Values Excluded for the Meta-Analyses for Destructive Leadership and Overall Deviance

Author(s)	Nationality	Sample Size (n)	r	Organizational Deviance α	Destructive Leadership α
Ahmad et al. (2019)	Pakistan	408	.27*	.69	.90
Ali et al. (2020)	Pakistan	220	.57	.84**	.93**
Camps et al. (2018) Study 1	Belgium	122	.38*	.94	.95
De Clercq et al. (2020)	Pakistan	221	.11*	.89	.91
Decoster et al. (2018) Study 2	Belgium	114	.25	.93	.87
Haider et al (2018) Time 1	Pakistan	370	.57*	.76	.88
Haider et al (2018) Time 2	Pakistan	370	.57*	.79	.91
Kluemper et al. (2019) Study 3	Romania	281	.21*	.91	.85
Malik et al. (2019a)	Pakistan	306	.65	.96	.88
Malik et al. (2019b)	Pakistan	262	.25*	.75	.84
Raza et al. (2019)	Pakistan	301	.36*	.79	.76
Samreen et al. (2019)	Pakistan	920	.41*	.84	.80
Sulea et al. (2013)	Romania	236	.46	.93	.85

Note. n = number of respondents. r = zero-order bivariate correlation between destructive leadership and followers' organizational deviance. α = Cronbach's alpha internal consistency estimate. * = composite. ** = median alpha estimate instead of study-specific alpha estimate.