The Effects of Leadership Behavior on Workplace Harassment, Employee Outcomes, and Organizational Effectiveness in Small Businesses

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A Dissertation submitted to

The Faculty of
School of Business
of The George Washington University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

January 31, 2012

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Acknowledgement

The author wishes to thank many people whose tireless efforts aided and improved this dissertation. First, to my committee members, Jaclyn Jensen, George Solomon, Tjai Nielsen, Susan Taylor, and Lynn Offermann are to be thanked for their valuable insights and suggestions throughout the process. I feel especially thankful to Dr. Erik Winslow and Dr. George Solomon for their support through the Center for Entrepreneurial Excellence. Dr. Paul Swiercz has been an exceptional mentor from day one of the program. I would also like to thank Dr. Patrick McHugh, Dr. James Bailey, Dr. Chris Kayes, and Dr. Sharon Hill for sharing their insight with me about research and teaching, helping me to become a well-rounded professor. Without the management faculty members' support, time, and affection, I could not have completed this journey. I also feel very lucky having worked with Sergio and Elizabeth, who provided great administrative help and support throughout the past four years. Being around nice people in the department was the most precious thing to me; Diane, Laura, Melissa, George, and Dave helped me through every step of the program. Mark, Crystal, and Viv were my best friends and officemates during my time in Funger 315. Mary's thanksgiving dinner, Joowhan's kindness, and Jane's warm heart will be remembered for long. Outside school, I feel deeply grateful to In-Sue for his advice, humor, and friendship. Finally, I will never be able to pay back love of my parents. Thank you for their patience and support! Comparable with this, another type of love also made this journey possible. Harold, my husband, you have an incredible gift for making me smile, which enabled me to manage through a lonely, sometimes taxing Ph.D. life. You share in this accomplishment more than you will ever know. My deepest thank you to you.

Abstract

The Effects of Leadership Behavior on Workplace Harassment, Employee Outcomes, and Organizational Effectiveness in Small Businesses

Although scholars have long examined antecedents affecting the incidence of workplace harassment, little is known about the effects of immediate managers' leadership behavior on the incidence of workplace harassment. This is unfortunate because supervisors have a strong influence on their employees' behaviors due to their physical and psychological proximity to employees and their ability to administer rewards and punishments as well as performance ratings. Drawing from the leadership, social learning, and harassment theories and empirical evidence, this study examines how immediate managers differentially affect (i.e., promote or inhibit) the occurrence of workplace harassment via four types of leadership – transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and destructive leadership in the context of small businesses. Further, this relationship is hypothesized to be mediated by individual employees' perceptions regarding the climate of respect for people in the organization. Data collected from 239 employee-coworker dyads provided support for the hypothesized relationships. The findings highlight supervisors' leadership behavior is an important antecedent of workplace harassment and a climate of respect provides a strategic focus that enables organizations to effectively guide employee behaviors to create a civil work environment. Therefore, organizations should be aware of the salience of supervisors as a role model of setting the tone for interpersonal treatment among employees as well as working environment. This, in turn, will relate to positive employee attitudes and behaviors, reducing the voluntary turnover rates of small businesses.

Key words: *workplace harassment, leadership, psychological climate, small businesses*

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CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

> Hopefully, this lawsuit, which lasted over 10 years, has finally come to a close. The win is bittersweet, though. While the plaintiff was awarded nothing, it did come at a cost. Jocks & Jills, an Atlanta institution for over 20 years, is no longer in existence. . . . While I'm glad this nightmare finally appears to be over, I treasure Jocks & Jills and am devastated that it did not survive this ordeal.
> —Joseph R. Rollins, a founder of Jocks and Jills, statement on the jury verdict in 2009 (McDonald, 2009)

The case of Jocks and Jills, an Atlanta-based sports bar chain that filed for bankruptcy in 2007 due to a $2.25 million award in a sexual harassment lawsuit brought by a former female manager, exemplifies that legal liabilities associated with workplace harassment may bring serious ramifications — in extreme cases leading to business failure. Small businesses — defined as those with less than 500 employees (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2007) — usually do not have a formal human resources function or anti-harassment policies and often lack resources to execute preventive actions to stop harassment at work (Robinson, Jackson, Franklin, & Hensley, 1998). As a result, victimized employees in small organizations may resort to less effective methods of stopping harassment such as avoidance and support seeking than filing formal complaints (Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg, & Dubois, 1997). However, it may be more challenging to avoid a harasser or to mobilize emotional support and advice from trusted others within a small firm due to the limited number of employees who work closely with each other. Therefore, small businesses may experience more detrimental consequences from workplace harassment than larger firms in terms of increased turnover because small businesses' success depends on their ability to manage human capital (Deshpande & Golhar, 1994).

However, prior research on workplace harassment in small businesses has tended to solely focus on legal implications of sexual harassment (e.g., Jackson & Hensley, 1996; Robinson et al., 1998; Robinson & Reithel, 1997) and thus little research has systematically examined both generalized and sexualized types of workplace harassment in the context of small businesses. Further, most harassment studies have been conducted in large organizations such as the military, federal courts, universities, and public sectors (e.g., Lim & Cortina, 2005; Williams, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1999). This stream of research has traditionally focused on individual outcomes documenting harmful impacts of harassment on employees' job, psychological, and health-related variables (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997; Glomb & Liao, 2003; Gruber, 2003; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Raver & Nishii, 2010). Research examining organizational effectiveness as an outcome variable, albeit relatively sparse, has also shown the negative consequences to organizations' bottom line because widespread employee dissatisfaction can impair coordination and collaboration at work (Ostroff, 1992; Raver & Gelfand, 2005). For example, a meta-analysis by Willness and colleagues (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007) revealed that sexual harassment costs on average about $22,500 per person affected in terms of productivity alone. Pearson and colleagues (Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001) argued that employees' disrespectful behaviors negatively affects organizations' bottom line through reduced work efforts and commitment to the organization. Finally, Detert and colleagues (Detert, Trevino, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007) found that mistreatment by supervisors was negatively related to the financial performance of casual dining restaurants. All of these findings suggest that workplace harassment has an adverse impact on the organizational effectiveness of small businesses.

The image of organizations suffering from harassment is far from "a healthy organization" which is characterized as one that is profitable (e.g., effective) and at the same time promotes employee well-being (e.g., reduced stress) (Jaffee, 1995; Sauter, Lim, & Murphy, 1996). The negative consequences to both organizations and employees clearly show that understanding the causes of workplace harassment has significant implications for individuals' and organizations' well-being. Therefore, the current study focuses on an organizational antecedent that may affect the experience of harassment in the organization: the role of immediate managers' leadership behaviors in workplace harassment. Managers can communicate intolerance of harassment by taking complaints seriously, correcting harassing behavior, and sanctioning harassers (Cortina & Wasti, 2005), and such leadership behaviors have been found to be more critical than organizational policies in deterring employees from harassing others (Hulin, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1996; Williams et al., 1999).

Previous studies examining leadership influence on harassment have focused on top management, with the assumption that top-level management sets the tone for the organization by sending a message regarding what is acceptable behavior to those below them in the organization (Schein, 1980). This stream of research generally suggests that when management tolerates harassing behaviors and does not discipline those acts, employees will likely model similar behaviors and beliefs (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Glomb & Liao, 2003; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1996), resulting in an increased prevalence of harassment in the organization (De Coster, Estes, & Mueller, 1999; Pryor, LaVite, & Stoller, 1993; Pryor & Stoller, 1994).

Virtually no research has examined immediate managers' leadership behavior as a key antecedent of harassment in the organization. This is unfortunate because immediate managers have a stronger influence on their employees than top management due to their physical and psychological proximity to employees and their ability to administer rewards and punishments as well as performance ratings (Bass, 1981, 1990; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007). A focus on immediate managers is important because employees' harassing behaviors are generally noticed by their managers, who spend a large amount of time in personal contact and direct communication with them (Bass, 1981). Moreover, immediate managers' leadership behavior has been recognized as a primary determinant of employees' climate perceptions (e.g., Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; Koene et al., 2002; Mullen & Kelloway, 2009; Zohar, 2002) that guide appropriate behaviors in the organization (James & James, 1989). In particular, small businesses usually lack formal policies against harassment and organizational interventions such as sexual harassment training. As a result, one might expect immediate managers' leadership behavior to have a salient impact on increasing or reducing harassment in small organizations.

In the present study, I examine how immediate managers affect (i.e., promote or prevent) harassment via four types of leadership — transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and destructive — in small organizations with less than 500 employees. In doing so, I hope to make contributions to the literature in four ways.

First, this study addresses a gap in the extant workplace harassment literature by examining a critical but underdeveloped organizational antecedent of harassment:

immediate managers' leadership behavior in the context of workplace harassment. Prior to this study, research on the role of immediate managers has been limited, resulting in a lack of theory and empirical evidence on the effects of their leadership behavior on the incidence of workplace harassment. This study proposes predictions for how specific leader behaviors influence harassment, drawing upon leadership and social learning theories as well as empirical evidence from testing the hypothesized relationships. Beyond advancing knowledge of leadership behavior as an antecedent of workplace harassment, this study also examines psychological climate as an important mediating cognition that links leadership and harassment.

Second, the current study extends the leadership literature by adding employees' uncivil, harassing behaviors to a list of important employee outcomes in association with leadership. This is consistent with the recent stream of studies that examine various types of employee outcomes affected by leadership, such as employee voice, deviant behavior, and interpersonal conflict, departing from an exclusive focus on task performance (e.g., Detert et al., 2007; Doucet, Poitras, & Chenevert, 2009; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). Understanding leadership effects on employee behavior relating to harassment may help organizations direct their efforts to stop harassment in effective ways such as monitoring their managers' behaviors toward employees, being sensitive to employees' perceptions of organizational climate, or providing managers with training about specific leadership styles to discourage harassing behaviors in individual employees.

Third, by examining the harmful effects of harassment on organizational effectiveness as a whole, I seek to provide direct evidence to help organizations realize

the need for interventions to prevent harassment. This study examines organization-level outcomes of workplace harassment by measuring revenue and employee turnover in small businesses. Demonstrating the negative relationship between workplace harassment and indices of organizational effectiveness may help organizations recognize that employees' negative behaviors such as harassment significantly damage their bottom line. Therefore, this study adds evidence from a small business sector to the literature on the negative effects of workplace harassment on organization-level outcomes as well as individual-level outcomes.

Finally, most U.S. firms fall in the category of small businesses (Blanchard & Thacker, 1999). Thus, "small business productivity has been the driving engine of the U.S. economy for the past two decades" (Kuratko, Goodale, & Hornsby, 2001, p. 293), and small businesses provided 65% of net new jobs in the nation's private workforce over the past 17 years (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2009). Yet, seven out of 10 new firms last only 2 years, and about half survive 5 years (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2009). Given the significance of the small business sector to the entire U.S. economy and the seemingly harmful impacts of workplace harassment on the survival or success of small businesses (e.g., Jocks and Jills), it is crucial to examine harassment issues in small businesses. The findings from this study could provide some useful knowledge that may aid in the success of small businesses by illuminating the relationship between leadership, workplace harassment, and organizational outcomes.

The theoretical framework for the study is summarized in Figure 1.1. Chapter 2 provides a full discussion of each element in the theoretical framework and outlines the proposed hypotheses.

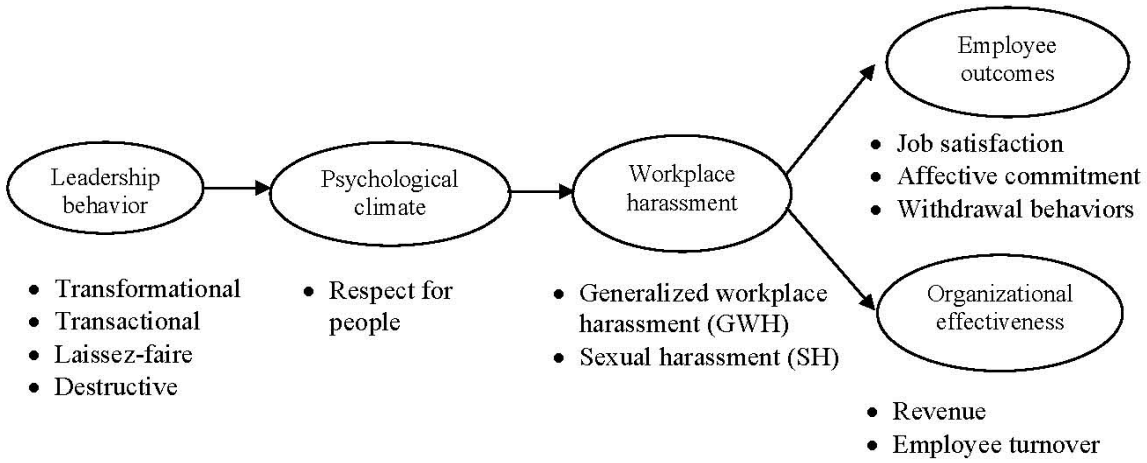

Figure 1.1. Theoretical framework for the study.

CHAPTER 2:

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter provides a roadmap of the theoretical framework, beginning with a literature review of workplace harassment. It then highlights the importance of examining managers' leadership behavior as a key antecedent of workplace harassment and illustrates the vulnerability of small businesses in terms of individual and organizational outcomes as a result of workplace harassment. Drawing on relevant theories and research findings, I propose specific hypotheses regarding the relationship between leadership style and workplace harassment, leadership and psychological climate, and workplace harassment and individual and organizational outcomes in sequence.

Workplace Harassment

Workplace harassment refers to insensitive, disrespectful, or intimidating behavior creating a hostile work environment that can negatively affect the victimized individual. More formally:

> Harassment is verbal or physical conduct that denigrates or shows hostility or aversion toward an individual because of his/her race, color, religion, gender, national origin, age, or disability, or that of his/her relatives, friends, or associates, and that (i) has the purpose or the effect of creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment; (ii) has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance; or (iii) otherwise adversely affects an individual's employment opportunities. (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1993, pp. 51268-51269)

In the field of organizational behavior, workplace harassment has been examined under various terms such as interpersonal mistreatment (Cortina & Magley, 2003), hostility to women or misogyny (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004, 2007), workplace or generalized harassment (Ashforth, 1994; Bowling & Beehr, 2006), workplace abuse

(Richman, Rospenda, Nawyn, & Flaherty, Frendrich, Drum et al., 1999), and sexual versus nonsexual workplace violence and aggression (Barling, Rogers, & Kelloway, 2001; Lapierre, Spector, & Leck, 2005; Richman et al., 1999). Essentially, most of these studies deal with two types of workplace harassment: sexual and nonsexual harassment. Consistent with this stream of research, in this study, *workplace harassment* is used to refer to both *generalized workplace harassment (GWH)* (Rospenda & Richman, 2004) and *sexual harassment (SH)* (Fitzgerald, Swan, & Magley, 1997). For a better understanding of issues of workplace harassment, I provide reviews of GWH and SH by summarizing research findings on the definition, the nature, and the consequences of behaviors falling under each category. Afterwards, I elaborate on the relationship between GWH and SH.

Generalized Workplace Harassment (GWH)

GWH is defined as behaviors that create a hostile, intimidating, or disrespectful work environment but which are not based upon legally protected characteristics such as gender, age, race, disability, and national origin (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Rospenda, Richman, Ehmke, & Zlatoper, 2005). Examples of GWH include interrupting, putting someone down, making demeaning or derogatory remarks, and using unprofessional terms of address. Rospenda and Richman (2004) analyzed the factor structure of GWH and found that covert hostility was the most frequently experienced type of harassment followed by verbal hostility, manipulation, and physical hostility. Further, this type of harassment prevails in organizations, as found in the work of Pearson and Porath (2005) showing that 20% of employees had experienced GWH in the organization each week. With regard to gender

of targets, the prevalence rate of GWH ranges from ≥30% in men to ≥50% in women (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994; Rospenda, 2002).

GWH has been used to refer to a broader category of mistreatment, including workplace bullying or mobbing (e.g., Einarsen, 1999; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002), workplace incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), emotional abuse (Keashly, Harvey, & Hunter, 1997), workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1996), and social undermining at work (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002). Despite slightly different definitions employed in these constructs (e.g., bullying or mobbing involves repeated and systematic attempts to harm by an individual or group, where a power imbalance exists between victims and perpetrators), they embrace behaviors that create an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment. Thus, GWH is an umbrella term for nonsexual harassment behavior that is not overtly based on personal or social status characteristics.

The ambiguous motivation of GWH matches that of workplace incivility, whose definition formally includes ambiguous intent to harm the target (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Namely, GWH is not necessarily intentional or malicious, and it is not obvious to the harasser, target, or observers if the perpetrator has harmful objectives. People may behave rudely with motivation to harm the organization, to harm the target, or to benefit themselves, or they may do so without intent, as in the case of ignorance or oversight (Pearson et al., 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2005). In addition, GWH usually manifests as a less intense form of mistreatment involving mildly negative emotional appraisal (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Rospenda & Richman, 2004). However, many researchers have cautioned that the negative reactions caused by GWH (e.g., anxiety and hostility) may trigger revenge, creating a vicious cycle of harassment that escalates into more severe

forms of mistreatment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Glomb & Liao, 2003; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996).

Although the nature of GWH is subtle, its impacts are considerably harmful. For instance, GWH predicted employee outcomes beyond other forms of harassment such as ethnic and gender harassment (Raver & Nishii, 2010). A meta-analysis revealed that GWH has worse effects on job satisfaction than SH (Lapierre et al., 2005). This is due, in part, to the fact that GWH occurs more frequently in organizations than SH (Lapierre et al., 2005; Lim & Cortina, 2005) and that the subtle nature of GWH masks harassers' underlying motives, causing victims to ruminate over why they are being targeted (Raver & Nishii, 2010). Following GWH, the next section reviews the current status of SH literature with a focus on the definition, the nature, and the consequences of SH.

Sexual Harassment (SH)

SH is a multidimensional construct consisting of three related but conceptually distinct and nonoverlapping dimensions: gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion (Gelfand, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1995). Gelfand et al. (1995) argued that these dimensions compose "the irreducible minimum of the construct as it is currently understood, both legally and psychologically" (p. 167). Specifically, *gender harassment* refers to verbal and nonverbal behaviors generally not aimed at sexual cooperation but rather displaying insulting, hostile, and degrading attitudes about women; it has been found to be the most common form of SH (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999; U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board [USMSPB], 1981, 1988, 1995). *Unwanted sexual attention* means sexually inappropriate behaviors that are unwanted and unreciprocated by the recipient (e.g., intrusive phone calls and

touching). Gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention correspond to the legal definition of *hostile work environment*. Examples of a hostile work environment include displaying offensive pornography, making sexually obscene comments or gestures, and insulting someone's sexual abilities. Finally, *sexual coercion* is defined as explicit or subtle bribes and threats to make a job-related benefit contingent on sexual cooperation, and it parallels the legal concept of *quid pro quo*. The three-factor structure of SH has been shown to be consistent in genders and in a wide range of cultural and occupational contexts (Gelfand et al., 1995; Gruber, Smith, & Kauppinen, 1996; Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, & Drasgow, 2000).

One of the most consistent research findings in the SH literature is that SH prevails across organizations (e.g., Gruber, 2003; USMSPB, 1981, 1988, 1995). A meta-analysis (Ilies, Hauserman, Schwochau, & Stibal, 2003) revealed that the prevalence rate of SH for women ranges from 24% to 58% depending on methodological variance (e.g., type of survey used, sampling technique, and type of work environment in which the study was conducted). For men, data from USMSPB surveys (1981, 1988, 1995) revealed that between 14% and 19% of federal employees have experienced at least one episode of SH within a 2-year framework. The prevalence rate of SH also fluctuates by the definition of SH used in studies, such that higher prevalence estimates occurred when the psychological definition was used (Lengnick-Hall, 1995). This is because the legal definition[1] is generally stricter than the psychological definition, which does not require

[1] The legal definition from the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (1980) is as following: Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when (a) submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, (b) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individual, or (c) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment.

negative work outcomes but focuses on specific behaviors and victims' subjective experiences (Lengnick-Hall, 1995). This study adopts the psychological definition, specifically the behavioral definition by Fitzgerald and colleagues (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Fitzgerald, Hulin, & Drasgow, 1995), because it has the advantage of capturing behaviors and circumstances that are not covered by the legal definition but still yield similar outcomes for the victim. For example, offensive jokes may not be considered a hostile work environment according to the reasonable woman standard under the legal definition (Cortina & Berdhal, 2008). However, a victim may still perceive such behaviors as SH and experience negative psychological and physical consequences. Therefore, the psychological definition has greater predictive validity than the legal definition in explaining individual and organizational outcomes such as employee withdrawal, absenteeism, and turnover (Lengnick-Hall, 1995).

The seminal work by Fitzgerald and colleagues (1997) has served as the most widely used theoretical model in the harassment literature. They conceptualized SH as one of psychological work stressors (i.e., "particularly noxious forms of occupational stress," Fitzgerald et al., 1997, p. 578) that are associated with negative outcomes for individuals. This framework also proposes that SH in organizations is a function of organizational and job characteristics (e.g., organizational tolerance and job-gender context) and that the effects of SH are moderated by personal vulnerability (e.g., age, marital status) and victims' coping styles (e.g., filing a complaint, reporting). Finally, this model posits that SH is associated with negative job, psychological, and health-related outcomes, such as decreased job satisfaction, anxiety, depression, headaches, gastrointestinal disorders, and sleep disturbance.

The literature suggests that victims' evaluation of harassment experiences plays an integral role in determining the severity of outcomes and their subsequent actions or intentions. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), the primary process involves making sense of what has occurred, including the harasser's intentions. A secondary process involves thinking about what can or should be done in response to the harassing behaviors based upon available resources (e.g., supervisor's support or grievance procedures). For instance, SH by higher-status actors has been shown to be more distressing than that by same- or lower-status actors because of victims' heightened experience of helplessness and fear (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Langhout et al., 2005). To make it worse, organizations are unlikely to take action against high-status harassers (Bergman et al., 2002). These conditions affect the victim's appraisals. Even when victims report SH complaints, they may suffer from worse occupational, psychological, and physical health than those who do not, because of their fear of retaliation (Bergman et al., 2002).

Based upon the description of GWH and SH, the following section discusses the differences and similarities of the two and the implications for both organizations and individuals.

