

The Mechanisms and Work Group Context in the Victimization of High Performers

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
BY

Yui Jin Eugene Kim

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Theresa M. Glomb, Adviser

May, 2012

© Yui Jin Eugene Kim 2012

Acknowledgements

I am forever grateful to Dr. Theresa Glomb for her invaluable support and guidance throughout my graduate study. It was a real blessing to have Theresa as my advisor. The talents, consideration, and integrity that I learned from her will continue to influence me throughout the rest of my academic life. I would also like to express my gratitude to other dissertation committee members: Professors Michelle Duffy, Joyce Bono, Paul Sackett, and Pri Shah, for their constructive and insightful comments. I would like to extend my appreciation to my fellow doctoral students at the Work and Organizations Department for their friendship and willingness to create a positive department climate. In particular, I would like to thank my officemate, David Yoon, for his intellectual and social support.

I gratefully acknowledge the SHRM Foundation and the Academy of Management HR Division for the dissertation grant award; the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology for the graduate student scholarship; and the University of Minnesota for the doctoral dissertation fellowship award.

I would like to thank my parents, Sang Eun Kim, Ok Ja Yoon, Hyun Bok Kim, and Sun Bun Seo, for their love, prayer, and spiritual support. I would also like to thank my wife, Sun Kyung Kim and my son, Brian Juwon Kim. Their love and encouragement have always been a constant source of happiness and strength in my life.

Finally, and most importantly, I would like to say “Thank You Lord” for all that You have done for me and for Your guidance and plan throughout my life.

Abstract

This study develops and tests a social context model of the victimization of high performing employees with a focus on (1) unfavorable social comparison mechanisms that occur between high performers and other fellow employees and (2) work group contextual factors that may exacerbate or mitigate these social comparison mechanisms. Multisource data collected at two time points support the proposition that high performers are more likely to be targets of victimization because of unintentional instigations (i.e., fellow group members' envy and competition), but not because of intentional instigations (i.e., high performers' condescending behaviors). Next, this study generally supports the proposition that collective identity and justice climate mitigate unfavorable social comparison mechanisms and high performance victim phenomenon whereas climate of concern for employees, social interaction, and transformational leadership did not mitigate these phenomena.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	iv
List of Figures	v
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Chapter 2: Selected Literature Review of Workplace Victimization	6
Chapter 3: Mechanisms Linking Task Performance and Victimization	13
Envy and Competition by Perpetrators	13
Condescension by Victims	18
Chapter 4: Contextual Moderators	20
Collective Identity	21
Overall Justice Climate	23
Climate of Concern for Employees	27
Social Interaction	29
Transformational Leadership	31
Chapter 5: Method	35
Procedures and Participants	35
Measures	38
Chapter 6: Results	47
Mediation Tests	47
Moderated-Mediation Tests	49
Supplemental Tests	65
Chapter 7: Discussion	66
A Brief Recap of Study Findings	66
Theoretical Implications	66
Practical Implications	72
Limitations and Future Directions	73
Tables and Figures	78
References	117
Appendix I: Supplemental Results	150
Appendix II: A Moderated-Mediation Equation	159
Appendix III: Surveys	160

List of Tables

Table 1: Sample Characteristics.....	78
Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations.....	79
Table 3: Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators	80
Table 4: Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization.....	81
Table 5: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Collective Identity as the Moderator	82
Table 6: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Collective Identity as the Moderator	83
Table 7: Analysis of Simple Effects with Collective Identity (CI) as the Moderator.....	84
Table 8: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Overall Justice Climate as the Moderator	85
Table 9: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Overall Justice Climate as the Moderator.....	86
Table 10: Analysis of Simple Effects with Overall Justice Climate (OJC) as the Moderator.....	87
Table 11: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Climate of Concern for Employees as the Moderator	88
Table 12: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Climate of Concern for Employees as the Moderator	89
Table 13: Analysis of Simple Effects with Climate of Concern for Employees (CCE) as the Moderator.....	90
Table 14: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Social Interaction as the Moderator	91
Table 15: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Social Interaction as the Moderator	92
Table 16: Analysis of Simple Effects with Social Interaction (SI) as the Moderator.....	93
Table 17: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Transformational Leadership as the Moderator	94
Table 18: Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Transformational Leadership as the Moderator	95
Table 19: Analysis of Simple Effects with Transformational Leadership (TFL) as the Moderator.....	96

List of Figures

Figure 1: Research Model.....	97
Figure 2: Summary of Moderated-Mediation Results	98
Figure 3: Moderating Role of Collective Identity on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Envy as the Mediator.....	99
Figure 4: Moderating Role of Collective Identity on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator	100
Figure 5: Moderating Role of Collective Identity on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Contempt as the Mediator	102
Figure 6: Moderating Role of Overall Justice Climate on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Envy as the Mediator.....	103
Figure 7: Moderating Role of Overall Justice Climate on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator	105
Figure 8: Moderating Role of Overall Justice Climate on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Contempt as the Mediator	106
Figure 9: Moderating Role of Climate of Concern for Employees on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Envy as the Mediator.....	108
Figure 10: Moderating Role of Climate of Concern for Employees on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator	109
Figure 11: Moderating Role of Climate of Concern for Employees on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Contempt as the Mediator	110
Figure 12: Moderating Role of Social Interaction on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator	112
Figure 13: Moderating Role of Social Interaction on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Contempt as the Mediator	113
Figure 14: Moderating Role of Transformational Leadership on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Envy as the Mediator	114
Figure 15: Moderating Role of Transformational Leadership on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator.....	115
Figure 16: Moderating Role of Transformational Leadership on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Contempt as the Mediator	116

Chapter 1: Introduction

Do high performers experience more victimization at work? At first glance, this question seems unreasonable because high performers are more likely to be recognized as talented or as star players and significantly influence group or organizational performance (see Cappelli, 2000; Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001; Randall, 1987; Sturman, Trevor, Boudreau, & Gerhart, 2003). But on second glance, the desirable characteristics of high performing employees may precipitate victimization because of unfavorable social comparison between high performers and their fellow coworkers (see Festinger, 1954). Undoubtedly, an organization must understand victimization that occurs to any of its employees. However, one might argue that an organization should be particularly interested in the victimization of high performers. Such victimization can be especially debilitating to the organization because it hurts the well-being and productivity of these high performers, which subsequently results in their higher turnover and lower work group and organizational performance (see Aquino & Thau, 2009; Glomb, 2002; Sutton, 2007). Furthermore, the existence of high performing victims may undermine the very human resource practices (e.g., recruitment and selection, training and development, and motivation) that organizations utilize to promote employee task performance, and to enhance organizational performance (see Ployhart & Moliterno, 2011). Thus, it is important to examine the relationship between task performance and workplace victimization.

However, this question has received scant research attention. Previous workplace victimization literature has examined the person- and situation-based antecedents (e.g., negative affectivity, work constraints), the negative psychological and physiological

consequences (e.g. depression, physical symptoms), and the prevention and coping strategies (e.g., forgiveness, alcohol consumption) of workplace victimization (see Chapter 2: Selected literature review of workplace victimization for more information). One exception to the lack of research on task performance and workplace victimization is a study by Kim and Glomb (2010). They proposed and found support for the idea that high-cognitive-ability employees experience more workplace victimization, positing that higher victimization occurred because of unintentional (i.e., envy and competition by fellow employees) and intentional (i.e., condescending behaviors by high performers) instigations. They also suggested that the victim's personality traits moderate the relationship between cognitive ability and victimization; at the individual level, agency personality traits (i.e., self-oriented) strengthen the relationship, whereas communion personality traits (i.e., group-oriented) weaken the relationship. In a second exception by Lam, Van der Vegt, Walter, and Huang (2011) that draws on social comparison theory, upward performance comparison was positively related to interpersonal harming behaviors against high performers when the perpetrators expected low future performance relative to the high performer and when the work group had less cooperative goals. Popular press has concurred that high performers are more likely to experience victimization because of envy and competition from coworkers, and suggests the high performers' victimization has a negative impact on a number of outcomes including well-being, productivity, turnover, and organizational performance (see Bruzzese, 2002; Namie & Namie, 2002; Sutton, 2007).

Building on this body of research and anecdotal evidence which imply high performers may be more prone to victimization, I address the victimization of high

performers by drawing on the victim precipitation model and social comparison theory. In this study, task performance is defined as “behaviors that contribute to the production of a good or the provision of a service” (Rotundo & Sackett, 2001, p. 67). Workplace victimization is defined as the self-perception of being a target of interpersonal aggression from coworkers (see Aquino & Thau, 2009). I use the term “high performance victims” to refer to individuals with high task performance who have been the targets of harmful behaviors by their coworkers. The objective of this study is, therefore, to investigate why and when high performers experience victimization. In doing so, this study makes several contributions to our understanding of the victimization of high performance employees.

First, this study uses a key behavioral outcome—task performance—as the victim precipitation factor that instigates unfavorable social comparison. Previous research has not explicitly examined the relationship between task performance and victimization. Although Kim and Glomb (2010) suggested the possibility of “smart victims” by linking cognitive ability and victimization, they argued that the behavioral outcomes of high cognitive ability (e.g., high task performance) promote the unfavorable social comparison processes between high cognitive ability employees and other coworkers. Lam and her colleagues (2011) used subjective perceptions of upward performance comparisons toward work group members as the predictor of interpersonal harming behaviors. In this study, I use task performance ratings provided by supervisors as the predictor of unfavorable social comparison processes that subsequently drive the victimization of high performers.

Second, this study examines two types of mediating mechanisms of social comparison that underlie the relationship between task performance and victimization—unintentional (i.e., envy and competition by perpetrators) and intentional instigation mechanisms (i.e., condescension by victims). Although Kim and Glomb (2010) suggested that social comparison mediating mechanisms (i.e., envy, competition, and condescending behaviors) may exist, they did not test any mediating processes that explain why high performers experience victimization. Thus, this study contributes to understanding (1) the victim precipitation model which suggests that victims (e.g., high performers) either intentionally or unintentionally precipitate interpersonal harming behaviors from fellow employees (see Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999; Curtis, 1974; Schafer, 1968) and (2) the social comparison process that occurs between high performance employees and their fellow employees (see Festinger, 1954). Understanding the process underlying the relationship between task performance and victimization is important because it can help develop prevention tactics that protect these highly desirable employees and subsequently keep them motivated, productive, and retained.

Third, this study examines the moderating roles that work group contextual factors play in shaping the relationship between task performance and victimization at the individual-level. Because organizations are inherently multilevel structures and work groups may be the most direct contextual factors that shape individual-level phenomena (see Cappelli & Sherer, 1991; Hackman, 1992; Johns, 2006; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Mowday & Sutton, 1993), viewing victimization through the lens of group-level contextual factors contributes to establishing the boundary conditions of the victimization of high performers. In addition, considering contextual issues may

make study findings more accessible to practitioners or consumers of management research (Bamberger, 2008; Dubin, 1976) who might prefer situation-based (e.g., enhancing collective identity, building fair environment, training transformational leaders) over person-based interventions (e.g., personality test for selection) in reducing the victimization of high performers. Specifically, on the basis of multiple theoretical frameworks and empirical findings (e.g., social identity theory, group engagement model, and transformational leadership theory), I propose five situational buffers: (1) collective identity, (2) overall justice climate, (3) climate of concern for employees, (4) social interaction, and (5) transformational leadership.

In summary, this study attempts to examine (1) the social comparison-driven intentional and unintentional mediating mechanisms underlying the relationship between task performance and victimization and (2) the moderating roles that work group contextual factors play in shaping the high performance victim phenomenon at the individual-level. The model is represented in Figure 1. Investigating these issues is important both theoretically and practically. From a theoretical standpoint, this study extends the victim precipitation model and social comparison theory by exploring the underlying mechanisms of the high performance victimization link and its group-level boundary conditions. From a practical standpoint, this study contributes to building a healthy workplace that promotes both employee well-being and organizational performance by delineating the mechanism through which contextual factors may mitigate the high performance victim phenomenon.

Chapter 2: Selected Literature Review of Workplace Victimization

Given that workplace victimization has been a phenomenon that hurts both employee well-being and organizational performance worldwide (see Bruzzese, 2002; International Labour Organization, 1998; National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, 1997; Namie & Namie, 2000; Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006; Sutton, 2007), a growing body of literature has examined the person- and situation-based antecedents, the negative psychological and physiological consequences, and the prevention and coping strategies related to workplace victimization (for review, see Aquino & Thau, 2009; Bowling & Beehr, 2006). I first define workplace victimization and then discuss the previous workplace victimization literature with a focus on its antecedents. This literature review notes the research gap, the placement of this study, and the contributions of this study within the workplace victimization literature.

Definition of Workplace Victimization

On the basis of workplace victimization literature, I suggest that workplace victimization refers to the self-perception of being a target of interpersonal aggression from coworkers (see Aquino & Thau, 2009). This definition has three conditions. First, workplace victimization is a subjective and perceptual process, which is consistent with the original criminology theory of victimization (see Quinney, 1972; Schafer, 1968). Second, workplace victimization is a broad construct that includes multiple types of nonsexual forms of interpersonal aggressive behaviors (e.g., incivility, undermining, aggression/antisocial behaviors, violence). Excluding sexual forms of interpersonal aggression is consistent with research which found the experience of sexual harassment and nonsexual forms of interpersonal aggression was different (see Hershcovis & Barling,

2010a). Third, workplace victimization is limited here to coworker's aggressive behavior. This view is narrower than the view that workplace victimization is driven by broad sources such as "people at work" that include supervisors, subordinates, and customers aggregated together. This narrow view is consistent with previous studies that specify the source of aggressive behaviors to reflect the distinct patterns of aggressive behavior from supervisors, coworkers, and customers (see Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010b; Tepper, 2007).

Antecedents of Workplace Victimization

The current body of workplace victimization research has investigated several types of predictors. Two key predictor sets can be categorized as person-based predictors (e.g., demographics, personality, behaviors, and structural positions) and situation-based predictors (e.g., job design, leadership, work group characteristics, organizational climate and structure, and industry).

Person-Based Predictors

The victim precipitation model is the main theoretical framework that explains why certain individuals are more likely to precipitate victimization (Curtis, 1974; Gottfredson, 1981; Schafer, 1968, 1977). The core proposition of the victim precipitation model is that at a minimum, victims are *unintentionally* (or unknowingly) at risk of victimization as a result of their individual characteristics and behavioral tendencies; at a maximum, victims are *intentionally* (or knowingly) at risk of victimization as a result of their individual characteristics and behavioral tendencies (see Schafer, 1977). Simply put, victims may exhibit either unintentional or intentional attitudinal and behavioral tendencies that instigate perpetrators to respond to them with aggressive behaviors.

Drawing on this model, Olweus (1978, 1993) proposed two types of victims in school settings: submissive and proactive victims. Submissive victims are physically weak, cautious, sensitive, and quiet; provocative victims are aggressive and hostile. Aquino and colleagues (e.g., Aquino & Bradfield, 2002; Aquino et al., 1999) found that the submissive-provocative victim typology is generalizable in organizational settings.

Drawing on the submissive-provocative victim typology, scholarly literature has examined the roles that demographics (e.g., age, gender, and tenure; Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001), personality traits (e.g. trait negative affectivity, Big Five personality traits, and self-esteem; Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Aquino et al., 1999; Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006; Vartia, 1996), behaviors (e.g., dominant behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, and conflict management style; Aquino, 2000; Aquino & Bommer, 2003; Aquino & Byron, 2002), and structural positions (e.g., supervisor/subordinate; Aquino, 2000; Lamertz & Aquino, 2004) play in predicting workplace victimization.

According to this typology, females, old or young individuals, ethnic minorities, individuals low in self-determination, and individuals low in self-esteem are considered to be submissive victims because they have the individual characteristics that represent weakness (e.g., Aquino et al., 1977; Schafer, 1977; Vartia, 1996). Individuals who are dominant and aggressive are considered to be provocative victims because they have individual characteristics that elicit retaliatory actions from others (e.g., Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Aquino & Byron, 2002). Individuals high in negative affectivity are considered to be either submissive or provocative victims because high negative affectivity represents either insecurity or hostility. A meta-analytic review (Bowling &

Beehr, 2006) suggested that among these predictors, trait negative affectivity is one of the most consistent predictors of workplace victimization ($r = .21$, Bowling & Beehr, 2006).

However, research has not considered how the victim precipitation model can explain the role of victim's task performance in victimization. Recently, Kim and Glomb (2010) extended the scope of the victim precipitation model by positing that smart employees which is associated with high performance may also either unintentionally (i.e., through envy and competition) or intentionally (i.e., through condescending behaviors) provoke other fellow employees to react to them with harmful behaviors. However, they did not empirically test the two instigation processes. Given the importance of the high performance victim phenomenon (see Chapter 1), this literature review suggests that research empirically examining the mediating processes (i.e., unintentional and intentional instigations) between task performance and victimization is necessary to advance our knowledge regarding the high performance victim phenomenon and to suggest practical recommendations to protect high performers from workplace victimization.

Situation-Based Predictors

Criminology theories of victimization emphasize the role of situational forces in instigating potential perpetrators to engage in interpersonal aggressive behaviors and subsequently increase victimization (see Elias, 1986). Elias (1986) suggested that either *regulatory failure* or *structural force* contribute to victimization. Regulatory failure is related to the specific rules and practices that fail to control aggressive behaviors (e.g., inadequate law, rules, and practices); structural force is related to a broader social context such as economic and social conditions (e.g., economic downturn, oppressive culture).

This argument implies that situational forces influence perpetrators to harm others, which in turn increase victimization.

Situational factors are also investigated for the specific case of workplace victimization. These situational factors include job design (e.g., job autonomy, job variety, task significance, and work load; Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Vartia, 1996), conflict (e.g., task and interpersonal conflict; Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007), leadership (e.g., manager's intolerance for ambiguity, theory X belief, laissez-faire leadership, abusive supervision, and supervisor undermining ; Ashforth, 1997; Duffy et al., 2002, Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Skogstad et al., 2007), work group characteristics (e.g., group-level aggression, and diversity; Duffy, Shaw, Scott, & Tepper, 2006; Glomb & Liao, 2003; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), and organizational climates, norms, and structure (e.g., cooperative team goals, justice climate, oppositional norm, and centralized or formalized structure; Aquino, Douglas, & Martinko, 2004; Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006; Tobin, 2001; Lam et al., 2011), and industry (e.g., manufacturing vs. service, and public vs. private; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hubert & Van Veldhoven, 2001; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002).

Specifically, poor job design is positively related to victimization because it produces negative emotional and cognitive states that encourage victimization. A meta-analytic review by Bowling and Beehr (2006) found that role conflict ($r = .35$), role ambiguity ($r = .24$), work overload ($r = .22$), constraints ($r = .44$), and autonomy ($r = -.20$) were consistent predictors of workplace victimization. In terms of poor leadership, Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) found that abusive supervision was positively related to

interpersonal deviance behaviors among coworkers. They suggested that this relationship may be due to displaced aggression mechanisms. Work group characteristics are also sources of workplace victimization. Glomb and Liao (2003) found that group-level interpersonal aggression was positively related to individual-level interpersonal aggression because this work group context communicates to the group members that aggressive behaviors are acceptable. With regard to organizational climate and norms, Aquino and his colleagues (2004) found that when organization norms were more oppositional (e.g., promoting confrontation and negativism), the relationship between overt expression of anger and victimization became stronger because of social learning processes. Lam and her colleagues (2011) also found that cooperative team goals were negatively related to interpersonal harming behaviors toward high performers because cooperative team goals reduce the unfavorable social comparison processes between high performers and other group members. Other studies examined the role of industry and found mixed results. Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) found that victimization was higher in the private sector, whereas Hubert and Van Veldhoven (2001) found that victimization was higher in the public sector. This body of research has enhanced our understanding of the role that situational factors play in predicting victimization.

With the exception of a few studies that explore the contextual influence of work group characteristics on victimization using group-level assessment (e.g., Duffy et al., 2006; Glomb & Liao, 2003), most studies have used individual-level assessment of group-level contextual factors (i.e., mismatch between construct and measurement level). For example, Aquino and colleagues (2006) measured justice climate at the individual-level. Skogstad and colleagues (2007) measured task and emotional conflict at the

individual-level to link this with workplace victimization. Importantly, there is no empirical research that examines whether contextual factors assessed at the group-level play a buffering or an exacerbating role on the relationship between task performance and workplace victimization. Given the importance of group context on individual-level psychological states and behaviors (see Kozlowski & Klein, 2000), this literature review suggests that further research is necessary to enhance the understanding of the role that work group context plays in shaping workplace victimization at the individual level, especially, the role that it plays in shaping the relationship between the individual-level variables of task performance and victimization. This study answers the important question of in which group context high performers are more or less likely to experience victimization and subsequently suggests valuable practical implications to managers who want to protect high performers.

This literature summary clearly suggests that there is a research gap in the high performance victim domain. In this study, I attempt to fill the gap by investigating (1) both unintentional (i.e., envy and competition) and intentional (i.e., condescension) mediating mechanisms that lie between task performance and victimization and (2) the moderating roles that group-level contextual factors (i.e., collective identity, overall justice climate, climate of concern for employee, social interaction, and transformational leadership) play in the relationship between the individual-level variables of task performance and victimization.

Chapter 3: Mechanisms Linking Task Performance and Victimization

Unintentional Instigation: Envy and Competition by Perpetrators

Both the victim precipitation model (Curtis, 1974; Gottfredson, 1981; Schafer, 1968, 1977) and social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) support the multiple mechanisms that explain the relationship between task performance and victimization. In particular, the victim precipitation model—victims either unintentionally or intentionally instigate potential perpetrators to react to them with harmful behavior—suggests the overarching framework and social comparison theory suggests the specific theoretical mechanisms of the proposed relationship.

The multiple processes delineated in social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) guide the proposed relationship between task performance and victimization. First, the advantageous characteristics of high performance employees may instigate potential perpetrators to react to them with harmful behaviors *in a more unintentional or passive way* (i.e., potential perpetrators' envy and their sense of competition). Across multiple organizational settings and jobs, high performers are generally treated as key or star players in a work group because of their significant influence on work group or organization performance (Cappelli, 2000; Michaels et al., 2001; Randall, 1987; Sturman et al., 2003). People who are working smarter and harder are more likely to be high performers and achieve career success (see Judge, Klinger, & Simon, 2010; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1994; Schmidt & Hunter, 2004). However, these positive characteristics may also instigate others to feel envious or experience a sense of competition and may lead them to react to high performers with harmful behaviors.

Social comparison theorists argue that in the case of abilities or performance¹, people are generally involved in upward comparison rather than in downward comparison (i.e., upward drive; Festinger, 1954). Festinger (1954) proposed that “given a range of possible persons for comparison, someone close to one’s own ability or opinion will be chosen for comparison” (p. 121). Since most people, however, have more favorable views of themselves than objective evidence warrants (Greenwald, 1980; Taylor & Brown, 1988), they generally choose high performers as targets of comparison (i.e., upward comparison, Lam et al., 2011). Furthermore, individuals are more likely to select a “standard setter” who has high levels of competence as the target of comparison (Feldman & Ruble, 1981). Similar comparison processes are presented in the self-evaluation maintenance model (Tesser, 1988) and the relative deprivation model (Crosby, 1976, 1984) which emphasize the upward social comparison elements of the social comparison theory. The self-evaluation model suggests that individuals try to maintain a positive self-evaluation and this evaluation is influenced by one’s relationships with others—particularly others who are psychologically close to the individual (e.g., family, friends, and coworkers). Self-evaluation is influenced by the processes of *reflection* and *comparison*. Reflection occurs when the successful performance of a close person is mirrored in oneself and thus improves one’s self-evaluation; such reflection generally occurs when the performance is in a domain not relevant to one’s self-definition. However, when successful performance of another is in a domain that is relevant to one’s

¹ The terms “ability” and “performance” are used interchangeably in the literature on social comparison. Several experimental studies used an intelligence score to represent the performance level of participants (e.g., Brewer & Weber, 1994; Gardner, Gabriel, & Hochschild, 2002; Hoffman, Festinger, & Lawrence, 1954).

self-definition, comparison processes will instead occur and would result in lowered self-evaluation. High task performance in a work setting is strongly related to competence—a fundamental intrinsic motivation of human beings (Deci & Ryan, 2002); thus, comparison, instead of reflection, would occur as this is a characteristic relevant to one's self-definition. Relative deprivation has been used as an explanatory mechanism for a variety of phenomena in the social and organizational sciences and it shares similar theoretical mechanisms with the social comparison model and the self-evaluation model. Like these models, relative deprivation processes are dependent on a comparison process that is focused on what others have (that one does not), the result of which leads to behavior engagement to reduce the deprivation. The underlying similarities of these theories undergird the idea that upward social comparison on a relevant dimension (e.g., task performance) with other employees lowers self-evaluation and heightens the sense of relative deprivation.

These upward comparison processes that focus on both the self-lacking and the other-possessing result in emotional reactions such as envy (DePaola, 2001; Parrott & Smith, 1993; Salovey & Rothman, 1991; Smith, 2000; Smith & Kim, 2007), depressive feelings (e.g., Beck, 1967; Gilbert, 1992; Smith, Parrot, Ozer, & Moniz, 1994), shame (e.g., Gilbert, 1992; Lewis, 1992), and hostility (Solomon, 1976). These negative states are affective manifestations of unfavorable upward comparison (e.g., Tesser, Millar, & Moore, 1988; Tesser, Pilkington, & McIntosh, 1989) and may promote the desire for restoration of decreased self-evaluation by enacting aggressive behaviors. In this study, I focus on envy—“an unpleasant, often painful emotion characterized by feelings of inferiority, hostility, and resentment caused by an awareness of a desired attribute

enjoyed by another person” (Smith & Kim, 2007, p. 46)—rather than several other negative affective states because envy captures both self-lacking emotions (e.g., shame and depressed feelings) and other-possessing emotions (e.g., resentment and hostility) that come from comparison (Smith, 2000). The envious person can restore their self-evaluation by altering the envied person’s outcomes; one way to achieve this goal is by harming the envied person (Duffy, Shaw, & Schaubroeck, 2008; Vecchio, 1995). Previous research has supported the notion that an envious person may harm the envied person (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2006; Mouly & Sankaran, 2002; Salovey & Rodin, 1984; Vecchio, 2007), and this harm negatively alters the envied person’s outcomes including job performance and satisfaction (Duffy & Shaw, 2000; Exline & Lobel, 1999). Research suggests that harming the envied other decreases the envious person’s frustration stemming from his or her sense of inferiority (Fox & Spector, 1999; Kulik & Brown, 1979; Smith, 1991; Spector, 1975, 1978) and restores the envious person’s damaged self-esteem (Fein & Spencer, 1997). Simply put, high performance employees are more likely to be the targets of envy by potential perpetrators and, as a result, may be more likely to be victimized.

Hypothesis 1: High task performance of targets is positively related to their victimization, and this relationship is mediated by the perpetrators’ emotion of envy toward the targets.

Although much of the theorizing above suggests that the social comparison processes would occur only for lower performance employees when they compare themselves with higher performance employees, this is not the only case in which comparison occurs. These social comparison processes may also result in competition

(Festinger, 1954; Garcia, Tor, & Gonzalez, 2006; Menon & Thompson, 2007; Tesser, 1988; Wood, 1989) when the performance of comparison targets is virtually equal or slightly superior (Goethals, 1986; Goethals & Darley, 1977). Competition is defined in the American Heritage Dictionary (2006) as “rivalry between two or more persons for an object desired in common, usually resulting in a victor and a loser.” The competition may instigate aggressive or harming behaviors against rivals (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Deutsch, 1985; Kohn, 1992, 1993) as a way of maintaining and restoring the instigator’s self-evaluation. Kohn (1992) proposed that intense competition triggers aggressive behavior against rivals because it generates the idea of “win at all costs,” a poor relationship, a sense of inferiority (i.e., damaged self-evaluation), and hostility. Hence, people maintain or restore their self-evaluation when they win even if this is done by “winning ugly” and by harming the winners. For example, a classic experiment by Hoffman, Festinger, and Lawrence (1954) reported that after a member in a group of three received a higher initial performance score (i.e., intelligence test score) relative to the other two, the higher scorer was harmed by the other two in the subsequent performance tasks (i.e., withholding resources and information from a target) and these behavioral trends were strengthened when three members in a group had a similar initial intelligence test scores (see also Coulomb-Cabagno & Rasclé, 2006; Kirkpatrick, Waugh, Valencia, & Webster, 2002; O’Moore, 2000; Rocha & Rogers, 1976; Salin, 2003). These harming behaviors against rivals reduce the performance gap between the rivals and contribute to maintaining or restoring the lower performers’ self-evaluation. Simply put, high performance employees are more likely to be the targets of competition by potential perpetrators and, as a result, may be more likely to be victimized.

Hypothesis 2: High task performance of targets is positively related to their victimization, and this relationship is mediated by the perpetrators' sense of competition toward the targets.

Intentional Instigation: Condescension by Victims

Thus far, I have suggested that high performers may unintentionally instigate envy and competition from other coworkers and, as a result, may more likely be victimized. According to the victim precipitation model, high performers may also instigate potential perpetrators *in a more intentional or active way* (i.e., condescending or patronizing behaviors by victims), which results in retaliatory aggressive behaviors (i.e., tit for tat; Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Glomb & Liao, 2003). Recently, Menon and Thompson (2007) found that individuals who are the targets of upward comparison (i.e., engaging in downward comparison) may experience more self-enhancing biases. In other words, they may overestimate the comparison threat they pose to others. Due to this perceptual bias, they may experience uncomfortable interpersonal relationships as “asymmetries in threat appraisal [straining] social interactions during a conflict situation” (Menon & Thompson, 2007, p. 56). In their experimental study, individuals who viewed themselves as threatening provoke unfavorable reactions from their partners. Condescending or scolding attitudes and behaviors—manifestations of the self-enhancing bias (Duffy et al., 2008)—may elicit unfavorable reactions from the downward comparison targets (Menon & Thompson, 2007). In an organizational context, high performers are more likely to achieve favorable work outcomes (e.g., higher status and salary), which may result in condescending behaviors because of a self-enhancing bias after comparing themselves against their coworkers. These condescending attitudes and

behaviors may instigate other employees to respond to high performers with aggressive behaviors to retaliate against these low-intensity harming behaviors of condescension from high performers (see Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Glomb & Liao, 2003). Drawing on social exchange theory, Glomb and her colleagues (e.g., Glomb, 2002; Glomb & Liao, 2003) provided empirical support for the idea of reciprocal aggression. Simply put, high performance employees may be more likely to show condescending attitudes and behaviors toward other employees and, as a result, may be more likely to be victimized in retaliation.