The Relationship between Generalized Workplace Harassment and Sexual Harassment

As noted earlier, GWH involves nonsexual forms of mistreatment of others resulting in a hostile work environment in areas not covered by Title VII of U.S. civil rights law, while SH is illegal behavior that involves unwanted sexually offensive behavior that threatens one's well-being. Given greater societal attention to SH compared

with GWH, organizations and managers have placed more emphasis on SH than on GWH (DeSouza, 2008; Pearson & Porath, 2004), which can affect employees' perceptions and opinions regarding the degree of responsiveness and sanctions against harassers by the organization (Pearson & Porath, 2004).

When GWH is coupled with a lack of organizational attention, more confusion and ambiguity may exist regarding what is acceptable interpersonal behavior in the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). This, in turn, may create greater potential for misconception and subsequent GWH. Thus, previous research has found that GWH occurs more frequently than SH (Lapierre et al., 2005; Lim & Cortina, 2005), and 75% of employees have had at least one experience of insensitive or demeaning behavior in the previous 5 years (Cortina et al., 2001). Given the high prevalence rate of GWH, it is important for organizations to also understand antecedents and consequences of behaviors constituting GWH.

Perhaps due to the reasons above, GWH and SH have often been regarded as different forms of harassment, and the two streams of research have progressed separately to date. However, the simultaneous investigation of SH and GWH in studies of harassment is deemed more appropriate because prior research has shown that GWH and SH are closely associated with each other in three aspects.

First, GWH and SH often co-occur within the same employees' experiences (Barling et al., 2001; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Raver & Nishii, 2010). Gender harassment, the most common subtype of SH, is most closely related to GWH in terms of behavioral manifestations: verbal and nonverbal behaviors generally not aimed at sexual cooperation that convey hostile and offensive attitudes towards the other gender (i.e., women). Thus,

studies have shown that gender harassment and GWH are highly correlated (e.g., r = .53, Raver & Nishii, 2010; r = .45, Raver, Chadwick, & Jensen, 2010). Lim and Cortina (2005) examined the relationships and outcomes of behaviors falling at the interface of SH and workplace incivility and concluded that "sexual harassment and incivility are closely related constructs, with gender harassment bridging the two" (Lim & Cortina, 2005, p. 483). This argument is bolstered by empirical studies that have replicated the co-occurrence of GWH and SH within the same employees' experiences (e.g., Barling et al., 2001; Gutek, 1985; Richman et al., 1999; Rospenda et al., 2005). That is, women who have experienced unwanted sexual attention and coercion in the workplace have typically also endured general disparagement toward their gender (Fitzgerald et al., 1988, 1995; Schneider et al., 1997). Further, Lim and Cortina (2005) found that almost all women who had been subjected to SH reported experiencing incivility at work (but not vice versa). Therefore, it seems reasonable to say that such joint manifestations of GWH and SH may be the norm, not the exception (Gutek, 1985).

Second, harassers' motivations leading them to engage in GWH and SH look similar in terms of theoretical underpinnings and empirical evidence: the desire to maintain a valued social status and the associated advantages it provides in a hierarchical system (e.g., Berdahl, 2007; Cortina & Berdahl, 2008; Maass, Cadinu, Guarnieri, & Grasselli, 2003). For instance, men's desire to establish and maintain their power and dominance over women was proposed as a predominant cause that drives SH (e.g., Farley, 1978; Glick & Fiske, 2001; MacKinnon, 1979). Thus, men's perceptions of social identity threat by women and the ensuing desire to restore their damaged identity are the motivational process that drives SH. Maass et al. (2003) conducted experiments in a

sample of university students showing that male participants harassed their female interaction partners more when they felt a threat to male identity. Further, the more male participants identified with their gender group, the more they tended to react through SH. Similar arguments are found in the GWH literature. Cortina (2008) and Porath, Overbeck, and Pearson (2008) argued that GWH is triggered by a status challenge felt by those in power, the motivation to elevate themselves, or the motivation to derogate others by treating victimized targets rudely. For instance, when employees experience GWH such as public ridicule aimed to embarrass them, they may feel that their social identity has been damaged or threatened and may seek revenge (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; Bies & Tripp, 2005; Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997). Therefore, "the defense of identity and position is at the heart of general and sexual harassment and serves as their common unifying base" (Lopez, Hodson, & Roscigno, 2009, p. 24).

Third, both GWH and SH have been found to negatively affect employees' well-being. In the SH literature, a vast amount of empirical evidence confirms the negative relationship between SH and job-related outcomes (e.g., decreased job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and increased job withdrawal), psychological well-being (e.g., decreased life satisfaction, anxiety, and depression), and health conditions (e.g., headaches, gastrointestinal disorders, and sleep disturbance) (Fitzgerald et al., 1995, 1997; Glomb, Munson, Hulin, Bergman, & Drasgow, 1999; Gruber, 2003; Lapierre et al., 2005; Magley et al., 1999; Richman et al., 1999; Schneider et al., 1997). In a similar vein, GWH is associated with a host of negative outcomes, including decreased organizational commitment, poor job satisfaction, and turnover intentions as well as poor psychological

well-being and health conditions (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Raver & Nishii, 2010; Rospenda et al., 2005).

As seen above, the theoretical and empirical evidence for the significant overlap between GWH and SH clearly shows the benefits of examining the joint effects of GWH and SH in studies of workplace harassment. Thus, scholars have called for research on multiple forms of interpersonal mistreatment simultaneously rather than in isolation (e.g., DeSouza, 2008; Lim & Cortina, 2005).

The co-occurrence of GWH and SH has important implications for both organizations and individuals. For organizations, SH may often take place in a larger context of generalized mistreatment embedded in the organizational culture (Lim & Cortina, 2005; O'Leary-Kelly, Bowes-Sperry, Bates, & Lean, 2009) because organizations that tolerate one form of employee mistreatment are likely to tolerate others (Barling et al., 2001). Thus, organizations could benefit from a concerted effort to eliminate elements that permit both forms of interpersonal mistreatment (Lim & Cortina, 2005). Finally, the co-occurrence of GWH and SH often involves multiple instigations and multiple victimizations. This may lead to a worsening effect on employees' well-being with the addition of each type of behavior, resulting in cumulative harmful effects (Lim & Cortina, 2005; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009; Raver & Nishii, 2010). Therefore, the simultaneous focus on GWH and SH better reflects what is happening in workplaces today, where both forms of mistreatment occur collectively rather than individually.

Based upon the knowledge of workplace harassment, including GWH and SH, the next section highlights the importance of examining harassment issues in the setting of small businesses.

Workplace Harassment and Small Businesses

Small businesses are defined as those with less than 500 employees (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2007). Small businesses often have limited time and resources, which precludes them from taking proactive actions to stop harassment incidents by their employees (Robinson et al., 1998). The result of this may be lawsuits filed by current or former employees against the organization. Legal liabilities to small businesses, coupled with a substantially smaller cash flow, have been shown to have serious ramifications, including the closing of the business, as in the case of the Jocks and Jills restaurants that went into bankruptcy due to a monetary award in a SH case (McDonald, 2009). The liability of SH for small businesses that have more than 15 full-time employees is covered by Title VII, but the disproportionate damage limits are based upon firm size (as defined by number of employees), which fails to account for cash flow. Small businesses with less than 15 employees can still be sued under common law, as torts are grounds for a lawsuit regardless of the size of the employer (Robinson et al., 1998).

Employees may find the effects of workplace harassment more detrimental in a small firm than in a large firm because it may be more challenging to avoid a harasser. Further, in a small organization, employees often have close personal relationships with each other, and this may make it difficult for victims to make complaints or obtain social support from coworkers. Moreover, methods such as avoidance and support seeking are less effective in terms of stopping harassment (Knapp et al., 1997) and thus, given the lack of formal policies and procedures against harassment in small businesses (Robinson et al., 1998), victimized employees will likely suffer more than those in large firms. All of these considerations suggest that workplace harassment may have more salient effects

on small firms than large firms, even though workplace harassment rates do not vary by firm ownership or size (Raver et al., 2010).

The relative salience of harassment experienced in small businesses may be associated with increased turnover, which is a crucial issue in this sector because their success has been shown to depend on their ability to manage human capital (Deshpande & Golhar, 1994; Holt, 1993; McEvoy, 1984). One of the biggest problems facing small businesses concerns hiring, motivating, and retaining employees (Mathis & Jackson, 1991). Accordingly, human resource management (HRM) issues such as recruiting, performance management, compensation, and training have received constant attention in small business research (e.g., Bacon & Hoque, 2005; Barber, Wesson, Roberson, & Taylor, 1999; Chandler & McEvoy, 2000; Way, 2002). However, although retaining employees in small businesses may be further complicated by the prevalence of harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000), workplace harassment issues have been infrequently studied. This void in the literature is particularly salient given that small businesses employ half of all private sector employees in the United Sates (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2009). Therefore, the current study investigates workplace harassment phenomena that negatively affect individual and organizational outcomes in a sample of firms with less than 500 employees.

In the next section, I review the literature on leadership in relation to workplace harassment and introduce immediate managers' leadership behavior as a key organizational antecedent of workplace harassment.

Leadership as an Organizational Antecedent of Workplace Harassment

Organizational factors have been found to be the strongest predictor of harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Pryor, 1987). O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, and Glew (1996) argued that aggressive actions were motivated by factors in the organization itself, such as aversive treatment, incentive inducements, and the physical environment. Supporting this rationale, a masculine job-gender context (i.e., a work group that is mostly male, with a male supervisor and work involving traditionally masculine jobs) has been found to be associated with an increase in SH incidence (Gruber, 2003; Gutek & Morasch, 1982; Wasti et al., 2000). For instance, the rate of SH among police officers is 67% or more, while 42% of female U.S. government employees have been sexually harassed (Brown, Campbell, & Fife-Schaw, 1995; USMSPB, 1995). Further, work constraints and overload are strongly related to both SH and GWH (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Raver et al., 2010).

With regard to leadership, previous research has focused mainly on top management or senior managers, under the assumption that they play a powerful role in shaping the norms of the organization: these managers send a message to individuals in the organization regarding appropriate behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Schein, 1980). Thus, employees' perceptions of management's behaviors and concern for creating a workplace free from harassment affect their judgments about the appropriateness of behaviors at work (Hulin et al., 1996; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Pearson, 1997). This results in a model effect through social learning processes (Bandura, 1973; Glomb & Liao, 2003; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), such that leadership behaviors exhibited by management (e.g., tolerating or rewarding sexually

harassing behaviors and neglecting SH) are related to the prevalence of SH at work (e.g., Cogin & Fish, 2007; De Coster et al., 1999). For instance, Pryor and colleagues (Pryor et al., 1993; Pryor & Stoller, 1994) found that individuals' perceptions of lenient management norms were associated with a higher incidence of harassment in both field and laboratory studies. In a similar vein, when management tolerates rude behavior in the workplace, does not discipline acts of GWH, and fails to establish formal standards for acceptable behavior, employees will likely model similar behaviors and beliefs (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Glomb & Liao, 2003; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1996). Leadership that is unresponsive to harassment, as a consequence, is likely to foster more disrespectful behavior and allow it to spread among employees, which serves not only to silence the victim but also lets the perpetrator avoid detection or punishment. Despite what is known about top management's effects on harassment, virtually no research has examined the relationship between immediate supervisors' leadership behaviors and employees' experiences of workplace harassment.

Immediate Managers' Leadership Behavior and Workplace Harassment

Immediate managers are a central force in shaping employees' experience in the workplace as a result of their physical and psychological closeness and their extended time in personal contact and direct communication (Bass, 1981, 1990; Krackhardt, McKenna, Porter, & Steers, 1981). According to social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), people's perceptions of organizational phenomena are influenced by the opinion and information of salient others such as supervisors. Managers' social influence may be facilitated by their organizational power or status, which endows them with the ability to administer rewards and punishments to

employees. This, in turn, results in employees' tendency to evaluate the appropriateness of their behavior by comparing themselves to standards provided by their managers. Further, managers have been known to serve as a key role model to employees (Bandura, 1986). All of these arguments suggest that leadership behaviors displayed by immediate managers would influence employees' experience of harassment in the organization. In short, from the employees' perspective, due to the salience of supervisory actions and behaviors and role model effects, immediate managers may play an important role in facilitating or preventing undesirable incidents in the organization, including workplace harassment (Greenberg, 1997).

Previous research has consistently found that leadership behaviors are related to a host of employee attitudes and job-related outcomes, including job satisfaction, performance, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Judge & Bono, 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). However, compared with the extensive range of outcomes studied in association with leadership, little is known about the effects of leadership on workplace harassment. Thus, whether different leadership behaviors may differentially affect (either inhibit or facilitate) the occurrence of harassment has not been explored. Preliminary evidence for the significant linkage between leadership behavior and harassment is found in research on the negative or passive side of leadership behavior (e.g., bullying from a manager, abusive supervision, petty tyranny, laissez-faire leadership; Ashforth, 1994; Hoel & Salin, 2003; Namie & Namie, 2000; Tepper, 2000). For example, when managers engage in aggressive or punitive behaviors toward their employees (Bies & Tripp, 1998; Kelloway, Mullen, & Francis, 2006; Tepper, 2000,

2007), employees tend to engage in hostile responses including verbal abuse, SH, theft, and sabotage against individuals (i.e., managers or/and coworkers) and the organization (Inness, Barling, & Turner, 2005; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008). Further, passive types of leadership behaviors such as avoiding responsibilities and hesitating to intervene until serious issues arise have been shown to be associated with interpersonal conflicts and bullying at work (Hoel & Salin, 2003; Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007). These findings imply that managers who either neglect their responsibilities or themselves are a source of stress (e.g., by harassing others) likely create a work environment that is rife with harassment.

Even though the effects of positive leadership behavior relating to harassment have not been explored in the literature, I argue that leadership behaviors that are generally viewed as positive, such as transformational and transactional leadership, will also reduce the incidence of harassment in the organization. This proposal is supported by two arguments. First, as Kelloway and colleagues (Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, & Barling, 2005) stated, "The presence, absence, or intensity of harassment in the workplace may be determined by the quality of leadership" (p. 95). Thus, there is a general notion of the meaningful relationship between leadership and harassment. The other argument is grounded in the primary tenets of social learning and social exchange theories. That is, the distinctive nature of transformational leadership (e.g., individualized consideration and moral agents) and transactional leadership (e.g., rewarding and punishing behaviors) may facilitate employee emulation of managers' behaviors or values or reciprocation of the managers' expectations.

Full Range of Leadership Model

As stated earlier, one of the purposes of this study is to examine the relationship between different styles of leadership behavior displayed by immediate managers and levels of harassment experienced by employees at work. In this respect, the Full Range of Leadership Model by Bass and Avolio (1994) is particularly relevant because this model suggests that leader behavior can be arranged according to the extent to which a leader engages in various leadership actions, including transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership.

Transformational leadership involves transforming and motivating employees by making them aware of the importance of task outcomes, encouraging them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team, and developing their fullest potential (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990). Transformational leadership is positively related to several important employee outcomes, including trust in management, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Judge & Bono, 2000; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Zellars et al., 2002).

The four components of transformational leadership are idealized influence, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation. *Idealized influence* refers to the degree to which a leader behaves in admirable ways that cause employees to identify with the leader through conviction and emotional appeal. Leaders showing idealized influence usually have high standards of moral and ethical conduct and act as strong role models for followers (Bass, 1985). *Individualized consideration* refers to being attentive to each individual's needs and providing each

employee with appropriate information for assessing what is valued and supported. Thus, leaders showing individualized consideration may create more opportunities for sharing perceptions and clarifying task requirements, thereby promoting the development of shared understanding (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989). Individualized consideration has been found to be the robust element of transformational leadership that results in differentiating effects from other leadership dimensions (Skogstad et al., 2007; Zohar, 2002). *Inspirational motivation* is the degree to which the leader articulates a vision by providing meaning for the task and understanding of the actions required (Avolio, 1999). Lastly, *intellectual stimulation* refers to the degree to which the leader challenges preexisting assumptions and addresses problems with new perspectives (Avolio, 1999).

Transactional leadership refers to the exchange relationship between the leader and follower, which is composed of three factors: contingent reward, management by exception—active, and management by exception—passive. *Contingent reward* refers to the degree to which the leader establishes constructive transactions with followers by clarifying standards or expectations and establishing the rewards for meeting them. *Management by exception* is the degree to which the leader takes corrective action on the basis of results of leader-follower transactions. The difference between the active and passive forms of management by exception generally lies in the timing of the intervention (Howell & Avolio, 1993). More specifically, active leaders closely monitor follower behavior, anticipate problems, and take corrective actions before the behavior creates problems, while passive leaders do not respond until the behavior has caused serious problems. Management by exception—active leadership was viewed as neither effective

nor ineffective in Bass and Avolio's (1994) Full Range of Leadership Model, but in the recent meta-analysis by Judge and Piccolo (2004), it was positively related to all of the leadership criteria (e.g., employee motivation, group or organization performance, and leader effectiveness) along with contingent reward. In the same study, management by exception—passive was negatively related to the leadership criteria (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Laissez-faire leadership is characterized by avoiding decisions, not responding to problems, failing to follow up, hesitating to take action, and being absent when needed. This passive type of leadership has negative effects beyond those attributable to a lack of transformational leadership (Kelloway et al., 2006). Laissez-faire leadership has been found to be a strong predictor of employee satisfaction with the leader ($r = –.58$) and leader effectiveness ($r = –.54$) in a meta-analysis (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Based upon this result, Judge and Piccolo concluded that "the absence of leadership is nearly as important as the presence of other forms of leadership" (p. 765). Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008) also stressed the potential harm of not providing behavior-contingent reinforcement (i.e., reward omission and punishment omission) of laissez-faire leadership. Finally, given the substantial negative effects of laissez-faire leadership, some researchers have argued that laissez-faire leadership should be considered a form of destructive or negative leadership along with abusive and tyrannical leadership (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Skogstad et al., 2007).

According to the Full Range of Leadership Model, different leadership behaviors can be present in the same individual (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994). For example, leaders may display both the transactional and transformational factors, involving more

of one and less of the other. Leaders may act in a manner consistent with transformational leadership in some situations (e.g., productivity-related issues) and with laissez-faire leadership in others (e.g., harassment-related issues such as transmitting anti-harassment policies, serving as role models, dealing with harassment complaints). This theoretical argument was supported by empirical studies showing that the three leadership dimensions are correlated yet are separate, distinct constructs (e.g., Kelloway et al., 2006). A meta-analysis revealed that the correlation between transformational and contingent reward (transactional) and laissez-faire leadership was .80 and –.65, respectively (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Even though the high correlation between transformational and transactional leadership may indicate some difficulties in separating their unique effects, this finding is also consistent with the assertion that transformational and transactional leadership can be present within the same person and therefore illustrates the need for studying both types of leadership together (e.g., Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Further, transformational leadership has been shown to add beyond the effects of transactional and laissez-faire leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). This finding supports the augmentation hypothesis (Bass, 1997), which suggests that transactional leadership is at the base of transformational leadership because transformational leadership builds on the transactional base in contributing to the extra effort and performance of employees. Thus, Avolio et al. (1999) argued that transactional leaders may not go far enough in building the trust and developing the motivation to achieve the full potential of employees, but coupled with individualized consideration, they may have a positive impact on employees' motivation and performance.

In studies examining the effects of leadership on safety-related outcomes, passive leadership (e.g., management by exception—passive and laissez-faire leadership) accounted for significant incremental variance beyond that explained by transformational leadership and explained more variance than did transformational leadership (Kelloway et al., 2006). This finding suggests that researchers may benefit from including laissez-faire leadership to predict work-related outcomes along with transformational leadership. Examining laissez-faire leadership is particularly important because this area has been underdeveloped compared with transformational and transactional leadership.

In addition to the Full Range of Leadership Model, this study examines a destructive form of leadership (see the next section for definition). This form of leadership is different from laissez-faire because it refers not to the absence of leadership, but the presence of aggressive and tyrannical leadership. Therefore, I treat laissez-faire leadership and destructive leadership separately in this study.

Destructive Leadership

Destructive leadership is defined as the systematic and repeated behavior by a supervisor or manager that undermines the effectiveness, well-being, or job satisfaction of subordinates (Einarsen et al., 2007). This type of negative leadership has been steadily researched under different labels such as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1994), and supervisor aggression (Schat, Desmarais, & Kelloway, 2006). The literature has revealed clear indications that destructive leadership is associated with the incidence of harassment in the organization. For example, abusive behaviors by supervisors are positively related to targeted employees' subsequent hostile responses against others (Inness et al., 2005; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al.,

2009). For the purpose of the current study examining the effects of leadership behavior on workplace harassment, therefore, it is crucial to include destructive leadership behaviors in a wide range of leadership dimensions along with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. In doing so, this study seeks to incorporate negative leadership behavior into the study of leadership, responding to the criticism that the majority of leadership literature has focused on the positive side of good leadership, which results in unbalanced knowledge in this area (Kellerman, 2004). The following sections elaborate on theoretical arguments for the relationship between each of the leadership dimensions and harassment in the workplace.

Leadership Style and Workplace Harassment

Transformational Leadership and Workplace Harassment

Transformational leaders are viewed as *moral agents* (Bass, 1985) because they focus themselves and followers on achieving "high standards of ethical and moral conduct" (Avolio, 1999, p. 34) through idealized influence. Their moral orientations are grounded in the collective good (e.g., creating a pleasant and productive place to work) and social norms (e.g., courteous interactions among coworkers) with a focus on universal principles of justice and the interests of all stakeholders in the organization (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher & Milner, 2002). To establish the moral standards within their organization, transformational leaders may not only present ideal visions of how the organization should be by appealing to employees' higher values, but also promote ethical policies, procedures, and processes (Howell & Avolio, 1992). Moreover, transformational leaders may encourage their employees to treat others in a civil manner (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005). Supporting this

argument, leadership behaviors such as focusing on ethical values and setting a role model for ethical conduct were related to lower levels of vexing behaviors (e.g., cursing, publicly embarrassing, acting rudely) in work groups (Brown & Trevino, 2006).

Equally important, transformational leadership involves the greatest insight into the particular needs and concerns of individual employees compared with the other leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Individualized consideration encourages employees to respect and understand the needs of others, thereby making it possible for employees to overcome any rigid positions they may hold in situations of interpersonal conflict (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Given that workplace harassment is a form of interpersonal conflict at work (Raver & Barling, 2008), transformational managers may also resolve harassment issues as well as conflict among employees by emphasizing the organization's interests over the individual's own interests (Doucet et al., 2009). These findings indicate that transformational leadership behavior may have beneficial effects in reducing workplace harassment.

Finally, employees tend to identify with the transformational leader and the cause the leader is advocating for and, over time, come to emulate the leader through a social learning process (Bass, 1998). This can be explained by social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), which suggests that people can learn by observing others' behavior and its consequences. Particularly in organizational settings, managers serve as effective role models due to their power or ability to control rewards and high status in the organization. Thus, in the context of workplace harassment, when employees repeatedly observe and interact with transformational leaders who are committed to providing a pleasant workplace free from harassment (out of their high ethical standard, concern for

employees, and setting a personal example), employees will ultimately emulate those behaviors and internalize the ethical standard for the collective good (Kelley & Mullen, 2006). As a result of role modeling, employees are likely to exhibit the same commitment and avoid engaging in harassing behaviors themselves. This, in turn, will be directly associated with reduced levels of harassment in the workplace. Therefore:

H1: Transformational leadership behavior by immediate managers will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.

Transactional Leadership and Workplace Harassment

Transactional leaders make clear what is expected in terms of performance standards and identify the rewards or punishments that employees will receive for meeting or violating these expectations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). This type of leadership behavior has been shown to enhance employees' commitment and motivation for performance, resulting in high levels of satisfaction with the leader, fairness perception, organizational commitment, and performance (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001). In many organizations, performance expectations and standards include treating others with respect, helping others, and maintaining a positive attitude toward a company. As a consequence, managers may have a broader conception of performance that includes these kinds of behaviors (e.g., contextual performance) and thus administer rewards and punishments contingent upon both task performance and contextual performance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Aligned with this, the past literature has documented the positive relationship between transactional leader behavior and contextual performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008).

Building on the notion that transactional leaders clarify expectations regarding both task performance and contextual performance, I argue that transactional leaders also set the expectation that harassing behaviors in the organization will not be tolerated and administer punishments to employees whose behaviors deviate from conventional, reasonable expectations of a typical member of the organization (i.e., treating others with respect at work). This proposal is bolstered by the arguments that transactional leaders are motivated by a sense of social duty or obligation (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007) and they have a moderate level of concern for employees' well-being (Bass, 1990; Zohar, 2002). These motivations will lead transactional leaders to take corrective actions for inappropriate behaviors if they notice their employees sexually harass others or treat them in an uncivil manner. For example, these leaders may punish harassing behaviors through verbal rebuke, expressions of disapproval, and demonstrations of their displeasure, whereas they may reward courteous, civil behaviors through positive feedback, praise, and special recognition. To summarize, transactional leaders not only define expectations about what is acceptable behavior in the organization but also indirectly communicate the benefits of compliance with or the costs of deviation from those expectations.

Bass (1985) argued, "Positive and adverse contingent reinforcement are seen as the two ways managers in organizational settings engage in transactional leadership to motivate employees" (p. 122). Further, people in organizations pay close attention to the contingent relationship between behaviors and consequences (Kanfer, 1990; Trevino, 1992), and those consequences (i.e., rewards or punishments) facilitate the social learning process by informing individuals of the benefits and costs of the observed behavior (Bandura, 1986). In this way, transactional leadership may be highly effective in guiding

employees' perceptions of behavior-outcome expectations and targeting employees' behavior in the desired direction. For example, observing or hearing about the managers who administer punishments to harassers will make employees learn about the costs of engaging in harassment. This, in turn, will motivate employees to focus on avoiding negative outcomes or losses and adhering to expectations, making them less likely to become involved in deviant behaviors such as harassment. The underlying mechanism that enables transactional leaders to shape employees' behaviors can be explained from self-regulatory theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Transactional leadership behaviors such as clarifying expectations and rules and detecting deviations may elicit a prevention focus from employees because the leaders' concerns with duties and rules make employees sensitive to the presence or absence of punishments, leading them to avoid a mismatch between expectations and rules (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Because employees are aware that harassing behaviors are a departure from explicit or implicit expectations and, if discovered, are likely to be punished, they are not likely to engage in deviant behaviors and instead comply with expectations of a typical member of the organization. Supporting this rationale, Neubert and colleagues (Neubert et al., 2008) found a negative relationship between transactional leadership and employee deviant behavior, mediated by employees' prevention focus.

Taken together, theory and research findings suggest that managers who engage in transactional leadership define expectations about what is acceptable behavior in the organization and establish the obvious connection between harassment behaviors and negative outcomes, thereby deterring harassing behaviors in individuals. In turn, this

deterrence will be associated with low levels of harassment in the organization. Accordingly:

H2: Transactional leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.

Laissez-faire Leadership and Workplace Harassment

Laissez-faire leadership can be contrasted with transformational leadership in that this passive type of leadership generally shows limited concern over any aspect of employee behavior and fails to pay attention to employees' well-being through close, individualized relationships (Skogstad et al., 2007). Laissez-faire leadership is further differentiated from transactional leadership by delayed or lack of feedback, rewards, and intervention (Bass & Avolio, 1990). In short, these leaders physically occupy the immediate manager position, but they neglect their responsibilities and duties (Kelloway et al., 2005; Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939).

The appointment of a person to a manager position evokes legitimate expectations such as assigning tasks and duties to relevant employees, clarifying purposes and means, and arbitrating disagreements for employees. However, laissez-faire managers fail to meet those expectations by avoiding decision-making and the responsibilities associated with their position (Bass, 1990). As a result, laissez-faire leadership behaviors may promote conflicting goals among employees and increase work stress through role conflict, role ambiguity, and conflicts with coworkers (Kelloway et al., 2005). Role ambiguity, role conflict, and interpersonal conflicts are important factors of engaging in harassing behaviors towards others in the organization (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Spector & Fox, 2005). In particular, given that

the primary duty of a manager is to handle interpersonal conflicts (Bass, 1990) and that laissez-faire leaders do not intervene in interpersonal conflicts (Leymann, 1996), unresolved escalated conflict among coworkers will increase harassment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Liefooghe & Davey, 2001). The notion of laissez-faire leadership as the source of workplace stress has been supported by empirical research showing that experiencing laissez-faire leadership by one's immediate superior is positively related to work stress, including interpersonal conflicts (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007; Skogstad et al., 2007).

Finally, laissez-faire leaders' non-response to or ignorance of harassing behaviors by employees clearly fails to provide appropriate information or feedback regarding what is expected and what is rewarded in the organization. This sends a signal to others that interpersonal mistreatment is acceptable or at least will not be reprimanded (Pryor et al., 1993), thereby encouraging employees to model the leader's behavior or attitudes so that they allow or become involved in harassing others (Bandura, 1986). Thus, laissez-faire leaders' failure to punish harassment should increase similar behaviors in other organizational members. To harassers, moreover, a lack of monitoring and oversight by these managers may be interpreted as a low likelihood of being observed, caught, and punished (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), and this will likely motivate them to continue their harassing behavior. As a consequence, levels of harassment in the organization are likely to rise. Therefore:

H3: Laissez-faire leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.

Destructive Leadership and Workplace Harassment

The pivotal characteristic of destructive leadership behavior is interpersonal mistreatment towards employees (e.g., bullying, yelling and screaming, humiliating; Bies & Tripp, 1998; Einarsen et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000, 2009) that results in diminished employee well-being (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen & Einarsen, 2009; Einarsen et al., 2007). Perceived mistreatment by managers leads victimized employees to experience feelings of anger and frustration, which may involve interpersonal injustice (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), violation of trust (Bies & Tripp, 1996), and threat to self/social identity (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). This in turn may produce unfavorable employee attitudes, including poor job satisfaction, reduced organizational commitment, and increased intentions to quit (Duffy et al., 2002; Schat et al., 2006; Tepper, 2000).

Retaliation is a predominant response to abusive supervisory acts (Bies & Tripp, 2005; Tripp & Bies, 1997). Retaliation can take the form of any aggressive behavior, ranging from homicide, heated verbal confrontations, and acting rudely toward others or gossiping about the supervisor (Inness et al., 2005; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) to refusing to help the harasser when asked (Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001). These empirical findings confirm a “tit-for-tat” argument that suggests a spiral or vicious cycle of revenge and counter-revenge (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Kim & Smith, 1993).

In addition to retaliatory reactions, targets of destructive leadership behavior may engage in offensive and hostile behavior towards their coworkers, which leads to elevated levels of harassment in the organization (Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). This can be explained by displaced aggression that occurs when victimized employees cannot retaliate directly against the source of provocation (e.g.,

supervisor) or when they are fearful of the consequences of revenge and express their hostility against "less powerful or more available" individuals (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007, p. 1161).

Empirical evidence has shown that destructive leadership behavior is related to the level of aggression against coworkers (Schat et al., 2006) and interpersonal deviance (e.g., saying hurtful things about, or playing mean pranks on, others at work; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Even though these studies did not examine which demographic groups were the targets of displaced aggression, several scholars have argued that harassment is used selectively against those with relatively lower status in the organization (e.g., women and racial minorities; Berdahl, 2007; Cortina, 2008; Cortina & Berdahl, 2008).

With regard to the mechanism by which targets of destructive leadership behavior engage in negative behavior, scholars have provided theoretical explanations and empirical evidence drawing on social learning theory (e.g., O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1973), aggression is prompted by external factors (i.e., situational cues and reinforcers) rather than internal forces (i.e., instincts and drives). The theory further suggests that aggression can be learned in the same way as other behavior via direct experience and imitation. Following this logic, O'Leary-Kelly et al. (1996) argued that hostile environment SH occurs when the individual who watches coworkers repeatedly sexually harass a colleague may feel decreased inhibitions toward engaging in such behaviors personally and focus on this same colleague as an appropriate outlet for aggressive behavior. Thus, watching others being aggressive can trigger aggression in the observer (Bandura, 1973). Congruent with this, Pryor and colleagues (1993) demonstrated that men likely to

sexually harass were more likely to do so when an authority role model (i.e., a confederate in an experimental situation) behaved in a harassing way toward a female trainee in a training demonstration.

Based upon the argument above, I posit that if a manager exhibits hostile and offensive behaviors towards employees in the organization, the employees are likely to emulate those behaviors. Their aggressive and harassing actions will be targeted towards their destructive leadership manager as an attempt to retaliate against him or her or targeted towards other individuals in the organization as a form of displaced harassment. This will directly increase the incidence of harassment in the organization. Accordingly:

H4: Destructive leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.

The next section elaborates on the mediating mechanism by which leadership influences the incidence of harassment. In the process, the concept of organizational members' perceptions of work environment—psychological climate—is introduced.

Psychological Climate of Respect for People

Psychological climate is defined as cognitive appraisals of attributes of the work environment in terms of the meaning and significance to the individual (James & James, 1989). In other words, employees interpret organizational attributes, events, and processes (e.g., supervisor and coworker actions, work arrangements, fair treatment) using various cues of the organization and, through the course of this, they develop their understanding of what behaviors are expected and rewarded in the organization (James & Jones, 1974). In turn, the contingent relationship between behaviors and outcomes (e.g.,

"How important is it to act respectfully around here?") serves as a frame of reference for guiding appropriate and adaptive behaviors (Fleishman, 1953; Jones & James, 1979; Schneider, 1975).

The present study is concerned with a specific dimension of climate: the extent to which individual employees perceive their organization to value fair and respectful interpersonal treatment, known as *a psychological climate of respect for people*. The psychological climate of respect for people highlights appraisals that individuals place upon whether or not the organization cares about their dignity and well-being and focuses energies and resources on the attainment of respect. This particular facet of climate has been considered one of the higher-order factors that comprise a psychological climate (Burke, Borucki, & Hurley, 1992; James & James, 1989) that largely emanates from individual perceptions of leadership behaviors (Koene, Vogelaar, & Soeters, 2002; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Richardson & Vandenberg, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008), human resources management (Geld & Ivery, 2003; Schneider & Bowen, 1985), and the degree of managerial or institutional emphasis on policies supporting the specific climate (Borucki & Burke, 1999; Collins & Smith, 2006). A psychological climate of respect is closely related to, but differentiated from interpersonal justice climate because interpersonal justice climate has been typically conceptualized and assessed by tapping supervisors' treatment given to employees as processes of allocating resources are carried out (Colquitt, 2001, Liao & Rupp, 2005) while a psychological climate of respect taps into individuals' overall evaluations of how much the organization cares about employees' dignity and well-being and emphasizes the importance of respectful treatment among employees.

A focus on a specific dimension of climate (i.e., respect for people) follows recent literature which has shown that different climates exist for specific dimensions of work, such as service, safety, diversity, and gender inequity (e.g., Burke et al., 1992; King, Hebl, George, & Matusik, 2009; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007; Schneider, 1990; Zohar, 1980). Further, climate research has found that the specific kind of climate, rather than the global climate, better predicts the outcome variables of interests (Schneider, 1990). For example, if service performance was the criterion of interest, a climate for service was explored (Schneider, 1990; Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998). Similarly, turnover among racial minorities was predicted by a climate of diversity (McKay et al., 2007).

It is also important to note that the construct of climate can exist at either the individual or organizational level. *Organizational climate* represents shared or collective perceptions of work environments, often aggregated from individual responses after establishing that an adequate level of agreement exists within the workgroup or the organization (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). That is, the key distinction between psychological climate and organizational climate lies in the level of construct, which determines the appropriate levels of theory, measurement, and analysis (Glick, 1985). Prior researchers have often failed to appropriately define levels of analysis in their studies, resulting in conceptual and analytical confusion and ambiguities in the climate literature (for a review, see Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). This study explicitly focuses on individual-level perceptions (i.e., psychological climate), rather than group- or organization-level perceptions (i.e., organizational climate) because an individual approach is more beneficial in understanding the unique meanings that individual

employees assign to their work environment and the subsequent effects on their attitudes and behavior (James, Hater, Gent, & Bruni, 1978).

Individual-level climate perceptions have been found to be associated with more frequent reports of SH (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Hulin et al., 1996), and meta-analytical evidence has confirmed that psychological climate is significantly related to numerous employee work attitudes, including job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, and job performance (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003; Parker et al., 2003). Therefore, the choice of psychological climate is appropriate in the current study examining the effects of organizational antecedents (i.e., leadership) on employees' experiences of workplace harassment.

Because climate perception is an umbrella term for various work environment perceptions and usually taps some leadership characteristics (e.g., Schneider, 1972; James et al., 1990), some may argue that the investigation of psychological climate along with leadership may not produce meaningful results. However, I concur with Glick's (1985) argument that "abandoning climate is likely to lead to unidimensional approaches such as those that focus on just leadership or communication. Organizational and psychological climate should be retained as useful categories of variables for multidimensional assessments of individual-organizational relationships" (p. 606). Moreover, this study investigates psychological climate as an intervening variable between leadership and workplace harassment and thus responds to a call for empirical study examining climate as the connection between organizational antecedents and outcomes (Lindell & Brandt, 2000).

Psychological Climate of Respect for People and Leadership

One of the principal influences on employees' climate perceptions is leader behavior because of its relatively direct and immediate connections with individual experiences in the workplace (James et al., 1978; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989). Employee perceptions of their managers' leadership become the filter through which the organization's effort to create a certain kind of climate is recognized (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Empirical evidence has supported this notion of leadership behavior as a primary determinant of a variety of climate perceptions, including innovation, justice, and safety (e.g., Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002; Colquitt et al., 2002; Koene et al., 2002; Mullen & Kelloway, 2009; Zohar, 2002; Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008).

Further, recent evidence from the literature suggests that different leadership styles are differentially related to employee perceptions of climate. Koene and colleagues (2002) showed, in a sample of supermarket stores, that leadership behavior showing concern and respect for employees (i.e., consideration) had a significant effect on the climate of organization efficiency and readiness to innovate, but leadership behavior focusing on accomplishing a task (i.e., initiating structure) had no effect on those aspects of organizational climate. In a similar vein, other researchers found that transformational leadership was positively related to safety climate while laissez-faire leadership was negatively related to it (Barling et al., 2002; Kelloway et al., 2006).

Drawing on leadership theory and the relational model (Tyler & Lind, 1992), I propose that transformational leadership and transactional leadership will be positively related to employee perceptions of the climate of respect for people in the organization, while laissez-faire leadership and destructive leadership will be negatively related. In

transformational leadership, leaders promote ethical policies and call attention to the importance of treating others with dignity and respect by serving as a role model (Howell & Avolio, 1992; Brown et al., 2005); this action will communicate to employees that they are valued by the authority figure of the organization (Tyler & Lind, 1992). According to the relational model (Tyler, 1989; Tyler & Lind, 1992), people are concerned about their long-term relationship with their organization and leaders, instead of viewing the relationship as a one-time deal. Further, people value civil treatment by groups and other parties they interact with because such treatment indicates that "they are valued members of the group who deserve treatment with respect, dignity, and politeness" (Tyler, 1989, p. 837). Being treated in a respectful manner reinforces individuals' security about membership and their status in the group which, in turn, promotes their feelings of self-identity, self-esteem, and self-worth. This effect will be particularly obvious when those treatments stem from their immediate managers because the leadership behaviors of immediate managers are "the most salient, tangible representation of organizational actions, policies, and procedures" (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989, p. 547). Therefore, when managers demonstrate behaviors consistent with transformational leadership by showing their concern for employees and commitment to the importance of treating others with dignity by serving as a role model, this action will affirm employees' self-identity and thus lead to their positive orientations relating to a climate of respect for people in the organization.

H5a: Transformational leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.

Transactional leaders clarify for their employees what is expected as a typical member of the organization and the benefits to them for complying with the existing norms and values of respected membership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). Further, the leaders' acts of focusing resources (i.e., tangible or intangible benefits) on rewarding employees' respectful treatment of others in the organization may result in perceptions that employees are valued members of the organization because they are dependent on an organization for resources and they desire to receive valued resources from authorities (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). In turn, such individuals' perceptions will positively affect their evaluations of the climate of respect for people—the organization cares about their dignity and well-being (James & James, 1989).

Regarding punishments, research has suggested that "properly applied, negative sanctions may act both to set specific goals and to help establish group norms which govern acceptable and unacceptable behaviors" (Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 136). Because transactional leaders establish their clear exchange rules by punishing the behavior falling short of moral standards (i.e., harassment), this may promote consistency and accuracy (Vroom, 1964), thereby creating employee perceptions of the leader and the organization as just (Podsakoff et al., 2006; Trevino, 1992). This then will lead employees to reach a positive conclusion regarding a climate of respect for people in the organization. Previous studies examining a justice climate, which is related to a climate of respect for people, have shown that transactional leadership is positively associated with employee perceptions of fairness in the organization (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Finally, as noted earlier, transactional leaders ensure that employees understand that harassing behaviors are a departure from expectations thereby leading them to adhere to expectations of a typical member of the organization (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Neubert et al., 2008). This indicates that the employees are aware of the high degree of managerial or institutional support for the specific climate (Borucki & Burke, 1999; Collins & Smith, 2006) —in this case, the climate of respect for people. Therefore, transactional leaders who trade resources valued by employees in return for behaviors expected of organizational members (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) will positively affect employee evaluations of a climate of respect for people in the organization. Accordingly:

H5b: Transactional leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.

In contrast, I expect laissez-faire leadership and destructive leadership to negatively affect employee perceptions of the climate of respect for people. Laissez-faire leaders' non-response to or ignorance of interpersonal mistreatments as a result of their low concern for employees not only fails to guide employees to choose appropriate behaviors, but also may signal to employees that interpersonal mistreatment is acceptable (Pryor et al., 1993). This will lead employees to feel that they are not being valued and respectfully dealt with in the organization, thereby damaging their sense of self-worth (Tyler & Lind, 1992). In turn, such perceptions will lead employees to make a judgment that the organization does not care about their dignity and well-being (James & James, 1989). As such, laissez-faire leadership will be related to employees' negative

evaluations of a climate of respect for people in the organization because employees do not see their leaders focus energies and resources on the attainment of respect.

H5c: Laissez-faire leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.

Finally, employees tend to perceive mistreatment or abuse by their manager as a threat to their status in the organization (Aquino & Douglas, 2003). Further, "they know that the authority they are dealing with regards them as having low status within the group" (Tyler, 1989, p. 831). The relational model predicts that this will result in damaging individuals' feelings of self-identity or self-worth. This, in turn, will have adverse effects on their appraisals of their work environment—perceptions of a low climate of respect for employees. Therefore:

H5d: Destructive leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.

Psychological Climate of Respect for People and Workplace Harassment

Research linking climate perceptions to myriad individual and organizational outcomes has established that psychological climate is a key antecedent of harassment in the organization (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1995, 1997). In the SH literature, organizational tolerance of SH (i.e., psychological climate of SH) refers to the individual-level perceptions of "the degree to which an organization is perceived as insensitive to or tolerant of sexual harassment" (Hulin et al., 1996, p. 129). A climate of tolerance for SH in the organization is a critical antecedent to SH, and its effects on victims' outcomes such as job withdrawal, life satisfaction, psychological well-being, and physical health

have been found to be more detrimental than actual experiences of SH (Hulin et al., 1996). These research findings indicate that "waiting for the SH shoe to drop is more anxiety provoking than the experience of SH itself when the organizational climate condones or does not actively dissuade such behavior" (Stockdale, Visio, & Batra, 1999, p. 640). Further, when organizations fail to send a message of intolerance regarding SH (Glomb et al., 1999), SH may become more prevalent because individuals who perceive the climate of the organization as permissive of SH tend to think that such behaviors are acceptable in the organization and are thereby more likely to engage in SH (Pryor et al., 1993).

With regard to the relationship between climate perceptions and GWH, theoretical arguments are found sporadically, but empirical research in the literature is scant. Andersson and Pearson (1999) argued that organizations with informal climates, where employees' dress, word choice, and conversational patterns become casual and informal, may inappropriately encourage employees to behave in ways that can be viewed as disrespectful of coworkers. In a similar vein, Aquino and Lamertz (2004) discussed organizational tolerance of workplace aggression. That is, if there is a widespread belief in an organization that punitive measures, the use of coercive power, or the expression of low-level forms of aggression (e.g., shouting, intimidation, making threats) are functional for motivating workers and making them more productive, that belief is likely to increase the legitimacy of tyrannical acts and provide justifications for the abusive behaviors. This, in turn, will reinforce patterns of offensive acts to be embedded in the organization (Bandura, 1977). In short, the literature suggests that when an organization is perceived to be tolerant and supportive of harassing acts, GWH is more likely to occur.