Hypothesis 3: High task performance of targets is positively related to their victimization, and this relationship is mediated by the victims' condescension toward the potential perpetrators.

Chapter 4: Contextual Moderators

As discussed, the first purpose of this study is to examine both unintentional (i.e., envy and competition) and intentional instigation mechanisms (i.e., condescension) underlying the relationship between task performance and victimization. Due to the multilevel nature of organizations, the second purpose of this study is to examine the moderating role that work group contextual factors play in shaping the high performance victim phenomenon at the individual level.

In this study, drawing on the psychological literature, I propose that (1) collective identity, (2) overall justice climate, (3) climate of concern for employees, (4) social interaction, and (5) transformational leadership may serve as situational minimizers of the high performance victim phenomenon. The central argument is that these work group contextual factors decrease the likelihood that social-comparison-driven unintentional (i.e., envy and competition) and intentional (i.e., condescension) instigations between high performers and their group members occur, which subsequently decreases the likelihood that high performers are victimized.

One might argue that there is construct overlap between the five positive contextual factors; prior research shows moderate to high correlations (e.g., $r = .26 \sim .70$) between them. Furthermore, the four work group contextual factors may mitigate the unfavorable social comparison between high performers and their group members all by working through the promotion of the collective identity. However, these work group contextual factors also influence the social comparison mechanisms in a unique way. I address both the theoretical distinctiveness as well as the theoretical overlap of these ideas.

Collective Identity

Collective identity is defined as shared perceptions among group members of the degree to which people merge their sense of self with the group (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004; Pratt, 2003) and is usually operationalized with items such as “The successes of the people in the work group are my successes” and “When someone praise the work group, it feels like a personal compliment” (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). In this study, following the recommendation of Ashmore and colleagues (2004), I use the term collective identity rather than social identity to represent work group identity. Ashmore and colleagues (2004) suggested that social identity is broader and less clear than collective identity because all forms of identity are inherently socially influenced and the meanings of social identity are numerous.

Collective identity moderates the positive relationship between task performance and victimization because it alters the social comparison processes and outcomes among work group members. Collective identity changes (1) the targets of comparison from fellow high performers to other groups, (2) the source of self-evaluation from personal capability (e.g., high individual task performance) to group capability, and (3) the perceptions toward other group members from “they” to “we” (see Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Flynn, 2005; Hogg, 2000; Smith, Coats, & Walling, 1999). An experimental study by Brewer and Weber (1994) found that participants in a low collective identity condition were more negative in their self-evaluation after they compared themselves with high-performing individuals (i.e., those with high cognitive ability test scores) in their group, but they were not affected by intergroup comparison. In contrast, participants in a high collective identity condition were more positive in their self-evaluation after they

compared themselves with high-performing individuals in their group; they were more negative in their self-evaluation after they compared themselves with high performing individuals outside of their group (i.e., intergroup comparison). Another experimental study by Gardner, Gabriel, and Hochschild (2002) found a moderating role of self-expansion in social comparison. When one's self-view expands to include group memberships, group members' successes (e.g., ability test similar to the Graduate Record Examination), even in self-relevant domains, promote self-evaluation rather than threaten it.

Given that collective identity alters social comparison processes and outcomes (i.e., the frame of reference, source of self-evaluation, and perceptions toward fellow members in the group; Brewer & Gardner, 1996), collective identity may prevent unfavorable interpersonal social comparison between high performance employees and their work group members. In particular, when collective identity is high, high performance coworkers are not the targets of envy and competition but are the pride of the group. High performance coworkers contribute to the increase in the fellow group members' self-evaluation (i.e., reflection) because high performance employees more significantly contribute to group and organizational performance than do other group members (see Cappelli, 2000; Devine & Philips, 2001; Heslin, 1964; LePine, 2003; LePine, Hanson, Borman, & Motowidlo, 2000; Steiner, 1972; Michaels et al., 2001; Sturman et al., 2003); when group members share a strong collective identity, they are more proud when their group performs better than other groups and consider this as source of positive self-evaluation (see Brewer & Weber, 1994). In other words, fellow group members perceive that group success is equivalent to their own success because

they integrate the work group into their self-concepts (see Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002; Gardner et al., 2002; Kramer, Hanna, Su, & Wei, 2001) and are more likely to compare their own group with other groups using their group characteristics (i.e., intergroup social comparison).

In addition, when collective identity is high, high performance group members are more likely to respect other group members' roles in the work group rather than express condescending behaviors toward them. In this case, high performance group members would perceive that group success is not only driven by their own performance but is also driven by the integration and cooperation of all team members' unique capabilities (i.e., "We did it" rather than "I did it").

Hypothesis 4: Collective identity moderates the relationship between task performance and victimization, such that when collective identity is high, the positive relationship between task performance and victimization is weaker than when collective identity is low.

Overall Justice Climate

Overall justice climate refers to shared perceptions of overall fair treatment among group members (see Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Li & Cropanzano, 2009). Most justice research has utilized three (i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional justice; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) or four facets of justice climate (i.e., distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) in testing nomological networks of organizational justice climate (e.g., Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; Ehrhart, 2004; Mossholder, Bennett, & Martin, 1998; Naumann & Bennett, 2000; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Simons & Roberson, 2003; Walumbwa,

Hartnell, & Oke, 2010) instead of using the concept of an overall justice climate. However, Rupp and Paddock (2010) suggested that overall justice climate mediates the relationship between specific justice climate and individual and group level outcomes. These findings suggest that overall justice climate may work as a more proximal and direct contextual condition that shapes individual-level phenomena instead of the three or four facets of organizational justice climate taken separately. More importantly, there is no clear theoretical ground for making distinct predictions across three or four facets of justice climate on the high performance victim phenomenon. For example, distributive justice climate (i.e., fair outcomes), procedural justice climate (i.e., fair process to decide the outcomes), and interpersonal justice climate (i.e., fair interpersonal treatment people received during the implementation of the process) can simultaneously cultivate the context that prevents unfavorable social comparison between high performance employees and fellow employees in a group and subsequently decreases the high performance victim phenomenon (see Duffy et al., 2008; Vecchio, 2000). Therefore, in this study, I use the overall justice climate construct rather than the specific justice climate construct (i.e., parsimonious approach, Whetten, 1989). This approach is also consistent with monistic approach which suggests that all three or four facets of justice perceptions occur simultaneously (e.g., Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001, Greenberg, 2001; Lind, 2001; Shapiro, 2001).

Several prominent justice theories support the moderating role that overall justice climate plays in the relationship between task performance and victimization. First, according to the justice literature, overall justice climate may mitigate the negative consequences of upward social comparison toward high performers (i.e., envy,

competition, and interpersonal aggression) because justice signals to the group members that they are valued and respected (see Blader & Tyler, 2005; Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Duffy and her colleagues (2008) posited that justice climate may weaken the feeling of envy; justice-related workplace norms prevent unfavorable social comparisons from taking place but even if they do take place, these norms reduce the negative emotional response following such unfavorable social comparison. Tai, Narayanan, and McAlister (2012) suggested that fair treatment activates a challenge-oriented action tendency (e.g., increasing task performance) and deactivates threat-oriented action tendencies (e.g., harming behavior toward high performers) when envy occurs; fellow employees view the higher status of the high performer as justified and understand that they can also be high performers if they work hard because all employees experience fair and equitable treatment from organizations (e.g., fair performance appraisal system; Greenberg, 2000). Consistent with these theoretical propositions, Smith, Parrott, Ozer, and Moniz (1994) found that justice is negatively related to hostile aspects of envy, which, in turn, reduces harming behaviors toward the envied other. Drawing on the social exchange model of harming reaction to envy, Cohen-Charash and Mueller (2007) found that fair situations prevent the interpersonal aggression of envious people from taking place by restoring their self-evaluation and deactivating their need to harm others. In addition, justice promotes cooperation rather than competition (Tyler, 2008) and results in more constructive rather than destructive competition among employees (Johnson & Johnson, 1989) that would drive employees to work harder rather than to harm the high performing rivals.

Second, uncertainty management theory (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002) suggests that justice reduces people's perception of uncertainty and subsequently influences their psychological states and behaviors. Overall justice climate contributes to the reduction of uncertainty because justice prevents the fear of being exploited or excluded and promotes trustworthiness in a social exchange relationship (see Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). Uncertainty is one of the key driving forces of social comparison (Festinger, 1954, Gibbons & Buunk, 1999; Taylor, Buunk, & Aspinwall, 1990). Festinger (1954) suggested that when the environment is uncertain, people are more likely to compare themselves to others to reduce the discomfort related to the uncertainty (see Buunk, Schaufeli, Ybema, 1994; Gerad, 1963; Molleman, Pruyn, van Knippenberg, 1986, for empirical evidence). In organization settings, when work group members perceive high levels of uncertainty, they are more likely to compare themselves with fellow group members (e.g., high performance workers) when evaluating their performance. This body of research implies that by reducing uncertainty, overall justice climate may weaken the social-comparison-induced unintentional (i.e., envy and a sense of competition) and intentional (i.e., condescending behaviors) instigations and may subsequently decrease the likelihood that the high performance employees are victimized.

Third, the group engagement model suggests that justice activates people's collective identity within groups and subsequently influences their psychological states and behaviors (Tyler & Blader, 2000, 2003). According to this model, overall justice climate may make it less likely for unfavorable social comparison processes and high performer victimization in a work group from taking place by promoting collective identity (see collective identity section above for more information).

In summary, this body of research implies that overall justice climate may weaken the social-comparison-induced unintentional (i.e., envy and competition) and intentional (i.e., condescending behaviors) instigations and may subsequently decrease the likelihood that the high performance employees are victimized.

Hypothesis 5: Overall justice climate moderates the relationship between task performance and victimization, such that when overall justice climate is high, the positive relationship between task performance and victimization is weaker than when overall justice climate is low.

Climate of Concern for Employees

Climate of concern for employees refers to the shared perceptions among work group members of the extent to which the work group values its members' contributions and cares about its members' well-being (Borucki & Burke, 1999; Chuang & Liao, 2010; Takeuchi, Chen, & Lepak, 2009). This group-level climate construct is rooted in the degree to which individuals perceive their work environment to value its members' contributions and cares about its employees' well-being (i.e., perceived organizational support; see Burke, Borucki, & Hurley, 1992; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Multiple theoretical frameworks and empirical findings support the moderating role that the climate of concern for employees might play on the relationship between task performance and victimization. First, according to the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), individuals feel obligated to respond to positive behaviors with other positive behaviors, and become unwilling to break this circle because it hurts their reputation (e.g., untrustworthy and unkind). In a work group, this norm of positive reciprocity manifests attitudes and behaviors that acknowledge the members' contributions and promote their

well-being. A high level of climate of concern for employees implies that work groups have already established such norms of positive reciprocity among group members. In this work group context, high performers may be less likely to be victims because this context sends signals to fellow employees about the importance of acknowledging high performers' contributions and caring for high performers' well-being rather than feeling negative emotions such as envy or perceiving the sense of competition toward high performers. Furthermore, high performers may also perceive that their accomplishment is not solely due to their own ability or motivation but also due to their cooperation with fellow employees. A work group where the climate of concern is prevalent shapes high performers' attitudes and behaviors to value fellow workers' contributions and caring for their well-being. Thus, high performers are more likely to appreciate fellow work group members' work rather than to express condescending behavior toward the work group members. Subsequently, high performers may be less likely to be victims.

Beyond the theory of reciprocity, Ashforth and Mael (1989) suggested that the group and organization's concern for employees' well-being improves the members' self-evaluation (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) and promotes group or organizational identity (i.e., collective identity; see also Sluss, Klimchak, & Holmes, 2008 for empirical evidence). By promoting members' self-evaluation and by fostering collective identity, the climate of concern for employees may make it less likely for unfavorable social comparison processes and high performer victimization in a work group (see collective identity section above for more information).

In summary, this body of research implies that climate of concern for employees may weaken the social-comparison-induced unintentional (i.e., envy and competition)

and intentional (i.e., condescending behaviors) instigations and may subsequently decrease the likelihood that high performance employees are victimized.

Hypothesis 6: The climate of concern for employees moderates the relationship between task performance and victimization, such that when the climate of concern for employees is high, the positive relationship between task performance and victimization is weaker than when the climate of concern for employees is low.

Social Interaction

Social interaction refers to the extent to which work group members interact with each other as friends (see Klein, Conn, Smith, & Sorra, 2001). It reflects beneficial, friendly, and high quality interpersonal relationships among work group members (Dutton & Ragins, 2007; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). Recently, Grant and Parker (2009) posited the relational job design model that reemphasized the importance of embedding (positive) interpersonal relationships at work—an idea that was neglected in the classic job design model (see also Grant 2007; Grant, Fried, & Juillerat, 2010). Oldham and Hackman (2010) replied that “circumstances change, and the time is now right for research that focuses squarely on the social aspect of the work itself. The reason ... is that social interaction is now much more pervasive and prominent in contemporary work organizations than previously was the case” (p. 467). This trend is consistent with the need to belong theory which suggests that building positive interpersonal relationships is a fundamental intrinsic motivation of human beings (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). In this study, consistent with Klein and her colleagues (2001) who used social interaction as a group-level construct, I also conceptualize social interaction as a group-level concept (i.e.,

contextual drivers that influence the work group as a whole) because this study examines the cross-level moderating role that social interaction plays on predicting individual-level victimization. This group-level conceptualization complements a popular individual- and job-level conceptualization of job characteristics in the job design literature (see Morgeson & Campion, 2003).

Several theories support the contextual influence of social interaction on the high performance victim phenomenon. Barerra and Ainley (1983) posited that social interaction among group members is one facet of social support in everyday situations that contributes to maintaining a positive self-evaluation. Kahn (1990) also found that social interaction (i.e., meaningful interaction) promoted self-appreciation, dignity, and a sense of worthwhileness (see also Roberts, 2007). In other words, social interaction buffers the negative influence of unfavorable social comparison in a work group by allowing the work group members to regain their positive self-evaluation. Furthermore, social interaction decreases the hostile and depressive feelings associated with envy, promotes cooperation rather than competition, and decreases interpersonal aggression such as condescending and retaliatory behaviors (see Dutton & Ragins, 2007). In addition, the need to belong theory (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) suggests that in positive interpersonal relationships, the self merges with others and this merging causes the increased use of group-serving attributions. The relational capital model (Blatt, 2009) suggested that social interaction contributes to building a sense of community at work, and this sense of community strengthens collective identity by promoting self-disclosure and emotional expression. According to this theory, social interaction may make it less likely for unfavorable social comparison processes and high performer victimization in a

work group from taking place by promoting collective identity (see collective identity section above for more information). In summary, social interaction may prevent both unintentional (i.e., envy, competition) and intentional (i.e., condescension) instigations between high performance employees and their work group members and may subsequently decrease the likelihood that the high performance employees are victimized.

Hypothesis 7: Social interaction moderates the relationship between task performance and victimization, such that when social interaction is high, the positive relationship between task performance and victimization is weaker than when social interaction is low.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership refers to the general style of leadership behaviors presented to the work group that drive followers to selflessly perform beyond work expectation and is a shared contextual stimulus that permeates throughout the work group (see Bono & Judge, 2003; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Liao & Chuang, 2007). In this study, I consider perceptions of group-level transformational leadership behaviors rather than perceptions of individual-level transformational leadership behaviors to investigate the cross-level moderating role that transformational leadership plays on the high performance victim phenomenon. Shamir and his colleagues (1998) proposed that transformational leadership behaviors “are ambient behaviors that are either directed at the unit as a whole (for instance, emphasizing the collective identity) or at no one in particular (for instance, leader's self-sacrifice). Individual followers may perceive these behaviors differently and react to them differently, but the behaviors themselves are assumed to be homogenous with respect to an entire unit.” (p. 392). This group-level

leadership construct is also supported in prior research in leadership (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2003; Ehrhart, 2004; Kark et al., 2003; Kirkman et al., 2009; Liao & Chuang, 2007; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998; Walumbwa et al., 2010).

Bass (1985) suggested four types of transformational leadership behaviors including idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration that drive followers to perform beyond expectations. Specifically, idealized influence involves the leader's demonstration of high standards of moral and ethical behaviors that drives followers to respect and emulate the leader; inspirational motivation involves the leader motivating and inspiring followers by providing a compelling vision of the future that drives a group forward; intellectual stimulation involves the leader reframing problems and questioning basic assumptions that encourage followers to be innovative and creative; and individualized consideration involves the leader showing attention to each follower's need for achievement and growth opportunities and respecting individual differences that enhance the followers' aspiration for their tasks. In other words, transformational leadership constitutes a broad range of leadership styles (i.e., a full range theory of leadership, Bass & Avolio, 1997) that captures ethical (see Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005) as well as motivational, intellectual, and interpersonal dimensions.

Multiple theoretical frameworks and empirical findings support the moderating role that transformational leadership plays on the relationship between task performance and victimization. First, according to the transformational leadership literature, transformational leadership may decrease the negative consequences of envy, competition, and condescending behaviors. Transformational leadership can be construed

as a form of social support from supervisors. In particular, the leader's individualized consideration—one dimension of transformational leadership—works as social support and helps the followers maintain a positive self-evaluation. In other words, followers perceive individualized consideration as a form of social support from supervisors that enables them to cope better after upward comparisons and instigations by regaining their positive self-evaluation in a work group. Also, transformational leadership may prevent the destructive consequence of envy and competition that may result in interpersonal harming behaviors. Higher levels of moral standards and group-oriented inspirational motivation with a deeper appreciation for intellectual stimulation may drive group members to value and achieve high performance without sacrificing their ethical standards in a work group. That is, when transformational leadership is high, fellow group members' envy and their sense of competition are less likely to trigger aggressive behaviors against high performers because these bad behaviors violates the ethical standards in a work group (i.e., "winning ugly" is not acceptable).

Second, according to self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), transformational leadership influences followers' psychological states and behaviors by promoting autonomous or internalized motivation in them (see Sheldon, Turban, Brown, Barrick, & Judge, 2003). Neighbors and Knee (2003) found that self-determination buffered the negative consequence of unfavorable social comparison. Using autonomy as an indicator of self-determination, their experimental study found that individuals with low autonomy experienced more negative changes in affect (i.e., positive to negative) and self-esteem after upward comparison, but individuals with high autonomy maintained their positive affect and self-esteem after upward comparison. Similarity, Testa and

Major (1990) found that participants in high perceived control condition (i.e., high autonomy) were less likely to feel envy after upward comparison. This body of research implies that by promoting a sense of autonomy, transformational leadership may reduce the negative consequences of social comparison (i.e., envy, competition, and condescending behaviors) between high performance members and their group members, and may subsequently decrease the likelihood that the high performance employees are victimized. Third, the self-concept-based theory of transformational leadership (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993) suggests that transformational leadership promotes followers' collective identity which results in collective efficacy, group cohesiveness, and cooperation among group members (see also Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Kark & Shamir, 2002; Kark et al., 2003; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004; Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010). According to this theory, transformational leadership may make it less likely for unfavorable social comparison processes and high performer victimization in a work group from taking place by promoting collective identity (see collective identity section above for more information).

In summary, this body of research implies that transformational leadership may decrease the likelihood that unintentional (i.e., envy and competition) and intentional (i.e., condescending behaviors) instigations occur, and may subsequently decrease the likelihood that the high performance employees are victimized.

Hypothesis 8: Transformational leadership moderates the relationship between task performance and victimization, such that when transformational leadership is high, the positive relationship between task performance and victimization is weaker than when transformational leadership is low.

Chapter 5: Method

Procedures and Participants

Participants were drawn from three organizations (one government agency, two small advertising agencies) in South Korea. The government agency provides public service (e.g., public transportation management, public health management, and business support) in one of the largest metropolitan areas in Korea. Regarding organizational structure, a work group (or team) is the smallest core entity in this organization and there are three higher entities (i.e., unit, department, and division) as well as a top management team. The two small advertising agencies provide advertising related service (e.g., copywriting and production) for their clients. Regarding organizational structure, it is flat and a work group (or team) is the smallest core entity of work; a work group is consisted of its members and a leader, and it reports to a chief director.

I contacted a senior organizational leader within each of these organizations (i.e., the human resource officers in a government agency, the chief directors of advertising agencies) and invited them to participate in the study in exchange for an extensive feedback report on employee well-being. I explained the objectives of the study, the survey procedure and compensation, and sought support from the senior leaders. The senior leaders sent flyers to work groups or teams via company-wide emails or team manager meetings. Confidentiality was assured. Consistent with previous research (e.g., George, 1990; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2010), I considered employees to be members of a work group when they had the same supervisor. Because the work group is the official entity in these organizations and the formal ranks of work group supervisor

and members are “team manager” and “team members”, participants easily understood the meaning of work group (or team) in this study.

At time 1, supervisors filled out a survey about the study participants’ task performance and work group members filled out a survey about collective identity, overall justice climate, climate of concern for employees, social interaction, transformational leadership, and other control variables (e.g., demographic information, personality). At time 2, work group members filled out a social network survey regarding envy, competition, condescending behaviors, and workplace victimization using the sociomatrix that lists all work group members’ names (see Marsden, 1990) and a survey regarding workplace victimization (i.e., 8-item scale). Data were collected via the Internet. The interval between each survey ranged from 3 to 5 weeks. Work group members were paid \$30 USD (i.e., \$10 USD for the first survey, \$20 USD for the second survey) and supervisors were paid \$10 USD.

Table 1 shows sample characteristics (e.g., company size, response rates) for each organization. One hundred ninety three work groups consisting of 957 members were invited to participate in this study; ninety five work groups consisting of 342 members expressed interest in this study. Work group size was limited to 2 to 10 members because this survey required social network surveys as well as supervisor performance ratings. Ninety three work groups consisting of 305 members met this condition; eighty five work groups consisting of 266 members completed the first survey. Because network data require a high response rate (e.g., 80% of all members in a work group, see Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001) to represent an accurate depiction of the network in a work group, I excluded work groups with less than 80 percent participation at time 1. I

invited 74 work groups consisting of 237 members to the second survey. This process resulted in a final usable sample of 67 work groups consisting of 217 members, yielding an average response rate of 23% at the individual level and 35% at the group-level. These 67 work groups had an average 98% response rate on the questions about social networks.

I compared the final usable sample to the sample from time 1 with insufficient response rates. I found no significant differences between the included and the excluded employees. I conducted a one-way analysis of variance to compare mean-levels across three organizations, and the results indicated that there were mean-level differences between organizations on two variables (age and competition). A government agency showed higher age levels than two advertising agencies, and an advertising agency showed higher competition levels than other two organizations ($p < .05$; competition is not significantly different between organizations when using $p < .01$ as a criterion). Therefore, it was deemed appropriate to use the combined final data set. Work group sizes ranged from 2 to 7 ($M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.35$). The average age of work group members was 38.18 years ($SD = 8.64$); forty nine percent were female. Most (63.59%) had a bachelor's degree, 14.75% completed high school, 15.67% completed a two-year college degree, and 5.99% had graduate degrees (i.e., master's or doctorate degree). Average tenures at the organization and the work group were 9.97 ($SD = 8.68$) and 2.02 ($SD = 1.85$) years, respectively. The average age of the work group supervisor was 48.81 years ($SD = 7.63$); 30% were female. Most (61.64%) had a bachelor's degree, 13.7% completed only high school, 6.85% completed a two-year college degree, and 16.44% had graduate degrees (i.e., master's or doctorate degree). Average tenures at the organization and the work group were 16.82 ($SD = 10.85$) and 2.69 ($SD = 2.44$) years,

respectively. Table 1 shows demographic information for the study participants for each organization.

Measures

Following Brislin's (1980) method, some scales were translated from English into Korean (for a similar approach, see Takeuchi et al., 2009). First, the items were translated from English into Korean by two individuals who are proficient in both languages (i.e., the author and a bilingual individual who is not familiar with the study). Next, two individuals who are proficient in both languages (i.e., two bilingual individuals who are not familiar with the study) conducted back-translation, checked translation accuracy, identified areas of concerns, and modified the questions. Third, the author and another management scholar then compared the survey documents and made changes until no further modifications were necessary. Finally, the senior organizational leaders confirmed the clarity of the survey items. The full survey is presented in Appendix III.

Independent Variables

Task Performance. Task performance was assessed using the 4-item task performance scale (Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez, 1998). Supervisors evaluated the work group members' job performance specifically related to one's job description. Items were "Compared to other employees in this work group, this subordinate's quantity of work output is...", "Compared to other employees in this work group, this subordinate's quality of work output is...", "Compared to other employees in this work group, this subordinate's accuracy of work is...", "Compared to other employees in this work group, this subordinate's customer service provided (internal and external) is..." The supervisor of the participants responded to a 5-point scale from 1 (*at a very low level compared to*

other work group members) to 5 (*at a very high level compared to other work group members*). The coefficient alpha of the task performance scale was .92.

Mediators

Envy. Envy was measured using in-degree envy centrality. In-degree envy centrality counts the envy relationships with a focal actor (i.e., a high performance employee) reported by other actors (i.e., fellow work group members) in the work group network. In other words, it implies that the focal actor is the envy of other actors in a work group. Participants were asked a single-item network question. I provided a detailed explanation with examples by using established scales to reduce the ambiguity and to make the single-item network measure more appropriate (see Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2006, for a same approach). Participants were asked the following single-item network question with examples: “I envy this person’s task performance. For example, (1) it is so frustrating to see this person succeed so easily; (2) feelings of envy toward this person constantly torment me; (3) I generally feel inferior to this person’s success; or (4) this person’s success makes me resent this person.” The wording of these examples was from Schaubroeck and Lam (2004). Participants responded to a 5-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). I calculated an envy-centrality score by the following formula: the sum of all respondents’ responses toward a focal actor divided by the number of respondents in a work group excluding the focal individual (see Wasserman & Faust, 1994).

Competition. Competition was measured using in-degree competition centrality. It indicates that the focal actor (i.e., a high performance employee) is reported as the target of competition by other actors. Participants were asked the following single-item

network question with examples: “I compete with this person for performance achievement, promotion, and recognition at work. For example, (1) It is important to me to perform better than this person on a task; (2) I feel that winning against this person is important at work, or (3) I try harder when I am in competition with this person.” The wording of these examples was modified from Brown, Cron, and Slocum (1998) so that the employees can rate their sense of competition against a specific coworker (i.e., add the phrase “this person” into the examples). Participants responded to a 5-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and I calculated a competition-centrality score by the following formula: the sum of all participants’ responses toward a focal actor divided by the number of participants in a work group excluding the focal individual (see Wasserman & Faust, 1994).

Condescension. Condescension was measured using in-degree condescending behaviors centrality. It captures the focal actor’s condescending behaviors toward other group members using other-ratings. Participants were asked the following question with examples: “How frequently has this person acted in a condescending manner toward you? For example, this person has (1) put you down or patronized you; (2) belittled you or your ideas; or (3) ignored you.” The wording of these examples was from Cortina et al. (2001) and Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002). Participants responded to a 5-point scale from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*) and I calculated a condescending-centrality score by the following formula: the sum of all participants’ responses toward a focal actor divided by the number of participants in a work group excluding the focal individual (see Wasserman & Faust, 1994).

Moderators

Collective Identity. Collective identity was assessed using 5 items from the 6-item scale of Mael and Ashforth (1992). The scale was modified to reflect the work group context (i.e., change the target of identification from school to work group) and one item—“If a story in the media criticized the school, I would feel embarrassed”—is deleted because it was deemed inappropriate in the work group context. Items were “When someone criticizes this work group, it feels like a personal insult,” “I am very interested in what others think about this work group,” “When I talk about other people in this work group, I usually say “we” rather than “they,” “The successes of the people in this work group are my successes,” and “When someone praises this work group, it feels like a personal compliment.” Participants responded to a 5-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The coefficient alpha of the collective identity scale was .90. Aggregation was justified by $r_{wg(j)} = .88$, the reliability of individual assessment of the group mean ($ICC(1) = .46$), and the group mean ($ICC(2) = .73$). F-test results also supported aggregation (see Bliese, 2000). Overall, $r_{wg(j)}$, $ICC(1)$, and $ICC(2)$ values were comparable to the values in the broader organizational behavior literature. Specifically, $r_{wg(j)}$ values were above the .60 cutoff (James, 1982); $ICC(1)$ values were within the range of the broader organizational behavior literature (Bliese, 2000); and $ICC(2)$ values were above the .60 cutoff (Glick, 1985).

Overall Justice Climate. Overall justice climate was accessed using the 3-item overall justice climate scale that was modified from Ambrose and Schminke’s (2009) individual-level overall justice perception scale. The scale was re-worded to capture how fairly members are treated as a whole in their work groups. In other words, the referent

point was the work group. Items were “Overall, members are treated fairly in this work group,” “In general, members can count on this work group to be fair,” and “In general, the treatment members receive in this work group is fair.” Participants responded to a 7-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The coefficient alpha of the overall justice climate scale was .97. Aggregation was justified by $r_{wg(j)} = .84$, the reliability of individual assessment of the group mean ($ICC(1) = .45$), and the group mean ($ICC(2) = .73$). F-test results also supported aggregation (see Bliese, 2000).

Climate of Concern for Employees. Climate of concern for employees was assessed using the 8-item climate of concern for employee scale (Chuang & Liao, 2010). Chuang and Liao (2010) modified the original scale of Eisenberger et al. (1986) to measure the climate of concern for employees at the group (i.e., unit)-level. Items were “Our group cares about members’ opinions,” “Our group shows very little concern for members (R),” “Our group would forgive members’ honest mistakes,” “Our group really cares about members’ well-being,” “Our group is willing to help if members need a special favor,” “Our group strongly considers members’ goals and values,” “Help is available from our group when members have a problem,” and “If given the opportunity, our group would take advantage of members (R).” Participants responded to a 5-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The coefficient alpha of the climate of concern for employees scale was .83. Aggregation was justified by $r_{wg(j)} = .89$, the reliability of individual assessment of the group mean ($ICC(1) = .37$), and the group mean ($ICC(2) = .65$). F-test results also supported aggregation (see Bliese, 2000).