Building on previous research, I argue that the psychological climate of respect for people will be negatively related to levels of harassment in the organization. When individual employees form positive perceptions of how they are treated by others in the organization, these perceptions manifest the climate of the work environment that concerns the employees' dignity and well-being (Naylor, Pritchard, & Ilgen, 1980). The climate perceptions make an important contribution to the formulation of expectancies and instrumentalities, reflecting a belief about the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome (James, James, & Ashe, 1990). For example, if civil interactions among coworkers are accepted, praised, and recognized whereas disrespectful interactions are disapproved, punished, and rejected, individuals tend to form an action-outcome association (i.e., expectancy, Vroom, 1964). In organizational settings, the events, practices, and procedures and the kinds of behaviors that get "rewarded, supported, and expected" (Schneider, 1990, p. 384) signal to employees what outcomes are valued. This, in turn, may guide individuals to choose the actions that will lead to desired outcomes (James et al., 1990). Moreover, instrumentalities associated with expected outcomes may motivate them to behave in ways that are consistent with those expectations (Vroom, 1964).

James and colleagues (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977), using a sample of managerial employees of a health care company, found that psychological climate was significantly related to various aspects of instrumentality (i.e., keeping your job and feelings of security) and positive outcomes (i.e., respect from supervisors and other employees). These findings indicate that employees who form positive perceptions of the climate of respect for people are likely to choose behaviors causing positive outcomes

and thus are not likely to themselves engage in harassing behaviors that lead to negative outcomes. Namely, a climate of respect for people is expected to serve as the frame of reference for guiding appropriate and adaptive behaviors, thereby reducing the incidence of harassment in the organization (Jones & James, 1979; Schneider, 1975).

This proposal is also bolstered by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggesting that individuals who have positive perceptions of how they are treated feel a sense of obligation to respond favorably or return the civil treatment in some manner (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Namely, the perceptions of the climate of respect for people will motivate employees to reciprocate the fair treatment (Blau, 1964) by exhibiting attitudes and behaviors in a manner consistent with collective interests and goals, rather than individual interests and goals, in order to enhance or maintain the positive psychological benefits (Lind, 2001). Empirically, perceptions of treatment with respect have been shown to be associated with positive employee outcomes including less absenteeism, better performance, and helping behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2002; Moorman, 1991; Naumann & Bennett, 2000). Conversely, when employees form perceptions that they are treated with disrespect, they will be motivated to reciprocate by displaying similar behaviors of interpersonal mistreatment. Previous research has shown consistent findings that individual perceptions of mistreatment in the organization are related to harassing behaviors (e.g., Inness et al., 2005; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009). Taken together, theoretical and empirical evidence indicates a critical link between individuals' perceptions of the climate of respect for people and the extent to which employees themselves engage in harassing behaviors. Therefore:

H6: The psychological climate of respect for people will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.

Psychological Climate of Respect for People as a Mediator in the Leadership–Workplace Harassment Relationship

The preceding discussion also suggests that the psychological climate of respect for people mediates the relationship between leadership and workplace harassment. This mediation model is consistent with the previous conceptualizations (James et al., 1977; James & Jones, 1974; Schneider, 1983), which generally suggest that psychologically meaningful characteristics of organizations (i.e., leadership behaviors) influence individual responses (i.e., workplace harassment) through cognitive interpretations of the organizational context (i.e., climate perceptions). That is, leadership behavior by immediate managers is a critical antecedent of developing employees' perceptions regarding the extent to which the organization cares about their dignity and well-being and focuses energies and resources on the attainment of it (James & Jones, 1974; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989), and those perceptions will likely encourage reciprocation in a way that is consistent with what leaders value (Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003; Lind, 2001; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Thus, if I take the example of transformational leaders, their emphasis on high standards of ethical and moral conduct (Avolio, 1999) and their modeling of treating people with respect will positively affect employees' perceptions regarding the climate of respect for people, and this, in turn, will lead employees to subordinate individual interests and goals to collective interests and goals (i.e., creating a pleasant workplace free from harassment) in order to enhance or maintain the positive

psychological benefits such as their status in the group and feelings of self-identity or self-esteem (Lind, 2001).

Even though the mediating role of psychological climate in the leadership-harassment connection has not been articulated in previous research, drawing on related research findings that examined group-level climate perceptions, I expect the psychological climate of respect for people to mediate the relationship between leadership behavior and workplace harassment. A noticeable example is the study by Zohar (2002). The author used the logic that leadership style influences safety climate in a workgroup through the effect of leader-member interaction on a leader's concern for members' well-being and found that both transformational leadership and contingent reward transactional leadership were negatively related to injury rates through the promoted perceptions of safety climate. More specifically, using 42 work groups in an equipment plant, this study revealed that transformational leaders' concern for employees (operationalized as supervisory practices) caused shared perceptions among the group regarding the importance of safety, and this perception was associated with positive effects on employees' safety behavior. These findings generally support the logic delineated in the mediation model that managers behave in certain ways (of facilitating or inhibiting interpersonal mistreatment), and then employees perceive those behaviors as representative of a climate (of respect for people), leading them to behave in ways that are consistent with their perceptions. Therefore:

H7: The psychological climate of respect for people will mediate the relationship between immediate managers' leadership style and levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.

Up until this point, I have discussed an antecedent and a mediator of workplace harassment with a focus on leadership and a psychological climate of respect for people. Next, I turn to consequences of workplace harassment at the individual and organizational levels. These include employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, withdrawal, turnover intentions, and decreased firm effectiveness.

Workplace Harassment and Outcomes

Employee Outcomes

In the past 3 decades, the literature has consistently shown that workplace harassment is negatively associated with victimized individuals' job-related outcomes including, but not limited to, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational withdrawal (Cortina et al., 2001; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Glomb et al., 1999; Lapierre et al., 2005; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Magley et al., 1999; Richman et al., 1999). The most widely used theoretical approach to understanding the harassment–negative employee outcomes link conceptualizes harassment as a psychosocial work stressor drawing from the broader work stress model (Fitzgerald et al., 1995, 1997). According to the model of work stress (Pratt & Barling, 1988), *stress* (i.e., an individual's perception of and immediate psychological reaction to the stimulus) mediates the effect of the *stressor* (i.e., an aversive environmental stimulus) on *strain* (various consequences to health and work-related functioning). Applying this model to workplace harassment, harassment represents stressful events in the work environment that cause strain outcomes such as poor job satisfaction, decreased organizational commitment, and turnover intentions through negative affective reactions (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Richman, Flaherty, & Rospenda, 1996). Stress linked to interpersonal stressors in the

organization (i.e., harassment) can be more distressing than typically studied job stressors associated with the structure of the job such as role ambiguity, role conflict, and work overload (Bowling & Beehr 2006; Richman et al., 1996; Rospenda et al., 2000; Rospenda et al., 2005).

Pearson et al. (2000) found that among those who experienced GWH at work, one third subsequently reduced their organizational commitment, 25% of them intentionally withheld effort, 12% left the organization, approximately 5% stole property from the GWH perpetrator, and about 5% stole from the organization. Given the relatively less-intense nature of GWH compared with SH, such negative effects of GWH on employee outcomes are striking. With regard to this, prior researchers have argued that the experience of daily hassles defined as "irritating, frustrating, distressing demands that to some degree characterize everyday transactions with the environment" (Kanner, Coyne, Shaefer, & Lazarus, 1981, p. 3) may be the primary source of stress in work settings, thus leading to a decline in individuals' psychological well-being (Cortina et al., 2001; Lim & Cortina, 2005). On the basis of the literature review on the general relationship between workplace harassment and negative employee outcomes, the next section introduces three individual outcomes: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational withdrawal.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job (Locke, 1976); decreased job satisfaction has been recognized as a key consequence of harassment and affects organizational commitment and organizational withdrawal as well (Cortina et al., 2001, 2002; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Lim

& Cortina, 2005; Lim et al., 2008; Schat & Kelloway, 2000). In response to workplace harassment, victims' evaluation of harassment experiences plays an integral role in determining their subsequent actions or intentions. The appraisal process has been well documented in the interpersonal conflict literature as targets assess what happened and how they feel in response to being mistreated (e.g., Neuman & Baron, 1996, 2005). Essentially, when a target experiences harassment in the organization, he or she often feels negative emotions such as fear, threat, and anger (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Barling et al., 2001; Budd, Arvey, & Lawless, 1996). This is because harassing behavior produces an unequal power situation, where the victim perceives that he or she is unfairly subjected to embarrassment or humiliation (Lim et al., 2008). Therefore, I posit that being a target of harassment in the organization will reduce overall job satisfaction. Empirical evidence has shown that more frequent experiences of SH are related to decreased job satisfaction (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Lapierre et al., 2005; Wasti et al., 2000). Moreover, employees subjected to GWH are likely to become dissatisfied with their job (Lapierre et al., 2005; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Lim et al., 2008). Accordingly:

H8: Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be negatively related to employees' job satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment reflects the psychological bond between employees and their organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Organizational commitment consists of three components: affective commitment (i.e., employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization), continuance commitment (i.e., perception of costs associated with leaving the organization), and normative commitment

(i.e., employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organization) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). In this study, I focus on affective commitment because it is the core concept of organizational commitment and has been used as the sole indicator of commitment to the organization in many studies (Mowday et al., 1982; Solinger, Olffen, & Roe, 2008; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Further, "the three components of commitment develop as a function of different work experiences" (Meyer & Allen, 1990, p. 13), so I believe that affective commitment is a more relevant outcome variable than the other two types of commitment in terms of capturing individuals' experience of vexatious behaviors at work that stimulate negative affective reactions such as anger and frustration (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that employees reciprocate the treatment offered by an organization with their commitment to the organization. Being a target of workplace harassment may have adverse effects on employee perceptions of how the organization cares about them because, as Pearson et al. (2001) stated, "Employees may feel that their expectations about interpersonal interaction, as well as their assumptions about the responsibilities of the organization in maintaining those expectations, have been violated" (p. 1408). In turn, employees' perceptions that the organization does not support and care about their well-being will decrease their sense of personal importance, making them less likely to feel emotionally attached to, identified with, and involved in the particular organization (Meyer & Allen, 1990). This argument has been supported by prior studies showing that workplace harassment is associated with decreased affective commitment (Barling et al., 2001; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007; Rogers & Kelloway, 1997). Therefore:

H9: Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be negatively related to employees' affective commitment to the organization.

The existing literature has documented that job satisfaction is closely associated with affective commitment to the organization. For instance, a meta-analysis by Meyer et al. (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) reported a strong correlation between overall job satisfaction and affective commitment ($\rho = .65$). Hence, researchers have considered both constructs simultaneously in the investigation of employee attitudes relating to workplace harassment, showing that lower job satisfaction is related to decreased affective commitment (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007; Williams et al., 1999; Willness et al., 2007).

H10: Employees' job satisfaction will be significantly related to their affective commitment to the organization.

Organizational Withdrawal

Organizational withdrawal consists of two constructs: work withdrawal and job withdrawal. Work withdrawal refers to "employees' efforts to remove themselves from a specific organization and their work role" (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991, p. 111) through work neglect, tardiness, and absenteeism. Job withdrawal refers to behaviors that "dissatisfied individuals use to avoid aspects of their specific work role or minimize the time spent on their specific work tasks while maintaining their current organizational and work-role memberships" (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991, p. 111). Examples of job withdrawal include turnover intentions, perceived difficulty in securing alternative employment, and thinking about quitting. The relationship between workplace harassment and organizational withdrawal is fairly straightforward: Individuals' psychological reaction to harassment

(i.e., stress) is so aversive to them that they will try to avoid it by withdrawing either psychologically (e.g., decreased involvement in the job) or physically (e.g., absenteeism, leaving the job) (Bhagat, McQuaid, Lindholm, & Segovis, 1985). In other words, organizational withdrawal is a behavioral reaction to a stressful event at work (i.e., harassment) whereby the victim reduces efforts that help the organization. As a consequence, being a target of SH and GWH at work will be related to increased withdrawal behaviors and turnover intentions (Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 2002; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Glomb et al., 1997; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Lim et al., 2008). Accordingly:

H11: Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be positively related to employees' job and work withdrawal behaviors.

Job satisfaction has been known to stimulate a behavioral intention such as withdrawal cognitions, which in turn are directly related to eventual turnover behavior (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hanisch & Hulin, 1991). That is, when employees are dissatisfied with their job as a whole as a result of workplace harassment, they will try to avoid their work role or the time spent on the work by frequently being late or absent or by seeking to quit their job if possible. In a similar vein, employees who lose affective commitment to their organization due to harassment in the organization are likely to withdraw their efforts helping the organization. Congruent with these arguments, empirical evidence showed that decreased job satisfaction and organizational affective commitment are related to increased lateness, absenteeism, and turnover intentions (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007; Williams et al., 1999; Willness et al., 2007). Therefore:

H12: Employees' job satisfaction and affective commitment to the organization will be negatively related to their work and job withdrawal behaviors.

Organizational Effectiveness of Small Businesses

Whereas the harmful effects of workplace harassment on employee outcomes have been well documented in the literature, its effects on organization-level outcomes have received relatively little attention by researchers. However, there are compelling reasons why workplace harassment may adversely influence the effectiveness and functioning of small businesses. First, in cases of SH, the financial costs associated with legal liability to the firm may devastate small businesses' substantially smaller cash flow, which, in extreme cases, results in the shutdown of the business or bankruptcy (McDonald, 2009; Robinson et al., 1998). Even though no data are available to directly speak to financial costs of harassment to small businesses, the federal government estimated the cost of SH at $327 million in the period of 1992 through 1994 based upon a Merit Systems Protection Board survey. This cost included sick leave, job turnover, and medical insurance claims for victims who sought professional help because of emotional or physical stress resulting from harassment.

Second, the adverse impacts of workplace harassment on organizations are also incurred through lower employee productivity. As a result of experiencing workplace harassment, dissatisfied employees may fail to work collaboratively or divert effort away from helping the organization to achieve its goals (LePine, Erez, Johnson, 2002; Ostroff, 1992). Moreover, the detrimental impact of workplace harassment can spill over beyond the individuals engaged in an incident, affecting those who witness or simply hear about it (Glomb et al., 1997; Pearson et al., 2001; Raver & Gelfand, 2005). Widespread

employee dissatisfaction can negatively influence patterns of daily interpersonal interaction frequently causing conflict among employees. This can impair coordination and collaboration among employees as well as being less likely to motivate them to perform to potential in their job (Ostroff, 1992; Raver & Gelfand, 2005). Therefore, the collective influence of employee attitudes and behaviors will negatively affect the effectiveness of organization as a whole.

Relevant evidence supporting this argument is found in the literature. A qualitative study by Pearson et al. (2001), using a sample of attorneys and medical professionals, showed that GWH had deleterious effects on organizations' productivity through reduced work efforts and commitment to the organization. Empirically, Raver and Gelfand (2005) found that coworkers' experience with harassment was negatively related to team financial performance through frequent relational conflict and low cohesion. Detert et al. (2007) found that employees' intentionally reduced effort (i.e., work withdrawal) as a result of abusive supervision was negatively related to unit-level financial performance in casual dining restaurants. Similarly, Dunlop and Lee (2004) showed that employees' deviant behaviors (e.g., acting rudely, making fun of someone at work, lateness, intentionally working slow) were negatively associated with the efficiency of a fast food restaurant chain. All together, these findings indicate that employees' withdrawal behaviors as a result of workplace harassment (e.g., work neglect, tardiness, and turnover intentions) negatively contribute to the firm's achievement of its goals and objectives (Meyer et al., 2002; Shore & Wayne, 1993).

To capture organizational effectiveness of small businesses, this study examines revenue (i.e., sales performance) and turnover rate because they have been widely used as

a reliable indicator of performance or success of small businesses in prior research (Brinckman, Grichnik, & Kapsa, 2010). In particular, the decreased number of employees as a result of harassment may have a significant bearing on the effectiveness of small businesses because they heavily depend on employee skills and commitment in creating value (Deshpande & Golhar, 1994; Ireland, Hitt, & Sirmon, 2003). Further, employee turnover has been shown to disrupt organizational functioning and performance (Hollenbeck & Williams, 1986). Thus, the costs of losing employees may be relatively high for small businesses due to a lack of skills and abilities and the resulting costs of replacing employees who left their jobs (Mathis & Jackson, 1991). Consistent with this argument, previous evidence has shown that the inability to retain a competent workforce is a barrier to small businesses' success (Deshpande & Golhar, 1994; Holt, 1993; McEvoy, 1984). Therefore, I argue that workplace harassment will be negatively related to the effectiveness of the small firm as a whole (i.e., the revenue and turnover rate) due to damaged individual productivity.

H13a: Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be negatively related to the revenue of small businesses.

H13b: Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be positively related to turnover rate in small businesses.

Finally, the earlier arguments also suggest that employees' job satisfaction and affective commitment determine their behavior at work (e.g., withdrawal behaviors) that may enhance or damage organizational effectiveness. That is, employees who are dissatisfied and not committed will be more likely to fulfill minimum expectations of required behavior, perform at less than their potential, and engage in disruptive

behaviors, and this all together will decrease organizational productivity and effectiveness. Given that organizational effectiveness reflects cumulative interactions of employee behaviors (Ostroff & Bowen, 2000), I posit that employees' decreased job satisfaction, reduced commitment to the organization, and withdrawal behaviors will collectively damage the effectiveness of small businesses. In line with this argument, Ostroff (1992) found that school teachers' job satisfaction and commitment were positively related to organizational performance measured by student academic achievement and teacher turnover. Based on the preceding arguments, I hypothesize:

H14: Collectively, employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and withdrawal behaviors will be significantly related to organizational effectiveness of small business (i.e., revenue and turnover rate).

Table 2.1. summarizes the study's research hypotheses. The next chapter explains the methodology to be used to test these hypotheses.

Table 2.1.
Research Hypotheses

No	**Hypothesis**
1	Transformational leadership behavior by immediate managers will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.
2	Transactional leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.
3	Laissez-faire leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.
4	Destructive leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.
5a	Transformational leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.
5b	Transactional leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.
5c	Laissez-faire leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.
5d	Destructive leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.
6	The psychological climate of respect for people will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.
7	The psychological climate of respect for people will mediate the relationship between immediate managers' leadership style and levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.
8	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be negatively related to employees' job satisfaction.
9	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be negatively related to employees' affective commitment to the organization.
10	Employees' job satisfaction will be significantly related to their affective commitment to the organization.
11	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be positively related to employees' job and work withdrawal behaviors.
12	Employees' job satisfaction and affective commitment to the organization will be negatively related to their work and job withdrawal behaviors.
13a	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be negatively related to the revenue of small businesses.
13b	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be positively related to turnover rate in small businesses.
14	Collectively, employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and withdrawal behaviors will be significantly related to small businesses' effectiveness (i.e., revenue and turnover rate).

CHAPTER 3:

RESEARCH METHODS

This study examines how immediate managers either promote or inhibit harassment through four types of leadership—transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and destructive leadership—in organizations with less than 500 employees. Various hypotheses have been developed, as outlined at the end of chapter 2, and this chapter describes the research participants, data collection, and analysis methods used to test those hypotheses.

Participants and Setting

To collect the data, I used the StudyResponse service (Stanton & Weiss, 2002), a nonprofit academic service that attempts to match researchers in need of samples with individuals willing to complete surveys. Benefits associated with the service include the ability to maintain complete anonymity of panelists' identities, which is particularly important in a study dealing with a sensitive topic such as workplace harassment, and the utilization of respondents from various industries and areas in the USA, rather than using one research site. Recent studies in the management field have demonstrated that the StudyResponse service is a reliable means of collecting data (e.g., Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Tepper, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009). As of December 2007, the panel consisted of 57,682 people who were registered for participation. Finally, this study was supported by The George Washington University Center for Entrepreneurial Excellence (CFEE). Details of demographics on study participants are provided in the results section.

Procedures

The first phase of data collection involved prescreening, in which a random sample of 7,300 panelists were contacted by e-mail and asked whether they (1) are full-time employees who work on site at least 35 hours per week; (2) report to a supervisor, (3) work with at least three colleagues in a small firm with less than 500 employees; and (4) would be interested in participating in a study of workplace issues and work attitudes.

Typical response rates for the StudyResponse service range from 10% to 30%. Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) obtained a 19% response rate from focal respondents and 15% from referred supervisors in their study on leadership and job behaviors. Tepper et al. (2009) obtained response rates of 37.5% of those who were prescreened and 4.5% of those who were initially contacted in their study on abusive supervision. An oversampling of 7,300 for prescreening was expected to ensure a sufficient sample size for the study (assuming about 3.5% response rate for a total of 255 participants; see the power analysis section for details). Further, participation was limited to panelists who met all of the inclusion criteria. Participants indicated firm size, and those numbers were placed into one of three categories — 4-99, 100-200, or 201-499—with the goal of obtaining a representative sample of firms of various size.

The prescreening study was one recommended method to obtain higher response rates; another recommended method is use of direct incentives to participants. Panelists who qualify for the study were offered a $10 gift certificate from Amazon.com upon completion of the survey.

Once the initial sample of panelists was created through prescreening, they received e-mails from StudyResponse with links to an online survey created by the

researcher. For panelists who did not respond to the survey, up to three reminder e-mails were sent in a four week time frame. Participants were asked to answer questions related to a psychological climate of respect for people, workplace harassment, and employee outcomes. They were also asked about demographic characteristics (i.e., gender, age, education level, work experience, organizational tenure, organizational rank, and ethnicity) and other control variables. To minimize the propensity of biasing participants' responses to the outcome measures, participants responded to the workplace harassment measures after completing assessments of the job-related outcome variables. Further, for the purpose of avoiding common-source bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), participants were asked to refer one colleague working in the same work group with the same supervisor who could complete the leadership and organizational effectiveness measures. Those referred colleagues of participants also received a $10 Amazon.com gift certificate.