Social Interaction. Social interaction was assessed using 4 items adapted from Klein et al.’s (2001) 9-item scale that captures group-level social interaction. The shorter

form of this measure was used by Kim, Bhave, and Glomb (2010). They shortened it because of organizational constraints on survey length and content redundancy. Items were “How often do members of your work group spend breaks or lunches socializing with each other?” “How often do members of your work group get together with one another outside of work?” “How much do members of your work group take a personal interest in one another” and “Are the members of your work group good friends with one another?” Participants used a five-point scale from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) for the first two items and 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*) for the last two items. The coefficient alpha of the social interaction scale was .85. Aggregation was justified by $r_{wg(j)} = .79$, the reliability of individual assessment of the group mean ($ICC(1) = .16$), and the group mean ($ICC(2) = .42$). F-test results also supported aggregation. Although the $ICC(2)$ value is somewhat low (i.e., cut-off is .60), several researchers suggested that lower $ICC(2)$ values do not prevent aggregation, if theory supports the aggregation and other statistics (e.g., $r_{wg(j)}$, and F-statistics) justify the aggregation (see Bliese, 2000; Liao & Chuang, 2007).

Transformational Leadership. Transformation leadership was assessed using the 20-item Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Form 5x-Short; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Copyright © 1995 Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio. All Rights Reserved. Published by Mind Garden, Inc.). Sample items were “Talk about their most important values and beliefs,” “Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group,” “Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group,” “Acts in ways that builds my respect,” and “Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.” Participants responded to a 5-point scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*frequently, if not*

always). Because the MLQ is originally on a scale of 0 ~ 4, mean levels comparison with other studies is not appropriate. To create the group-level transformation leadership scale, I averaged each work group member's score for his or her leader. Principal factor analysis confirmed a single factor structure and the coefficient alpha of the transformational leadership scale was .97. Aggregation was justified by $r_{wg(j)} = .88$, the reliability of individual assessment of the group mean ($ICC(1) = .35$), and the group mean ($ICC(2) = .64$). F-test results also supported aggregation (see Bliese, 2000).

Dependent Variables

Victimization. Victimization was assessed using an 8-item victimization scale (Aquino et al., 1999). Items were "How often has a team member said bad things about you to your coworkers?" "How often has a team member sabotaged your work?" "How often has your team member done something to make you look bad?" "How often has a team member lied to you in trouble?" "How often has a team member made an offensive slur toward you?" "How often has a team member made an obscene comment or gesture in front of you?" "How often has a team member threatened you with physical harm?" and "How often has a team member cursed at you?" Participants indicated the frequency of their victimization using a 5-point scale from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*). The coefficient alpha of the victimization scale was .86.

Victimization was also assessed using a 1-item network survey (Venkataramani & Dalal, 2007) to compare the results using a single-item network question with a multiple-item scale. Participants were asked the following network question: "How frequently do you think this person has engaged in activities against your legitimate interest (e.g., spreading rumors, gossiping behinds your back, being rude to you, interfering your

work)?” Victimization was measured using out-degree victimization centrality (i.e., self-reports). Participants responded to a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*). I calculated the out-degree victimization-centrality score by the following formula: the sum of the participant’s self-reported responses divided by the number of participants in a work group excluding the focal individual (see Wasserman & Faust, 1994).

Control Variables

Guided by previous workplace victimization literature (e.g., Aquino & Thau, 1999; Bowling & Beehr, 2006), I controlled for demographics (i.e., age, gender, and tenure), personality traits (i.e., positive and negative affectivity), and stress. Specifically, early research by Hentig (1948) and Schafer (1968) suggested that older individuals and females are more likely to be victims. However, recent empirical evidence on the relationship between employee demographics and victimization showed mixed findings and fairly small correlations (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). For example, some researchers found no significant correlations between demographics and victimization (e.g., Vartia, 1996), whereas others have found significant relationships (e.g., Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997). In this study, I controlled for an employee’s age, sex, and tenure. Personality traits such as negative affectivity generally show consistent links with victimization ($r = .21$, Bowling & Beehr, 2006). Thus, I used the short-form of the positive and negative affect scale ($\alpha = .74$ & $.87$ respectively, $1 = \textit{very slightly or not at all} \sim 5 = \textit{very much}$, Thompson, 2007; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) to control for positive and negative affectivity. Stress is related to victimization because stress may generate negative affective and behavioral responses that spark victimization. Also, the high level of stress reported by victims may imply the presence of ambient stressors

experienced by work group members (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). I controlled for stress using a 4-item subjective stress scale ($\alpha = .85$, 1 = *strongly disagree* ~ 5 = *strongly agree*, Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986).

Chapter 6: Results

The descriptive statistics and correlations for the study variables are presented in Table 2. Task performance was significantly correlated with victimization ($r = .15, p < .05$). Three mediators--envy ($r = .26, p < .01$), competition ($r = .30, p < .01$), and condescension ($r = .32, p < .01$)--were significantly correlated with victimization, but were not significantly correlated with task performance ($r = .12, -.03, .03, n.s.$ respectively). Several control variables such as negative affectivity ($r = .29, p < .01$) and job stress ($r = .17, p < .01$) were also significantly correlated with victimization. This pattern is consistent with the Bowling and Beehr's (2006) meta-analytic review ($r = .21$ for negative affectivity, $r = .22 \sim .44$ for job stress related variables).

Mediation Tests

Hypotheses 1 through 3 predicted that task performance was positively related to victimization through both unintentional (e.g., envy and competition) and intentional (e.g., condescending behaviors) mechanisms. Following Baron and Kenny (1986), I tested the mediating mechanisms of envy (H1), competition (H2), and condescending behaviors (H3). Although there are different statistical methods for testing mediation (see Lebreton, Wu, & Bing, 2009), several studies have suggested Baron and Kenny's method to be one of the most conservative tests of mediation (see MacKinnon, 2008; MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007). To test these mediating mechanisms, I conducted random coefficient modeling (RCM) analyses with group-mean centering level-1 predictors (i.e., each person's data are centered around the group mean) to capture the relative position of the group member in the group. Specifically, using `xtmixed` command in STATA 11.0, I first estimated a model where victimization was regressed on task performance with no

predictors at level 2. This RCM method accounts for the nested structure of data (i.e., employees within a work group). Next, I estimated models where task performance was related to mediators. In the final step, I included task performance and the mediators together in predicting victimization.

Tables 3 and 4 present the mediation results. As shown in Model 2 in Table 4, task performance was positively related to victimization ($\gamma = .15, p < .01$). To test the Hypothesis 1 regarding the role of envy as a mediator, I examined whether task performance is positively related to envy. As shown in Model 2 in Table 3, task performance was positively related to envy ($\gamma = .16, p < .01$). Finally, as shown in Model 3 in Table 4, task performance was still significant with decreased coefficient size, and envy was significantly related to victimization ($\gamma = .12, p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported (i.e., partial mediation). The Sobel (1982) test confirmed that envy significantly reduced the significance of task performance in predicting victimization ($z = 2.54, p < .05$).

To test Hypothesis 2 regarding the role of competition as a mediator, I followed same steps. As reported in Model 4 in Table 3, task performance was positively related to competition ($\gamma = .16, p < .05$). Next, as shown in Model 4 in Table 4, task performance was still significant with decreased coefficient size, and competition was significantly related to victimization ($\gamma = .14, p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported (i.e., partial mediation). The Sobel (1982) test confirmed that competition significantly reduced the significance of task performance in predicting victimization ($z = 2.66, p < .01$).

To test Hypothesis 3 regarding the role of condescension as a mediator, I tested whether task performance was positively related to condescension. As reported in Model 6 in Table 3, task performance was not significantly related to condescending behaviors ($\gamma = .06, n.s.$) although victimization is predicted by condescending behavior ($\gamma = .25, p < .01$, Model 5 in Table 4). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

In Model 6 of Table 4, I simultaneously tested the combined role of all of the mediators on victimization. The results suggested that competition, but not envy, partially mediated the relationship between task performance and victimization. The high correlation between competition and envy ($r = .50$) may cause the insignificant finding of envy. The Sobel (1982) test confirmed that competition reduced the significance of task performance in predicting victimization ($z = 1.93, p = .053$).

In summary, the relationship between task performance and victimization was mediated by envy and competition but not condescension.

Moderated-Mediation Tests

Hypotheses 4 through 8 predicted that the relationship between task performance and victimization was moderated by several work group contextual factors including collective identity (H4), overall justice climate (H5), climate of concern for employees (H6), social interaction (H7), and transformational leadership (H8). Following the method suggested by Edwards and Lambert (2007), I tested the moderated-mediation model that integrates the moderation and mediation processes. This analysis tested whether or not the strengths of the mediated relationships (i.e., envy, competition, and condescension) between task performance and victimization are dependent on work group contextual factors (i.e., collective identity, overall justice climate, climate of

concern of employees, social interaction, and transformational leadership) such that the direct and indirect effects of task performance would be weaker when work groups are higher in these five contextual factors (see Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006; Duffy, Scott, Shaw, Tepper, & Aquino, in press, for empirical examples of moderated-mediation in multilevel models).

To test these cross-level moderated-mediation effects, I conducted RCM analysis. First, using `xtmixed` command in STATA 11.0, I estimated a null model that has no predictors at either the individual- or the group-level to confirm between-group variations in victimization ($\tau_{00} = .15, p < .01, ICC(1) = \tau_{00} / (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2) = .10$). It implied that the group-level residual variance of the intercept was significant and 10 percent of variance in victimization resided between work groups, and 90 percent of variance resided within work groups. Next, I estimated the cross-level moderated-mediation models by adding individual- and group-level predictors with interaction terms. Kreft and de Leeuw (1998) recommended using a simple model that includes each cross-level interaction separately because the complexity of the cross-level model may cause the incorrect conclusion that there is no interaction effect when, in fact, there is an interaction effect (i.e., Type II error). Thus, I tested the cross-level moderated-mediation models separately rather than simultaneously (see Wilk & Moynihan, 2005 for a similar approach). However, I provided the results using simultaneous model for comparison. Following the recommendation of Hofmann and Gavin (1998), I also grand-mean centered the level-2 predictors to lessen the effects of multicollinearity. Following the simulation study results of LaHuis and Ferguson (2009), I interpreted RCM coefficients at $p < .10$ level of significance (i.e., $p < .05$ if one-tailed). They recommended that when sample size is

smaller than 500 participants and 100 groups, $p < .10$ is a reasonable cut-off standard to achieve the best balance between low statistical power (i.e., higher Type II error rates) and Type 1 errors in the case of cross-level moderation tests (see also Bliese, 2010; Liao & Rupp, 2005).

For each work group contextual factor, I discuss the moderated-mediation results in several steps. First, I discuss two tables which present the moderating effects of work group contextual factors on the relationship between an independent variable and mediators (i.e., first stage), the relationship between mediators and a dependent variable (i.e., second stage), and the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable (i.e., direct effect). The first stage interaction terms (e.g., task performance x collective identity → envy in Model 2 of Table 5) can be interpreted as the coefficients which are related to the slopes for the relationship between an independent variable and mediators; the second stage interaction terms (e.g., envy x collective identity → victimization in Model 3 of Table 6) can be interpreted as the coefficients which are related to the slopes for the relationship between mediators and a dependent variable; the direct effect interaction terms (e.g., task performance x collective identity → victimization in Model 3 of Table 6) can be interpreted as the coefficients which are related to the slopes for the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable (see Bliese, 2010). An example of predicted equations is presented in Appendix II. To be conservative, I interpret all three effects together (i.e., total effects) to determine the statistical significance of moderated-mediation effects. I also interpret each effect separately to provide more detailed information. Next, I discuss the table which presents the results for the slope difference test between high and low levels of

each contextual factor. Finally, I explain the figures which illustrate the moderating effects of contextual factors. The summary of the moderated-mediation results is illustrated in Figure 2.

Results for Collective Identity Moderation

Hypothesis 4 proposes a buffering role of collective identity on the relationship between task performance and victimization. First, as reported in Model 2 of Table 5, collective identity moderated the relationship between task performance and envy (first stage, $\gamma = -.15, p < .10$); however, as reported in Model 3 of Table 6, collective identity neither moderated the relationship between envy and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.05, n.s.$) nor the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.03, n.s.$). Table 7 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low collective identity in the case of envy as a mediator. Simply put, Table 7 shows whether slopes differed significantly at high and low levels of collective identity (i.e., slope difference test). Following recommendations from Edwards and Lambert (2007), I used bootstrapping methods to construct bias-corrected confidence intervals on the basis of 1,000 random samples for the significance tests of indirect and total effects. The differences in the effects for high and low collective identity show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—envy) was weaker for high collective identity ($.06 - .20 = -.14, p < .10$) and the total effect was also weaker for high collective identity ($.06 - .10 = -.04, p < .10$). The second stage, direct, and indirect effects did not differ for high and low collective identity. Figure 3 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low collective identity in predicting envy and victimization. Figure 3a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and envy was

steeper for low collective identity. Figure 3b also shows that, for the total effect, the relationship between task performance and victimization was steeper for low collective identity.

Next, as reported in Model 4 of Table 5, collective identity moderated the relationship between task performance and competition (first stage, $\gamma = -.12, p < .10$). As reported in Model 4 of Table 6, collective identity moderated the relationship between competition and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.18, p < .01$), and the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.04, p < .10$). Table 7 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low collective identity in the case of competition as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low collective identity show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—competition) was weaker for high collective identity ($.04 - .16 = -.12, p < .10$) and the second stage of the indirect effect (competition—victimization) was also weaker for high collective identity ($-.01 - .13 = -.14, p < .01$). These differences resulted in a significantly weaker indirect effect for high collective identity ($.00 - .02 = -.02, p < .05$). The direct effect was also weaker for high collective identity ($.06 - .12 = -.06, p < .10$). Thus, the total effect (the sum of direct and indirect effects) was also weaker for high collective identity ($.06 - .14 = -.08, p < .10$). Figure 4 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low collective identity in predicting competition and victimization. Figure 4a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and competition was steeper for low collective identity. The similar pattern (i.e., the buffering role of collective identity) held for the second stage of indirect, direct, and total effects in Figure 4b, 4c, and 4d, respectively.

Finally, as reported in Model 6 of Table 5, collective identity moderated the relationship between task performance and condescension (first stage, $\gamma = -.16, p < .01$); as reported in Model 5 of Table 6, collective identity moderated the relationship between condescension and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.16, p < .01$), but not the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.02, n.s.$). Table 7 shows the analysis of the simple effects for victimization split by high and low collective identity in the case of condescension as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low collective identity show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—condescension) was weaker for high collective identity ($-.05 - .09 = -.14, p < .01$) and the second stage of the indirect effect (condescension—victimization) was weaker for high collective identity ($-.01 - .09 = -.10, p < .01$). The direct, indirect, and total effects did not differ for high and low collective identity. Figure 5 illustrates the differences in simple slope for high and low collective identity in predicting condescension and victimization. Figure 5a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and condescension was steeper for low collective identity. Figure 5b also shows that, for the second stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between condescension and victimization was steeper for low collective identity.

In summary, the relationships between task performance and the three mediators--envy, competition, and condescension (i.e., the first stage)--were consistently moderated by collective identity. In addition, the total effect was significant when envy and competition were mediators. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was generally supported.

Results for Overall Justice Climate Moderation

Hypothesis 5 proposes a buffering role of overall justice climate on the relationship between task performance and victimization. First, as reported in Model 2 of Table 8, overall justice climate moderated the relationship between task performance and envy (first stage, $\gamma = -.09, p < .05$); as reported in Model 3 of Table 9, overall justice climate moderated the relationship between envy and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.05, p < .10$), but not the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.03, n.s.$). Table 10 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low overall justice climate in the case of envy as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low overall justice climate show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—envy) was weaker for high overall justice climate ($.07 - .21 = -.14, p < .05$) and the second stage of the indirect effect (envy—victimization) was weaker for high overall justice climate ($.00 - .10 = -.10, p < .10$). The total effect was also weaker for high overall justice climate ($.06 - .14 = -.08, p < .10$). The direct and indirect effects did not differ for high and low overall justice climate. Figure 6 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low overall justice climate in predicting envy and victimization. Figure 6a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and envy was steeper for low overall justice climate. The similar pattern (i.e., the buffering role of overall justice) held for the second stage of indirect and total effects in Figure 6b, 6c, respectively.

Next, as reported in Model 4 of Table 8, overall justice climate did not moderate the relationship between task performance and competition (first stage, $\gamma = -.04, n.s.$); as reported in Model 4 of Table 9, overall justice climate moderated the relationship between competition and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.08, p < .01$), but not the

relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.04$, *n.s.*). Table 10 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low overall justice climate in the case of competition as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low overall justice climate show that the second stage of the indirect effect (competition—victimization) was weaker for high overall justice climate (.02 - .14 = -.12, $p < .01$) and the indirect effect was weaker for high overall justice climate (.00 - .02 = -.02, $p < .05$). The total effect was also weaker for high overall justice climate (.06 - .14 = -.08, $p < .10$). The first stage of indirect and direct effects did not differ for high and low overall justice climate. Figure 7 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low overall justice in predicting competition and victimization. Figure 7a shows that, for the second stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between competition and victimization was steeper for low overall justice climate. The similar pattern (i.e., the buffering role of overall justice) held for the total effect in Figure 7b.

Finally, as reported in Model 6 of Table 8, overall justice climate moderated the relationship between task performance and condescension (first stage, $\gamma = -.09$, $p < .01$); furthermore, as noted in Model 5 of Table 9, overall justice climate moderated the relationship between condescension to victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.08$, $p < .01$), but not the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.04$, *n.s.*). Table 10 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low overall justice climate in the case of condescension as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low overall justice climate show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—condescension) was weaker for high overall justice climate (-.02 - .12 = -.14, $p < .01$) and the second stage of the indirect effect (condescension—

victimization) was weaker for high overall justice climate ($.00 - .08 = -.08, p < .01$). These differences resulted in a significantly weaker indirect effect for high overall justice climate ($.00 - .01 = -.01, p < .05$). The total effect (the sum of direct and indirect effects) was also weaker for high overall justice climate ($.05 - .12 = -.07, p < .01$). The direct effect, however, did not differ for high and low overall justice climate. Figure 8 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low overall justice climate in predicting condensation and victimization. Figure 8a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and condensation was steeper for low overall justice climate. A similar pattern (i.e., the buffering role of overall justice) held for the second stage of indirect and total effects in Figure 8b and 8c, respectively.

In summary, the relationship between task performance and victimization was consistently moderated by overall justice climate. Specifically, the results show the significant total effects in all three cases of mediation. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was fully supported.

Results for Climate of Concern for Employees Moderation

Hypothesis 6 proposes a buffering role of climate of concern for employees on the relationship between task performance and victimization. First, as reported in Model 2 of Table 11, climate of concern for employees moderated the relationship between task performance and envy (first stage, $\gamma = -.20, p < .10$); however, as reported in Model 3 of Table 12, climate of concern neither moderated the relationship between envy and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.06, n.s.$) nor the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.08, n.s.$). Table 13 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low climate of concern for employees in the

case of envy as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low climate of concern for employees show that the first stage of indirect effect (task performance—envy) was weaker for high climate of concern for employees ($.06 - .20 = -.14, p < .10$). However, the second stage, direct, indirect, and total effects did not differ for high and low climate of concern for employees. Figure 9 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low climate of concern for employees in predicting envy and victimization. Figure 9a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and envy was steeper for low climate of concern for employees.

Next, as reported in Model 4 of Table 11, climate of concern for employees did not moderate the relationship between task performance and competition (first stage, $\gamma = .07, n.s.$); however, as reported in Model 4 of Table 12, climate of concern for employees moderated the relationship between competition to victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.15, p < .05$) and the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.09, p < .10$). Table 13 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low climate of concern for employees in the case of competition as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low climate of concern for employees show that the second stage of the indirect effect (competition—victimization) was weaker for high climate of concern for employees ($.02 - .14 = -.12, p < .05$). Both direct and indirect effects were weaker for high climate of concern for employees than were low climate of concern for employees, respectively ($.05 - .11 = -.06, p < .10$; $.00 - .02 = -.02, p < .10$). The first stage indirect effect and the total effect did not differ for high and low climate of concern for employees. Figure 10 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low climate of concern for employees in predicting competition and victimization. Figure 10a

shows that, for the second stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between competition and victimization was steeper for low climate of concern for employees. A similar pattern (i.e., the buffering role of climate of concern for employees) held for the direct effect in Figure 10b.

Finally, as reported in Model 6 of Table 11, climate of concern for employees moderated the relationship between task performance and condescension (first stage, $\gamma = -.17, p < .05$); as reported in Model 5 of Table 12, climate of concern for employees moderated the relationship between condescension to victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.16, p < .05$), but not the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.08, n.s.$). Table 13 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low climate of concern for employees in the case of condescension as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low climate of concern for employees show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—condescension) was weaker for high climate of concern for employees ($-.02 - .10 = -.12, p < .05$) and the second stage of the indirect effect (condescension—victimization) was weaker for high climate of concern for employees ($-.00 - .08 = -.08, p < .05$). These differences resulted in a significantly weaker indirect effect for high climate of concern for employees ($.00 - .01 = -.01, p < .10$). The total effect (the sum of direct and indirect effects) was also weaker for high climate of concern for employees ($.05 - .12 = -.07, p < .10$). The direct effect, however, did not differ for high and low climate of concern for employees. Figure 11 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low climate of concern for employees in predicting condescension and victimization. Figure 11a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance

and condescension was steeper for low climate of concern for employees. Similar patterns (i.e., the buffering role of climate of concern form employees) held for the second stage of indirect and total effects in Figure 11b and 11c.

In summary, the relationship between task performance and victimization was moderated by climate of concern for employees when condescension is a mediator (i.e., significant total effect). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was partially supported. The results show inconsistent patterns and non-significant total effects when envy and competition were mediators. For example, climate of concern for employees moderated the relationship between task performance and envy (i.e., the first stage) and the relationship between competition and victimization (i.e., the second stage), but not the other relationships.

Results for Social Interaction Moderation

Hypothesis 7 proposes a buffering role of social interaction on the relationship between task performance and victimization. First, as reported in Model 2 of Table 14, social interaction did not moderated the relationship between task performance and envy (first stage, $\gamma = -.13$, *n.s.*); also, as reported in Model 3 of Table 15, social interaction neither moderated the relationship between envy and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.08$, *n.s.*) nor the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.01$, *n.s.*). Table 16 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low social interaction in the case of envy as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low social interaction show that the first and second stage, direct, indirect, and total effects did not differ for high and low social interaction.

Next, as reported in Model 4 of Table 14, social interaction did not moderate the relationship between task performance and competition (first stage, $\gamma = -.02$, *n.s.*); as

reported in Model 4 of Table 15, social interaction moderated the relationship between competition and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.21, p < .01$), but not the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.04, n.s.$). Table 16 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low social interaction in the case of competition as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low social interaction show that the second stage of the indirect effect (competition—victimization) was weaker for high social interaction ($.00 - .18 = -.18, p < .01$). The indirect effect was also weaker for high social interaction ($.00 - .02 = -.02, p < .10$). The first stage, direct, and total effects did not differ for high and low social interaction. Figure 12 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low social interaction in predicting competition and victimization. Figure 12a shows that, for the second stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between competition and victimization was steeper for low social interaction.

Finally, as reported in Model 6 of Table 14, social interaction moderated the relationship between task performance and condescension (first stage, $\gamma = -.10, p < .10$); as reported in Model 5 of Table 15, social interaction moderated the relationship between condescension to victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.15, p < .05$), but not the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.01, n.s.$). Table 16 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low social interaction in the case of condescension as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low social interaction show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—condescension) was weaker for high transformational leadership ($.00 - .08 = -.08, p < .10$) and the second stage of the indirect effect (condescension—victimization) was weaker

for high social interaction ($.01 - .09 = -.08, p < .05$). These differences resulted in a significantly weaker indirect effect for high social interaction ($.00 - .01 = -.01, p < .10$). The direct and total effect, however, did not differ for high and low social interaction. Figure 13 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low social interaction in predicting condescending and victimization. Figure 13a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and condescension was steeper for low social interaction. A similar pattern (i.e., the buffering role of social interaction) held for the second stage of indirect effect in Figure 13b.

In summary, results show inconsistent moderation patterns of social interaction and non-significant total effects in all three cases of mediation. Thus, Hypothesis 7 was not supported.

Results for Transformational Leadership Moderation

Hypothesis 8 proposes a buffering role of transformational leadership on the relationship between task performance and victimization. First, as reported in Model 2 of Table 17, transformational leadership moderated the relationship between task performance and envy (first stage, $\gamma = -.14, p < .10$); however, as noted in Model 3 of Table 18, transformational leadership neither moderated the relationship between envy and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.05, n.s.$) nor the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.02, n.s.$). Table 19 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low transformational leadership in the case of envy as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low transformational leadership show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—envy) was weaker for high transformational leadership ($.06 - .20 = -.14, p$

< .10). The second stage, direct, indirect, and total effects did not differ for high and low transformational leadership. Figure 14 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low transformational leadership in predicting envy and victimization. Figure 14a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and envy was steeper for low transformational leadership.

Next, as reported in Model 4 of Table 17, transformational leadership did not moderate the relationship between task performance and competition (first stage, $\gamma = -.02$, *n.s.*); as reported in Model 4 of Table 18, transformational leadership moderated the relationship between competition and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.16$, $p < .01$), but not the relationship between task performance and competition (direct effect, $\gamma = -.03$, *n.s.*). Table 19 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low transformational leadership in the case of competition as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low transformational leadership show that the second stage of the indirect effect (competition—victimization) was weaker for high transformational leadership ($.03 - .17 = -.14$, $p < .01$). The indirect effect was also weaker for high transformational leadership ($.00 - .02 = -.02$, $p < .10$). The total effect was also weaker for high transformational leadership ($.07 - .11 = -.04$, $p < .10$). The first stage and the direct effects did not differ for high and low transformational leadership. Figure 15 illustrates differences in simple slope for high and low transformational leadership in predicting competition and victimization. Figure 15a shows that, for the second stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between competition and victimization was steeper for low transformational leadership. A similar pattern (i.e., the buffering role of transformational leadership) held for the total effect in Figure 15b.

Finally, as reported in Model 6 of Table 17, transformational leadership moderated the relationship between task performance and condescension (first stage, $\gamma = -.11, p < .01$); as reported in Model 5 of Table 18, transformational leadership moderated the relationship between condescension and victimization (second stage, $\gamma = -.13, p < .05$), but not the relationship between task performance and victimization (direct effect, $\gamma = -.04, n.s.$). Table 19 shows the analysis of simple effects for victimization split by high and low transformational leadership in the case of condescension as a mediator. The differences in the effects for high and low transformational leadership show that the first stage of the indirect effect (task performance—condescension) was weaker for high transformational leadership ($-.01 - .09 = -.10, p < .01$) and the second stage of the indirect effect (condescension—victimization) was weaker for high transformational leadership ($-.01 - .09 = -.08, p < .05$). The direct, indirect, and total effect, however, did not differ for high and low transformational leadership. Figure 16 illustrates the differences in simple slope for high and low transformational leadership in predicting condescension and victimization. Figure 16a shows that, for the first stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between task performance and condescension was steeper for low transformational leadership. Figure 16b also shows that, for the second stage of the indirect effect, the relationship between condescension and victimization was steeper for low transformational leadership.

In summary, the relationship between task performance and victimization was moderated by transformational leadership when competition is a mediator (i.e., significant total effect). Thus, Hypothesis 8 was partially supported. The results show inconsistent patterns and non-significant total effects when envy and condescension were

mediators. For example, transformational leadership moderated the relationship between task performance and envy/condescension (i.e., the first stage) and the relationship between condescension and victimization (i.e., the second stage), but not the other relationships.

Supplemental Tests

I tested the same regression models using the three victimization-network measures (i.e., continuous, dichotomous, and maximum values) for comparison with victimization scale. In particular, a continuous network measure can capture the intensity, a dichotomous network measure can capture the frequency, and a maximum network measure can capture the power of negative ties. The correlations among these three measures range from .78 to .91 (i.e., $r = .91$ for victimization-network [continuous] and victimization network [dichotomous], $r = .88$ for victimization network [continuous] and victimization network [maximum], and $r = .78$ for victimization network [dichotomous] and victimization network [maximum]).

I found consistent pattern of results for the mediation models across all three victimization-network measures and the victimization scale; envy and competition mediated the relationship between task performance and victimization. The mediation results are reported in Appendix I. However, I did not find consistent pattern of results for moderated-mediation models across all three victimization-network measures and the victimization scale; the moderating effects of work group contextual factors were mostly insignificant when using victimization-network measures. The summary figures of the moderated-mediation results and RCM regression results are reported in Appendix I, and the potential reasons for insignificant findings are noted in the Discussion section.

Chapter 7: Discussion

A Brief Recap of Study Findings

I developed and tested a social context model that addressed the victimization of high performing employees with a special focus on (1) the unfavorable social comparison mechanisms that occur between high performers and other fellow employees and (2) the work group contextual factors in order to determine whether certain features may exacerbate or mitigate the social comparison mechanism and the high performance victim effect. This study supported the proposition that high performers are more likely to be targets of victimization because of unintentional instigations—fellow group members’ envy and competition. However, this study did not support the proposition that high performers are more likely to be targets of victimization because of intentional instigations—high performers’ condescending behaviors. Next, this study generally supported the proposition that collective identity and justice climate mitigate unfavorable social comparison mechanisms and high performance victim phenomenon from taking place. However, this study did not fully support the proposition that climate of concern for employees, social interaction, and transformational leadership, mitigate the victimization of high performers. Below, I elaborate on the theoretical implications of the study findings, offer some practical implications, and discuss study limitations and future directions.

Theoretical Implications

A key contribution of this study is the introduction of a social context model that explains why and under what circumstances high performers experience victimization. First, although anecdotal evidence implied that high performers may be more prone to

victimization, we still have a dearth of theoretical and empirical evidence that tests whether or not unfavorable social comparison serves as a key mechanism that explains the victimization of high performers. Integrating the dispersed theory and research on victim precipitation and social comparison, I introduced envy, competition, and condescending behaviors as intervening mechanisms of victimization of high performers. The significant results of envy and competition suggest that unfavorable social comparison toward high performers plays an important role in shaping high performance victim phenomenon in the workplace. Although envy and competition may result in positive organizational outcomes, envy and competition may also result in deleterious organizational outcomes such as victimization against envied coworkers or rivals (see Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Tai et al., 2012). In particular, to reduce or remove the advantages higher performers enjoy at work compared with them, employees may engage in harming behaviors toward the high performers. The insignificant results of condescending suggest that high performing victims fall under what Schafer (1977) categorized as an “innocent victim” in his victim precipitation model. As such, we should be cautious in casting blame on high performance victims while curtailing perpetrators’ responsibility. However, we should be cautious in interpreting this result because (1) there may be *intentional* competition- or envy-provoking events by high performers or (2) *unintentional* condescending behaviors by high performers. In the victimization literature, there has been some discussion on whether antisocial behaviors should be considered as intentional or unintentional behaviors (see O’Leary-Kelly, Duffy, & Griffin, 2000). In this study, I include both intentional and unintentional components, but

acknowledge that we need more research to clearly distinguish between the intentional and unintentional components in victimization.

A possible reason for this insignificant finding of intentional instigations (i.e., condescending behaviors by high performers) is that high performers may more likely be concerned about other group members' self-evaluations or reactions, which lead to the high performers displaying self-effacing behaviors rather than condescending behaviors toward their group members (e.g., "playing dumb" phenomenon, Exline & Lobel, 1999). For example, in the school context, research found that gifted students were more likely to engage in "camouflaging" behaviors to hide their superior performance from peers (e.g., Cross, Coleman, & Stewart, 1993). The null findings and alternative explanations suggest that *sensitivity about being the target of a threatening upward comparison* (STTUC, Exline & Lobel, 1999) may serve as a boundary condition of the links between task performance and condescending or self-effacing behaviors, such that when high performers are high in STTUC, they are less (more) likely to show condescending (self-effacing) behaviors than those low in STTUC.

Next, this study further introduces several group-level contextual factors as boundary conditions of the unfavorable social comparison mechanisms and the victimization of high performers. Integrating several group context (e.g., collective identity, justice climate, and transformational leadership) theories and research into the social comparison-based instigation model, I proposed that work group contextual factors (i.e., collective identity, justice climate, transformational leadership, climate of concern of employees, and social interaction) tempers the victimization of high performers by reducing the unfavorable social comparison mechanisms. The significant results of

collective identity and justice climate illuminate the essential role that work group context plays in shaping social comparison mechanisms and high performance victim phenomenon at the individual-level. Investigating the troubling and important phenomenon—workplace victimization—through the lens of multilevel perspective contributes to understanding the importance of work group context as a situational buffer of high performer victimization. This finding extends the previous understanding of the role that collective identity and justice climate play in the workplace. Not only are collective identity and justice climate positively related to organizational outcomes (see Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005), but these are also important situational buffers of high performer victimization. Regarding collective identity, this result is consistent with Brewer and Gardner's (1996) research that collective identity alters social comparison processes and outcomes (e.g., basis of self-evaluation, frame of reference, and basic social motivation). Thus, employees view the high performers as the pride of the group rather than as the targets of envy, competition, or interpersonal aggression. Regarding justice climate, this result is consistent with Duffy and colleagues' (2008) assertion that justice climate may serve as an antidote to the negative interpersonal effects of esteem-damaging social comparisons (see also Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007); it is also consistent with justice theories including uncertainty management theory and the group engagement model. Simply put, when justice climate is high, employees are able to maintain or restore their self-esteem and view as justified the advantages and benefits high performers enjoy.

A possible reason for the insignificant moderating roles of transformational leadership, climate of concern for employees, and social interaction may be the low

statistical power in detecting the interactions. A pilot test that I conducted prior this study using 2563 employees in 234 work groups with a large Midwest university found the significant moderating roles of climate of concern for employees and social interaction on the relationship between self-reported task performance and victimization. Thus, the insignificant interaction may be driven by low power from the small sample size of this study (McClelland & Judd, 1993). Another explanation for the insignificant interaction regarding transformational leadership is that the effects of transformational leadership are two-pronged: one toward the individual and another toward the group. Wu and his colleagues (2010) suggested that two facets of transformational leadership—individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation—are categorized as individual-focused leadership and two other facets of transformational leadership—inspirational motivation and idealized influence—are categorized as group-focused leadership. They further argued and found that individual-focused leadership reduced collective efficacy and group effectiveness, but group-focused leadership increased collective identity, collective efficacy, and group effectiveness. This finding provides support for the distinctiveness of individual- and group-focused leadership foci and their unique effects on social comparison mechanisms in work groups. Although group-focused leadership may temper the victimization of high performer by buffering the unfavorable social comparison between high performers and other group members, individual-focused leadership may not buffer the social comparison mechanisms and may even trigger these social comparison mechanisms.

I did not find a consistent pattern of results when using victimization-network items (i.e., continuous, dichotomous, and maximum values); the moderating effects of work group contextual factors are mostly insignificant. This inconsistent finding may be explained by potential measurement errors of victimization-network. Although the survey clearly indicated that confidentiality is guaranteed and emphasized the importance of candid answers, it may be possible that the participants were reluctant to report their victimization experience when using a network survey questionnaire that lists all the names of the work group members. The participants may have different perceptions regarding survey questions directed at specific individual (i.e., *dyadic perceptions*) compared to question directed at work group as a whole (i.e., *holistic perceptions*). In addition, Rogers (2002) reported that moderating effects are less likely to be detected when main effects are small (small effect size = .02, medium effect size = .15, large effect size = .35) because they place a mathematical constraint on the significant moderating effects. In this study, the correlations between task performance and victimization-network range from .03 to .08 (compared to $r = .15$ for the task performance-victimization-scale). Thus, it may be that this small effect size constrains the detection of significant moderating effects. More studies are necessary to clarify the difference between dyadic and holistic measures in this domain.

Overall, this study takes an important first step in developing and testing the social context model of the victimization of high performers. One of the critical contributions of this model is that it integrates the disconnected theories surrounding victim precipitation, social comparison, and group context. This integrated model differs from theories of victim precipitation and social comparison in that it suggests that the

mechanisms leading from high task performance to victimization depends on fellow employees' unfavorable social comparison such as envy and competition toward high performers. To the best of my knowledge, no previous theories have introduced envy and competition as intervening mechanisms of the victimization of high performers. This integrated model goes even further by proposing that the unfavorable social comparison mechanisms can be mitigated by work group contextual factors including collective identity and overall justice climate. The product of this theoretical integration paints a fuller picture of the victimization of high performers in the workplace. Furthermore, this study suggests promising avenues for future research that could help us better understand the critical role that social context plays on the interpersonal relationship between high, average, and poor performers in the workplace.

Practical Implications

Workplace victimization causes severe costs to individuals, organizations, and societies worldwide. According to the International Labor Organization (ILO), the cost estimates of workplace victimization have ranged from \$3 billion to \$35.4 billion in a year (Hoel, Sparks, & Cooper, 2001). Although it is difficult and sometimes unnecessary to eliminate social comparison among work group members altogether (see Goodman, 1977), managers may mitigate the negative outcomes of social comparison by providing interpersonal relationship training sessions for employees to reduce the feeling of envy and the sense of destructive competition toward high performers and to avoid partaking in condescending behaviors toward lower performers. Manager can also prevent the threat to employees' self-evaluations by providing sufficient resources and opportunities to improve their confidence and task performance. Beyond the above practices, this study

suggests that managers can reduce the likelihood of unfavorable social comparisons (e.g., envy and competition) that increase the victimization of high performers from taking place by promoting group identity and a fair environment. To increase group identity, managers can provide team-building training sessions and team-based compensation as well as organize frequent social gatherings. To promote a fair environment, managers can develop a consistent and unbiased performance evaluation system, treat employees with respect, and maintain communication with employees in a candid manner. In summary, from a practical standpoint, this study suggests guidelines to build a better workplace that promotes both employee well-being and organizational performance by illustrating the unfavorable social comparison mechanisms through which work group context mitigates the high performance victim phenomenon.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study has some limitations. First, the external validity of these findings may be limited because these data were collected from three organizations in South Korea. Korean culture is considered to be high in collectivism and interdependence (Heine & Buchtel, 2009; Hofstede, 1991). However, one advantage is that this study hints at the generalizability of the social context model of victimization across cultures. Despite being derived from the victimization and social comparison literature based on individualist cultures, the model was supported in a collectivist culture (see Aquino & Thau, 2009), suggesting the theoretical model is not culturally bounded. In addition, it is possible that organization- or industry-level factors affect the study findings. I controlled for these higher-level factors using alternative techniques (e.g., organization and industry dummy) to account for the nested structure; the pattern of results was virtually the same.

Future studies that constructively replicate these results in other cultural, industrial, organizational, and team context will be necessary.

Second, this study used single-item network-based measures to assess envy, competition, and condescension networks. Using multi-item questions is an ideal way of assessing these networks, but it may cause extreme fatigue and low response rates. As such, social network researchers, having faced such dilemma, have widely used single-item measures to assess networks (e.g., Baldwin, Bedell, & Johnson, 1997; Klein, Lim, Saltz, & Mayer, 2004; Sparrowe, et al., 2001; see Kilduff and Brass, 2010 for a review). Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) demonstrated that single-item measures can be reliable when the construct is unambiguous and narrow to the study participants. Following this suggestion, I provided specific explanation with examples by using reliable scales to reduce vagueness of study participants (see Ferrin et al., 2006, for a same approach). Furthermore, although network-based measures are single-item, they are also multi-source ratings. Performance feedback literature found that multi-source ratings comprehensively captured the theoretical constructs above and beyond the single-source ratings (e.g., Oh & Berry, 2009; Oh, Wang, & Mount, 2011). Thus, being based on multi-source ratings alleviates the concerns in regards to using single-item network measures.

Third, this study focused on the most basic measure of social networks in work groups; it limited the use of network matrices to independent, mediator, and dependent variables. Specifically, although I used sociomatrix that lists all work group members' names in data collection, I did not analyze the complex forms of dyadic networks; instead I analyzed the most basic network measure (i.e., in-degree centrality) which is consistent with the study hypotheses. It also did not capture the victimization phenomenon from

outside of the work group. Future studies that use organization-level networks will be necessary to analyze the dyadic relationship between two actors by creating a task performance matrix (i.e., difference score between two actors) and by using Quadratic Assignment Procedure (QAP) multiple regression. In addition, it may be fruitful to replicate the social comparison mechanisms at the work group-level (i.e., intergroup networks) or at the organization-level (i.e., inter-firm networks).

Fourth, there was a tradeoff between high within-group response rate (98%) and low total response rate (23%). Because network methods generally require high response rate, I excluded work groups with less than 80 percent participation at time 1 and at time 2 surveys. Although this approach contributed to the formation of robust group-level variables, it decreased the total response rate compared with other studies in top tier journals (e.g., the average response rate = 52.7 percent; Baruch & Holtom, 2008). To reduce this concern, I compared the final sample to the sample with insufficient response rates, and found no significant differences between these two samples. As such, low total response rate would not necessarily invalidate our study results (see Newman, 2009).

There are additional avenues for extending this research. I encourage future research to consider organization-level human resource management (HRM) systems or practices as boundary conditions of high performance victim phenomenon. For example, what types of HRM systems exacerbate or buffer this phenomenon? According to the social exchange theoretical perspective on the employee-organization relationship (Blau, 1964; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Hite, 1995), (1) HRM inducement and investment and (2) HRM expectation-enhancing systems may differentially influence the victimization of high performers (see Shaw, Dineen, Fang, & Vellella, 2009). HRM inducement and

investment (e.g., high levels of pay and benefits level, job security, training, and procedural justice) may buffer this relationship because it enhances mutual trust and considerations of coworkers' well-being beyond employees' self-interest. For example, if low performers are rewarded well for high performers' successes, it may mitigate the victimization of high performers. However, HRM expectation-enhancing (e.g., pay for performance, frequent performance appraisal, and monitoring) practices may exacerbate this relationship because it triggers the employees' self-interest and makes it more likely for unfavorable social comparison toward high performers to take place. For example, pay-for-performance system may exacerbate the victimization of high performers because the zero-sum nature of this reward system increases the chance that high performers will receive the larger portion of reward than fellow coworkers, thus, lowering fellow coworkers' self-evaluation and heightening their sense of relative deprivation.

It is also important to examine the individual characteristics of high performance victims as these may affect the degree to which the victims rebound from victimization and return to their previous high levels of performance. This can be done using organization records of performance rating and surveys. In particular, individual difference variables including core self-evaluation (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002), resilience (Block & Kremen, 1996) or psychological capital (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007) may serve as boundary conditions of the performance trajectory of high performance victims; after being victimized, individuals high in core self-evaluation, resilience, or psychological capital may recover their high performance levels more quickly than those low in these characteristics because individuals high in these

characteristics have more personal resources to cope with and bounce back from victimization.

Although this study focused on the negative outcomes of envy, it may also be interesting to examine both positive and negative outcomes of envy simultaneously. Tai and his colleagues (2012) provided a conceptual model wherein envy would activate challenge- and threat-oriented action tendencies, which would, in turn, result in positive and negative organizational outcomes (e.g., task performance, prosocial behavior, and social undermining), respectively. They further argued that the degree to which envy positively and negatively affects organizational outcomes is shaped by envious individuals' core self-evaluation, referent cognitions including warmth and competence, and group-level contextual factors including organizational support and justice climate. It is necessary to empirically demonstrate this model.

In conclusion, this study makes a contribution to the investigation of the mechanisms and work group context in the victimization of high performers by integrating various theoretical perspectives and using a rigorous research design. The results highlight social comparison-driven psychological states and behaviors in predicting the victimization of high performers and the role that work group context plays in this relationship. Given these findings, future research on workplace victimization using multilevel perspective is necessary.

Table 1
Sample Characteristics

Organization	1	2	3
Industry	Government	Advertising Agency 1	Advertising Agency 2
Total number of employees/teams	902/178	21/5	34/10
Total number of participants/teams	167/53	21/5	29/9
Response Rate (Individual- and Team-level)	19/30%	100/100%	85/90%
Gender(female proportion)	47%	43%	66%
Organization Tenure (year)	12.20	2.57	2.55
Team Tenure(years)	1.95	2.14	2.31
Age(years)	41	30	28
Education	2.6	2.8	2.5

Note. Education (1 = high school, 2 = 2-year college, 3 = bachelor's degree, 4= master's or doctorate degree).

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
<i>Individual-level variables</i>															
1. Age (years)	38.18	8.64													
2. Gender	0.49	0.50	-0.33												
3. Workgroup tenure (years)	2.02	1.85	0.04	-0.02											
4. Job stress	3.36	0.78	-0.05	0.09	-0.05										
5. Positive affectivity	3.02	0.70	0.09	-0.09	-0.01	0.04									
6. Negative affectivity	2.20	0.78	0.05	0.01	-0.04	0.57	0.06								
7. Envy	1.81	0.81	-0.01	0.06	-0.07	0.03	-0.02	-0.01							
8. Competition	1.80	0.78	-0.08	-0.08	-0.08	0.04	-0.02	0.06	0.50						
9. Condescension	1.27	0.48	0.04	-0.12	0.04	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.17	0.26					
10. Task performance	4.09	0.72	0.18	0.03	0.11	-0.08	0.23	-0.06	0.12	-0.03	0.03				
11. Victimization (scale)	1.28	0.41	0.02	-0.09	0.01	0.17	-0.06	0.29	0.26	0.30	0.32	0.15			
12. Victimization(network: continuous)	1.20	0.44	0.01	-0.07	0.06	0.03	-0.10	0.14	0.29	0.31	0.45	0.08	0.62		
13. Victimization(network: dichotomous)	.14	.14	0.02	-0.05	0.04	0.02	-0.07	0.10	0.24	0.29	0.38	0.08	0.53	0.91	
14. Victimization(network: maximum)	1.38	0.77	0.02	-0.02	0.09	0.07	-0.12	0.14	0.26	0.27	0.46	0.03	0.56	0.88	0.78
<i>Group-level variables</i>															
1. Collective identity	3.57	0.64		0.50	0.47	0.53	0.60								
2. Overall justice climate	5.42	1.11	0.62		0.68	0.50	0.56								
3. Climate of concern for employees	3.85	0.47	0.57	0.79		0.58	0.64								
4. Social interaction	3.50	0.55	0.56	0.55	0.62		0.61								
5. Transformational leadership	3.67	0.64	0.68	0.64	0.76	0.69									

Note. At the individual-level, correlations greater than .14 are significant at $p < .05$; those greater than .17 are significant at $p < .01$. At the group-level, correlations greater than .24 are significant at $p < .05$; those greater than .31 are significant at $p < .01$. Within group-level variables block, individual-level correlations are above the diagonal. Gender: female =1, male=0.

Table 3
Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators

Variable	Envy		Competition		Condescension	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.63 **	1.82 **	1.93 **	1.35 **	1.03 **	1.09 **
Age	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	0.16	0.12	-0.11	-0.14	-0.05	-0.06
Tenure	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	0.00	-0.01
Job stress	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01
Positive affectivity	0.00	-0.04	0.00	-0.03	0.05	0.04
Negative affectivity	-0.14	-0.13	-0.02	-0.01	0.00	0.00
Task performance		0.16 **		0.16 *		0.06
Model deviance	494.24	487.56	452.86	447.78	268.34	266.54
Pseudo R-squared	0.07	0.11	0.03	0.06	0.01	0.06

Note. $N = 217$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula $((\text{unrestricted error} - \text{restricted error}) / \text{unrestricted error})$ from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test).

Table 4
Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization

Variable	Victimization					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.12 **	1.27 **	1.04 **	0.95 **	0.98 **	0.73 **
Age	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	-0.09	-0.12 *	-0.13 *	-0.08	-0.09	-0.08
Tenure	0.00	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Job stress	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Positive affectivity	-0.04	-0.07	-0.06	-0.07	-0.08 *	-0.08 *
Negative affectivity	0.14 **	0.15 **	0.15 **	0.14 **	0.15 **	0.15 **
Task performance		0.15 **	0.12 **	0.14 **	0.12 **	0.11 **
Envy			0.12 **			0.06
Competition				0.14 **		0.08 *
Condescension					0.25 **	0.20 **
Model deviance	199.50	185.48	171.90	167.86	165.92	150.62
Pseudo R-squared	0.05	0.16	0.19	0.19	0.18	0.22

Note. $N = 217$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times$ log-likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula $((\text{unrestricted error} - \text{restricted error}) / \text{unrestricted error})$ from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 5
*Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with
 Collective Identity as the Moderator*

Variable	Envy		Competition		Condescension	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.80 **	1.80 **	2.03 **	2.04 **	1.03 **	1.03 **
Age	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	0.12	0.13	-0.14 †	-0.14	-0.08	-0.07
Tenure	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04 †	-0.05 †	0.00	-0.01
Job stress	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03
Positive affectivity	-0.03	-0.03	-0.02	-0.02	0.06	0.06
Negative affectivity	-0.14	-0.14 †	-0.02	-0.02	-0.01	-0.01
Task performance	0.20 **	0.18 **	0.15 **	0.13 *	0.05	0.03
Collective identity	-0.12	-0.13	-0.18 †	-0.19 †	-0.26 **	-0.27 **
Task performance x Collective identity		-0.15 †		-0.12 †		-0.16 **
Model deviance	486.66	483.66	445.86	443.30	250.16	241.58
Pseudo R-squared	0.12	0.14	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.11

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 6

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Collective Identity as the Moderator

Variable	Victimization					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.15 **	1.15 **	1.12 **	1.09 **	1.04 **	1.09 **
Age	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	-0.10 *	-0.10 *	-0.10 *	-0.11 *	-0.10 *	-0.10 *
Tenure	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Job stress	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03
Positive affectivity	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05	-0.04	-0.03	-0.03
Negative affectivity	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.14 **	0.14 **
Task performance	0.11 **	0.11 **	0.10 **	0.10 **	0.09 **	0.09 **
Envy	0.06 †	0.06 †	0.06 †	0.05	0.06 †	0.04
Competition	0.07 *	0.07 *	0.07 *	0.09 **	0.06 †	0.09 *
Condescension	0.14 *	0.13 *	0.12 *	0.08	0.09	0.07
Collective identity	-0.13 **	-0.15 **	-0.15 **	-0.13 **	-0.13 **	-0.12 **
Task performance x Collective identity		0.05	-0.03	-0.04 †	-0.02	-0.06 *
Envy x Collective identity			-0.05			0.07
Competition x Collective identity				-0.18 **		-0.20 **
Condescension x Collective identity					-0.16 **	-0.08
Model deviance	137.74	136.54	135.42	122.06	128.88	119.44
Pseudo R-squared	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.29	0.27	0.31

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 7
Analysis of Simple Effects with Collective Identity (CI) as the Moderator

	Stage		Effect		
	First	Second	Direct	Indirect	Total
<i>Envy</i>					
High CI	0.06	0.02	0.06 *	0.00	0.06
Low CI	0.20 **	0.08	0.08 *	0.02	0.10 **
Differences	-0.14 †	-0.06	-0.02	-0.02	-0.04 †
<i>Competition</i>					
High CI	0.04	-0.01	0.06 *	0.00	0.06
Low CI	0.16 *	0.13 **	0.12 **	0.02 *	0.14 *
Differences	-0.12 †	-0.14 **	-0.06 †	-0.02 *	-0.08 †
<i>Condescension</i>					
High CI	-0.05	-0.01	0.06 *	0.00	0.06
Low CI	0.09 *	0.09 *	0.08 *	0.01	0.09 **
Differences	-0.14 **	-0.10 **	-0.02	-0.01	-0.03

Note. Significance tests for the indirect, total, and differences in these effects were based on bias-corrected confidence intervals derived from 1,000 bootstrap estimates.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 8

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Overall Justice Climate as the Moderator

Variable	Envy		Competition		Condescension	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.81 **	1.87 **	2.06 **	2.09 **	1.09 **	1.15 **
Age	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	0.12	0.12	-0.14	-0.13	-0.08	-0.07
Tenure	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03 †	-0.04 †	0.00	0.00
Job stress	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00
Positive affectivity	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	0.06	0.06
Negative affectivity	-0.14 †	-0.14 †	-0.02	-0.02	-0.01	-0.01
Task performance	0.23 **	0.19 **	0.17 **	0.15 *	0.09 *	0.09
Overall justice climate	-0.14 **	-0.14 **	-0.18 **	-0.18 **	-0.19 **	-0.19 **
Task performance x Overall justice climate		-0.09 *		-0.04		-0.09 **
Model deviance	483.74	481.18	442.04	441.26	239.20	231.86
Pseudo R-squared	0.12	0.13	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.10

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 9

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Overall Justice Climate as the Moderator

Variable	Victimization					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.21 **	1.24 **	1.19 **	1.17 **	1.14 **	1.14 **
Age	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	-0.09 †	-0.08 †	-0.08 †	-0.08 †	-0.09 †	-0.08 †
Tenure	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Job stress	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03
Positive affectivity	-0.06 †	-0.06 †	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05
Negative affectivity	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.13 **	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.14 **
Task performance	0.14 **	0.13 **	0.12 **	0.12 **	0.12 **	0.12 **
Envy	0.05	0.05	0.06 †	0.05	0.05	0.05
Competition	0.07 *	0.07 *	0.06 †	0.08 *	0.06 †	0.08 *
Condescension	0.13 *	0.12 *	0.10 †	0.09	0.08	0.07
Overall justice climate	-0.08 **	-0.08 **	-0.09 **	-0.08 **	-0.07 *	-0.07 **
Task performance x Overall justice climate		-0.04	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04	-0.03
Envy x Overall justice climate			-0.05 †			-0.01
Competition x Overall justice climate				-0.08 **		-0.06
Condescension x Overall justice climate					-0.08 **	-0.03
Model deviance	140.38	137.94	134.76	131.32	134.26	130.84
Pseudo R-squared	0.24	0.25	0.26	0.27	0.27	0.27

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula $((\text{unrestricted error} - \text{restricted error}) / \text{unrestricted error})$ from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 10
Analysis of Simple Effects with Overall Justice Climate (OJC) as the Moderator

	Stage		Effect		
	First	Second	Direct	Indirect	Total
<i>Envy</i>					
High OJC	0.07 *	0.00	0.06 *	0.00	0.06
Low OJC	0.21 **	0.10 *	0.12 **	0.02 †	0.14 **
Differences	-0.14 *	-0.10 †	-0.06	-0.02	-0.08 †
<i>Competition</i>					
High OJC	0.07	0.02	0.06 *	0.00	0.06
Low OJC	0.15 **	0.14 **	0.12 **	0.02 *	0.14 **
Differences	-0.08	-0.12 **	-0.06	-0.02 *	-0.08 †
<i>Condescension</i>					
High OJC	-0.02	0.00	0.05 **	0.00 *	0.05
Low OJC	-0.12 **	0.08 †	0.11 **	0.01 *	0.12 **
Differences	-0.14 **	-0.08 **	-0.06	-0.01 *	-0.07 **

Note. Significance tests for the indirect, total, and differences in these effects were based on bias-corrected confidence intervals derived from 1,000 bootstrap estimates.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 11

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Climate of Concern for Employees as the Moderator

Variable	Envy		Competition		Condescension	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.80 **	1.82 **	2.04 **	2.04 **	1.03 **	1.06 **
Age	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	0.13	0.14	-0.13	-0.13	-0.07	-0.06
Tenure	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04 †	-0.04 †	-0.01	-0.01
Job stress	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Positive affectivity	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	0.09	0.08
Negative affectivity	-0.14 †	-0.13	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02
Task performance	0.22 **	0.18 *	0.16 *	0.15 *	0.08 *	0.06
Climate of concern for employees	-0.24 †	-0.25 †	-0.19	-0.20	-0.46 **	-0.48 **
Task performance x Climate of concern for employees		-0.20 †		-0.07		-0.17 *
Model deviance	485.78	483.32	446.70	446.34	239.78	234.90
Pseudo R-squared	0.12	0.12	0.06	0.06	0.08	0.11

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 12

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Climate of Concern for Employees as the Moderator

Variable	Victimization					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.17 **	1.19 **	1.17 **	1.14 **	1.11 **	1.13 **
Age	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	-0.08	-0.08	-0.08	-0.08	-0.08	-0.08
Tenure	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Job stress	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Positive affectivity	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03
Negative affectivity	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.14 **	0.13 **	0.14 **
Task performance	0.13 **	0.12 **	0.13 **	0.12 **	0.12 **	0.12 **
Envy	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04
Competition	0.09 *	0.09 *	0.09 **	0.10 **	0.09 *	0.10 **
Condescension	0.12 *	0.12 *	0.11 †	0.09	0.07	0.08
Climate of concern for employees	-0.17 **	-0.19 **	-0.19 **	-0.18 **	-0.17 **	-0.17 **
Task performance x Climate of concern for employees		-0.09 †	-0.08	-0.09 †	-0.08	-0.10
Envy x Climate of concern for employees			-0.06			0.08
Competition x Climate of concern for employees				-0.15 *		-0.17
Condescension x Climate of concern for employees					-0.16 *	-0.08
Model deviance	141.94	139.60	138.86	134.96	136.30	133.82
Pseudo R-squared	0.24	0.25	0.26	0.27	0.27	0.28

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 13

Analysis of Simple Effects with Climate of Concern for Employees (CCE) as the Moderator

	Stage		Effect		
	First	Second	Direct	Indirect	Total
<i>Envy</i>					
High CCE	0.06	0.02	0.06	0.00	0.06
Low CCE	0.20 **	0.06	0.12 **	0.01	0.13 **
Differences	-0.14 †	-0.04	-0.06	-0.01	-0.07
<i>Competition</i>					
High CCE	0.09	0.02	0.05 *	0.00 †	0.05
Low CCE	0.13 *	0.14 **	0.11 **	0.02 *	0.13 **
Differences	-0.04	-0.12 *	-0.06 †	-0.02 †	-0.08
<i>Condescension</i>					
High CCE	-0.02	0.00	0.05 *	0.00 †	0.05
Low CCE	0.10 *	0.08 *	0.11 **	0.01 †	0.12 **
Differences	-0.12 *	-0.08 *	-0.06	-0.01 †	-0.07 †

Note. Significance tests for the indirect, total, and differences in these effects were based on bias-corrected confidence intervals derived from 1,000 bootstrap estimates.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 14

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Social Interaction as the Moderator

Variable	Envy		Competition		Condescension	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.86 **	1.87 **	2.05 **	2.06 **	1.16 **	1.16 **
Age	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	0.13	0.13	-0.14	-0.14	-0.07	-0.07
Tenure	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04 †	-0.04 †	-0.01	-0.01
Job stress	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00	-0.01
Positive affectivity	-0.02	-0.01	-0.02	-0.03	0.06	0.07
Negative affectivity	-0.14	-0.14 *	-0.01	-0.02	-0.01	-0.01
Task performance	0.21 **	0.20 **	0.16 **	0.16 **	0.05	0.05
Social interaction	-0.22	-0.22	-0.01	-0.06	-0.28 *	-0.28 *
Task performance x Social interaction		-0.13		-0.02		-0.10 †
Model deviance	485.16	484.00	447.66	447.62	252.40	250.22
Pseudo R-squared	0.11	0.12	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 15

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Social Interaction as the Moderator

Variable	Victimization					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.26 **	1.27 **	1.23 **	1.14 **	1.21 **	1.12 **
Age	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	-0.08 †	-0.08	-0.08	0.07	-0.08 †	-0.07
Tenure	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Job stress	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02
Positive affectivity	-0.04	-0.04	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	-0.03
Negative affectivity	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.12 **	0.13 **	0.12 **
Task performance	0.11 **	0.11 **	0.11 **	0.11 **	0.11 **	0.11 **
Envy	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.02
Competition	0.09 *	0.09 **	0.09 **	0.11 **	0.09 *	0.11 **
Condescension	0.15 **	0.15 **	0.13 **	0.09	0.10 †	0.08
Social interaction	-0.15 **	-0.15 **	-0.16 **	-0.17 **	-0.13 **	-0.16 **
Task performance x Social interaction		-0.02	-0.01	-0.04	-0.01	-0.04
Envy x Social interaction			-0.08			0.05
Competition x Social interaction				-0.21 **		-0.21 *
Condescension x Social interaction					-0.15 *	-0.07
Model deviance	141.26	141.14	139.26	129.28	137.08	128.2
Pseudo R-squared	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.27	0.26	0.28

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 16
Analysis of Simple Effects with Social Interaction (SI) as the Moderator

	Stage		Effect		
	First	Second	Direct	Indirect	Total
<i>Envy</i>					
High SI	0.09 *	-0.01	0.08 *	0.00	0.08 **
Low SI	0.19 *	0.07	0.08 *	0.01	0.10 **
Differences	-0.10	-0.08	0.00	-0.01	-0.02
<i>Competition</i>					
High SI	0.10 †	0.00	0.06 *	0.00 †	0.06 **
Low SI	0.12 *	0.18 **	0.10 **	0.02 †	0.12 **
Differences	-0.02	-0.18 **	-0.04	-0.02 †	-0.06
<i>Condescension</i>					
High SI	0.00	0.01	0.08 **	0.00	0.08 **
Low SI	0.08 *	0.09 *	0.08 *	0.01	0.09 *
Differences	-0.08 †	-0.08 *	0.00	-0.01 †	0.01

Note. Significance tests for the indirect, total, and differences in these effects were based on bias-corrected confidence intervals derived from 1,000 bootstrap estimates.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 17

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Mediators with Transformational Leadership as the Moderator

Variable	Envy		Competition		Condescension	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.82 **	1.82 **	2.05 **	2.05 **	1.10 **	1.10 **
Age	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	0.12	0.13	-0.14	-0.13	-0.08	-0.06
Tenure	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04 †	-0.04 †	-0.01	-0.01
Job stress	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Positive affectivity	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	0.06	0.06
Negative affectivity	-0.13	-0.13	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00
Task performance	0.21 **	0.19 **	0.16 *	0.15 *	0.07	0.05
Transformational leadership	-0.15	-0.15	0.04	0.04	-0.22 **	-0.21 *
Task performance x Transformational leadership		-0.14 †		-0.02		-0.11 **
Model deviance	486.04	483.62	447.70	447.60	255.74	252.18
Pseudo R-squared	0.11	0.13	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.08

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 18

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Transformational Leadership as the Moderator

Variable	Victimization					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	1.20 **	1.20 **	1.18 **	1.11 **	1.11 **	1.11 **
Age	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Gender	-0.09 †	-0.09 †	-0.09 †	-0.09 †	-0.09 *	-0.09 †
Tenure	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01
Job stress	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03
Positive affectivity	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05	-0.03	-0.04	-0.03
Negative affectivity	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.15 **	0.14 **
Task performance	0.12 **	0.12 **	0.12 **	0.12 **	0.11 **	0.12 **
Envy	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.04
Competition	0.10 **	0.10 **	0.10 **	0.12 **	0.09 *	0.12 *
Condescension	0.15 **	0.15 **	0.14 **	0.10	0.11 *	0.10
Transformational leadership	-0.12 **	-0.12 **	-0.13 **	-0.12 **	-0.10 **	-0.11 **
Task performance x Transformational leadership		-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04
Envy x Transformational leadership			-0.05			0.06
Competition x Transformational leadership				-0.16 **		-0.18 **
Condescension x Transformational leadership					-0.13 *	-0.03
Model deviance	141.80	141.52	140.30	127.66	132.64	130.42
Pseudo R-squared	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.28	0.27	0.28

Note. For Level 1, $N = 217$; for Level 2, $N = 67$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients. Model deviance ($-2 \times \log$ -likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate) is an indicator of model fit; the smaller the deviance, the better the model fit. Pseudo R-Squared values were calculated on the basis of the formula ((unrestricted error – restricted error) / unrestricted error) from Kreft and de Leeuw (1998).