Survey Instrument

Workplace Harassment

Generalized workplace harassment was assessed through Cortina et al.'s (2001) 7-item Workplace Incivility Scale. Participants were asked to respond on a 5-point scale (0 = *never* to 4 = *many times*) whether they experienced being in a situation in which any of their superiors or coworkers "made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you," "paid little attention to your statements or showed little interest in your opinion," or "addressed you in unprofessional terms." Cortina et al. (2001) showed strong evidence for the reliability and validity of the Workplace Incivility Scale (Cronbach's alpha = .89).

Sexual harassment was assessed using the 16-item revised Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ-R) (Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999). This measure was purposely developed to assess SH against behavioral indicators, not relying on individuals' interpretation of the experience as SH or not. This approach is important because many women do not label offensive sex-related behaviors as SH even when they acknowledge them to be unwanted, insulting, and repulsive (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Gutek, 1985; Magley, Hulin, Fitzgerald, & DeNardo, 1999). The reluctance to label SH may lead to lower prevalence estimates than when SH is assessed using descriptions of the specific event. In order to minimize respondents' perceptual bias, the SEQ-R uses the behavioral definition and assesses whether individuals have been exposed to offensive sex-related behaviors from coworkers or supervisors on a 5-point scale (1= *never* to 5 =*once a week or more*). Further, to maintain a temporal alignment between leadership and workplace harassment, I asked respondents to report their experiences of harassment "while working with your supervisor". The SEQ-R is composed of five items assessing the participants' experiences of gender harassment (e.g., "made offensive remarks or jokes about gender in your presence"), seven items assessing unwanted sexual attention (e.g., "touched you in a way that made you uncomfortable"), and four items assessing sexual coercion (e.g., "made you afraid that you would be treated poorly if you did not cooperate sexually"). Fitzgerald and colleagues (1988) reported high internal consistency (.86 to .92) and test–retest reliability (.86) with the SEQ-R.

Leadership Behavior

Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-Faire Leadership. Three leadership styles of the Full Range of Leadership Model were measured by both

participants and by colleagues referred by participants. They were asked to assess their perceptions of their direct supervisor using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X; Bass & Avolio, 1997), which consists of 36 items (20 items for transformational leadership, 12 items for transactional leadership, and 4 items for laissez-faire leadership) using a 5-point scale (1= *not at all*, 5 = *frequently or always*). Examples of items include the following: my immediate manager "talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished" and "talks about our most important values and beliefs" (transformational); "makes clear what he expected from us in terms of our performance" and "tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts" (transactional); and "avoids telling me how to perform my job" and "steers away from showing concern about results" (laissez-faire). Judge and Piccolo (2004) reported, in their meta-analysis, that the mean reliabilities for transformational leadership and transactional leadership were .90 and .75, respectively.

Destructive Leadership. Destructive leadership was measured by Mitchell & Ambrose's (2007) 5-item short version of Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision measure. The respondents were asked to respond on a 5-point scale to report how often their supervisor performed the behavior described in each item (1 = *never* to 5 = *very often*). Examples of scale items include "my boss ridicules me" and ''my boss tells me that my thoughts and feelings are stupid." Cronbach alpha for this scale was .89 (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Psychological Climate of Respect for People

A psychological climate of respect for people was measured by Chuang and Liao's (2010) measure of concern for employees. Participants were asked to indicate the

extent of their agreement with 8 items (e.g., “The organization considers employees’ goals and values”, “The organization really cares about employees’ well-being”) on a 7-point scale (1 = *strongly agree*, 7 = *strongly disagree*). Cronbach alpha for this scale was .89 (Chuang & Liao, 2010). Additionally, 4 items were created by researcher for the purpose of the study (e.g., “Overall, the organization values fair and respectful interpersonal treatment among employees”, “People around here are expected to treat others with respect”, “The organization emphasizes the importance of treating employees with respect.”, “In this organization, uncivil or attacking behaviors are not discouraged”).

Employee Outcomes

Overall Job Satisfaction. To assess employees’ overall level of job satisfaction, three items from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979) were employed. Global job satisfaction measures have been shown to be better than facet measures as predictors of general job satisfaction (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with each item on a 7-point rating scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Items include “All in all, I am satisfied with my job” and “In general, I don’t like my job.” Internal consistency reliability for the scale was .91 (Cammann et al., 1979).

Affective Commitment. Affective commitment was assessed using Meyer and colleagues’ (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) six-item measure. Illustrative items are “I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own” and “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.” A 7-point scale (1= *very strongly disagree* to 7 =

very strongly agree) were employed. The Affective Commitment Scale has consistently been shown to be both reliable and valid (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Organizational Withdrawal. Organizational withdrawal comprises two dimensions: work withdrawal and job withdrawal (turnover intentions). Six-items from Work Withdrawal Scale (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990) were used to assess the frequency with which employees engage in unfavorable job behaviors such as taking long breaks, leaving work early, and doing poor-quality work. A 4-point scale (0 = *never*, 2 = *maybe once a year*, 3 = *two or three times a year*, 4 = *once a week*) were employed. Internal consistency reliability for the scale was .78 (Fitzgerald et al., 1997).

The second dimension of organizational withdrawal is job withdrawal. Two-items assessing turnover intentions from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1979) were employed. A sample item includes "I often think about quitting" and a 7-point rating scale (1= *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) was used. Internal consistency reliability for the scale was .88 (Buchko, 1992).

Organizational Effectiveness: Revenue. To evaluate small businesses' organizational effectiveness, invited colleagues were asked to provide their firm's revenue in dollars in 2007, 2008, and 2009. To calculate a firm's change in revenue from 2007 to 2009, first I transformed the revenue data into a natural logarithm as a remedy for failures of normality following the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (1996). Then, I calculated the percent increase in revenue from 2007 to 2009. This methodology is consistent with that used in other studies (e.g., Batt, 2002) and revenue change has been used as a primary outcome variable in numerous studies of small businesses (e.g., Carlson, Upton, & Seaman, 2006; Covin, Green, & Slevin, 2006).

Subjective Performance Measure. Colleagues referred from focal respondents were also asked to rate their company's market performance relative to that of competitors for the past 12 months. The comparative method of assessing firm performance has been recognized to be more effective in obtaining responses than asking respondents to report exact figures (Tomaskovis-Devey, Leiter, & Thompson, 1994). An additional reason for using this subjective performance measure is that asking participants about objective performance data for their company can lead to a considerable amount of missing data. Wall and colleagues (2004) demonstrated the convergent, discriminant, and construct validities of subjective performance measures compared against objective performance measures. For example, a self-reported performance measure was highly correlated to actual firm performance (r = .52). Previous researchers have successfully used subjective performance measures in studies examining the effectiveness of organizations (e.g., Chuang & Liao, 2010; Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang, & Takeuchi, 2007).

To assess subjective firm performance, Delaney and Huselid's (1996) measure that taps marketing, sales growth, profitability, and market share was employed. This measure uses a 5-point response scale (1 = *much worse*, 5 = *much better*).

Turnover Rate. To measure a turnover rate of small businesses, I asked respondents' colleagues to report the number of employees lost in the previous year (i.e., how many employees voluntarily left the firm in the prior year?). This is because people working in small businesses are usually familiar with the number of employees instead of annual turnover. To calculate a voluntary turnover rate, I divided the number of

employees who voluntarily left the firm by the total number of employees of the company. Table 3.1 summarizes the different sources of responses used in the study.

Table 3.1
Sources of Survey Responses

	Focal participants	Invited colleagues
Workplace harassment	X	
Supervisors' leadership		X
Psychological climate of respect	X	
Employee outcomes	X	
Organizational outcomes		X

Control Variables. Control variables are included in the analysis to eliminate alternative explanations for significant relationships with dependent variables. Due to concerns about the possibility that negative affect might lead to biased responding (e.g., individuals who are high in negative affectivity tend to overreport negative experiences such as workplace harassment, Watson, Pennebaker, & Folger, 1986; Williams & Anderson, 1994), I controlled for the effects of negative affectivity on workplace harassment to assess how leadership can influence employee experiences of harassment and their subsequent reactions beyond the effect of their disposition. In the survey, trait negative affectivity was measured by the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS-X; Watson & Clark, 1992). The negative affectivity scale of the PANAS consists of 6 words that describe negative emotions (e.g., afraid, scared, hostile). Participants were asked to rate the degree to which they generally feel each emotion on a 5-point scale ranging from "very slightly or not at all" to "very much." Further, I

controlled for gender and age because there is some evidence that young female employees experience harassment more frequently than their male counterparts (Bjorkqvist, 1994; Cortina et al., 2001; Richman et al., 1999).

Analysis

Structural Equation Modeling

To test the hypotheses, I used structural equation modeling (SEM) with latent variables using LISREL software program (Jöreskog, Sörbom, du Toit & duToit, 2001). This analytical method has advantages over traditional hierarchical regression, in that SEM enables researchers to simultaneously examine multiple interrelated relationships among variables, to construct unobservable latent variables, and to take random measurement error into account (Klein, 2005). The SEM process generally centers around two steps: validating the measurement model and fitting the structural model. The measurement model tests the loadings of the observed variables to their latent factors, and the structural model specifies relationships among the latent variables. Kline (2005) urged that SEM researchers always test the measurement model underlying a full structural equation model first, and if the fit of the measurement model is found acceptable, then they can proceed to the second step of testing the structural model. The two-stage procedure for SEM has been shown to produce less biased parameter estimates than simultaneous estimation of both measurement and structural parameters (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

To assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the multiple-item measures, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted (Gerbing & Anderson, 1993). The hypothesized 17-factor measurement model (i.e., independent, dependent, and control

variables) were tested by submitting raw data to LISREL using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) based on the covariance matrix. Because there is no single magic index that provides a global standard for all models, Kline (2005) recommended that at least four tests — such as chi-square; goodness of fit index (GFI), normed fit index (NFI), or comparative fit index (CFI); nonnormed fit index (NNFI); and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) — should be interpreted in the results of SEM analyses. Specifically, a model χ^2 statistic is known as the likelihood ratio chi-square, and as the value of the χ^2/df ratio increases, the fit of a model becomes worse. GFI is a R^2-type goodness-of-fit index. NNFI is a measure that provides the incremental improvement of fit of the tested model from a baseline model, excluding the influence of sample size. CFI assesses the relative improvement in fit of the researcher's model compared with a baseline model. The CFI and NNFI are resistant to errors associated with sample size and the NFI displays less sampling variability than the chi-square-to-degrees-of-freedom ratio. SRMR is a measure of the mean absolute correlation residual, and values less than .10 are generally considered favorable. Acceptable model fit is typically inferred when NFI/ NNFI is above .90, CFI is above .95, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is .08 or lower, and the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom is below 3 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Kline, 2005; Williams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009). If goodness-of-fit indexes indicate a good fit for the hypothesized model and all items load significantly on the latent constructs they were designed to measure, the hypothesized measurement model fits the data satisfactorily.

After obtaining an adequate fit of the measurement model to the data, the measurement parameters linking each observable indicator to the latent constructs are

fixed and the structural model of the constructs is evaluated. Estimating the model involves several steps, including evaluation of a model fit, interpretation of the parameter estimates, and respecification of the model, if necessary. I tested the hypothesized paths in the structural model using MLE based on the covariance matrix. MLE derives the most likely coefficient values given the actual covariance matrix by minimizing the difference between the sample covariances and those predicted by the theoretical model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Again, following Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria, goodness-of-fit indices close to .95 and an RMSEA close to .08 were considered as evidence of acceptable fit between the hypothesized model and data. A good model fit supports the theoretical arguments that the model is at least one of the models that provide adequate goodness-of-fit to the sample data. Figure 3.1 displays the proposed SEM model of the study.

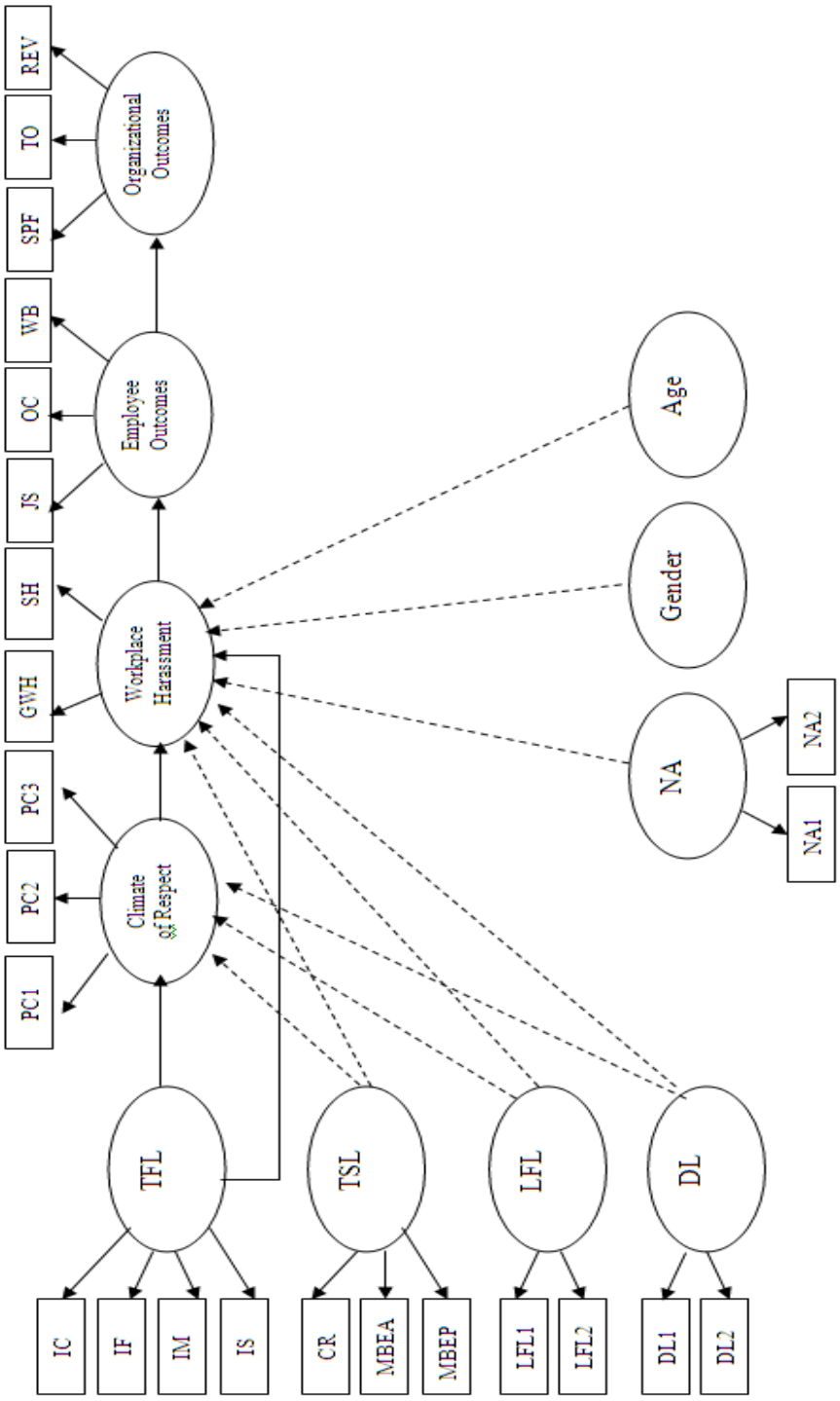

Figure 3.1. Proposed SEM model.

Power Analysis

SEM technique relies on tests that are sensitive to sample size as well as to the magnitude of differences in covariance matrices. In the literature, sample sizes commonly run 200 to 400 for models with 10 to 15 indicators. Loehlin (1992) recommended at least 100 cases, preferably 200. One rule of thumb found in the literature is that sample size should be 10 to 20 times as many cases as variables (Mitchell, 1993). Others have argued that researchers need at least 15 cases per measured variable or indicator (Stevens, 1996). Using the convention of 15 cases, this heuristic suggests a minimum sample size of 255 cases.

CHAPTER 4:

RESULTS

The first phase of data collection involved prescreening, in which a random sample of 7,300 panelists were contacted by email and asked whether they met the participation criteria and whether they would be interested in participating in a study of working environments and work attitudes. Participants were also asked at this stage to provide the contact information for an invited coworker, and only those participants who did so were contacted to participate in the study. The results of the prescreening survey yielded an initial sample of 342 pairs of focal respondents and their invited coworkers who met the criteria and expressed an interest in the study. Out of 342 pairs, 254 pairs completed the survey, resulting in a response rate of 74%. Data from participants who omitted more than 20% of the items were completely removed from the analyses, and this provided useable data of 239 pairs. The response rate of the final sample was 3.3% (239/7,300) of those who were initially contacted and 69.9% (239/342) of those who were both eligible for the study and interested in participating. The response rate of 3.3% is comparable with that of other studies that used the StudyResponse service. For instance, Tepper et al. (2009) obtained response rates of 4.5% of those who were initially contacted in their study on abusive supervision toward supervisor-employee dyads. Further, the sample size of 239 is expected to accurately assess a global model fit using SEM techniques because evidence suggests that even with severely nonnormal data, the SEM test statistics yielded strong performance with $n < 100$ (Nevitt & Hancock, 2004).

Sample and Demographics

The final sample of 239 employee-coworker dyads (i.e., a focal respondent and his/her invited colleague) consisted of 114 female respondents (47.7%) and 125 male respondents (52.3%) and 87 female coworkers (36.4%) and 152 male coworkers (63.6%). The majority of respondents were Caucasian (78.2% for focal respondents, 77.8% for coworkers), followed by Asian (8.8%, 6.7%), Black (4.6%, 5.4%), Hispanic (4.6%, 6.3%), and Native American (3.4%, 2.9%). Approximately 72% of focal respondents and 91% of their coworkers had at least a college degree. In terms of organizational rank, participants were working in diverse positions, including entry employee level (11.3% for focal employees, 10.9% for coworkers), middle employee level (34.3%, 33.5%), middle manager level (36.4%, 31%), senior manager level (15.5%, 21.8%), and executive/CEO (2.5%, 2.9%). On average, focal respondents were 35.8 years old and had 6.7 years of organizational tenure and 5.2 years of supervisory tenure. Similarly, their coworkers were on average 37.1 years old with 7.3 years of organizational tenure and 5.7 years of supervisory tenure. Coworkers assessed their supervisor's leadership style and also provided demographic information; 35.2% of the supervisors were female, and their mean age was 42.2 years old.

Organizational demographics of small businesses surveyed in the study are as following: the number of employees working in these organizations were 162.3 on average and the distribution of three categories of employee numbers were 44% (4-99), 28% (100-200), and 28% (201-499). Their years in business were 24.6. The companies had a variety of legal structure such as proprietorship (21.9%), Limited Liability Company (LLC, 14.5%), S Corporation (31.7%), partnership (6.6%), Limited Liability

Partnership (LLP, 10.1%), and C Corporation (13.2%). The type of industry companies belonged to was also diverse ranging from manufacturing (19.1%), construction (11.4%), service (9.7%), wholesale (8.1%), finance, insurance and real estate (7.6%) to retail (7.2%). The rest of companies (36.9%) belonged to other industries such as consulting, engineering, education, health care, and so on. Further, 20% of the companies were owned by family. Respondents reported that 74.2% had a formal HR department or HR personnel and 36.6% had a union in the company.

Approximately 10% of data on the number of employees who left the firm (reported by coworkers) was missing, and 34% of the data on sales performance was missing. Due to difficulties estimating turnover rates and firm performance using imputation methods (Roth, 1994) and the lack of prior studies that used those methods, I did not impute missing data on turnover rates and firm performance. I also did not delete these cases but kept them in the data set because the statistical technique of SEM is based upon covariance/correlation matrix, which is hardly affected by missing data. I confirmed that the SEM results from the reduced number of cases generated the same results as using all 239 cases. Further, nonresponse bias tests indicated no significant differences between respondents and nonrespondents on demographic variables and other variables of interest in the study.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 displays means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and intercorrelations of study variables. All of the scales had reliabilities that were greater than .70 and were therefore acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). As shown in the table, transformational leadership and transactional leadership were positively correlated

with the psychological climate of respect (r = .58, p < .01; r = .25, p < .01), while laissez-faire leadership and destructive leadership were negatively correlated with it (r = -.19, p < .01; r = -.20, p < .01). Transformational leadership was significantly negatively correlated with workplace harassment, which was the sum of generalized workplace harassment (GWH) and sexual harassment (SH) (r = -.17, p < .01). In contrast, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and destructive leadership were significantly positively correlated with workplace harassment, and the correlations were stronger in the sequence of transactional leadership (r = .19), laissez-faire leadership (r = .46), and destructive leadership (r = .75).

Of the entire sample (N = 239), 43.5% of respondents reported that they experienced GWH at least once or twice while working with their supervisor, and 32.2% of respondents reported that they experienced SH at least once or twice a year. Further, 2.5% of respondents experienced SH about once a month. More specifically, 33.5% reported that they experienced gender harassment once or twice a year, and 3.8% reported once a month. Similarly, 32.2% experienced unwanted sexual attention once or twice a year, and 2.5% experienced unwanted it once a month. Lastly, 27.6% of respondents reported that they experienced sexual coercion once or twice a year, and 1.7% reported sexual coercion once or twice a month. Workplace harassment was significantly correlated with job satisfaction (r = -.32, p < .01), affective commitment (r = -.39, p < .01), withdrawal (r = .68, p < .01 for work withdrawal and r = .52, p < .01 for job withdrawal), and voluntary turnover rate (r = .27, p < .01). Further, workplace harassment was positively correlated with negative affectivity (.68, p < .01). Gender was not correlated with workplace harassment (r = .06, p > .05), but age was negatively

correlated with workplace harassment (r = -.13, p < .05). Job satisfaction was positively correlated with affective commitment (r = .86, p < .01) and negatively correlated with work withdrawal (r = -.22, p < .01) and turnover intentions (r = -.72, p < .01).

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

		M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	TFL	3.35	.78	(.95)															
2	TSL	2.97	.55	.46	(.73)														
3	LFL	2.43	.98	-.19	.50	(.83)													
4	DSL	1.70	.96	-.15	.28	.54	(.94)												
5	PC	3.66	.77	.58	.25	-.19	-.20	(.91)											
6	WH	3.70	1.83	-.17	.19	.46	.75	-.27	(.91)										
7	JS	4.42	.74	.45	.10	-.20	-.30	.71	-.32	(.86)									
8	AC	4.11	.74	.45	.06	-.26	-.31	.73	-.39	.86	(.88)								
9	WW	1.88	.70	-.15	.15	.43	.57	-.15	.68	-.22	-.24	(.84)							
10	TI	3.48	1.79	-.35	.10	.40	.48	-.50	.52	-.72	-.73	.40	(.83)						
11	SPF	3.46	.76	.30	.17	.06	.06	.32	.12	.29	.27	.06	-.12	(.91)					
12	TO	6.27%	17.7%	-.12	.11	.11	.35	.07	.27	.25	-.01	-.05	.22	.03	-				
13	REV	26%	51%	-.10	.00	-.11	-.04	.05	-.01	-.02	.05	.09	-.08	.20	.24	-			
14	NA	1.88	.90	-.16	.24	.46	.62	-.28	.68	-.38	-.40	.62	.51	.01	.19	.09	(.92)		
15	Gender	-		.01	.08	.00	.07	.10	.06	.00	.03	-.02	.05	.15	.13	-.12	-.05	-	
16	Age	35.8	8.47	.15	.07	-.13	-.19	.21	-.13	.21	.22	-.20	-.28	-.10	-.02	.05	-.13	-.14	-

Note. $N = 239$. Correlations $|r| \geq .13$ are significant at $p < .05$. Correlations $|r| \geq .19$ are significant at $p < .01$. Gender coded such that 1 = female, 2 = male. Coefficients alpha for each scale are in parentheses.

TFL: transformational leadership; TSL: transactional leadership; LFL: laissez-faire leadership; DSL: destructive leadership; PC: psychological climate of respect; WH: workplace harassment; JS: job satisfaction; AC: affective commitment; WW: work withdrawal; TI: turnover intentions; SPF: subjective performance; TO: voluntary turnover rate; REV: revenue (changes in sales performance in 2007-9); NA: negative affectivity.

Factor Structure and Validation of the Psychological Climate of Respect Measure

To examine the factor structure of the psychological climate of respect scale (totaling 12 items), I conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Data from the sample of focal respondents (n = 110) whose invited colleagues did not complete the invited colleague survey were used to conduct this analysis. Using principal axis factoring and oblique rotation, evaluation of the Eigen values and scree plot suggested that two primary factors accounted for 62.7% of the variance. After deleting the three reverse-worded items that were the only items loading onto the second factor, all the remaining nine items loaded on one factor with Eigen values greater than .50. The deleted items were two items from Chuang and Liao (2010) and one item created by the researcher (i.e., if given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of employees; the organization shows very little concern for employees; in this organization, uncivil or attacking behaviors are not discouraged). The remaining final items consisted of six items from Chuang and Liao (2010) and three items created for the study.

Next, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on the primary sample of 239 respondents. The CFA results indicated that nine items loaded on one factor and all loadings were statistically significant ($p < .05$), with standardized values ranging from .50 to .84. Also, the results indicated acceptable structure validity ($\chi^2 = 94.96$, $p = < .01$; $df = 27$; CFI = .97; NNFI = .96; GFI = .91; and RMSEA = .103).

Table 4.2 shows the psychological climate of respect items with their factor loadings from the EFA and CFA. This measure showed a strong positive correlation with perceived organizational support ($r = .71$, $p < .01$) and interactional justice ($r = .73$, $p < .01$), lending support for convergent validity. Further, this measure was not correlated

with gender (r = .10, *ns*), race (r = .10, *ns*), or education level (r = -.05, *ns*). These results provide evidence for discriminant validity.

Table 4.2
EFA and CFA Results on Psychological Climate of Respect

Item	EFA	CFA
The organization strongly considers employees' goals and values.	.83	.84
Help is available from the organization when employees have a problem.	.76	.78
The organization really cares about employees' well-being.	.86	.80
The organization would forgive an honest mistake on employees' part.	.69	.50
The organization is willing to help employees when they need a special favor.	.80	.65
The organization cares about employees' opinion.	.83	.78
*Overall, the organization values fair and respectful interpersonal treatment among employees.	.80	.81
*People around here are expected to treat others with respect.	.51	.69
*The organization emphasizes the importance of treating employees with respect.	.84	.78

Note. Extraction method: Principal component analysis. The CFA goodness of fit indices were χ^2 =94.96, $p < .01$, df = 27, CFI = .97, NNFI = .96, GFI= .91, and RMSEA = .103.
*Item created by the researcher for this study.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

For latent constructs where construct items were divided into individual subscales (e.g., transformational leadership, workplace harassment), the items of each subscale were averaged to represent an indicator of the latent construct in the CFA and subsequent SEM (Hom & Kinicki, 2001). In cases of constructs with less than three items (e.g., job satisfaction), each item represented a single indicator. In all other cases, items assessing each construct were randomly divided into two to three indicators. GWH and SH were combined to reflect the amount of overall workplace harassment. This approach of combining GWH and SH into one variable is consistent with published papers assessing similar constructs (e.g., Barling et al., 2001; Cortina et al., 2002; Miner-Rubino &

Cortina, 2007). Especially, Lim and Cortina (2005) demonstrated sexual harassment and incivility co-occurred in organizations as well as evidencing that they are closely related constructs with gender harassment bridging the two. The total scale comprising 23 items (7 GWH items and 16 SH items) was reliable (Cronbach alpha = .97). Finally, turnover rate and sales performance, which were single-item measures, were treated as observed variables with one indicator each.

After constructing indicators and computing covariance matrices, I analyzed the matrices using maximum-likelihood estimation as implemented by LISREL 8.54 (Jöreskog et al., 2001). As suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), I undertook a two-stage approach to modeling. I first estimated the measurement model for the latent variables to ensure that the psychometric properties of the measures were adequate and loaded on the hypothesized factors. After testing the measurement model, I estimated the structural model.

Latent variable SEM treats control variables as exogenous, thus allowing them to covary with the exogenous variables of interest and having direct paths to all of the endogenous variables (Williams et al., 2009). I controlled for the leadership styles that were not being examined as a variable of primary interest. For example, when examining transformational leadership in the model, transactional, laissez-faire, and destructive leadership were controlled for along with negative affectivity, gender, and age. Additionally, based upon the earlier arguments about the relationships between leadership styles and the psychological climate of respect, I also controlled for the psychological climate of respect for each of the four leadership styles in subsequent analyses. Finally, age was controlled for in the climate of respect and workplace

harassment analyses because of the significant correlation between climate and workplace harassment (r = .21, p < .01; r = -.13, p < .05, respectively).

Structural Equation Modeling for the Measurement Model

I conducted a CFA to provide support for the construct validity of the scale measures. The hypothesized 11-factor measurement model was tested by entering the covariance matrix into LISREL 8.54 (Jöreskog et al., 2001). This model specified that each indicator loaded solely on its respective latent construct. The loading of one indicator per construct was fixed to 1.0 while all others were freely estimated. The error variance of subjective evaluation of firm performance was set to .049 (i.e., [1 – reliability] × variance = [1 – .915] × .582; Kline, 2005), while all others were freely estimated. Standardized loadings of the items for each factor are displayed in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3
Standardized Factor Loadings of Measurement Model

	TFL	TSL	LFL	DSL	PC	WH	EM OUT	OR GOUT	NA
IC	.88**								
IF	.96**								
IM	.91**								
IS	.88**								
CR		.63**							
MBE-A		.07							
MBE-P		-.28**							
LFL1			.84**						
LFL2			.84**						
DSL1				.98**					
DSL2				.95**					
PC1					.93**				
PC2					.84**				
PC3					.87**				
GWH						.88**			
SH						.87**			
JS							.91**		
AC							.94**		
WB							-.74**		
SPF								.96**	
TO								.13	
REV								.19*	
NA1									.92**
NA2									.93**

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.
IC: individualized consideration; IF: idealized influence; IM: inspirational motivation; IS: intellectual stimulation; CR: contingent reward; MBE-A: management by exception-active; MBE-P: management by exception-passive; LFL1: laissez-faire leadership parcel 1; LFL2: laissez-faire leadership parcel 2; DSL1: destructive leadership parcel 1; DSL2: destructive leadership parcel 2; PC1: psychological climate parcel 1; PC2: psychological climate parcel 2; PC3: psychological climate parcel 3; GWH: generalized workplace harassment; SH: sexual harassment; JS: job satisfaction; AC: affective commitment; WB: withdrawal behaviors; SPF: subjective performance; TO: voluntary turnover rate; REV: revenue (changes in sales performance in 2007-9); NA1: negative affectivity parcel 1; NA2: negative affectivity parcel 2; TFL, transformational leadership; TSL, transactional leadership; LFL, laissez-faire leadership; DSL, destructive leadership; PC, psychological climate; WH, workplace harassment; EMOUT, employee outcomes; ORGOUT, organizational outcomes; NA, negative affectivity.

Structural Model Hypothesis Testing

Model structural linkages were assessed following measurement analyses. Fit indices were used to determine overall fitness and model evaluation, and structural path estimates were tested for significance. In reviewing the structural parameter estimates, I found that the direct path from transformational leadership to workplace harassment was insignificant (.00, *ns*). Regarding the rest of the leadership styles that were included as control variables, the coefficients of the path from transactional leadership to the psychological climate of respect (.02, *ns*) and workplace harassment (.01, *ns*) were insignificant. Similarly, no significant path existed between laissez-faire leadership and the psychological climate of respect (-.01, *ns*) or workplace harassment (.00, *ns*). I retained the direct path between the hypothesized leadership style to workplace harassment for subsequent analyses, but deleted the insignificant paths. The fit indices of the initial model were χ^2 = 1077.16, *df* = 270, NFI = .88, NNFI = .89, CFI = .91, RMSEA = .11.

Modification indices suggested that a path from the psychological climate of respect to the latent variable of employee outcomes should be added, and I followed this suggestion because it is consistent with the existing theory and research findings. The prior literature has shown how employee perceptions of climate in the organization positively affect their work attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Carr et al., 2003; Parker et al., 2003). By adding the path from the psychological climate of respect to employee outcomes, the revised model achieved a slightly better model fit with the data (χ^2 = 879.19, *df* = 269, NFI = .90, NNFI = .91, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .09). Table 4.4 summarizes fit indices for measurement, initial, and revised models.

Table 4.4
Fit Indices for Models

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	NFI	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	RMSEA CI
Measurement	825.94	247	3.34	.91	.91	.11	.09	(.09, .10)
Initial	1077.16	270	3.98	.88	.91	.15	.11	(.10, .11)
Revised	879.19	269	3.26	.90	.93	.12	.09	(.09, .10)

Note. N = 239. NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; RMSEA CI = root mean square error of approximation 90% confidence interval.

Regarding the specific hypotheses, Hypothesis 1 predicted a negative relationship between transformational leadership and workplace harassment, and this was not supported (.00, *ns*). Hypothesis 2 predicted a negative relationship between transactional leadership and workplace harassment, and this was not supported (.01, *ns*). Hypothesis 3 predicted a positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership and workplace harassment, and this was not supported (.00, *ns*). However, a significant positive relationship between destructive leadership and workplace harassment was found (.56, $p < .01$); thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported. The coefficient of the path from transformational leadership to the psychological climate of respect was significant (.58, $p < .01$); thus, Hypothesis 5a was supported. Meanwhile, none of the coefficients of the path from transactional, laissez-faire, and destructive leadership to the psychological climate of respect was significant, failing to support Hypotheses 5b, 5c, and 5d. Hypothesis 6 predicted a negative relationship between the psychological climate of respect and workplace harassment, and it was not supported (-.07, *ns*).

With regard to a mediating role of the psychological climate of respect in the relationship between leadership and workplace harassment, results showed that each path from transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership to workplace harassment was insignificant (-.02, .01, -.00, *ns*). As reported earlier, by

contrast, the path from destructive leadership to workplace harassment was significant. However, the path from the psychological climate of respect to workplace harassment became insignificant when the path from leadership to workplace harassment was added, suggesting that the mediational path did not exist. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was not supported.

Results for employee outcomes are presented in Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3. I found statistically significant coefficients for the paths between workplace harassment and affective commitment (-.28, $p < .01$) and job/work withdrawal (.85, $p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 9 and Hypothesis 11 were supported. However, the coefficient for the path between workplace harassment and job satisfaction was not significant (-.06, *ns*). Thus, Hypothesis 8 was not supported. In addition, employees' job satisfaction was significantly related to their affective commitment to the organization ($r = .86$, $p < .01$), lending support for Hypothesis 10. Job satisfaction and affective commitment were negatively related to job/work withdrawal ($r = -.22$, -.24 respectively, $p = < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 12 was supported.

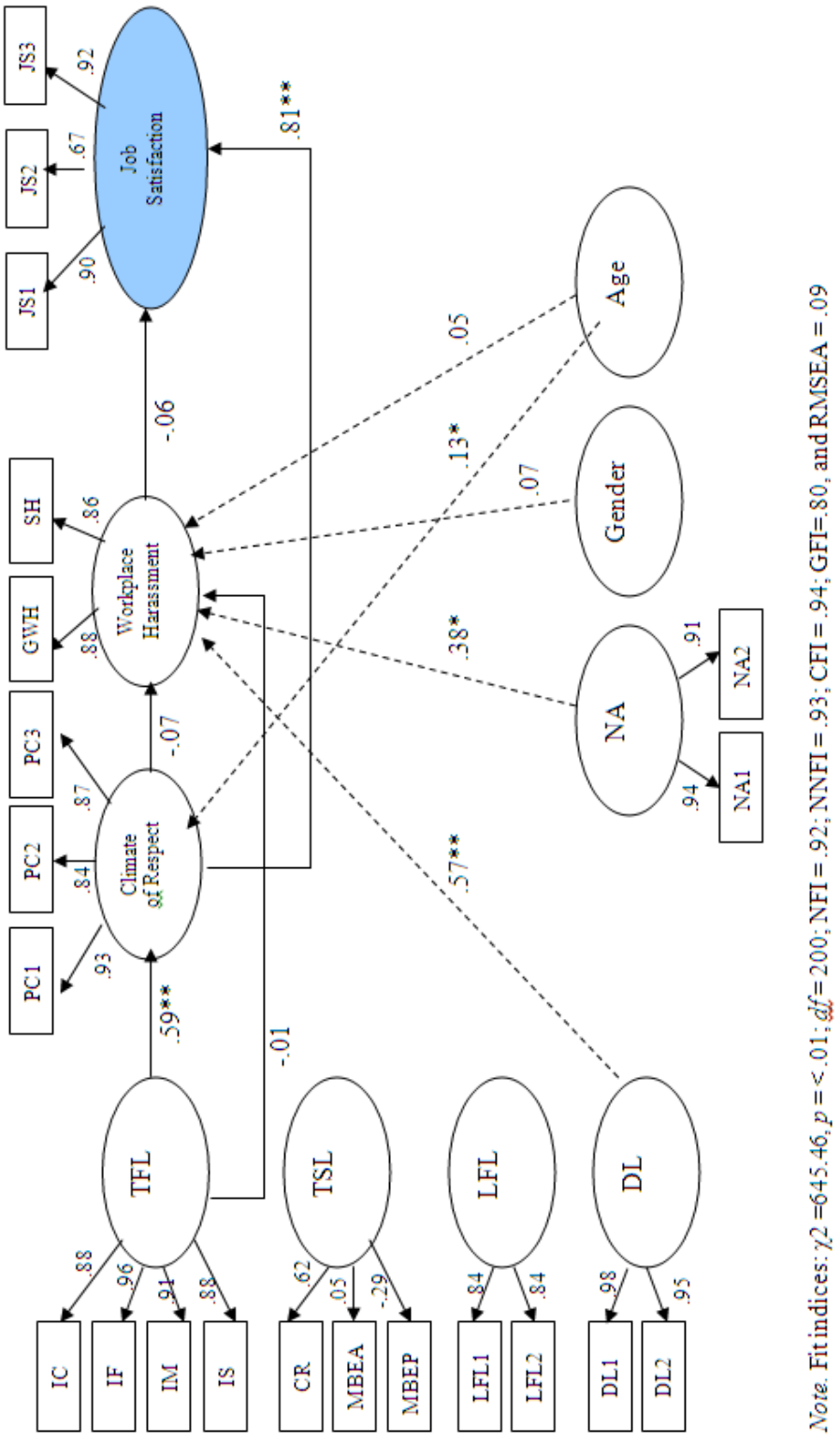

Figure 4.1. Results from the structural model for job satisfaction.

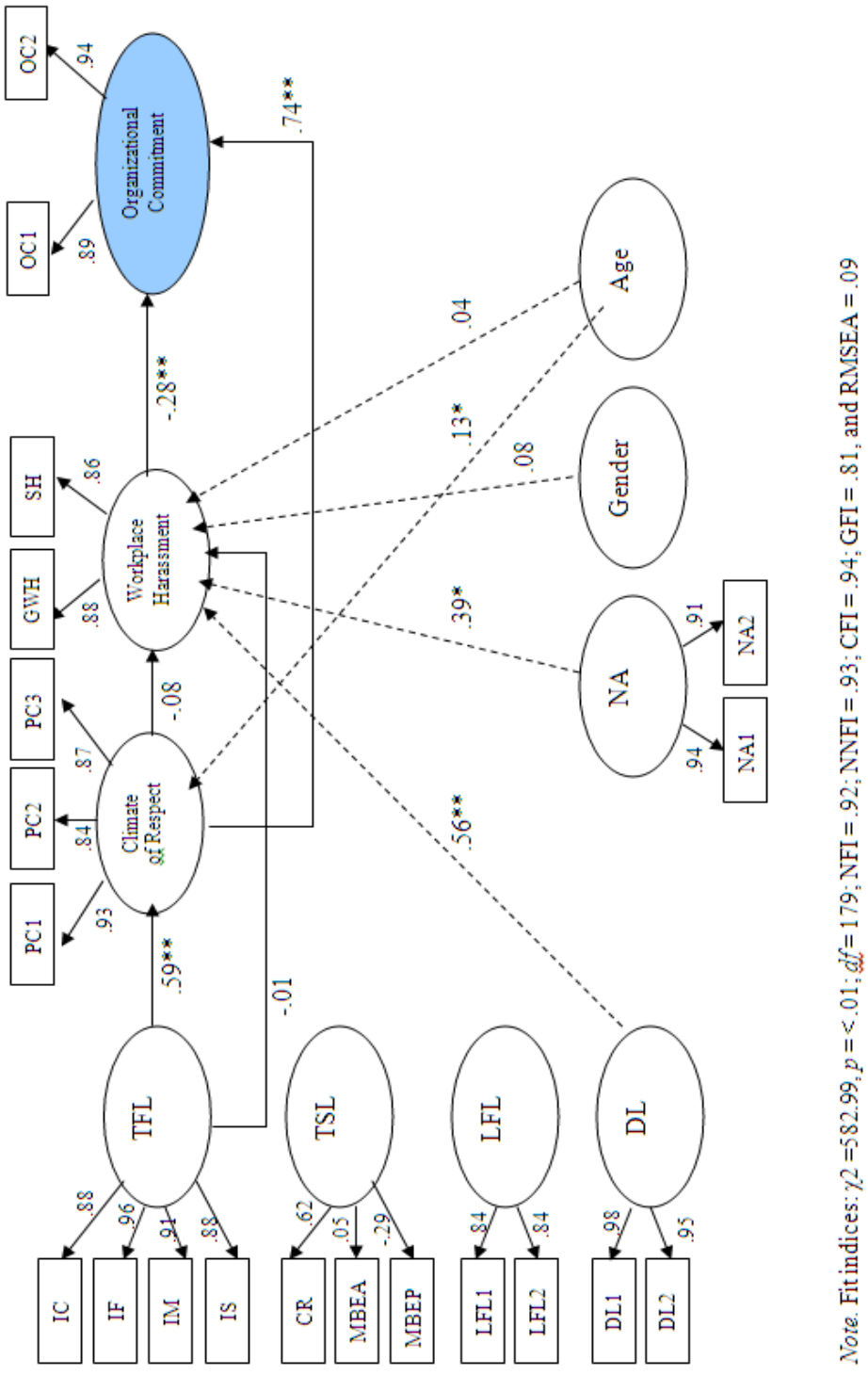

Figure 4.2. Results from the structural model for organizational commitment.

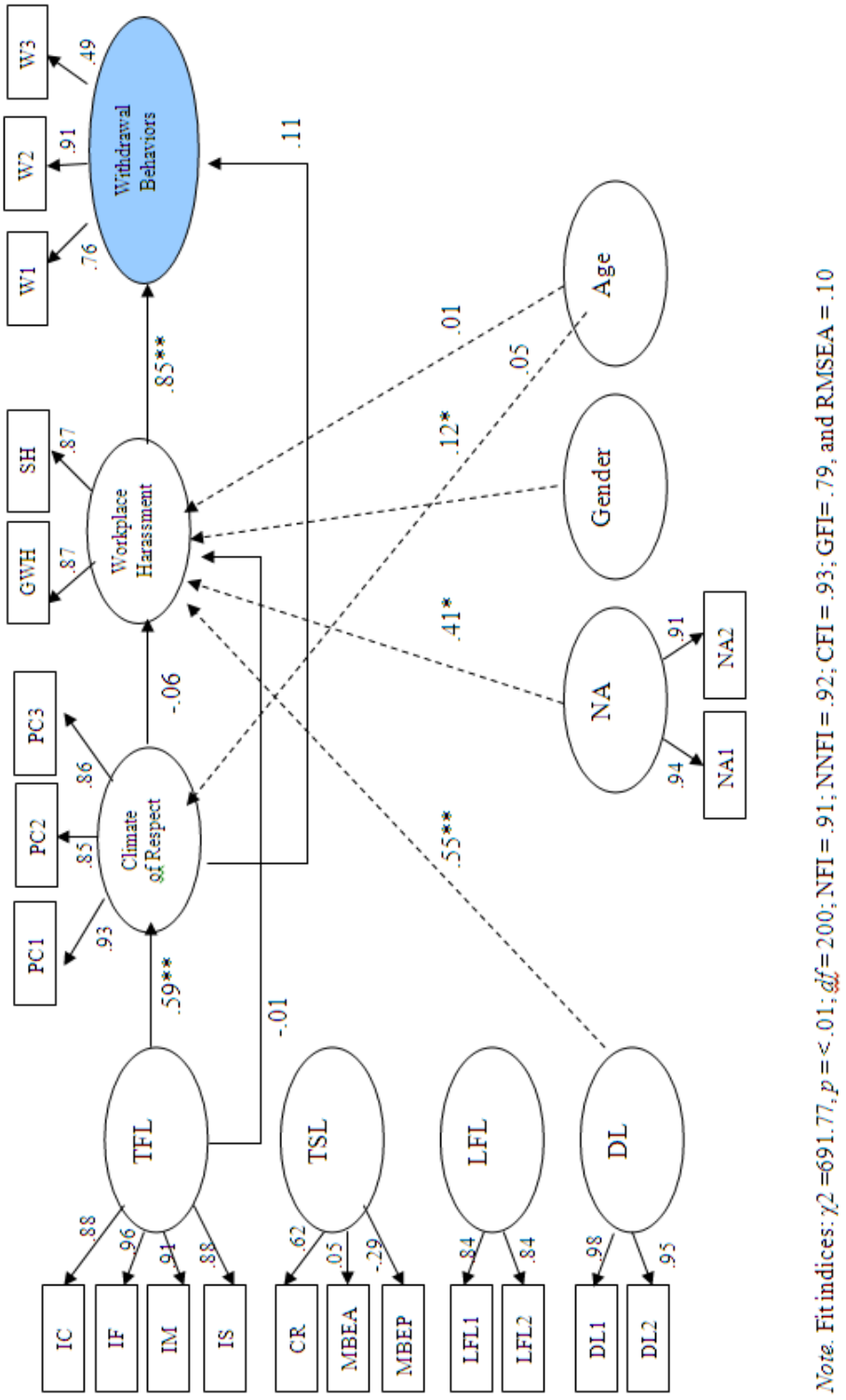

Figure 4.3. Results from the structural model for withdrawal behaviors.