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Table 19

Analysis of Simple Effects with Transformational Leadership (TFL) as the Moderator

	Stage		Effect		
	First	Second	Direct	Indirect	Total
<i>Envy</i>					
High TFL	0.06	0.00	0.07 *	0.00	0.07 †
Low TFL	0.20 **	0.06	0.09 *	0.01	0.10 **
Differences	-0.14 †	-0.06	-0.02	-0.01	-0.03
<i>Competition</i>					
High TFL	0.10	0.03	0.07 **	0.00 †	0.07 †
Low TFL	0.12 *	0.17 **	0.09 **	0.02 **	0.11 **
Differences	-0.02	-0.14 **	-0.02	-0.02 †	-0.04 †
<i>Condescension</i>					
High TFL	-0.01	0.01	0.08 **	0.00	0.08 **
Low TFL	0.09 *	0.09 *	0.08 **	0.01	0.09 **
Differences	-0.10 **	-0.08 *	0.00	-0.01	-0.01

Note. Significance tests for the indirect, total, and differences in these effects were based on bias-corrected confidence intervals derived from 1,000 bootstrap estimates.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Figure 1
Research Model

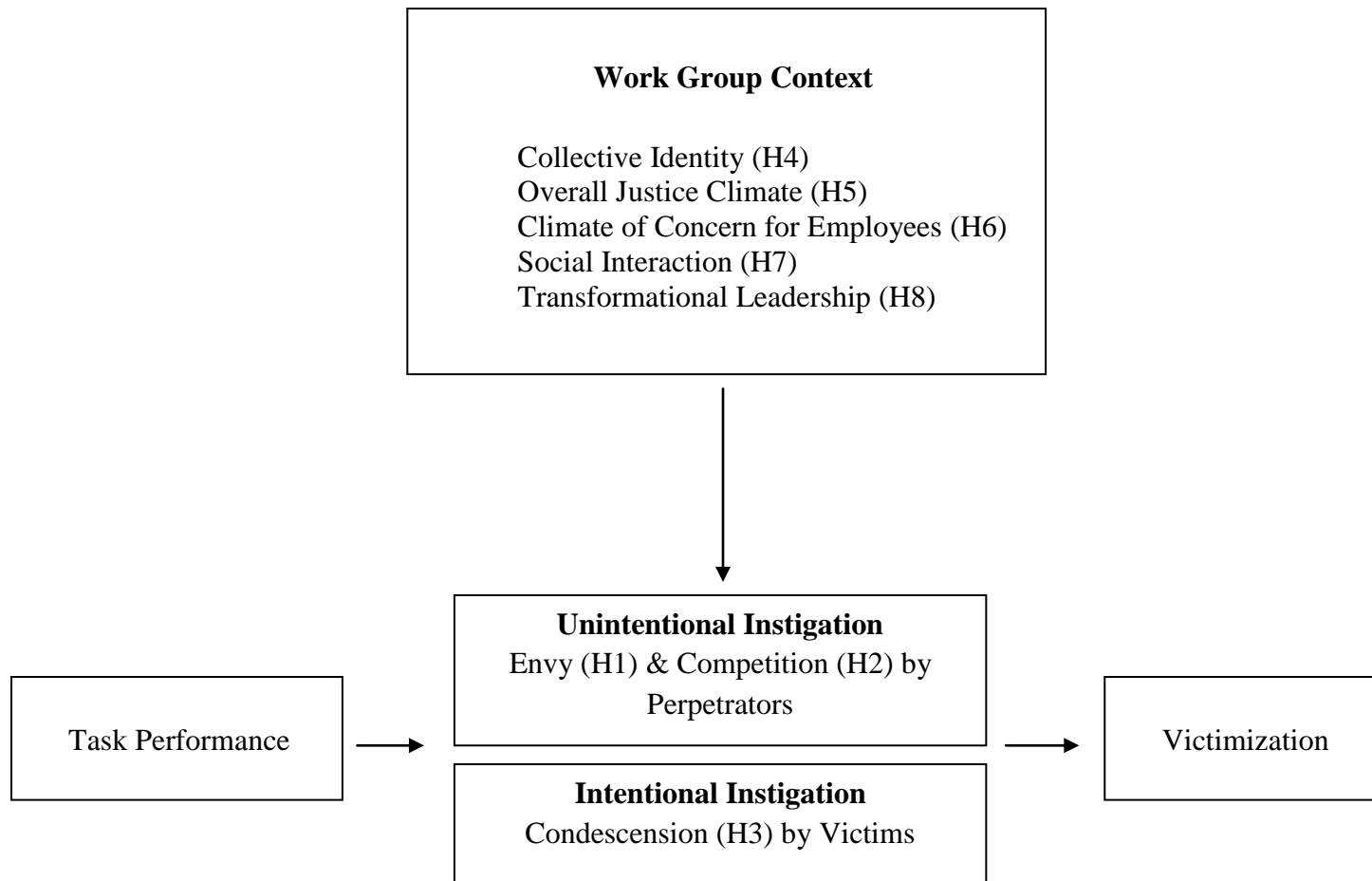


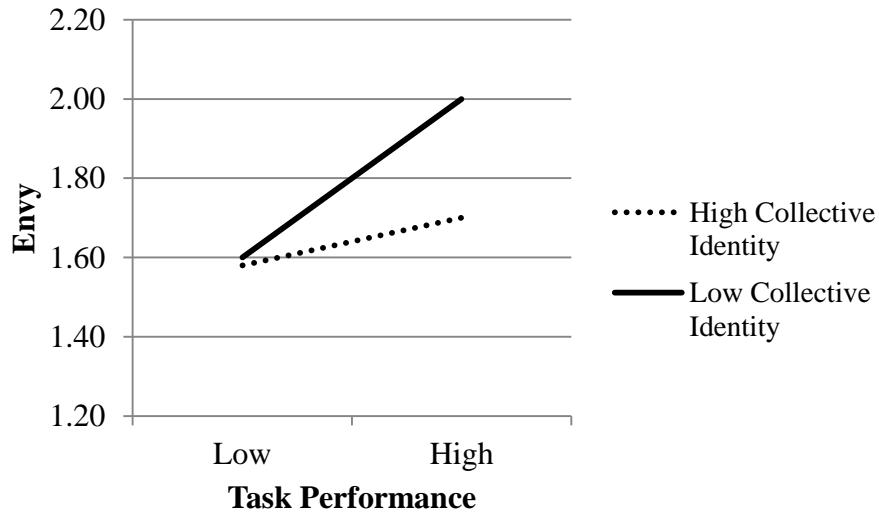
Figure 2
Summary of Moderated-Mediation Results

Mediators (M)	Envy	Competition	Condescension
Moderators (Z)			
Collective Identity (Hypothesis 4)	Total 	Total 	Total
Justice Climate (Hypothesis 5)	Total 	Total 	Total
Climate of Concern for Employees (Hypothesis 6)	Total 	Total 	Total
Social Interaction (Hypothesis 7)	Total 	Total 	Total
Transformational Leadership (Hypothesis 8)	Total 	Total 	Total

Note. **Arrows and letters in bold** represent significant relationships. X: task performance, Y: victimization. The path from Z to X→M is the first stage of indirect effect. The path from Z to M→Y is the second stage of indirect effect. The path from Z to X→Y is the direct effect. Total effects are the sum of the first, second, and direct effects.

Figure 3
Moderating Role of Collective Identity on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Envy as the Mediator

a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Total Effect

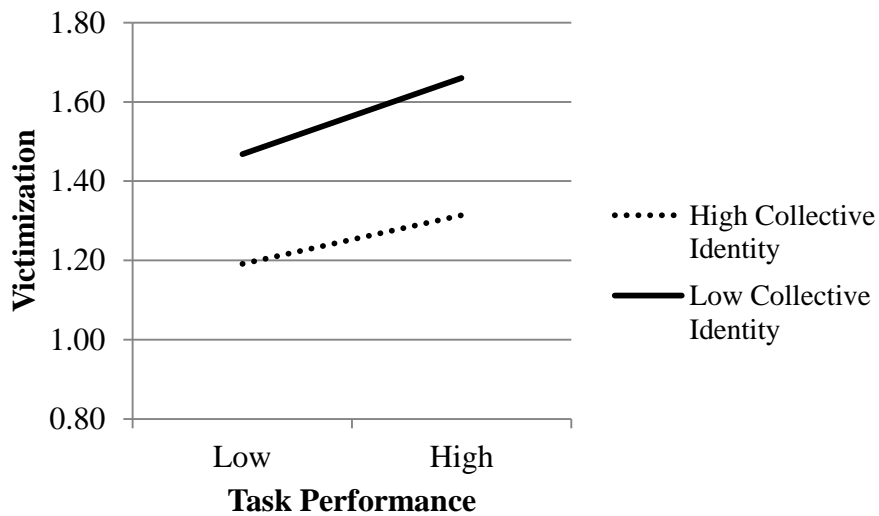
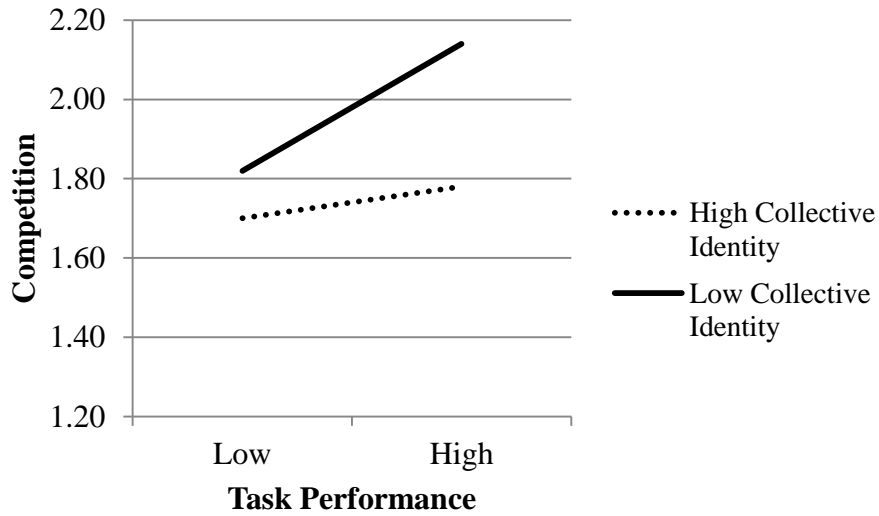
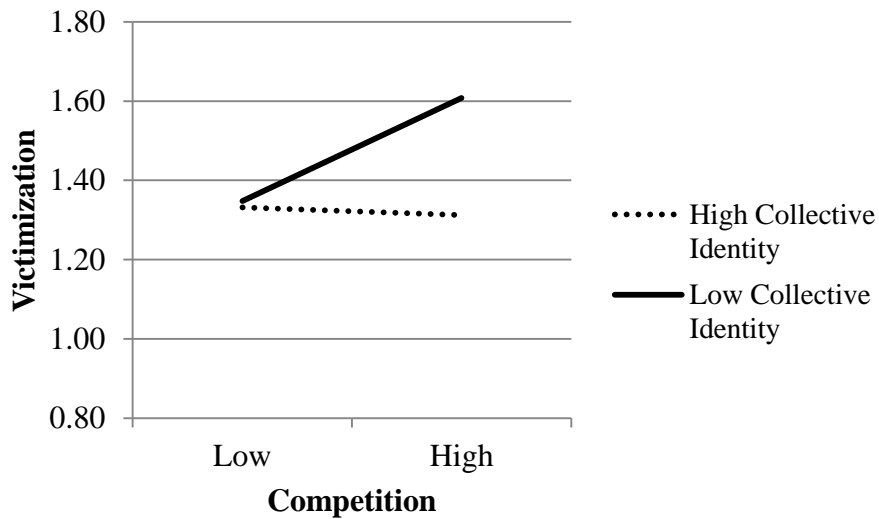


Figure 4
Moderating Role of Collective Identity on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator

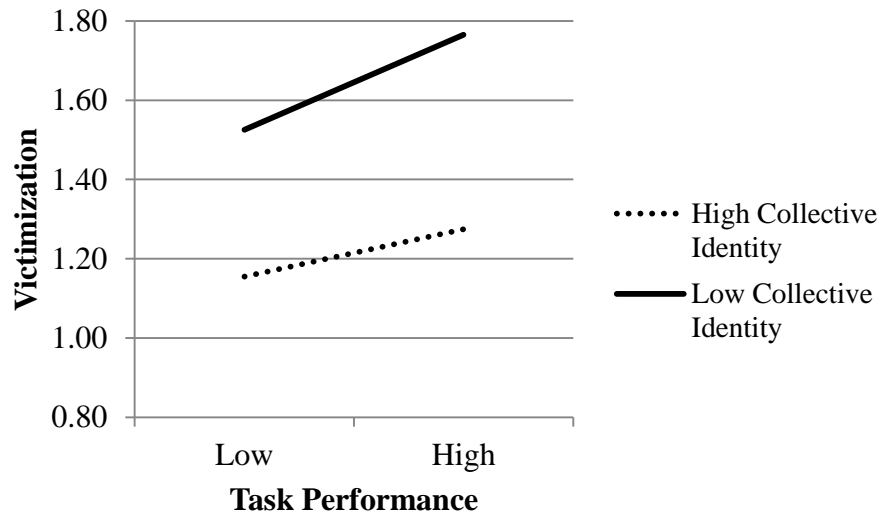
a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect



c. Direct Effect



d. Total Effect

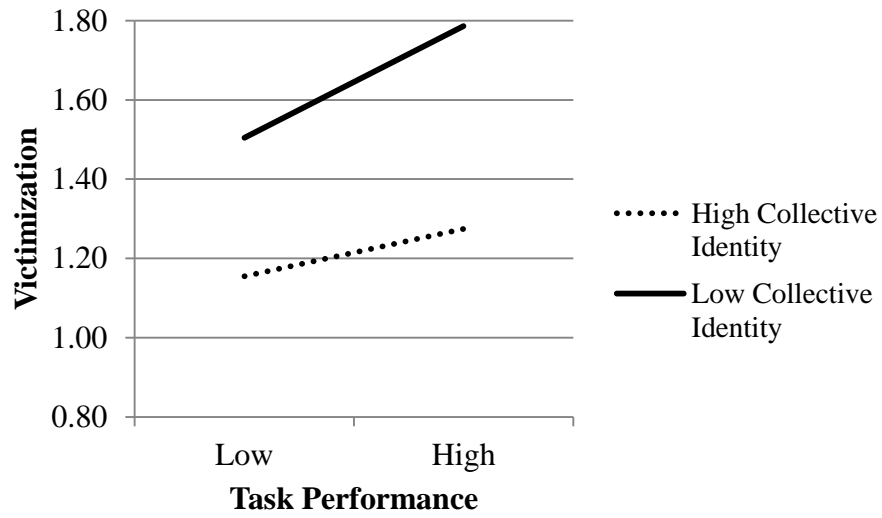
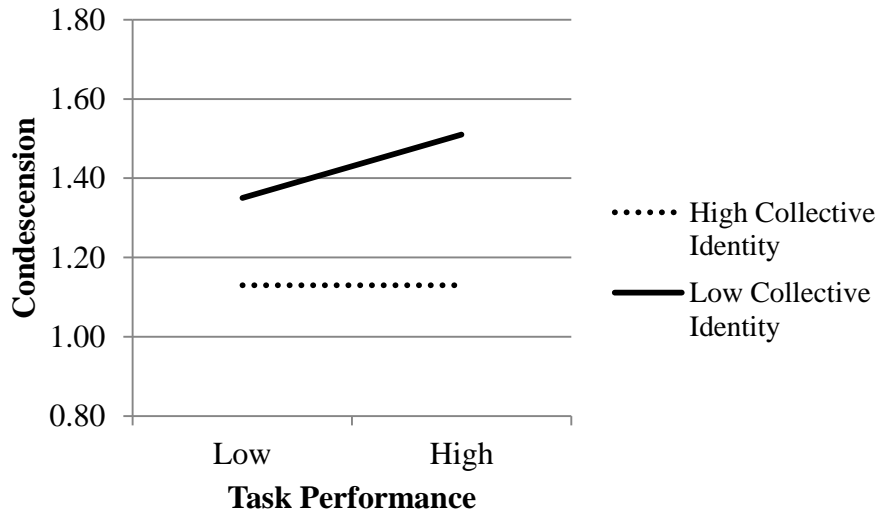


Figure 5
Moderating Role of Collective Identity on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Contescension as the Mediator

a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect

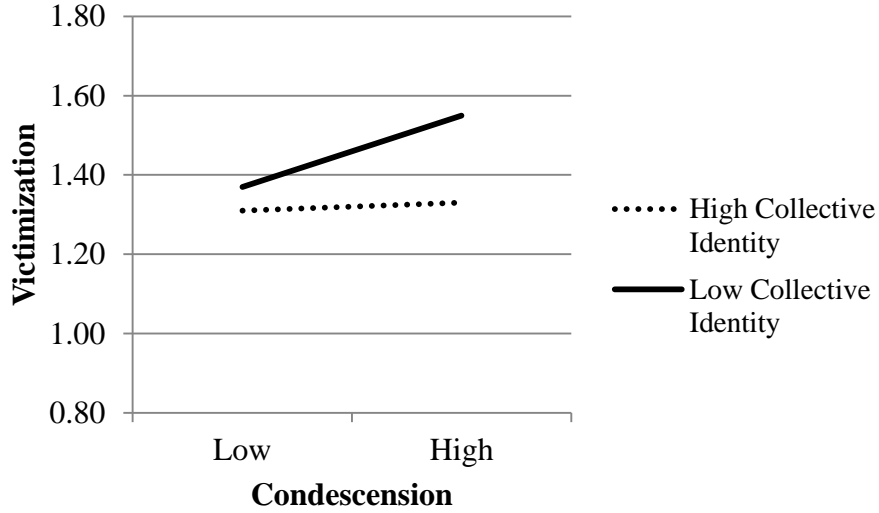
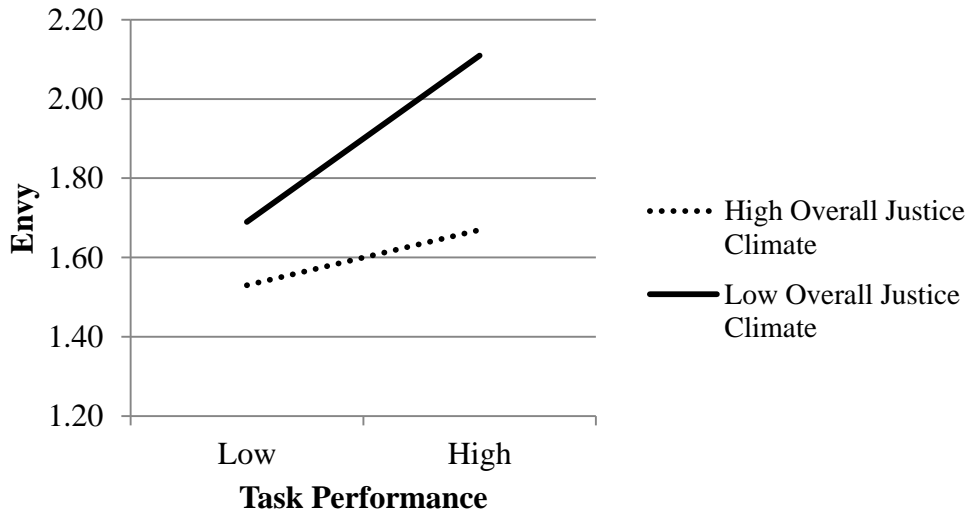
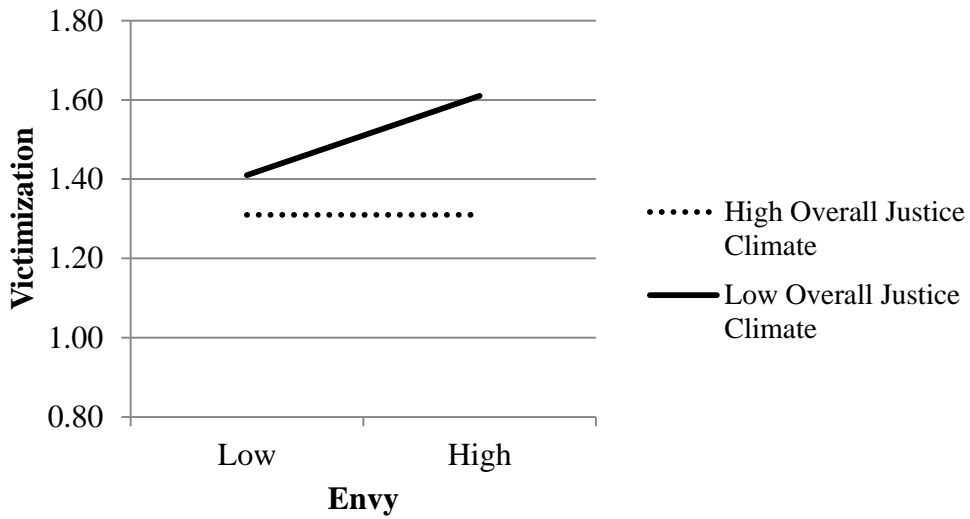


Figure 6
Moderating Role of Overall Justice Climate on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Envy as the Mediator

a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect



c. Total Effect

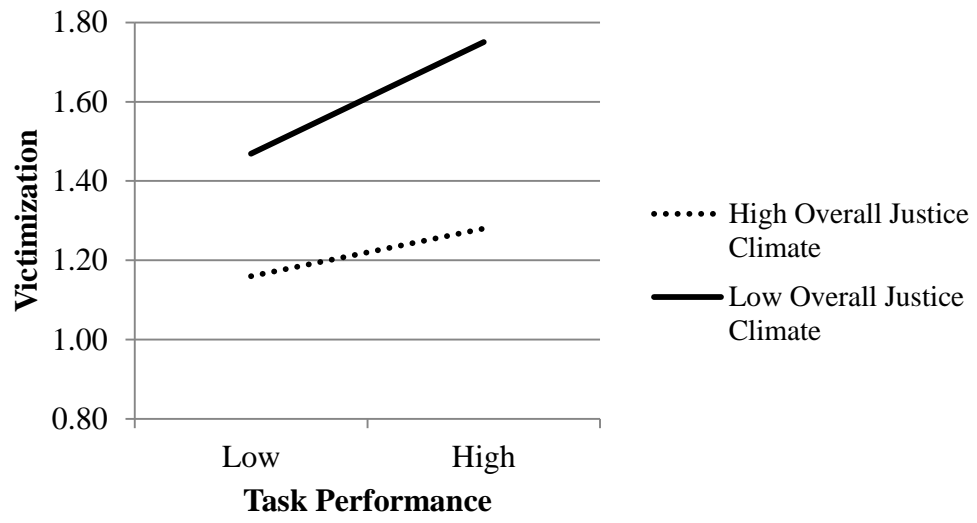
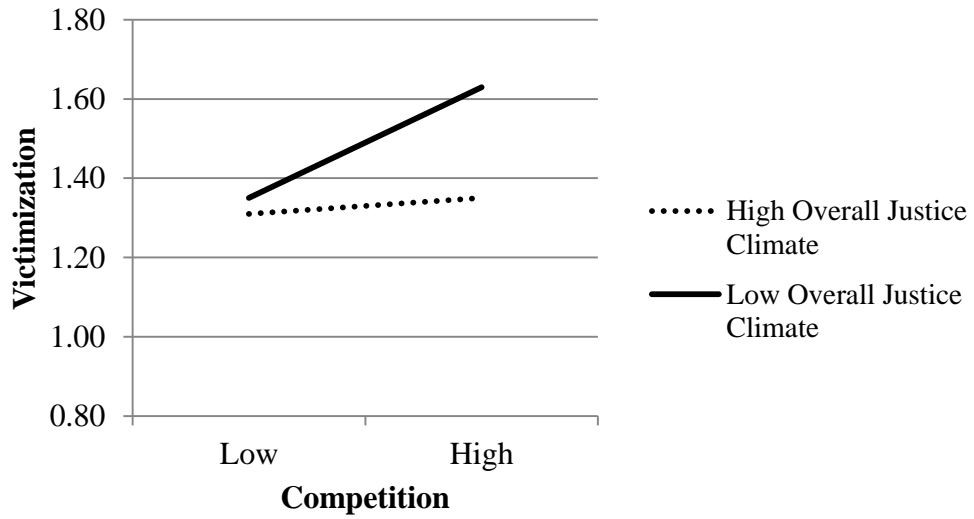