Regarding organizational outcomes, workplace harassment was positively related to voluntary turnover rate (.33, $p < .01$); thus, Hypothesis 13b was supported. However, workplace harassment was not related to sales performance of firms (-.02, *ns*). Finally, Hypothesis 14 predicted that employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and withdrawal behaviors would be collectively related to small businesses' effectiveness. This hypothesis was supported (.61, $p < .01$). The results from the structural model for turnover rate and sales performance are displayed in Figure 4.4 and 4.5, respectively, and the results from the structural model for employee and organizational outcomes are presented in Figure 4.6.

In summary, among the four leadership styles (transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and destructive leadership), only destructive leadership was positively related to workplace harassment (Hypothesis 4) after controlling for the three other leadership styles (in this case, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership). The other leadership styles were not significantly related to workplace harassment. In relation to the psychological climate of respect, only transformational leadership was significantly positively related to it (Hypothesis 5a). However, the hypothesized relationship between the psychological climate of respect and workplace harassment was not supported. In terms of employee outcomes, workplace harassment was related to lowered affective commitment and increased job/work withdrawal (Hypotheses 9 and 11), but it was not related to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was significantly related to affective commitment to the organization (Hypothesis 10), and both job satisfaction and affective commitment were negatively related to job/work

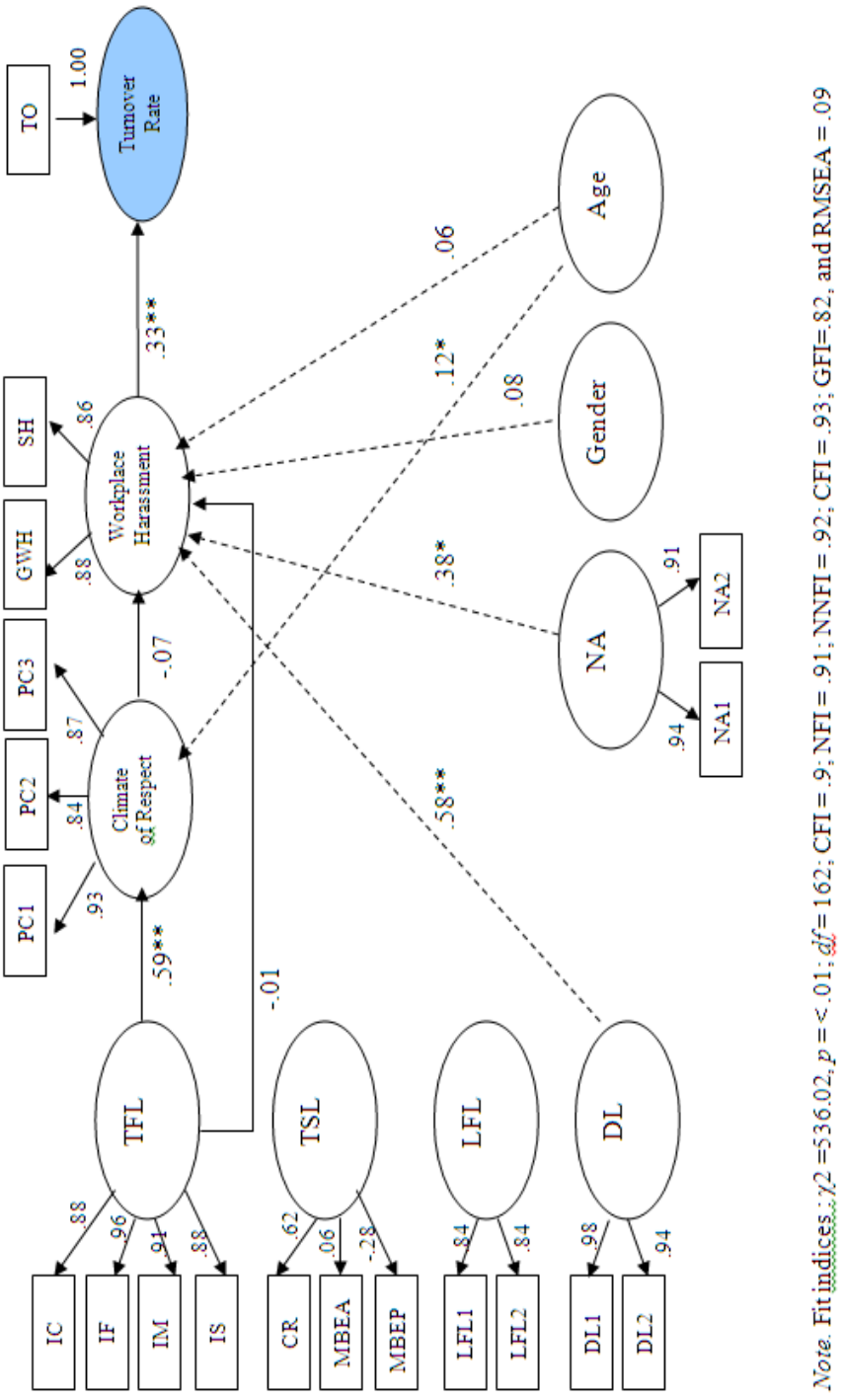

Figure 4.4. Results from the structural model for turnover rate.

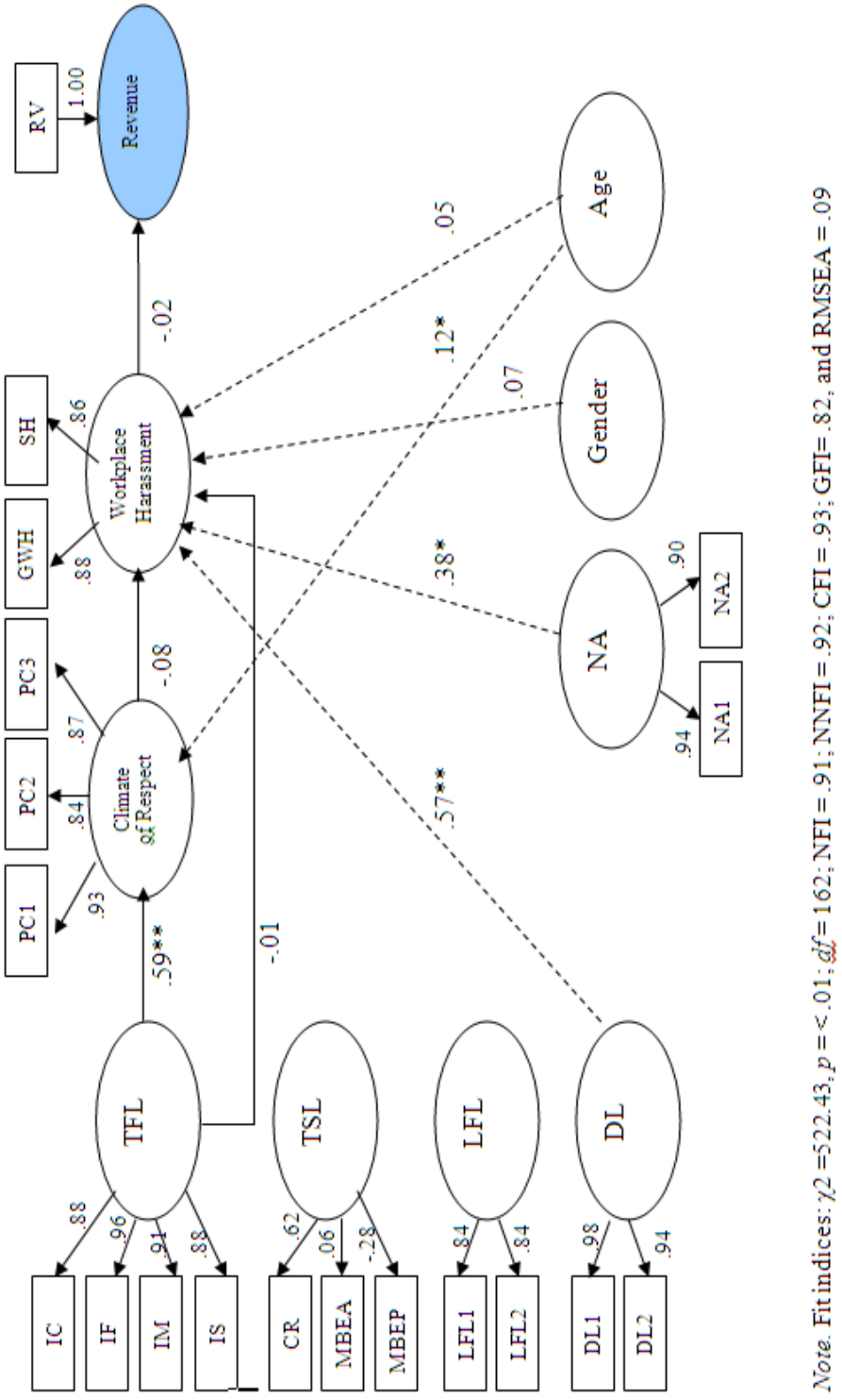

Figure 4.5. Results from the structural model for revenue (sales performance).

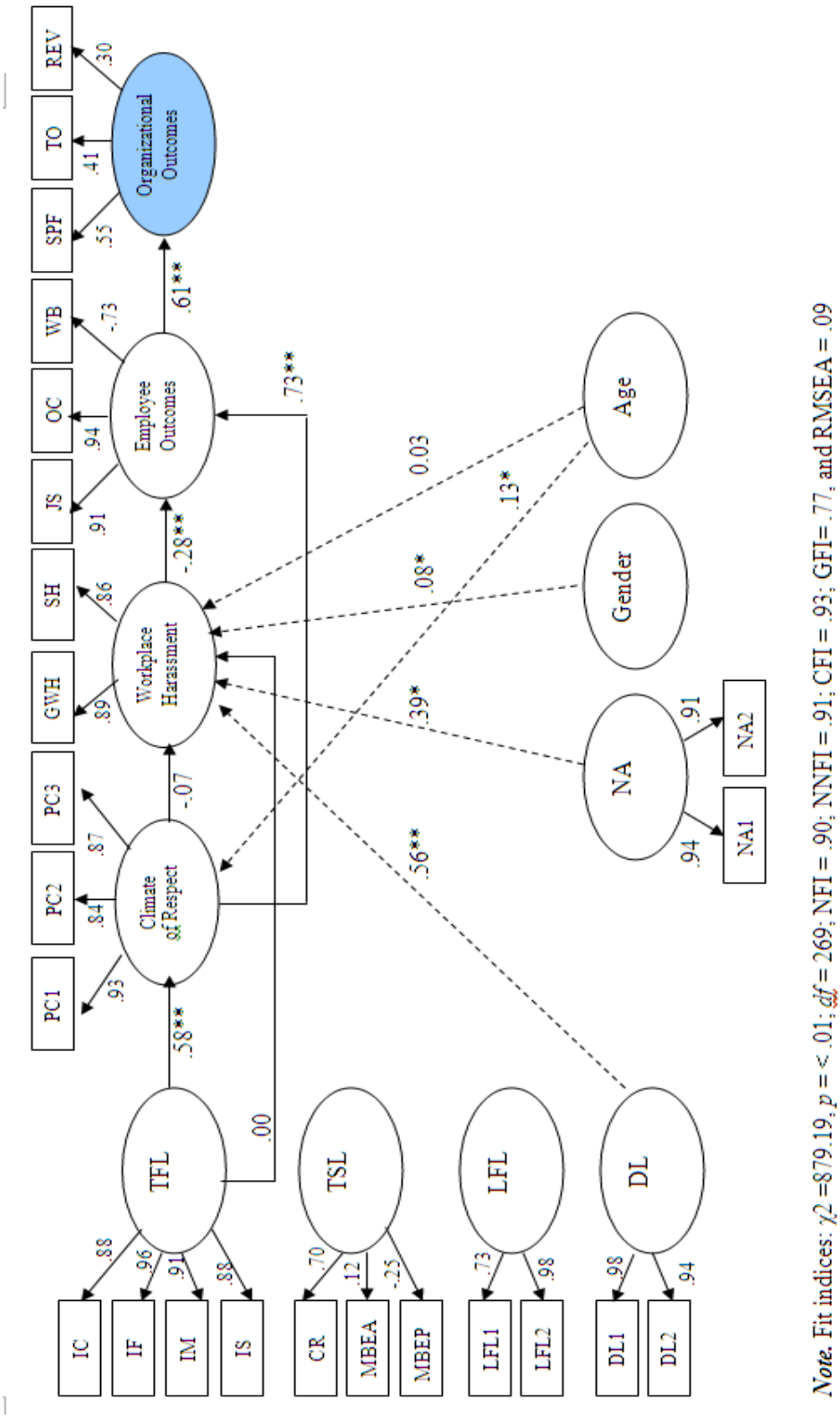

Figure 4.6. Results from the revised structural model for employee and organizational outcomes.

withdrawal (Hypothesis 12). For organizational outcomes, workplace harassment was positively related to the voluntary turnover rate (Hypothesis 13b) but not to sales performance of firms. Finally, employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and withdrawal behaviors were collectively related to small businesses' effectiveness (Hypothesis 14). A summary of the results regarding the tests of hypotheses is provided in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5
Summaries of Hypotheses Testing

No	Hypothesis	Supported
1	Transformational leadership behavior by immediate managers will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.	*No*
2	Transactional leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.	*No*
3	Laissez-faire leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.	*No*
4	Destructive leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.	*Yes*
5a	Transformational leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.	*Yes*
5b	Transactional leadership by immediate managers will be positively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.	*No*
5c	Laissez-faire leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.	*No*
5d	Destructive leadership by immediate managers will be negatively related to the psychological climate of respect for people in the organization.	*No*
6	The psychological climate of respect for people will be negatively related to levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.	*No*
7	The psychological climate of respect for people will mediate the relationship between immediate managers' leadership style and levels of harassment experienced by employees in the organization.	*No*
8	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization	*No*

No	Hypothesis	Supported
	will be negatively related to employees' job satisfaction.	
9	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be negatively related to employees' affective commitment to the organization.	*Yes*
10	Employees' job satisfaction will be significantly related to their affective commitment to the organization.	*Yes*
11	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be positively related to employees' job and work withdrawal behaviors.	*Yes*
12	Employees' job satisfaction and affective commitment to the organization will be negatively related to their work and job withdrawal behaviors.	*Yes*
13a	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be negatively related to the revenue of small businesses.	*No*
13b	Workplace harassment experienced by employees in the organization will be positively related to turnover rate in small businesses.	*Yes*
14	Collectively, employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and withdrawal behaviors will be significantly related to small businesses' effectiveness (i.e., revenue and turnover rate).	*Yes*

Ad-Hoc Analyses

The preceding analyses for testing formal hypotheses left two questions. First, the strong effects of negative affectivity on workplace harassment may suggest that negative affectivity was playing a more significant role than a mere control variable in this study. Thus, in the following ad-hoc analyses, I investigated negative affectivity as a moderator in the relationship between leadership styles and the psychological climate of respect. Second, although the approach of controlling for other leadership styles provides a useful insight into the effectiveness of leadership behaviors relating to workplace harassment, the separate effects of each individual leadership style remain unexplored. Thus, I conducted SEM analyses on each of the four leadership styles.

Negative Affectivity as a Moderator

Several scholars have argued that negative affectivity should not be treated as a control variable when studying a stressor-strain relationship (Spector, Zapf, Chen, & Frese, 2000) because negative affectivity influences individuals' perceptions of and responses to stressors or evokes negative reactions from others (e.g., Depue & Monroe, 1986; Moyle, 1995; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). To better understand the role negative affectivity played in this study, I conducted hierarchical linear regression for the effects of leadership style and negative affectivity interaction on the psychological climate of respect. All continuous variables were mean centered prior to analysis (Aiken & West, 1991), and gender and age were treated as covariates; gender and age accounted for significant variance in the psychological climate of respect, such that male participants reported higher levels of the climate of respect in their organization than female participants and older participants reported higher levels of the climate than younger participants. Individuals high on negative affectivity reported lower levels of the psychological climate of respect (M = 3.41) than individuals low on negative affectivity (M = 3.93).

Table 4.6 shows the regression results for the moderating effects of negative affectivity on the relationship between each of the four leadership styles and the psychological climate of respect. First, transformational leadership was positively related to the psychological climate of respect (β = .538, p < .01), and negative affectivity was negatively related to the psychological climate of respect (β = -.176, p < .01). Negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between supervisors' transformational leadership and individual employee perceptions of the climate (β = .012, *ns*). Second, transactional leadership was positively related to the psychological climate of respect (β =

.331, $p < .01$), and negative affectivity was negatively related to the psychological climate of respect ($\beta = -.361$, $p < .01$). Negative affectivity did not moderate the relationship between supervisors' transactional leadership and the psychological climate of respect ($\beta = .083$, *ns*). Third, laissez-faire leadership was not related to the psychological climate of respect ($\beta = -.041$, *ns*), while negative affectivity was negatively related to the psychological climate of respect ($\beta = -.378$, $p < .01$).

Table 4.6

Results from Hierarchical Regression Analyses on the Moderating Effects of Negative Affectivity on the Psychological Climate of Respect

Step	Item	β	R^2	ΔR^2	F
1	Gender	.146*	.063**		7.823**
	Age	.228**			
2	Gender	.112*	.397**	.334**	37.926**
	Age	.119*			
	Transformational leadership	.534**			
	Negative affectivity	-.176**			
3	Gender	.112*	.398**	.001	30.225**
	Age	.121*			
	Transformational leadership	.538**			
	Negative affectivity	-.176**			
	TFL x NA	.012			
1	Gender	.146*	.063**		7.823**
	Age	.228**			
2	Gender	.092	.215**	.152**	15.751**
	Age	.158**			
	Transactional leadership	.312**			
	Negative affectivity	-.333**			
3	Gender	.090	.221**	.006	12.992**
	Age	.164**			
	Transactional leadership	.331**			
	Negative affectivity	-.361**			
	TSL x NA	.083			
1	Gender	.146*	.063**		7.823**
	Age	.228**			
2	Gender	.127*	.128**	.065**	8.411**
	Age	.191**			
	Laissez-faire leadership	-.053			
	Negative affectivity	-.228**			
3	Gender	.107	.184**	.056**	10.327**
	Age	.175**			
	Laissez-faire leadership	.041			
	Negative affectivity	-.378**			
	LFL x NA	.273**			
1	Gender	.146*	.063**		7.823**
	Age	.228**			
2	Gender	.130*	.126**	.063**	8.322**
	Age	.191**			
	Destructive leadership	-.040			
	Negative affectivity	-.227**			
3	Gender	.123*	.185**	.059**	10.384**
	Age	.166**			
	Destructive leadership	-.202*			
	Negative affectivity	-.262**			
	DSL x NA	.303**			

Negative affectivity moderated the relationship between supervisors' laissez-faire leadership and employee perceptions of the climate (β = .273, p < .01). I examined the form of the interaction by plotting the interaction between laissez-faire leadership and the psychological climate of respect at high (one standard deviation above the mean) and low (one standard deviation below the mean) values of negative affectivity (Aiken & West, 1991). This relationship illustrates that when a supervisor frequently displayed behaviors consistent with laissez-faire leadership, employees low on negative affectivity reported lower levels of the climate of respect than when a supervisor displayed those behaviors less frequently. By contrast, employees high on negative affectivity reported higher levels of the climate of respect when a supervisor frequently displayed laissez-faire leadership than when a supervisor displayed it less frequently.

To further examine the pattern of the interaction (e.g., whether the regression weight for high [+1 SD] or low [-1 SD] values on negative affectivity was significantly different from zero), I also conducted simple slope tests. The result revealed that the simple slopes were significant and the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and the psychological climate was stronger for employees with high (b = .294, SE = .10, t = .376, p < .01) rather than low negative affectivity (b = -.231, SE = .071, t = -3.23, p < .01). The plotted interaction is shown in Figure 4.7.