Figure 7
Moderating Role of Overall Justice Climate on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator

a. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Total Effect

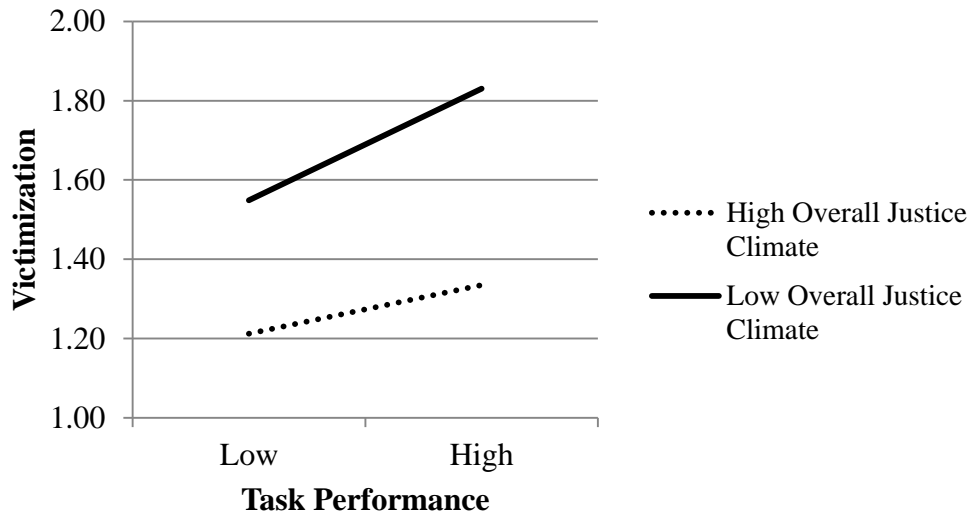
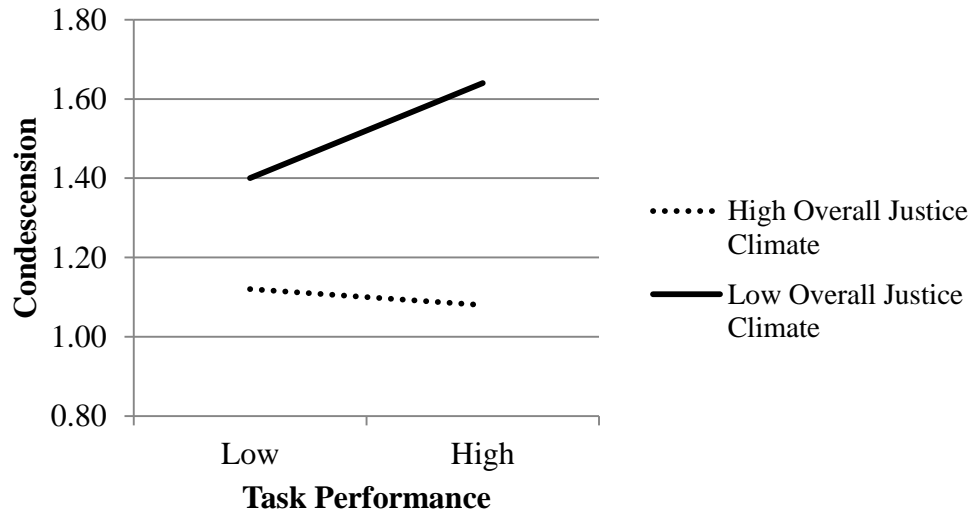
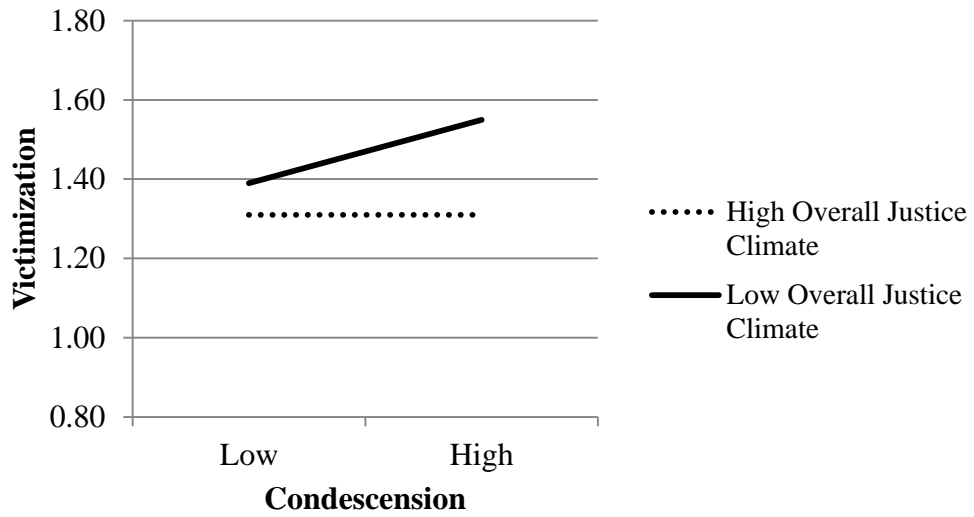


Figure 8
Moderating Role of Overall Justice Climate on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Condescension as the Mediator

a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect



c. Total Effect

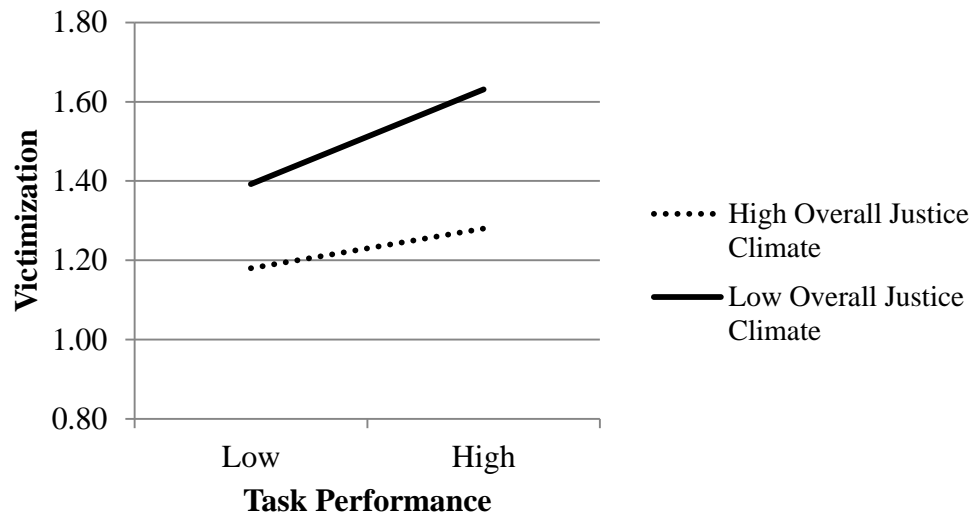


Figure 9
Moderating Role of Climate of Concern for Employees on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Envy as the Mediator

a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect

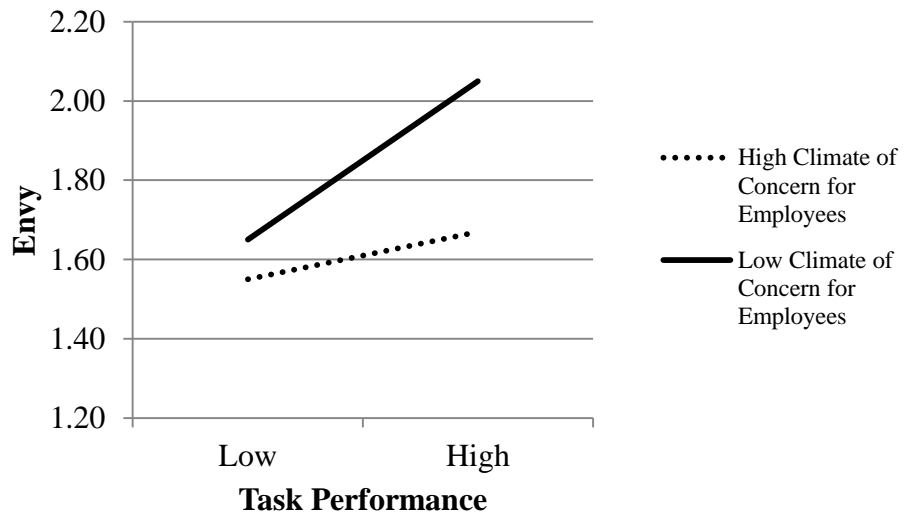
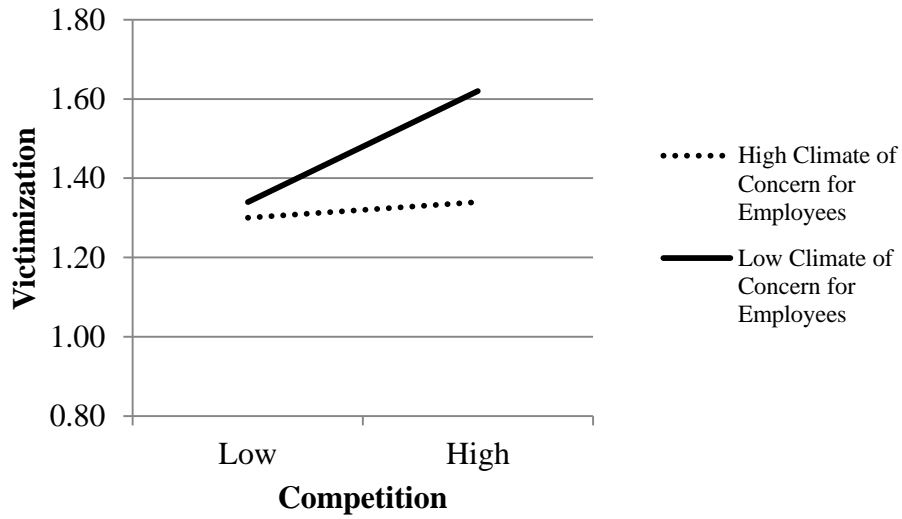


Figure 10
Moderating Role of Climate of Concern for Employees on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator

a. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Direct Effect

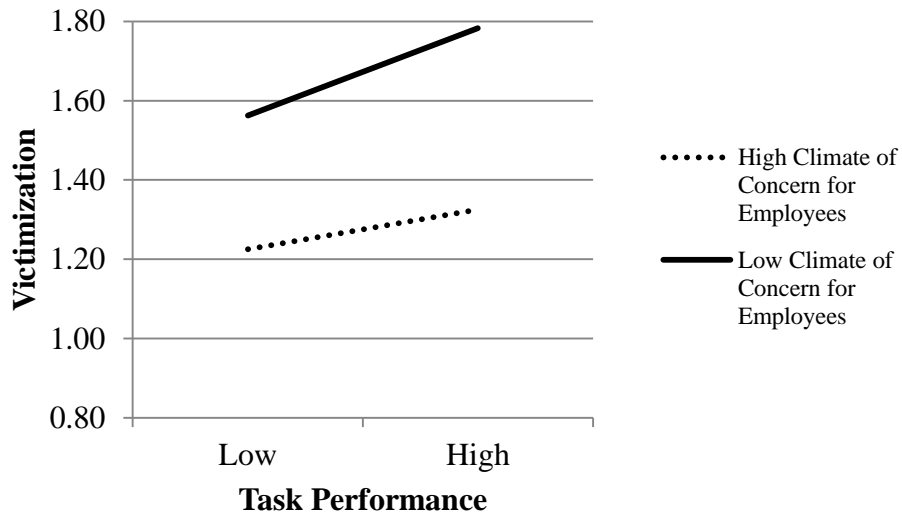
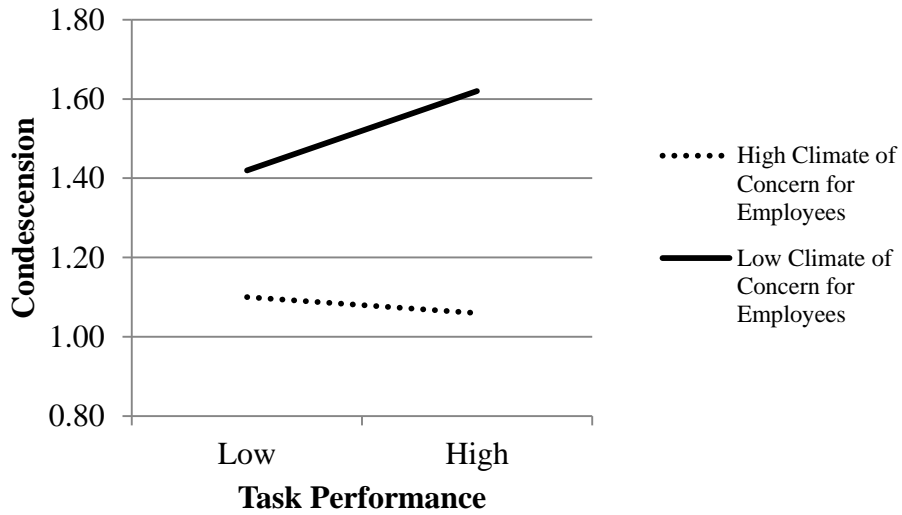
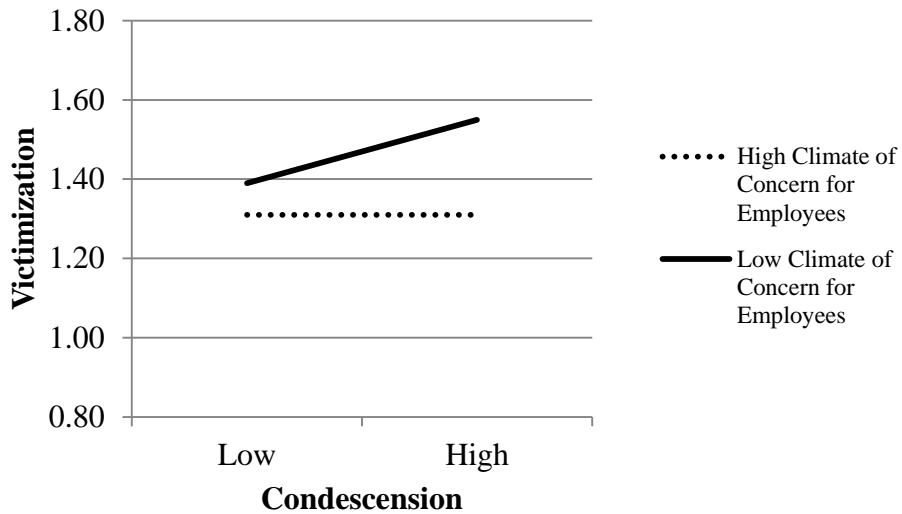


Figure 11
Moderating Role of Climate of Concern for Employees on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Condescension as the Mediator

a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect



c. Total Effect

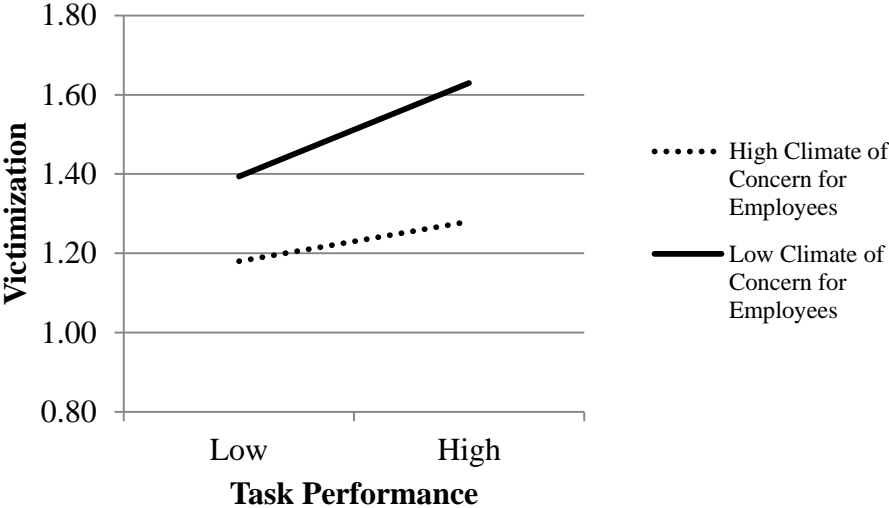


Figure 12
Moderating Role of Social Interaction on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator

a. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect

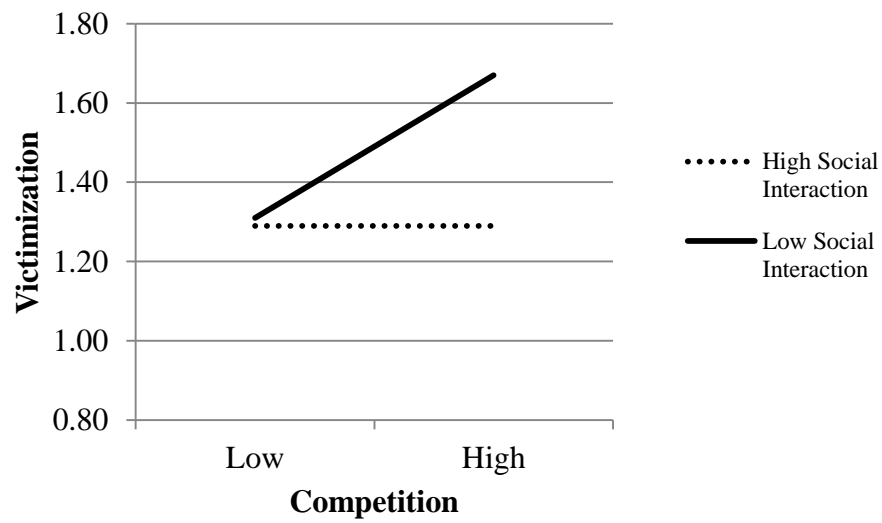
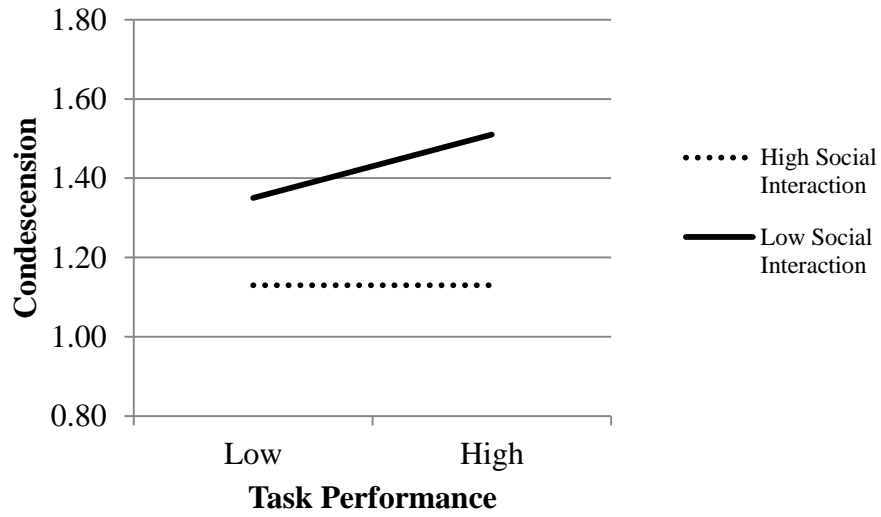


Figure 13
Moderating Role of Social Interaction on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Condescension as the Mediator

a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect



b. Second Stage of the Indirect Effect

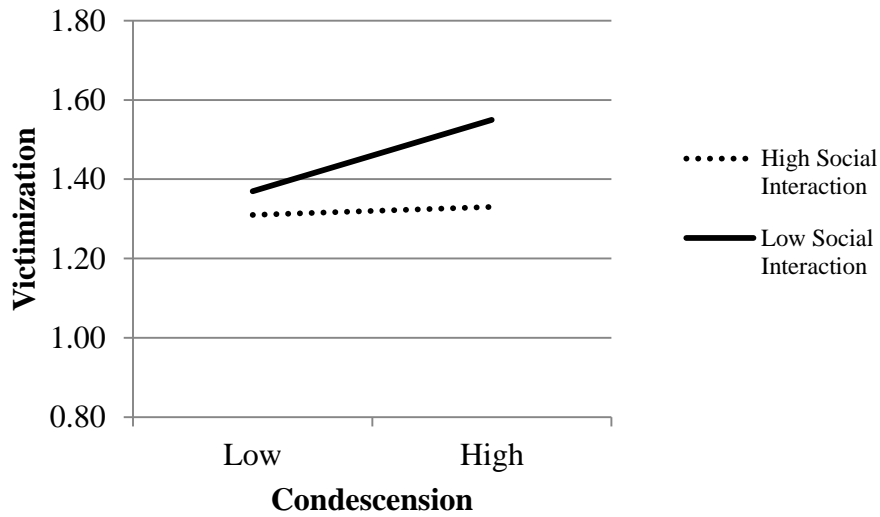


Figure 14
Moderating Role of Transformational Leadership on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Envy as the Mediator

a. First Stage of the Indirect Effect

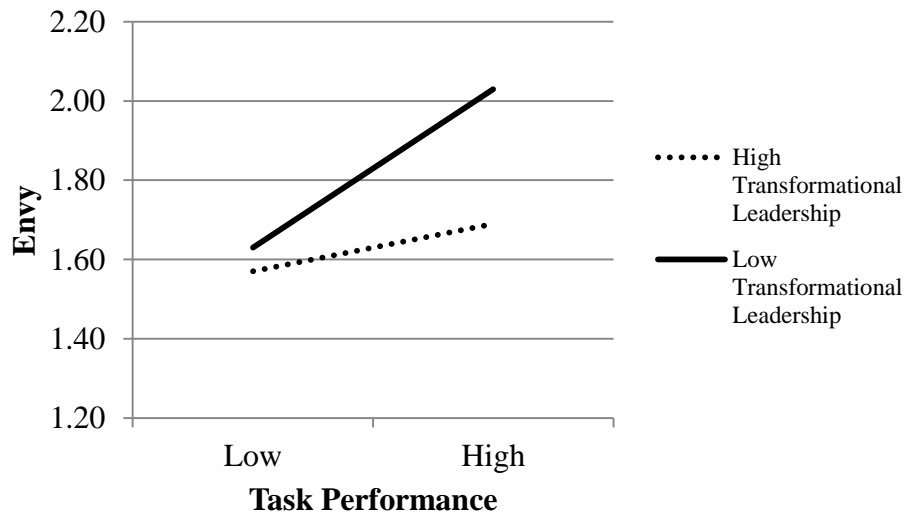
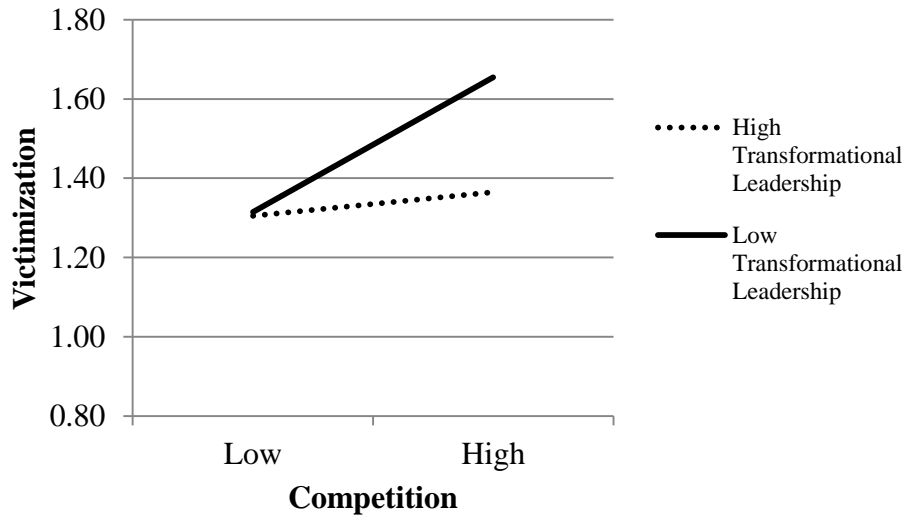


Figure 15
Moderating Role of Transformational Leadership on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Competition as the Mediator

a. Second Stage of Indirect Effect



b. Total Effect

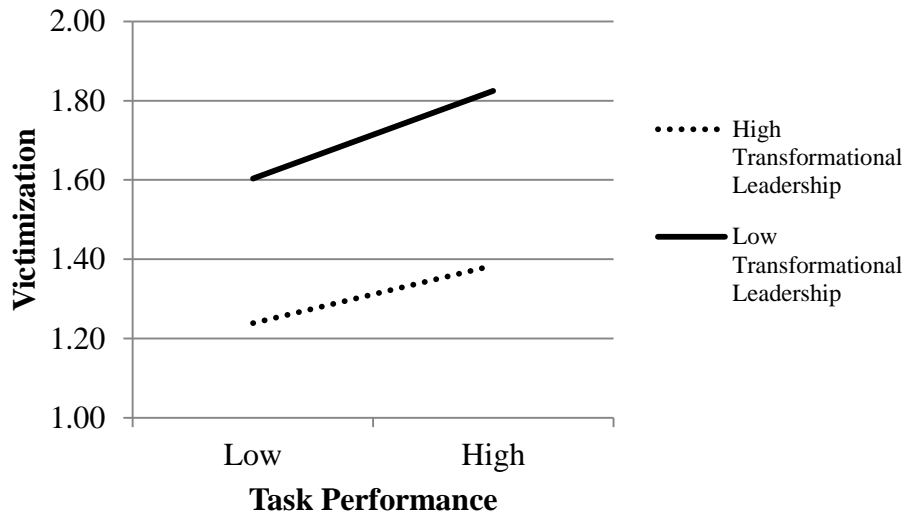
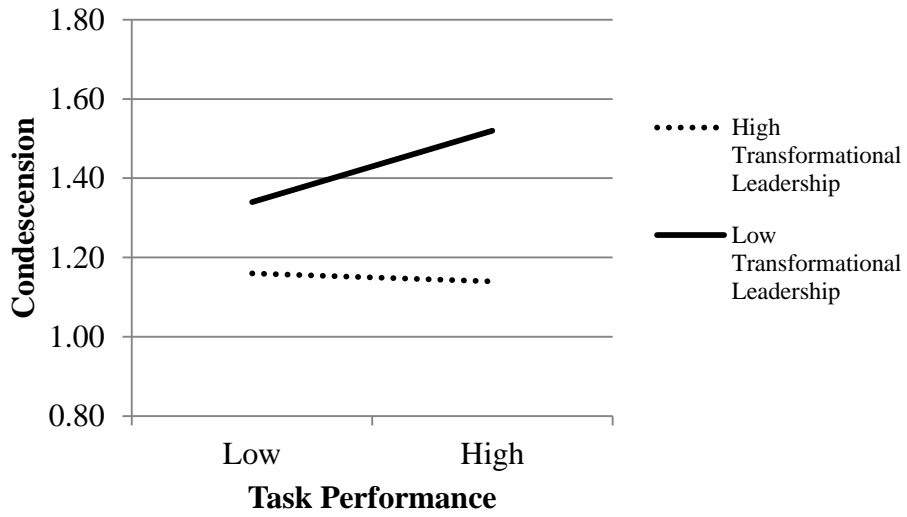
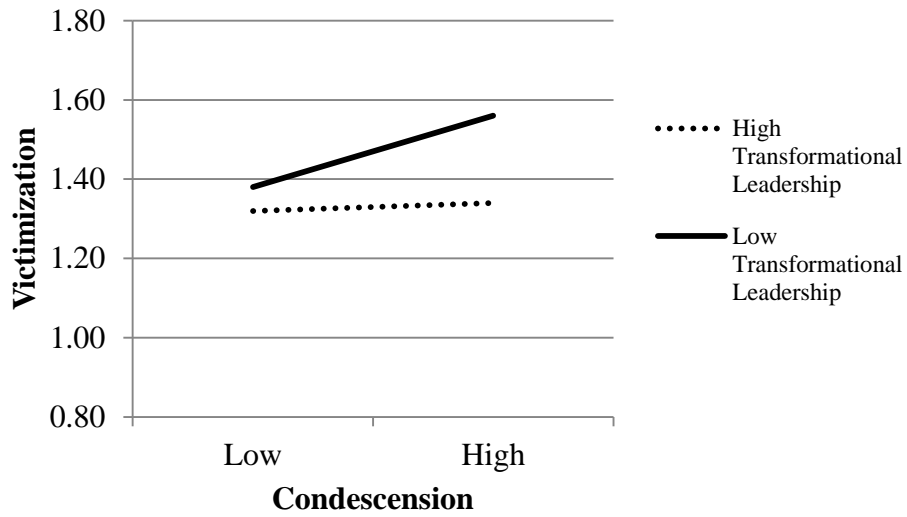


Figure 16
Moderating Role of Transformational Leadership on the Relationship between Task Performance and Victimization with Condescension as the Mediator

a. First Stage



b. Second Stage



References

- Agervold, M., & Mikkelsen, E. G. (2004). Relationships between bullying, psychosocial work environment and individual stress reactions. *Work Stress, 18*, 336-51.
- Ambrose, M. L., & Arnaud, A. (2005). Are procedural justice and distributive justice conceptually distinct? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *The handbook of organizational justice: Fundamental questions about fairness in the workplace* (pp. 59-84). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2007). Examining justice climate: Issues of fit, simplicity, and content. In F. Dansereau, & F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), *Research in multilevel issues*. New York, NY: Elsevier.
- Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2009). The role of overall justice judgments in organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 491-500.
- Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review, 24*, 452-471.
- Aquino, K. (2000). Structural and individual determinants of workplace victimization: The effects of hierarchical status and conflict management style. *Journal of Management, 26*, 171-193.
- Aquino, K., & Bommer, W. H. (2003). Preferential mistreatment: How victim status moderates the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and workplace victimization. *Organization Science, 4*, 274-285.
- Aquino, K., & Bradfield, M. (2000). Perceived victimization in the workplace: The role of situational factors and victim characteristics. *Organization Science, 11*, 525-537.

- Aquino, K., & Byron, K. (2002). Dominating interpersonal behavior and perceived victimization in groups: Evidence for a curvilinear relationship. *Journal of Management, 28*, 69-87.
- Aquino, K., Douglas, S., & Martinko, M. J. (2004). Overt anger in response to victimization: Attributional style and organizational norms as moderators. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9*, 152-164.
- Aquino, K., Grover, S., Bradfield, M., & Allen, D. G. (1999). The effects of negative affectivity, hierarchical status, and self-determination on workplace victimization. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*, 260-272.
- Aquino, K., & Thau, S. (2009). Workplace Victimization: Aggression from the target's perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 717-741.
- Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2006). Getting even or moving on? Power, procedural justice, and types of offense as predictors of revenge, forgiveness, reconciliation, and avoidance in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 653-658.
- Ashforth, B. E. (1997). Petty tyranny in organizations: A preliminary examination of antecedents and consequences. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 14*, 126-140.
- Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of Management, 34*, 325-374.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14*, 20-39.

- Ashmore, R., Deaux, K., & McLaughlin-Volpe, T. (2004). An organizing framework for collective identity: Articulation and significance of multidimensionality. *Psychological Bulletin, 130*, 80-114.
- Baldwin, T. T., Bedell, M. D., & Johnson, J. L. (1997). The social fabric of a team-based M.B.A. program: Network effects on student satisfaction and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*, 1369-1397.
- Bamberger, P. (2008). Beyond contextualization: Using context theories to narrow the micro-macro gap in management research. *Academy of Management Journal, 51*, 839-846.
- Barling, J., Dupré, K. E., & Kelloway, E. K. (2009). Predicting workplace aggression and violence. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 671-692.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 5*, 1173-1182.
- Barrera, M., & Ainley, S.L. (1983). The structure of social support: A conceptual and empirical analysis. *Journal of Community Psychology, 11*, 133-143.
- Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B.C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations, 61*, 1139-1160.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1997). *Full range of leadership development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.

- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). *Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire (Form 5X)*. Redwood City, CA: Mindgarden.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*, 497-529.
- Beck, A. T. (1967). *Depression: Clinical, experimental, and theoretical aspects*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2005). How can theories of organizational justice explain the effects of fairness? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 329-354). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2009). Testing and extending the group engagement model: Linkages between social identity, procedural justice, economic outcomes, and extra role behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*, 445-464.
- Blatt, R. (2009). Tough love: How communal schemas and contracting practices build relational capital in entrepreneurial teams. *Academy of Management Review*, *34*, 533-551.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 349-381). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Bliese, P. D. (2010). *Analysis of multi-level organizational data*. Presentation, University of Minnesota.
- Block, J., & Kremen, A. M. (1996). IQ and ego-resiliency: Conceptual and empirical connections and separateness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*, 349-361.
- Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Self-concordance at work: Toward understanding the motivational effects of transformational leaders. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*, 554-571.
- Borucki, C. C., & Burke, M. J. (1999). An examination of service-related antecedents to retailstore performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*, 943-962.
- Bowling, N. A., & Beehr, T. A. (2006). Workplace harassment from the victim's perspective: A theoretical model and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 998-1012.
- Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this “we”? Levels of collective identity and self-representations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*, 83-93.
- Brewer, M. B., & Weber, J. G. (1994). Self-evaluation effects of interpersonal versus intergroup social comparison. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 66*, 268-275.
- Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials. In H. C. Triandis & W. W. Lambert (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 349-444). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

- Brown, S. P., Cron, W. L., & Slocum, J. W. (1998). Effects of trait competitiveness and perceived intraorganizational competition on salesperson goal setting and performance. *Journal of Marketing*, *62*, 88-98.
- Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *97*, 117-134.
- Bruzzese, A. (2002, Nov 12). Get rid of bullies in the workplace. *USA Today*. Retrieved from http://www.usatoday.com/money/jobcenter/workplace/relationships/2002-11-12-bullies_x.htm
- Burke, M. J., Borucki, C. C., & Hurley, A. E. (1992). Reconceptualizing psychological climate in a retail service environment: A multiple-stakeholder perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *77*, 717-729.
- Buunk, B. P., Schaufeli, W. B., & Ybema, J. F. (1994). Burnout, uncertainty and the desire for social comparison among nurses. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *25*, 1499-1517.
- Cappelli, P. A. (2000). Market-driven approach to retaining talent. *Harvard Business Review*, *8*, 103-113.
- Cappelli, P., & Sherer, P. D. (1991). The missing role of context in OB: The need for a meso-level approach. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior*, (Vol.13. pp. 55-110). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Chuang, C. H. & Liao, H. (2010). Strategic human resource management in service context: Taking care of business by taking care of employees and customers. *Personnel Psychology*, *63*, 153-196.

- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Mueller, J. S. (2007). Does perceived unfairness exacerbate or mitigate interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors related to envy? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 666-680.
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*, 278-321.
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 425-445.
- Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2005). What is organizational justice?: A historical overview. In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *The handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 3-56). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Colquitt, J. A., Noe, R. A., & Jackson, C. L. (2002). Justice in teams: Antecedents and consequences of procedural justice climate. *Personnel Psychology, 55*, 83-109.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2005). How should organizational justice be measured? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 113-155). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- 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*, 64-80.
- Coulomb-Cabagno, G., & Rasclé, O. (2006). Team sports players' observed aggression as a function of gender, competitive level, and sport type. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*, 1980-2000.

- Cropanzano, R., & Ambrose, M. L. (2001). Procedural and distributive justice are more similar than you think: A monistic perspective and a research agenda. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organization justice* (pp. 119-151). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Crosby, F. A. (1976). A model of egoistical relative deprivation. *Psychological Review*, 83, 85-113.
- Crosby, F. A. (1984). Relative deprivation in organizational settings. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 51-94). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Cross, T. L., Coleman, L. J., & Stewart, R. A. (1993). The social cognition of gifted adolescents: An exploration of the stigma of giftedness paradigm. *Roeper Review*, 16, 37-40.
- Curtis, L. A. (1974). Victim precipitation and violent crimes. *Social Problems*, 21, 594-605.
- Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (Eds.), (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- DePaola, H. (2001). Envy, jealousy, and shame. *International Journal of Psychoanalysis*, 82, 381-384.
- Deutsch, M. (1985). *Distribute justice: A social psychological perspective*. New Haven, CT: Yale University.
- Devine, D. J., & Philips, J. L. (2001). Do smart teams do better: A meta-analysis of cognitive ability and team performance. *Small Group Research*, 32, 507-532.

- Dubin, R. (1976). Theory building in applied areas. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 17-39). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining and social support in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*, 331-351.
- 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*, 105-121.
- Duffy, M. K., Scott, K. L., Shaw, J. D., Tepper, B. J., & Aquino, K. (in press). A social context model of envy and social undermining. *Academy of Management Journal*.
- Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D. (2000). The Salieri syndrome: Consequences of envy in groups. *Small Group Research*, *31*, 3-23.
- Duffy, M. K., Shaw, J. D., & Schaubroeck, J. M. (2008). Envy in organizational life. In R. Smith (Ed.), *Envy: Theory and research* (pp. 167-189). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Duffy, M. K., Shaw, J. D., Scott, K. D., & Tepper, B. J. (2006). The moderating roles of self-esteem and neuroticism in the relationship between group and individual undermining. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 1066-1077.
- Dukerich, J. M., Golden, B. R., & Shortell, S. M. (2002). Beauty is in the eye of the beholder: The impact of organizational identification, identity, and image on the cooperative behaviors of physicians. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *47*, 507-533.

- Dunn, J. R., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2006). Green and mean: Envy and social undermining in organizations. *Research on Managing Groups and Teams*, 8, 177-197.
- Dutton, J. E., & Ragins, B. R. (2007). *Exploring positive relationships at work: Building a theoretical and research foundation*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 12, 1-22.
- Ehrhart, M. G. (2004). Leadership and procedural justice climate as antecedents of unit-level organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 57, 61-94.
- Einarsen, S., & Raknes, B. I. (1997). Harassment at work and the victimization of men. *Violence and Victims*, 12, 247-263.
- Einarsen, S., Raknes, B. I., & Matthiesen, S. B. (1994). Bullying and harassment at work and their relationships to work environment quality: An exploratory study. *European Work and Organizational Psychologist*, 4, 381-401.
- Einarsen, S., & Skogstad, A. (1996). Prevalence and risk groups of bullying and harassment at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5, 185-202.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.
- Elias, R. (1986). *The politics of victimization: Victims, victimology, and human rights*. Oxford Press, New York

- Exline, J. J., & Lobel, M. (1999). The perils of outperformance: Sensitivity about being the target of a threatening upward comparison. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*, 307-337.
- Fein, S., & Spencer, S. J. (1997). Prejudice as self-image maintenance: Affirming the self through derogating others. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73*, 31-44.
- Feldman, N. S., & Ruble, D. N. (1981). Social comparison strategies: Dimensions offered and options taken. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 7*, 11-16.
- Ferrin, D. L., Dirks, K. T., & Shah, P. P. (2006). Direct and indirect effects of third-party relationships on interpersonal trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 870-883.
- Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations, 7*, 117-140.
- Flynn, F. (2005). Identity orientations and forms of social exchange in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 30*, 737-750.
- Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (1999). A model of work frustration–aggression. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*, 915-931.
- Garcia, S. M., Tor, A., & Gonzalez, R. (2006). Ranks and rivals: A theory of competition. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 32*, 970-982.
- Gardner, W. L., Gabriel, S., & Hochschild, L. (2002). When you and I are "we," you are no longer threatening: The role of self-expansion in social comparison processes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*, 239-251.

- Gardner, W. L., Gabriel, S., & Lee, A. (1999). "I" value freedom, but "we" value relationships: Self-construal priming mimics cultural differences in judgment. *Psychological Science, 10*, 321–326.
- George, J. M. (1990). Personality, affect, and behavior in groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 107-116.
- Gerard, H. B. (1963). Emotional uncertainty and social comparison. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 66*, 568-573.
- Gibbons, F. X., & Buunk, B. P. (1999). Individual differences in social comparison: Development of a scale of social comparison orientation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*, 129-142.
- Gilbert, P. (1992). *Depression: The evolution of powerlessness*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Glick, W. H. (1985). Conceptualizing and measuring organizational and psychological climate: Pitfalls in multilevel research. *Academy of Management Review, 10*, 601-616.
- Glomb, T. M. (2002). Workplace anger and aggression: Informing conceptual models with data from specific encounters. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 7*, 20-36.
- Glomb, T. M., & Liao, H. (2003). Interpersonal aggression in work groups: Social influence, reciprocal, and individual effects. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*, 486-496.
- Goethals, G. R. (1986). Social comparison theory: Psychology from the lost and found. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 12*, 261-278.

- Goethals, G. R., & Darley, J. (1977). Social comparison theory: An attributional approach. In J. Suls, & R. L. Miller (Eds.), *Social comparison process: Theoretical and empirical perspectives*. Washington, DC: Hemisphere.
- Goodman, P. (1977). Social comparison processes in organizations. In B. M. Staw & G. R. Salancik (Eds.), *New directions in organizational behavior* (pp. 97-132). Chicago, IL: St. Clair Press.
- Gottfredson, M. R. (1981). On the etiology of criminal victimization. *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 72, 714-726.
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 25, 161-178.
- Grandey, A., Dickter, D., & Sin, H. P. (2004). The customer is *not* always right: Customer verbal aggression toward service employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 397-418
- Grant, A. M. (2007). Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 393-417.
- Grant, A. M., Fried, Y., & Juillerat, T. (2010). Work matters: Job design in classic and contemporary perspectives. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 417-453). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Grant, A. M., & Parker, S. K. (2009). Redesigning work design theories: The rise of relational and proactive perspectives. *Academy of Management Annals*, 3, 317-375.

- Greenberg, J. (2000). Promote procedural justice to enhance acceptance of work outcomes. In E. A. Locke (Ed.), *Handbook of principles of organizational behavior* (pp. 181-195). Oxford, England: Blackwell.
- Greenberg, J. (2001). Setting the justice agenda: Seven unanswered questions about what, why, and how. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58, 210-219.
- Greenberg, J., & Colquitt, J. A. (2005). *The handbook of organizational justice*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Greenwald, A. G. (1980). The totalitarian ego: Fabrication and revision of personal history. *American Psychologist*, 35, 603-618.
- Hackman, J. R. (1992). Group influences on individuals in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 3, pp. 199-267). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Heaphy, E. D., & Dutton, J. E. (2008). Social interactions and the human body at work: Linking organizations and physiology. *Academy of Management Review*, 33, 137-162.
- Hentig, H. V. (1948). *The criminal & his victim: Studies in the sociobiology of crime*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Heslin, R. (1964). Predicting group task effectiveness from member characteristics. *Psychological Bulletin*, 62, 248-256.
- Hoffman, P. J., Festinger, L., & Lawrence, D. H. (1954). Tendencies toward group comparability in competitive bargaining. *Human Relations*, 7, 141-159.

- Hofmann, D. A., & Gavin, M. B. (1998). Centering decisions in hierarchical linear models: Implications for research in organizations. *Journal of Management*, *24*, 623-641.
- Hogg, M. A. (2000). Social identity and social comparison. In J. Suls & L. Wheeler (Eds.), *Handbook of social comparison: Theory and research* (pp. 401-421). New York, NY: Plenum.
- Hubert, A. B., & Van Veldhoven, M. (2001). Risk sectors for undesirable behavior and mobbing. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *10*, 415-424.
- Herscovis, S. M., & Barling, J. (2010a). Comparing victim attributions and outcomes for workplace aggression and sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*, 874-888.
- Herscovis, S. M., & Barling, J. (2010b). Toward a multi-foci approach to workplace aggression: A meta-analytic review of outcomes from different perpetrators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*, 24-44.
- Hoel, H, Sparks, K., & Cooper, C. L. (2001). The cost of violence/stress at work and the benefits of a violence/stress-free working environment. Report commissioned by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) Geneva: ILO, Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---safework/documents/publication/wcms_108532.pdf
- International Labour Organization (ILO). (1998). Violence in the workplace, 1996. Violence on the job – a global problem. Geneva: International Labour Organization. In D. Hynes (Ed.), Preventing workplace violence: Towards an

- aggression-free workplace. 2001. Retrieved from The Conference Board of Canada, Web site: <http://www.confenceboard.ca/documents/previo01.pdf>
- James, L. R. (1982). Aggregation bias in estimates of perceptual agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*, 219-229.
- Johns, G. (2006). The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review, 31*, 386-408.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. (1989). *Cooperation and competition: Theory and research*. Edina, MN: Interaction.
- Johnson, R. E., & Lord, R. G. (2010). Implicit effects of justice on self-identity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 681-695.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen, C. J. (2002). Are measures of self-esteem, neuroticism, locus of control, and generalized self-efficacy indicators of a common core construct? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*, 693-710.
- Judge, T. A., Klinger, R. L., & Simon, L. S. (2010). Time is on my side: Time, general mental ability, human capital, and extrinsic career success. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 92-107.
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 33*, 692-724.
- Kark, R., & Shamir, B. (2002). The dual effect of transformational leadership: Priming relational and collective selves and further effects on followers. In B. J. Avolio & F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), *Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead* (Vol. 2, pp. 67-91). Amsterdam: JAI Press.

- Kark, R., Shamir, B., & Chen, G. (2003). The two faces of transformational leadership: Empowerment and dependency. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 246-255.
- Kim, E., Bhawe, D. P., & Glomb, T. M. (2010). *Work group diversity, social context, and emotional regulation*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Conference, Montreal, Canada.
- Kim, E., & Glomb, T. M. (2010). Get smarty pants: Cognitive ability, personality, and victimization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 889-901.
- Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Farh, J. L., Chen, Z. X., & Lowe, K. B. (2009). Individual power distance orientation and follower reactions to transformational leaders: A cross-level, cross-cultural examination. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*, 744-764.
- Kirkpatrick, L. A., Waugh, C. E., Valencia, A., & Webster, G. D. (2002). The functional domain specificity of self-esteem and the differential prediction of aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*, 756-767.
- Klein, K. J., Conn, A. B., Smith, D. B., & Sorra, J. S. (2001). Is everyone in agreement? An exploration of within-group agreement in employee perceptions of the work environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 3-16.
- Klein, K. J., Lim, B.-C., Saltz, J. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2004). How do they get there? An examination of the antecedents of centrality in team networks. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*, 952-963.
- Kohn, A. (1992). *No contest: The case against competition* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Kohn, A. (1993). *Punished by rewards*. Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin.

- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Bell, B.S. (2003). Work groups and teams in organizations. In W.C. Borman, D.R. Ilgen, & R.J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology, Industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol 12, pp. 333-375). London: Wiley.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Klein, K. J. (2000). A multilevel approach to theory and research in organizations: Contextual, temporal, and emergent processes. In K. J. Klein, & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 3-90). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kramer, R. M., Hanna, B. A., Su, S., & Wei, J. (2001). Collective identity, collective trust and social capital: Linking group identification and group cooperation. In M. E. Turner (Ed.), *Groups at work: Theory and research* (pp. 173-196). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Kreft, I., & de Leeuw, J. (1998). *Introducing multilevel modeling*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kulik, J. A., & Brown, R. (1979). Frustration, attribution of blame, and aggression. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 15*, 183-194.
- LaHuis, M. D., & Ferguson, M. W. (2009). The accuracy of significance tests for slope variance components in multilevel random coefficient models. *Organizational Research Methods, 12*, 418-435.
- Lam, C. K., Van der Vegt, G. S., Walter, F., & Huang, X. (2011). Harming high performers: A social comparison perspective on interpersonal harming in work teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*, 558-601.

- Lamertz, K., & Aquino, K. (2004). Social power, social status, and perceptual similarity of workplace victimization: A social network analysis of stratification. *Human Relations, 57*, 795-822.
- LeBreton, J.M., Wu, J., & Bing, M.N. (2009). The truth(s) on testing for mediation in the social and organizational sciences. In C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg (Eds.), *Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends: Doctrine, verity and fable in the organizational and social sciences* (pp. 109-143). New York, NY: Routledge.
- LePine, J. A. (2003). Team adaptation and post change performance: Effects of team composition in terms of members' cognitive ability and personality. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 27-39.
- LePine, J. A., Hanson, M. A., Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2000). Contextual performance and teamwork: Implications for staffing. In G. R. Ferris & K. M. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 19, pp. 53-90). Stanford, CT: JAI Press.
- Leventhal, G. S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory? In K. J. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 27-55). New York, NY: Plenum.
- Lewis, M. (1992). *Shame: The exposed self*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Li, A., & Cropanzano, R. (2009). Fairness at the group level: Justice climate and intraunit justice climate. *Journal of Management, 35*, 564-599.

- Liao, H., & Chuang, A. (2007). Transforming service employees and climate: A multilevel, multisource examination of transformational leadership in building long-term service relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 1006-1119.
- Liao, H., & Rupp, D. E. (2005). The impact of justice climate and justice orientation on work outcomes: A cross-level multifoci framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 242-256.
- Lind, E. A. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgments as pivotal cognitions in organizational relations. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 56-88). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Lind, E. A., Kulik, C. T., Ambrose, M. L., & Park, M. (1993). Individual and corporate dispute resolution: Using procedural fairness as a decision heuristic. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 38*, 224-251.
- Lind, E. A., & Van den Bos, K. (2002). When fairness works: Toward a general theory of uncertainty management. In B. M. Staw & R. M. Kramer (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 24, pp. 181-223). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Luthans, F., Avolio, B., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and job satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology, 60*, 541-572.
- MacKinnon, D. P. (2008). *Introduction to statistical mediation analysis*. New York, NY: Erlbaum.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Fairchild, A. J., & Fritz, M. S. (2007). Mediation analysis. *Annual Review of Psychology, 58*, 593-614.

- Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*, 103-123.
- Marsden, P. V. (1990). Network data and measurement. *Annual Review of Sociology, 16*, 435-463.
- McClelland, G. H., & Judd, C. M. (1993). Statistical difficulties of detecting interaction and moderator effects. *Psychological Bulletin, 114*, 376-390.
- Menon, T., & Thompson, L. (2007). Don't hate me because I'm beautiful: Self-enhancing biases in threat appraisal. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 104*, 45-60.
- Michaels, E. Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The war for talent*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Mikkelsen E, G., & Einarsen S. (2002). Basic assumptions and post-traumatic stress among victims of workplace bullying. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 11*, 87-111.
- 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*, 1159-1168.
- Molleman, E., Pruyn, J., & van Knippenberg, A. (1986). Social comparison processes among cancer patients. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 25*, 1-13.
- Morgeson, F. P., & Campion, M. A. (2003). Work design. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology, Industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 423-452). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

- Morgeson, F. P., & Hofmann, D. A. (1999). The structure and function of collective constructs: Implications for multilevel research and theory development. *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 249-265.
- Mossholder, K. W., Bennett, N., & Martin, C. L. (1998). A multilevel analysis of procedural justice context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19, 131-141.
- Motowidlo, S. J., Packard, J. S., & Manning, M. R. (1986). Occupational stress: Its causes and consequences for job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 618-629.
- Mouly, S. V., & Sankaran, J. K. (2002). The enactment of envy within organizations: Insights from a New Zealand academic department. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 38, 36-56.
- Mowday, R. T., & Sutton, R. I. (1993). Organizational behavior: Linking individuals and groups to organizational contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44, 195-229.
- Namie, G., & Namie, R. (2000). *The bully at work*. Naperville, IL: Sourcebooks.
- National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health. (1997). Violence in the workplace. Retrieved from U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, Division of Safety Research, Web site: <http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/violfs.html>
- Naumann, S. E., & Bennett, N. (2000). A case for procedural justice climate: Development and test of a multilevel model. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43, 881-889.

- Neighbors, C. & Knee, C.R. (2003). Self-determination and the impact of social comparison information. *Journal of Research in Personality, 37*, 529-546.
- Newman, D. A. (2009). Missing data techniques and low response rates. In C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg (Eds.), *Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends* (pp. 7-36). New York: Routledge
- Oh, I.-S., & Berry, C. M. (2009). The five-factor model of personality and managerial performance: Validity gains through the use of 360 degree performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 1498-1513.
- Oh, I.-S., Wang, G., & Mount, M. K. (2011). Validity of observer ratings of the five-factor model of personality traits: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 762-773.
- Oldham, G. R., & Hackman, J. R. (2010). Not what it was and not what it will be: The future of job design research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*, 463-479.
- O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Duffy, M. K., & Griffin, R. W. (2000). Construct confusion in the study of antisocial behavior at work. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 18*, 275-303.
- Olweus, D. (1978). *Aggression in schools: Bullies and whipping boys*. Washington, DC: Hemisphere.
- Olweus, D. (1993). Bully victim problems among schoolchildren: Long term consequences and an effective intervention program. In S. Hodgins (Ed.), *Mental disorder and crime* (pp. 317-349). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. A. (1994). Working smarter and harder: A longitudinal study of managerial success. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 39*, 603-627.

- Parrott, W. G., & Smith, R. H. (1993). Distinguishing the experiences of envy and jealousy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64*, 906-920.
- Ployhart, R. E., & Moliterno, T. P. (2011). Emergence of the human capital resource: A multilevel model. *Academy of Management Review, 36*, 127-150.
- 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*, 879-903.
- Pratt, M. G. (2003). Disentangling collective identity. In J. T. Polzer, E. Mannix, & M. A. Neale (Eds.), *Research on managing groups and teams* (Vol. 5, pp. 161-188). Greenwich, CT: JAI
- Quinney, R. (1972). Who is the victim? *Criminology, 10*, 314-323.
- Randall, D. M. (1987). Commitment and the organization: The organization man revisited. *Academy of Management Review, 12*, 460-471.
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 698-714.
- Roberson, Q. M. (2006). Justice in teams: The activation and role of sensemaking in the emergence of justice climates. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 100*, 177-192.
- Roberson, Q. M., & Colquitt, J. A. (2005). Shared and configural justice: A social network model of justice in teams. *Academy of Management Review, 30*, 595-607.
- Roberts, L. M. (2007). From proving to becoming: How positive relationships create a context for self-discovery and self-actualization. In J. E. Dutton & B. R. Ragins

- (Eds.), *Exploring positive relationships at work: Building a theoretical and research foundation*, (pp. 4-29). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Robinson, S. L., & O’Leary-Kelly, A. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, *41*, 658-672.
- Rocha, R. F., & Rogers, R. W. (1976). Ares and Babbitt in the classroom: Effects of competition and reward on children's aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *33*, 588-593.
- Rogers, W. M. (2002). Theoretical and mathematical constraints of interaction regression models. *Organizational Research Methods*, *5*, 212–230.
- Rotundo, M. & Sackett, P.R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*, 66-80.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, *55*, 68-78.
- Rupp, D. E., Bashshur, M. R., & Liao, H. (2007a). Justice climate past, present, and future: Models of structure and emergence. In F. Dansereau & F. Yammarino (Eds.), *Research in multilevel issues* (Vol. 6, pp. 357-396). Oxford, England: Elsevier.
- Rupp, D. E., Bashshur, M., & Liao, H. (2007b). Justice climate: Consideration of the source, target, specificity, and emergence. In F. Dansereau & F. Yammarino (Eds.), *Research in multilevel issues* (Vol. 6, 439-459). Oxford, England: Elsevier.

- Rupp, D. E., & Paddock, E. L. (2010). From justice events to justice climate: A multilevel temporal model of information aggregation and judgment. *Research on managing groups and teams, 13*, 239-267.
- Salin, D. (2003). Bullying and organizational politics in competitive and rapidly changing work environments. *International Journal of Management and Decision Making, 4*, 35-46.
- Salovey, P., & Rodin, J. (1984). Some antecedents and consequences of social-comparison jealousy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47*, 780-792.
- Salovey, P., & Rothman, A. J. (1991). Envy and jealousy: Self and society. In P. Salovey (Ed.), *The psychology of jealousy and envy* (pp. 271-286). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Schafer, S. (1968). *The victim and his criminal: A study in functional responsibility*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Schafer, S. (1977). *Victimology: The victim and his criminal*. Reston. A Prentice-Hall.
- Schat, A. C. H., Frone, M. R., & Kelloway, E. K. (2006). Prevalence of workplace aggression in the U.S. workforce: Findings from a national study. In E. K. Kelloway, J. Barling, & J. J. Hurrell, Jr. (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace violence* (pp. 47-89). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Schaubroeck, J., & Lam, S. S. K. (2004). Comparing lots before and after: Promotion rejectees' invidious reactions to promotees. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 94*, 33-47.

- Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. (2004). General mental ability in the world of work: Occupational attainment and job performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 86*, 162-173.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science, 4*, 577-593.
- Shamir, B., Zakay, E., Breinin, E., & Popper, M. (1998). Correlates of charismatic leader behavior in military units: Subordinates' attitudes, unit characteristics, and superiors' appraisals of leader performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*, 387-409.
- Shapiro, D. (2001). The death of justice theory is likely if theorists neglect the "wheels" already invented and the voices of the injustice victims. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58*, 235-242.
- Shaw, J. D., Dineen, B. R., Fang, R., & Vellella, R. F. (2009). Employee-organization exchange relationships, HRM practices, and quit rates of good and poor performers. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*, 1016-1033.
- Sheldon, K.M., Turban, D. B., Brown, K.G., Barrick, M.R., & Judge, T.A. (2003). Applying self-determination theory to organizational research. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 22*, 357-394.
- Simons, T., & Roberson, Q. (2003). Why managers should care about fairness: The effects of aggregate justice perceptions on organizational outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 432-443.

- Skogstad, A., Einarsen, S., Torsheim, T., Aasland, M. S., & Hetland, H. (2007). The destructiveness of laissez-faire leadership behavior. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*, 80-92.
- Sluss, D. M., Klimchak, M., & Holmes, J. J. (2008). Perceived organizational support as a mediator between relational exchange and organizational identification. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73*, 457-464.
- Smith, E. R., Coats, S., & Walling, D. (1999). Overlapping mental representations of self, in-group, and partner: Further response-time evidence and a connectionist model. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 25*, 873-882.
- Smith, R. H. (1991). Envy and the sense of injustice. In P. Salovey (Ed.), *The psychology of jealousy and envy* (pp. 79-99). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Smith, R. H. (2000). Assimilative and contrastive emotional reactions to upward and downward comparisons. In J. M. Suls & L. Wheeler (Eds.), *Handbook of social comparison: Theory and research* (pp. 173-200). New York, NY: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.
- Smith, R. H., & Kim, S. H. (2007). Comprehending envy. *Psychological Bulletin, 133*, 46-64.
- Smith, R. H., Parrott, W. G., Ozer, D., & Moniz, A. (1994). Subjective injustice and inferiority as predictors of hostile and depressive feelings in envy. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 20*, 705-711.
- Sobel, M. E. (1982). Asymptotic intervals for indirect effects in structural equations models. In S. Leinhardt (Ed.), *Sociological methodology* (pp. 290-312). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Solomon, R. C. (1976). *The passions*. Garden City, NY: Anchor Press.
- Sparks, R. F., Genn, H. G., & Dodd, D. J. (1977). *Surveying victims: A study of the measurement of criminal victimization, perception of crime, and attitudes to criminal justice*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sparrowe, R. T., Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., and Kraimer, M. L. (2001). Social networks and the performance of individuals and groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 316-325.
- Spector, P. E. (1975). Relationships of organizational frustration with reported behavioral reactions of employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 635-637.
- Spector, P. E. (1978). Organizational frustration: A model and review of the literature. *Personnel Psychology*, 31, 815-829.
- Steiner, I. D. (1972). *Group process and productivity*. New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Sturman, M. C., Trevor, C. O., Boudreau, J. W., & Gerhart, B. (2003). Is it worth it to win the talent war? Evaluating the utility of performance-based pay. *Personnel Psychology*, 56, 997-1035.
- Sutton, R. I. (2007). *The no asshole rule: Building a civilized workplace and surviving one that isn't*. New York, NY: Grand Central Publishing.
- Tai, K., Narayanan, J., & McAllister, D. J. (2012). Envy as pain: Rethinking the nature of envy and its implication for employees and organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 37, 107-130
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks.

- Takeuchi, R., Chen, G., & Lepak, D. P. (2009). Through the looking glass of a social system: Cross-level effects of high-performance work systems on employees' attitudes. *Personnel Psychology, 62*, 1-29.
- Taylor, S. E., & Brown, J. D. (1988). Illusion and well-being: A social psychological perspective on mental health. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*, 193-210.
- Taylor, S. E., Buunk, B. P., & Aspinwall, G. (1990). Social comparison, stress, and coping. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 16*, 74-89.
- Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 33*, 261-289.
- Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Henle, C. A., & Lambert, L. S. (2006). Procedural injustice, victim precipitation, and abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology, 59*, 101-123.
- Tesser, A. (1988). Toward a self-evaluation maintenance model of social behavior. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 21*, 181-227.
- Tesser, A., Millar, M., & Moore, J. (1988). Some affective consequences of social comparison and reflection processes: The pain and pleasure of being close. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 49-61.
- Tesser, A., Pilkington, C. J., & McIntosh, W. D. (1989). Self-evaluation maintenance and the mediation role of emotion: The perception of friends and strangers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*, 442-456.
- Testa, M., & Major, B. (1990). The impact of social comparison after failure: The moderating effects of perceived control. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 11*, 205-218.
- The American Heritage Dictionary (4th ed.). (2006). Houghton Mifflin Company

- Thompson, E. R. (2007). Development and validation of an internationally reliable short-form of the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS). *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 38*, 227-242.
- Tobin, T. J. (2001). Organizational determinants of violence in the workplace. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 6*, 91-102.
- Tsui, A., Pearce, J., Porter, L., & Hite, J. (1995). Choice of employee–organization relationship: Influence of external and internal organizational factors. In G. Ferris(Ed.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* (pp. 117–151). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2000). *Cooperation in groups: Procedural justice, social identity, and behavioral engagement*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2003). The group engagement model: Procedural justice, social identity, and cooperative behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 7*, 349-361.
- van Knippenberg, D., van Knippenberg, B., De Cremer, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2004). Leadership, self, and identity: A review and research agenda. *Leadership Quarterly, 15*, 825-856.
- Vartia, M. (1996). The sources of bullying-psychological work environment and organizational climate. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 5*, 203-214.
- Vecchio, R. P. (1995). It's not easy being green: Jealousy and envy in the workplace. In K. R. Rowland & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resource management* (pp. 201-244). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- Vecchio, R. P. (2000). Negative emotion in the workplace: Employee jealousy and envy. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 7, 161-179.
- Vecchio, R. P. (2007). Cinderella and salieri in the workplace: The envied and the envier. In S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Managing social and ethical issues in organizations* (pp. 109-134). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Venkataramani, V., & Dalal, R. S. (2007). Who helps and harms whom? Relational antecedents of interpersonal helping and harming in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 952-966.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Hartnell, C. A., & Oke, A. (2010). Servant leadership, procedural justice climate, service climate, and employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior: A cross-level investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93, 517-529.
- Wanous, J. P., Reichers, A. E., and Hudy, M. J. (1997). Overall job satisfaction: How good are single-item measures? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 247-252.
- Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (1994). *Social network analysis: Methods and applications*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 1063-1070.
- Welbourne, T. M., Johnson, D. E., & Erez, A. (1998). The role-based performance scale: Validity analysis of a theory-based measure. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41, 540-555.

- Wood, J. W. (1989). Theory and research concerning social comparisons of personal attributes. *Psychological Bulletin*, *106*, 231-248.
- Whetten, D. A. (1989). What constitutes a theoretical contribution? *Academy of Management Review*, *14*, 490-495.
- Wilk, S. L., & Moynihan, L. M. (2005). Display rule “regulators”: The relationship between supervisors and worker emotional exhaustion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*, 918-927.
- Wu, J. B., Tsui, A. S., & Kinicki, A. J. (2010). Consequences of differentiated leadership in groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*, 90-106.

Appendix I: Supplemental Results

Mediation Tests

Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization (see Table 4 for comparison)

Victimization(network:continuous)						
	Model 1a	Model 2a	Model 3a	Model 4a	Model 5a	Model 6a
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance		0.10 *	0.07	0.08 *	0.07	0.05
Envy			0.16 **			0.09 *
Competition				0.17 **		0.07
Condescension					0.40 **	0.35 **
Victimization(network:dichotomous)						
	Model 1b	Model 2b	Model 3b	Model 4b	Model 5b	Model 6b
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance		0.06 *	0.04	0.05 *	0.04	0.04
Envy			0.09 **			0.04
Competition				0.10 **		0.05 *
Condescension					0.21 **	0.17 **
Victimization(network:maximum)						
	Model 1c	Model 2c	Model 3c	Model 4c	Model 5c	Model 6c
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance		0.11	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.03
Envy			0.21 **			0.13 **
Competition				0.25 **		0.11
Condescension					0.62 **	0.54 **

Note. $N = 217$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Summary of Moderated-Mediation Results with Victimization Network (Continuous)

Mediators (M)	Envy	Competition	Condescension
Moderators (Z)			
Collective Identity (Hypothesis 4)			
Justice Climate (Hypothesis 5)			
Climate of Concern for Employees (Hypothesis 6)			
Social Interaction (Hypothesis 7)			
Transformational Leadership (Hypothesis 8)			

Note. **Arrows and letters in bold** represent significant relationships. X: task performance, Y: victimization. The path from Z to X→M is the first stage of indirect effect. The path from Z to M→Y is the second stage of indirect effect. The path from Z to X→Y is the direct effect. Total effects are the sum of the first, second, and direct effects.

Summary of Moderated-Mediation Results with Victimization Network (Dichotomous)

Mediators (M)	Envy	Competition	Condescension
Moderators (Z)			
Collective Identity (Hypothesis 4)			
Justice Climate (Hypothesis 5)			
Climate of Concern for Employees (Hypothesis 6)			
Social Interaction (Hypothesis 7)			
Transformational Leadership (Hypothesis 8)			

Note. **Arrows and letters in bold** represent significant relationships. X: task performance, Y: victimization. The path from Z to X→M is the first stage of indirect effect. The path from Z to M→Y is the second stage of indirect effect. The path from Z to X→Y is the direct effect. Total effects are the sum of the first, second, and direct effects

Summary of Moderated-Mediation Results with Victimization Network (Maximum)

Mediators (M)	Envy	Competition	Condescension
Moderators (Z)			
Collective Identity (Hypothesis 4)			
Justice Climate (Hypothesis 5)			
Climate of Concern for Employees (Hypothesis 6)			
Social Interaction (Hypothesis 7)			
Transformational Leadership (Hypothesis 8)			

Note. **Arrows and letters in bold** represent significant relationships. X: task performance, Y: victimization. The path from Z to X→M is the first stage of indirect effect. The path from Z to M→Y is the second stage of indirect effect. The path from Z to X→Y is the direct effect. Total effects are the sum of the first, second, and direct effects

Moderated-Mediation Tests

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Collective Identity as the Moderator (see Table 6 for comparison)

Victimization(network: continuous)						
Variable	Model 1a	Model 2a	Model 3a	Model 4a	Model 5a	Model 6a
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
Envy	0.09 *	0.09 *	0.09 *	0.08 *	0.09 *	0.08 *
Competition	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.08
Condescension	0.29 **	0.28 **	0.28 **	0.26 **	0.28 **	0.27 **
Collective identity	-0.13 **	-0.13 **	-0.13 **	-0.13 **	-0.14 **	-0.12 **
Task performance x Collective identity		-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.03
Envy x Collective identity			0.00			0.06
Competition x Collective identity				-0.08		-0.14 *
Condescension x Collective identity					0.00	0.06

Victimization(network: dichotomous)						
Variable	Model 1b	Model 2b	Model 3b	Model 4b	Model 5b	Model 6b
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Envy	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04
Competition	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.05
Condescension	0.14 **	0.12 **	0.14 **	0.12 **	0.13 **	0.13 **
Collective identity	-0.12 **	-0.12 **	-0.12 **	-0.11 **	-0.12 **	-0.11 **
Task performance x Collective identity		-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02
Envy x Collective identity			0.01			0.03
Competition x Collective identity				-0.04		-0.07
Condescension x Collective identity					0.00	0.03

Victimization(network: maximum)						
Variable	Model 1c	Model 2c	Model 3c	Model 4c	Model 5c	Model 6c
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03
Envy	0.13 *	0.13 *	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.11
Competition	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.09	0.12
Condescension	0.47 **	0.47 **	0.47 **	0.44 **	0.47 **	0.45 **
Collective identity	-0.24 **	-0.24 **	-0.24 **	-0.23 **	-0.24 **	-0.23 **
Task performance x Collective identity		-0.03	-0.04	-0.03	-0.03	-0.07
Envy x Collective identity			0.02			0.11
Competition x Collective identity				-0.11		-0.20
Condescension x Collective identity					-0.03	0.04

Note. $N = 217$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Overall Justice Climate as the Moderator (see Table 9 for comparison)

Victimization(network: continous)						
Variable	Model 1a	Model 2a	Model 3a	Model 4a	Model 5a	Model 6a
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.07 *	0.07 *	0.08 *	0.08 *
Envy	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.09 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *
Competition	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.07
Condescension	0.27 **	0.27 **	0.26 **	0.26 **	0.28 **	0.27 **
Overall justice climate	-0.07 **	-0.08 **	-0.08 **	-0.08 **	-0.08 **	-0.09 **
Task performance x Overall justice climate		-0.02	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02	-0.01
Envy x Overall justice climate			-0.04			-0.04
Competition x Overall justice climate				-0.03		-0.03
Condescension x Overall justice climate					0.01	0.06
Victimization(network: dichotomous)						
Variable	Model 1b	Model 2b	Model 3b	Model 4b	Model 5b	Model 6b
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.05
Envy	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Competition	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04
Condescension	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.13 **	0.14 **
Overall justice climate	-0.06 **	-0.06 **	-0.06 **	-0.06 **	-0.06 **	-0.07 **
Task performance x Overall justice climate		0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00
Envy x Overall justice climate			-0.01			-0.02
Competition x Overall justice climate				0.00		0.00
Condescension x Overall justice climate					0.01	0.02
Victimization(network: maximum)						
Variable	Model 1c	Model 2c	Model 3c	Model 4c	Model 5c	Model 6c
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.08
Envy	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.11	0.12	0.12
Competition	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.10	0.08	0.10
Condescension	0.45 **	0.45 **	0.42 **	0.41 **	0.45 **	0.44 **
Overall justice climate	-0.16 **	-0.16 **	-0.17 **	-0.16 **	-0.17 **	-0.18 **
Task performance x Overall justice climate		-0.03	-0.02	-0.03	-0.04	-0.03
Envy x Overall justice climate			-0.07			-0.07
Competition x Overall justice climate				-0.07		0.11
Condescension x Overall justice climate					0.02	0.09

Note. $N = 217$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Climate of Concern for Employees as the Moderator (see Table 12 for comparison)

Victimization(network: continous)						
Variable	Model 1a	Model 2a	Model 3a	Model 4a	Model 5a	Model 6a
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.07	0.07 *	0.07	0.07	0.07 *	0.07
Envy	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *
Competition	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *
Condescension	0.29 **	0.29 **	0.29 **	0.29 **	0.31 **	0.31 **
Climate of concern for employees	-0.14 *	-0.13 *	-0.13 *	-0.01 *	-0.14 *	-0.13 *
Task performance x Climate of concern for employees		0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.04
Envy x Climate of concern for employees			-0.01			0.01
Competition x Climate of concern for employees				-0.02		-0.07
Condescension x Climate of concern for employees					0.03	0.08
Victimization(network: dichotomous)						
Variable	Model 1b	Model 2b	Model 3b	Model 4b	Model 5b	Model 6b
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.05 *	0.05 *	0.05 *	0.05 *	0.05 *	0.05 *
Envy	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04
Competition	0.06 *	0.06 *	0.06 *	0.05 *	0.06 *	0.05 *
Condescension	0.12 **	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.15 **	0.14 **	0.15 **
Climate of concern for employees	-0.13 **	-0.12 **	-0.12 **	-0.13 **	-0.13 **	-0.13 **
Task performance x Climate of concern for employees		0.05	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05
Envy x Climate of concern for employees			0.01			-0.03
Competition x Climate of concern for employees				0.04		0.06
Condescension x Climate of concern for employees					0.05	0.01
Victimization(network: maximum)						
Variable	Model 1c	Model 2c	Model 3c	Model 4c	Model 5c	Model 6c
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07
Envy	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12
Competition	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12
Condescension	0.46 **	0.46 **	0.45 **	0.44 **	0.46 **	0.47 **
Climate of concern for employees	-0.34 **	-0.34 **	-0.34 **	-0.34 **	-0.34 **	-0.34 **
Task performance x Climate of concern for employees		0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.00
Envy x Climate of concern for employees			-0.04			0.00
Competition x Climate of concern for employees				-0.07		-0.14
Condescension x Climate of concern for employees					0.02	0.13

Note. $N = 217$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Social Interaction as the Moderator (see Table 15 for comparison)

Victimization(network: continuous)						
Variable	Model 1a	Model 2a	Model 3a	Model 4a	Model 5a	Model 6a
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06
Envy	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.07	0.06
Competition	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.09 *	0.08 *	0.08 *
Condescension	0.28 **	0.28 **	0.25 **	0.25 **	0.28 **	0.25 **
Social interaction	-0.17 *	-0.17 *	-0.20 *	-0.18 *	-0.17 *	-0.20 *
Task performance x Social interaction		0.04	0.05	0.02	0.05	0.04
Envy x Social interaction			-0.14 *			-0.11
Competition x Social interaction				-0.12 *		-0.07
Condescension x Social interaction					-0.05	0.02
Victimization(network: dichotomous)						
Variable	Model 1b	Model 2b	Model 3b	Model 4b	Model 5b	Model 6b
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04
Envy	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Competition	0.06 *	0.06 *	0.06 *	0.06 *	0.06 *	0.06 *
Condescension	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.11 **	0.13 **	0.14 **	0.14 **
Social interaction	-0.13 **	-0.13 **	-0.14 **	-0.14 **	-0.13 **	-0.15 **
Task performance x Social interaction		0.02	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.03
Envy x Social interaction			-0.08			-0.08
Competition x Social interaction				-0.04		-0.01
Condescension x Social interaction					0.00	0.03
Victimization(network: maximum)						
Variable	Model 1c	Model 2c	Model 3c	Model 4c	Model 5c	Model 6c
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04
Envy	0.11	0.11	0.10	0.07	0.11	0.07
Competition	0.12	0.12	0.11	0.15 *	0.12	0.15 *
Condescension	0.49 **	0.49 **	0.45 **	0.40 **	0.48 **	0.43 **
Social interaction	-0.28 **	-0.28 **	-0.32 **	-0.32 **	-0.27 **	-0.35 **
Task performance x Social interaction		0.02	0.07	0.00	0.02	0.01
Envy x Social interaction			-0.27 *			-0.14
Competition x Social interaction				-0.34 **		-0.30 *
Condescension x Social interaction					-0.04	0.13

Note. $N = 217$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Moderated-Mediation Random Coefficient Modeling Results for Victimization with Transformational Leadership as the Moderator (see Table 18 for comparison)

Victimization(network: continuous)						
Variable	Model 1a	Model 2a	Model 3a	Model 4a	Model 5a	Model 6a
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.07 *	0.07	0.08 *
Envy	0.07 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.08 *
Competition	0.09 *	0.08 *	0.08 *	0.09 *	0.08 *	0.10 *
Condescension	0.30 **	0.30 **	0.30 **	0.28 **	0.30 **	0.29 **
Transformational leadership	-0.12 **	-0.11 **	-0.11 **	-0.11 **	-0.11 **	-0.11 **
Task performance x Transformational leadership		0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.06
Envy x Transformational leadership			-0.02			0.04
Competition x Transformational leadership				-0.08		-0.14
Condescension x Transformational leadership					-0.02	0.07
Victimization(network: dichotomous)						
Variable	Model 1b	Model 2b	Model 3b	Model 4b	Model 5b	Model 6b
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.05 *	0.05 *	0.05
Envy	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.03
Competition	0.07 **	0.06 **	0.06 **	0.07 **	0.06 **	0.07 **
Condescension	0.14 **	0.15 **	0.13 **	0.14 **	0.14 **	0.14 **
Transformational leadership	-0.10 **	-0.10 **	-0.10 **	-0.10 **	-0.10 **	-0.10 **
Task performance x Transformational leadership		0.06 *	0.06	0.06	0.06 *	0.05
Envy x Transformational leadership			-0.01			0.01
Competition x Transformational leadership				-0.03		-0.05
Condescension x Transformational leadership					-0.02	0.00
Victimization(network: maximum)						
Variable	Model 1c	Model 2c	Model 3c	Model 4c	Model 5c	Model 6c
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-
Controls	-	-	-	-	-	-
Task performance	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.07
Envy	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.11	0.12	0.12
Competition	0.13	0.12	0.12	0.15	0.12	0.16 *
Condescension	0.49 **	0.51 **	0.51 **	0.46 **	0.50 **	0.49 **
Transformational leadership	-0.20 *	-0.19 *	-0.19 *	-0.19 *	-0.19 *	-0.19 *
Task performance x Transformational leadership		0.09	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.06
Envy x Transformational leadership			-0.01			0.12
Competition x Transformational leadership				-0.18		-0.30 *
Condescension x Transformational leadership					-0.04	0.11

Note. $N = 217$. Values are unstandardized RCM coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

Appendix II: A Moderated-Mediation Equation

Model 2 in Table 5 (the first stage model)

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Envy}_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{Controls}_{ij}) + \beta_{2j}(\text{Task Performance}_{ij}) + r_{ij}.$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{Collective Identity}_j) + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10}$$

$$\beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21}(\text{Collective Identity}_j)$$

Complete Model

$$\text{Envy}_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}(\text{Controls}_{ij}) + \gamma_{20}(\text{Task Performance}_{ij}) + \gamma_{01}(\text{Collective Identity}_j) + \gamma_{21}(\text{Task Performance}_{ij} * \text{Collective Identity}_j) + u_{0j} + r_{ij}.$$

Model 3 in Table 6 (the second stage and direct effect model)

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Victimization}_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{Controls}_{ij}) + \beta_{2j}(\text{Task Performance}_{ij}) + \beta_{3j}(\text{Envy}_{ij}) + r_{ij}.$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{Collective Identity}_j) + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10}$$

$$\beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + \gamma_{21}(\text{Collective Identity}_j)$$

$$\beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31}(\text{Collective Identity}_j)$$

Complete Model

$$\text{Victimization}_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}(\text{Controls}_{ij}) + \gamma_{20}(\text{Task Performance}_{ij}) + \gamma_{30}(\text{Envy}_{ij}) + \gamma_{01}(\text{Collective Identity}_j) + \gamma_{21}(\text{Task Performance}_{ij} * \text{Collective Identity}_j) + \gamma_{31}(\text{Envy}_{ij} * \text{Collective Identity}_j) + u_{0j} + r_{ij}.$$

Employee Well-being Survey

Welcome to the employee well-being survey!

I appreciate your participation and hope that you will find the survey interesting. The purpose of this study is to help our work in building a better workplace. You will be asked a variety of questions about your work group environment, your job satisfaction and stress, and your personal characteristics. Please consider your experiences over the past six months, unless otherwise stated.

As you know, this study has two surveys. This is the first survey for this study. It should take about 12~15 minutes to complete. Once you fill out the first survey, I will invite you to fill out the second survey (5~7 minutes to complete) after three weeks via e-mail. Payment for this study is 30,000 Korean won if you completed both surveys. Payment for the first survey will be 10,000 Korean won.

Reminder: Before you begin, you should know that...

Your answers are confidential. All information that you provide will be kept strictly confidential and any report of the study will not identify you personally in any way. Only the researcher will have access to your individual records, which will be identified with a randomly assigned ID number. Under no circumstances will anyone else at the University or your organization have access to your data.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right not to participate or to stop participating at any time. Your decision will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota, or with the researcher, or with your employer.

The researcher conducting this study is: Eugene Kim, a PhD student at the University of Minnesota. If you have any questions about this study, you are encouraged to contact me by email kimx906@gmail.com.

Thank you for your help with this important study!

You will not be allowed to leave and re-enter this survey, so please complete the survey at a time when you have 15 minutes available.

Background Information

Team Name

Name

E-Mail Address (for 2nd survey and payment notice)

Gender

Male

Female

Rank

Team Manager

Team Member

Age (Years)

Education

High School

Two-Year Degree or some college courses

Bachelor's Degree

Master's Degree or Doctorate Degree

Organization Tenure

How long have you been employed at your current workplace?

_____ years _____ months

Work Group Tenure

How long have you been employed at your current work group?

_____ years _____ months

SECTION I: About work group environment. This section includes questions about your feelings, experiences, and attitudes about your group environment. Please answer the following questions as honestly as possible.

Justice

This set of questions is about overall justice in your work group. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall, members are treated fairly in this work group							
In general, members can count on this work group to be fair							
In general, the treatment members receive in this work group is fair							

This set of questions is about procedural justice in your work group. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This work group makes decisions in fair ways							
The procedures used to handle work group issues are fair							
The rules and procedures to make decisions are fair							

Leadership

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of your team manager as you perceive it. Twenty descriptive statements are listed on the following two pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing.

Team manger's name

My team manger...

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently, if not always
Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate					
Talks about their most important values and beliefs					
Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems					
Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group					
Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group					

MLQ, © 1995 Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass. All Rights Reserved. Published by Mind Garden, Inc., www.mindgarden.com

Concern for Employees

This set of questions is about concern for employees in your work group. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Our group cares about members' opinions					
Our group shows very little concern for members					
Our group would forgive members' honest mistakes					
Our group really cares about members' well-being					
Our group is willing to help if members need a special favor					
Our group strongly considers members' goals and values					
Help is available from our group when members have a problem					
If given the opportunity, our group would take advantage of members.					

Work and Social Interactions

This set of questions is about work and social interaction in your work group. Please indicate the extent to which these statements describe your work group.

	Not at all	A little	Some	A lot	Very much
How much is the work of members of your work group affected by the work of other work group members?					
How much do members of your workgroup depend on other workgroup members for help or assistance to do their work?					
How much must members of your workgroup coordinate their work activities with other workgroup members to get their job done?					
How much do members of your work group take a personal interest in one another?					
Are the members of your work group good friends with one another?					

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
How often do members of your work group spend breaks or lunches socializing with each other?					
How often do members of your work group get together with one another outside of work?					

Work Group Identity

This set of questions is about your work group identity. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When someone criticizes this work group, it feels like a personal insult					
I am very interested in what others think about this work group					
When I talk about other people in this work group, I usually say “we” rather than “they					
The successes of the people in this work group are my successes					
When someone praises this work group, it feels like a personal compliment					

SECTION II—Some Questions about You. The following questions relate to your personal attitudes, feelings, and beliefs at work. Please answer the following questions as honestly as possible.

Feelings

The following words describe different feelings and emotions that people have. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way—that is, how you feel on average.

	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much
Upset					
Hostile					
Alert					
Ashamed					
Inspired					
Nervous					
Determined					
Attentive					
Active					
Afraid					

Job Satisfaction and Stress

This set of questions is about your job stress. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel a great deal of stress because of my job					
Very few stressful things happens to me at work					
My job is extremely stressful					
I almost never feel stressed at work					

This set of questions is about your job satisfaction. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall, I am satisfied with my job					

Social Comparison

This set of questions is about your social comparison traits. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often compare how my loved ones (boy or girlfriend, family members, etc.) are doing with how others are doing					
I always pay a lot of attention to how I do things compared with how others do things					
If I want to find out how well I have done something, I compare what I have done with how others have done					
I often compare how I am doing socially (e.g., social skills, popularity) with other people					
I am not the type of person who compares often with others					
I often compare myself with others with respect to what I have accomplished in life					

Personality

The items below inquire about what kind of person you think you are. Each item consists of a PAIR of characteristics, with the letters A-E in between. For example,

Not at all artistic

A.....B.....C.....D.....E

Very artistic

Each pair describes contradictory characteristics - that is, you cannot be both at the same time, such as very artistic and not at all artistic. **The letters form a scale between the two extremes.** You are to choose a letter which describes where YOU fall on the scale. For example, if you think that you have no artistic ability, you would choose A. If you think that you are pretty good, you might choose D. If you are only medium, you might choose C, and so forth.

Not at all independent	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very independent
Not at all emotional	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very emotional
Very passive	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very active
Not at all able to devote self completely to others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Able to devote self completely to others
Very rough	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very gentle
Not at all helpful to others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very helpful to others
Not at all competitive	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very competitive
Not at all kind	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very kind
Not at all aware of feelings of others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very aware of feelings of others
Can make decisions easily	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Have difficulty making decisions
Give up very easily	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Never give up easily
Not at all self-confident	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very self-confident
Feel very inferior	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Feel very superior
Not at all understanding of others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very understanding of others
Very cold in relations with others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very warm in relations with others
Go to pieces under pressure	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Stand up well under pressure

**Thank you for completing the survey.
I will send you information about 2nd survey after 3 weeks via e-mail.
2nd Employee Well-being Survey**

Welcome back to the employee well-being survey!

Thank you for completing the first survey. This is the second survey for this study. You will be asked a variety of questions about your interpersonal networks and your negative experiences in your work group. Please consider your experiences over the past six months, unless otherwise stated.

It should take about 5 minutes to complete (team size: 5 members). If you fill out this second survey, you will receive 30,000 Korean won.

Reminder: Before you begin, you should know that...

Your answers are confidential. All information that you provide will be kept strictly confidential and any report of the study will not identify you personally in any way. Only the researcher will have access to your individual records, which will be identified with a randomly assigned ID number. Under no circumstances will anyone else at the University or your organization have access to your data.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right not to participate or to stop participating at any time. Your decision will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota, or with the researcher, or with your employer.

The researcher conducting this study is: Eugene Kim, a PhD student at the University of Minnesota. If you have any questions about this study, you are encouraged to contact me by email kimx906@gmail.com.

Thank you for your help with this important study!

You will not be allowed to leave and re-enter this survey, so please complete the survey at a time when you have 5 minutes available.

Background Information

Name

E-Mail Address (for payment notice)

Workplace Victimization

The following questions ask about certain unfavorable experiences you may have had at work. Please indicate how often your team member has directed the following behaviors toward you. I understand how sensitive the following negative items may be to you; however, I ask for you to answer each item as openly and candidly as possible in order for me to adequately diagnose the situations within your workplace. **Remember that all of your responses will be kept completely confidential.**

How often has a team member...

	Never	Rarely: 1 or 2 times a year	Sometimes: 1 or 2 times a month	Often: 1 or 2 times a week	Very often: almost everyday
said bad things about you to your coworkers?					
sabotaged your work?					
done something to make you look bad?					
lied to you in trouble?					
made an offensive slur toward you?					
made an obscene comment or gesture in front of you?					
threatened you with physical harm?					
cursed at you?					

How often has a team member intentionally...

	Never	Rarely: 1 or 2 times a year	Sometimes: 1 or 2 times a month	Often: 1 or 2 times a week	Very often: almost everyday
criticized you in front of other members?					
ignored you?					
talked down to you?					
went back on your word					
gave you the silent treatment?					
belittled you or your ideas?					
didn't listen to you?					

Abusive Supervision

The following questions ask about certain unfavorable experiences you may have had at work. Please indicate how often your team manager has directed the following behaviors toward you. I understand how sensitive the following negative items may be to you; however, I ask for you to answer each item as openly and candidly as possible in order for me to adequately diagnose the situations within your workplace. **Remember that all of your responses will be kept completely confidential.**

How often has your team manager ...

	Never	Rarely: 1 or 2 times a year	Sometimes: 1 or 2 times a month	Often: 1 or 2 times a week	Very often: almost everyday
ridiculed me?					
told me my thoughts or feelings are stupid?					
made negative comments about me to others?					
put me down in front of others?					
told me I'm incompetent?					

Interpersonal Networks

Each of the following pages has a single question that we would like you to answer for each person in your work group.

For research purposes only. No one in your work group and organization will ever see your responses to these questions.

For each person on this list, please use the scale below in order to answer the following question. Check the final column for your own name.

Advice Network

How frequently do you go to this person for work-related advice?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Check this column for your own name
Person A						
Person B						
Person C						
Person D						
Person E						
....						

Friendship Network

This person is a good friend of yours.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Check this column for your own name
Person A						
Person B						
Person C						
Person D						
Person E						
....						

Adversarial Network

I have a difficult relationship with this person.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Check this column for your own name
Person A						
Person B						
Person C						
Person D						
Person E						
....						

Competition

I compete with this person for performance achievement, promotion, and recognition at work. For example, (1) It is important to me to perform better than this person on a task; (2) I feel that winning against this person is important at work, or (3) I try harder when I am in competition with this person.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Check this column for your own name
Person A						
Person B						
Person C						
Person D						
Person E						
....						

Envy

I envy this person's task performance. For example, (1) it is so frustrating to see this person succeed so easily; (2) feelings of envy toward this person constantly torment me; (3) I generally feel inferior to this person's success; or (4) this person's success makes me resent this person.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Check this column for your own name
Person A						
Person B						
Person C						
Person D						
Person E						

....						
------	--	--	--	--	--	--

Condescension

How frequently has this person acted in a condescending manner toward you? For example, this person has (1) put you down or patronized you; (2) belittled you or your ideas; or (3) ignored you.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Check this column for your own name
Person A						
Person B						
Person C						
Person D						
Person E						
....						

Victimization

How frequently do you think this person has engaged in activities against your legitimate interest (e.g., spreading rumors, gossiping behinds your back, being rude to you, interfering your work)?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Check this column for your own name
Person A						
Person B						
Person C						
Person D						
Person E						
....						

**Thank you for completing the survey.
I will send you information about payment as soon as possible.**

Employee Well-being Survey (for Team Managers)

Welcome to the employee well-being survey!

I appreciate your participation. The purpose of this study is to help our work in building a better workplace. You will be asked a set of questions about your background and your team members' job performance (minimum 2 to maximum 10 members). For example, if your team size is 3 members, you can fill out the three members' job performance and leave others (e.g., employee #4 ~ employee #10) as blank. Please answer candidly. Please consider your assessment over the past six months.

It should take about 5 minutes to complete (team size: 5 members). If you fill out this survey, you will receive 10,000 Korean won.

Reminder: Before you begin, you should know that...

Your answers are confidential. All information that you provide will be kept strictly confidential and any report of the study will not identify you personally in any way. Only the researcher will have access to your individual records, which will be identified with a randomly assigned ID number. Under no circumstances will anyone else at the University or your organization have access to your data.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right not to participate or to stop participating at any time. Your decision will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota, or with the researcher, or with your employer.

The researcher conducting this study is: Eugene Kim, a PhD student at the University of Minnesota. If you have any questions about this study, you are encouraged to contact me by email kimx906@gmail.com

Thank you for your help with this important study!

You will not be allowed to leave and re-enter this survey, so please complete the survey at a time when you have 5 minutes available.

Team Name

Team Size (don't count yourself)

Job Performance

Subordinate 1 Name (*one for each subordinate*)

Task Performance (Doing things specifically related to one's job description)

Compared to other employees in this work group, this subordinate's

	At a very low level	At a low level	At about the same level	At a high level	At a very high level
quantity of work output is...					
quality of work output is...					
accuracy of work is...					
customer service provided (internal and external) is...					

Organizational Citizenship and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

How often this team member has engaged in specific behaviors on the job?

	Never	Rarely: 1 or 2 times a year	Sometimes: 1 or 2 times a month	Often: 1 or 2 times a week	Very often: almost everyday
helps work group members when they have heavy work loads or are absent					
volunteers for things that are not required					
makes helpful suggestions to improve work group					
makes it difficult for other work group members to do their work well					
acts like s/he dislikes or disapproves of other work group members					

Background Information

Name

E-Mail Address (for payment notice)

Gender

Male

Female

Age (Years)

Education

High School

Two-Year Degree or some college courses

Bachelor's Degree

Master's Degree or Doctorate Degree

Organization Tenure

How long have you been employed at your current workplace?

_____ years _____ months

Work Group Tenure

How long have you been employed at your current work group?

_____ years _____ months