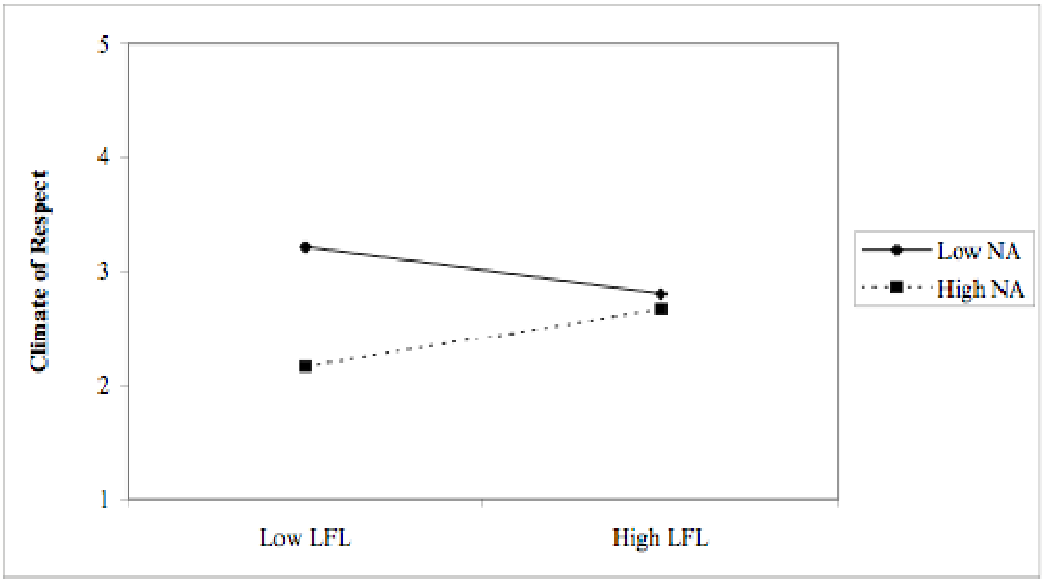

Figure 4.7. Interaction between laissez-faire leadership and negative affectivity on the psychological climate of respect. *t* test for simple slopes: b = -.231, SE = .071, $t(234)$ = -3.23, $p < .01$ for low NA; b = .294, SE = .10, $t(234)$ = .376, $p < .01$ for high NA.

Lastly, destructive leadership was negatively related to the psychological climate of respect (β = -.202, $p < .05$), and negative affectivity was negatively related to the psychological climate of respect (β = -.262, $p < .01$). Negative affectivity moderated the relationship between supervisors' laissez-faire leadership and individual employee perceptions of the climate (β = .303, $p < .01$). Following the same procedure, I plotted the interaction between destructive leadership and the psychological climate of respect at high and low values of negative affectivity. Figure 4.8 reveals that the relationship between destructive leadership and the psychological climate of respect was stronger for individuals with low negative affectivity than those with high negative affectivity. The simple slopes were significant, and the relationship between destructive leadership and the psychological climate was more strongly negative for employees with low (b = -.372, t = -3.564, $p < .001$) rather than high negative affectivity (b = .05, t = .762, p = .447). This indicates that people with high negative affectivity tend to perceive their work

environment in a negative way even when their supervisor does not display destructive leadership behaviors. As a result, at the low level of destructive leadership, people with high negative affectivity reported significantly lower levels of the psychological climate than people with low negative affectivity, and their perception did not change much at the high level of destructive leadership, while people with low negative affectivity reported lower levels of the psychological climate of respect.

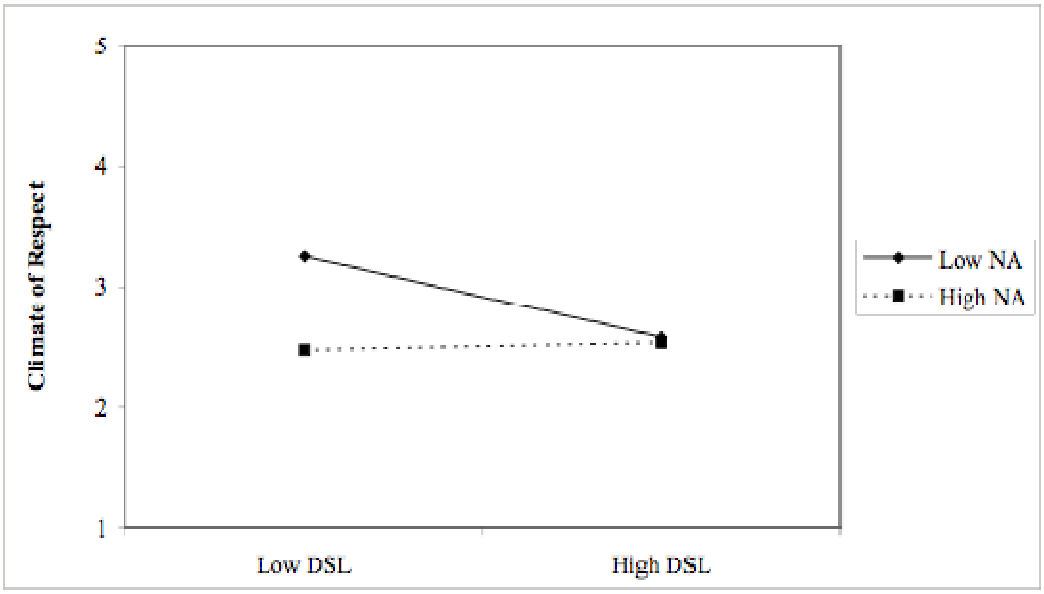

Figure 4.8. Interaction between destructive leadership and negative affectivity on the psychological climate of respect. *t* test for simple slopes: *b* = -.37, *SE* = .10, *t*(234) = -3.56, *p* < .001 for low NA; *b* = .05, SE = .65, *t*(234) = .76, *p* = .447 for high NA.

Individual Leadership Style Without Controlling for the Other Leadership Styles

Many published articles in the field of leadership have examined the effects of a specific individual leadership style relating to variables of interest, rather than simultaneously considering the effects of other leadership styles in the study (e.g., Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Judge & Bono, 2000; Kelloway et al., 2005; Tepper, 2007). This approach has the advantage of taking a focused look at the separate effects of each individual leadership style. Hence, I conducted SEM analyses on each of the four

leadership styles, only controlling for gender and age. Negative affectivity was not controlled in these analyses because the regression analyses revealed significant moderating effects of negative affectivity in the laissez-faire- and destructive leadership-workplace harassment link, suggesting it plays a role more important than just a covariate in the model of the study.

As a result of SEM analysis (Figure 4.9), transformational leadership was positively related to the psychological climate of respect (.59, $p < .01$), and the climate of respect was negatively related to workplace harassment (-.33, $p < .01$). In turn, workplace harassment was negatively related to employee outcomes (-.25, $p < .01$), which were positively connected with organizational outcomes (.62, $p < .01$). Yet, transformational leadership was not directly related to workplace harassment (-.01, *ns*). The fit statistics of this SEM model indicated an acceptable fit for the hypothesized model and were as follows: $\chi^2 = 326.56$, $p = < .01$, $df = 107$, NFI = .92, NNFI = .93, CFI = .94, GFI= .86, and RMSEA = .09.

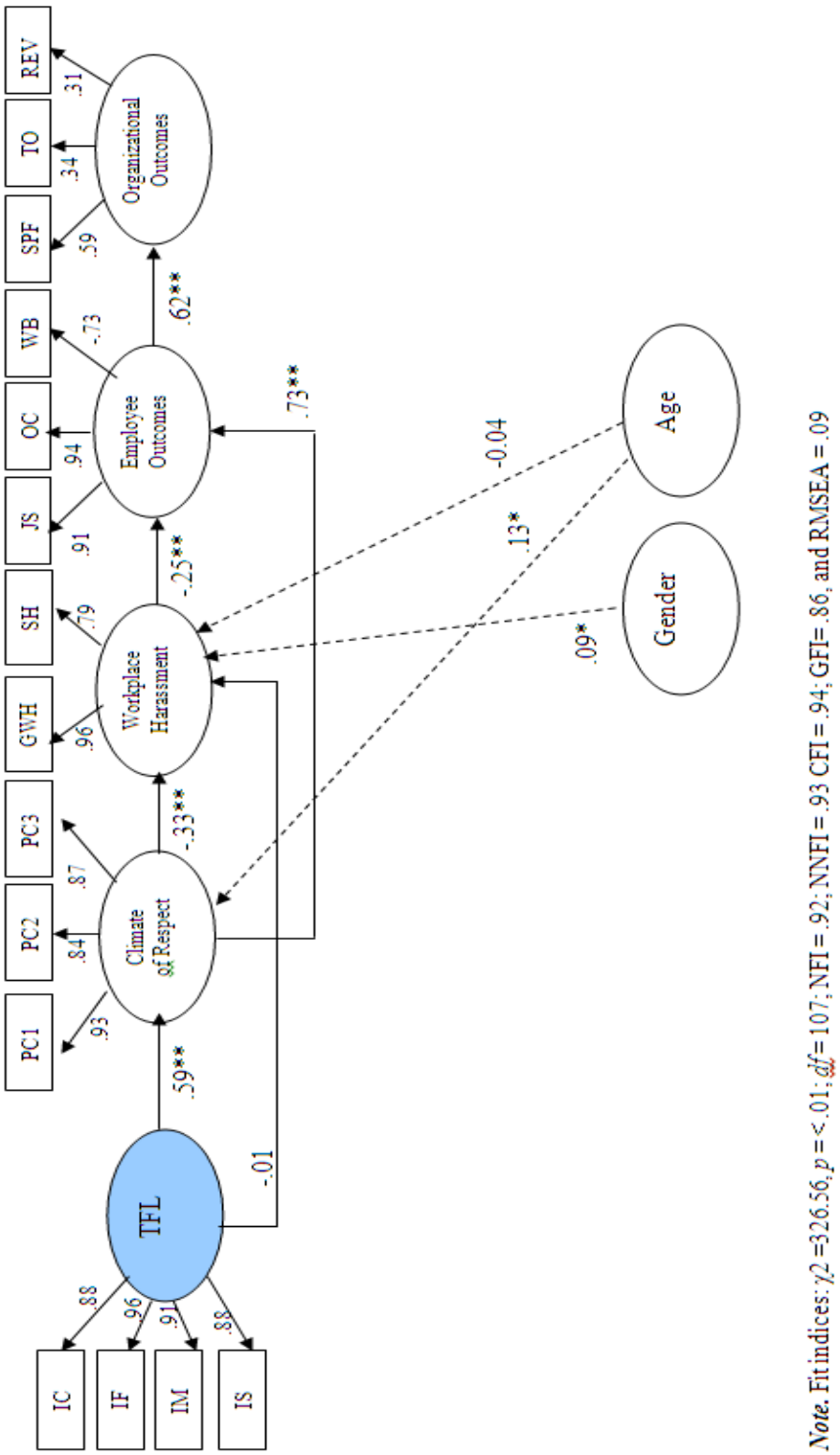

Figure 4.9. Results from the structural model without controlling for the other leadership styles: Transformational leadership.

To test whether or not the psychological climate of respect mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and workplace harassment, a bootstrap procedure was employed. Bootstrap analysis is a widely used resampling method that involves drawing a large number of bootstrap samples with replacement from the original data set and then estimating parameters in each bootstrap sample as in the original data. I chose this procedure because several researchers have suggested it to deal with the possibility of nonnormal distribution of the mediated effects, since it does not make distribution assumptions (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). Consistent with the literature on the testing of indirect, mediated effects through SEM and bootstrapping (Cheung & Lau, 2008), I specified 1,000 bootstrap samples using AMOS 6.0 (Arbuckle, 2006). The results showed that the indirect effect of transformational leadership on workplace harassment through the psychological climate of respect was significant (B = -.23, SE = .08, p < .01, 95% CI = -.464 to -.141). Thus, the psychological climate of respect partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and workplace harassment. Table 4.7 displays the results of testing the mediated effects through bootstrapping.

Table 4.7
Results of Mediating Effects of the Psychological Climate of Respect

Leadership type	*B*	*SE*	*P*	*95% CI*
Transformational	-.23	.08	.001	-.464 to -.141
Transactional	-.193	.483	.059	-.739 to .031
Laissez-faire	.028	.028	.182	-.012 to .104
Destructive	.02	.016	.066	-.001 to .70

Note: B = standardized indirect effect; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

For transactional leadership, the error variance of contingent reward was set to .11 (i.e., [1 – reliability] × variance = [1 – .833] × .66; Kline, 2005). Similar to transformational leadership, transactional leadership was positively related to the psychological climate of respect (.58, $p < .01$), and the climate of respect was negatively related to workplace harassment (-.30, $p < .01$). However, transactional leadership was not related to workplace harassment (-.07, *ns*). In turn, workplace harassment was negatively related to employee outcomes (-.25, $p < .01$), which were positively connected with organizational outcomes (.62, $p < .01$). The fit indices of the model were $\chi^2 = 422.07$, $p = < .01$, $df = 93$, NFI = .85, NNFI = .85, CFI = .88, GFI = .81, and RMSEA = .12. The results are displayed in Figure 4.10. The indirect effect of transactional leadership on workplace harassment through the psychological climate of respect was not significant ($B = -.193$, $SE = .483$, $p = .059$, 95% $CI = -.739$ to .031). Thus, the mediational path did not exist.

Laissez-faire leadership (Figure 4.11) was negatively related to the psychological climate of respect (-.19, $p < .05$), and the climate of respect was negatively related to workplace harassment (-.19, $p < .05$). Further, laissez-faire leadership was directly positively related to workplace harassment (.51, $p < .01$). In turn, workplace harassment was negatively related to employee outcomes (-.24, $p < .01$), which were positively connected with organizational outcomes (.64, $p < .01$). The fit indices of the model were $\chi^2 = 278.29$, $p = < .01$, $df = 78$, NFI = .88, NNFI = .88, CFI = .91, GFI = .86, and RMSEA = .10. The indirect effect of laissez-faire leadership on workplace harassment through the psychological climate of respect was not significant ($B = .028$, $SE = .028$, $p = .182$, 95% $CI = -.012$ to .104). Thus, laissez-faire leadership was directly related to workplace harassment, not mediated by climate.

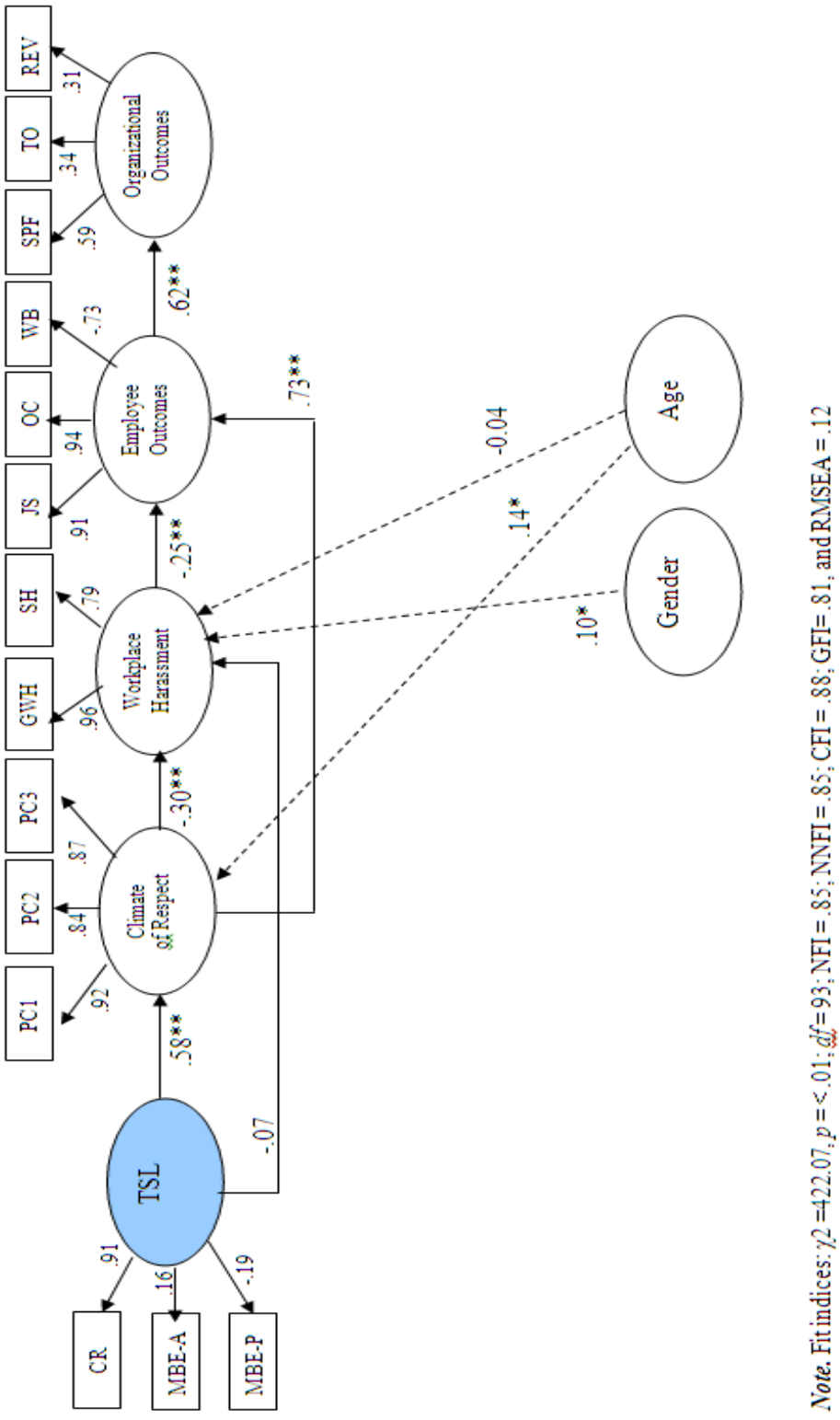

Figure 4.10. Results from the structural model without controlling for the other leadership styles: Transactional leadership.

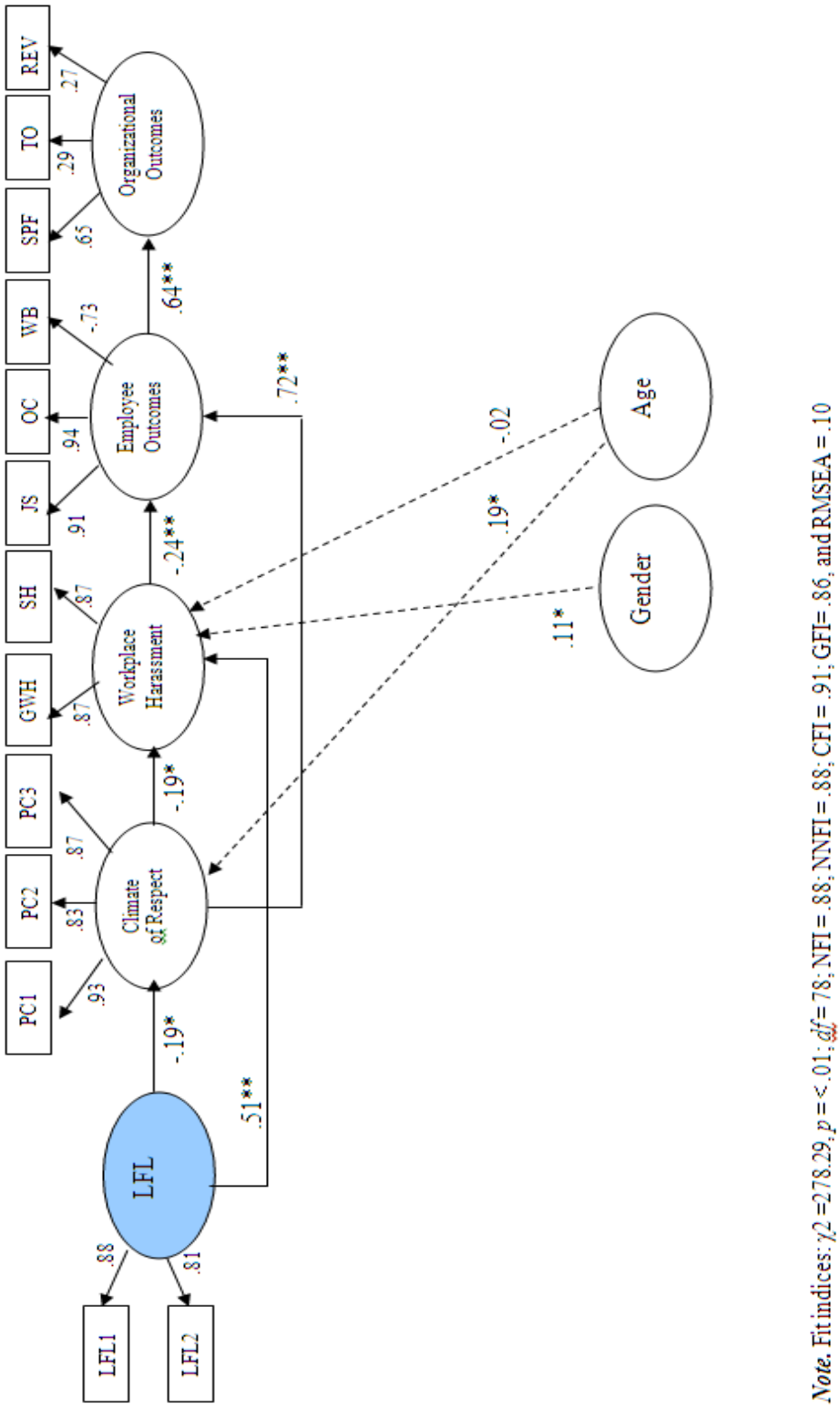

Figure 4.11. Results from the structural model without controlling for the other leadership styles: Laissez-faire leadership.

Lastly, destructive leadership was negatively related to the psychological climate of respect (-.19, $p < .05$), and the climate of respect was negatively related to workplace harassment (-.12, $p < .05$). Further, destructive leadership was strongly positively related to workplace harassment (.81, $p < .01$). Workplace harassment, in turn, was negatively related to employee outcomes (-.24, $p < .01$), which were positively connected with organizational outcomes (.63, $p < .01$). The fit indices of the model were χ^2 =283.75, p = < .01, df = 78, NFI = .90, NNFI = .90, CFI = .93, GFI = .86, and RMSEA = .10. The indirect effect of destructive leadership on workplace harassment through the psychological climate of respect was not significant (B = .02, SE = .016, p = .066, 95% CI = -.001 to .70). Thus, destructive leadership was directly related to workplace harassment, not mediated by climate. The results of the SEM are displayed in Figure 4.12.

In summary, negative affectivity moderated the relationship between destructive leadership and the psychological climate of respect, such that the relationship was stronger for individuals with low negative affectivity than those with high negative affectivity. Further, results of SEM analyses on individual leadership style without controlling for the other leadership styles reveal that the directionalities of the relationships between each leadership style and workplace harassment and the psychological climate were partially consistent with hypotheses: Transformational and transactional leadership styles were positively related to the psychological climate of

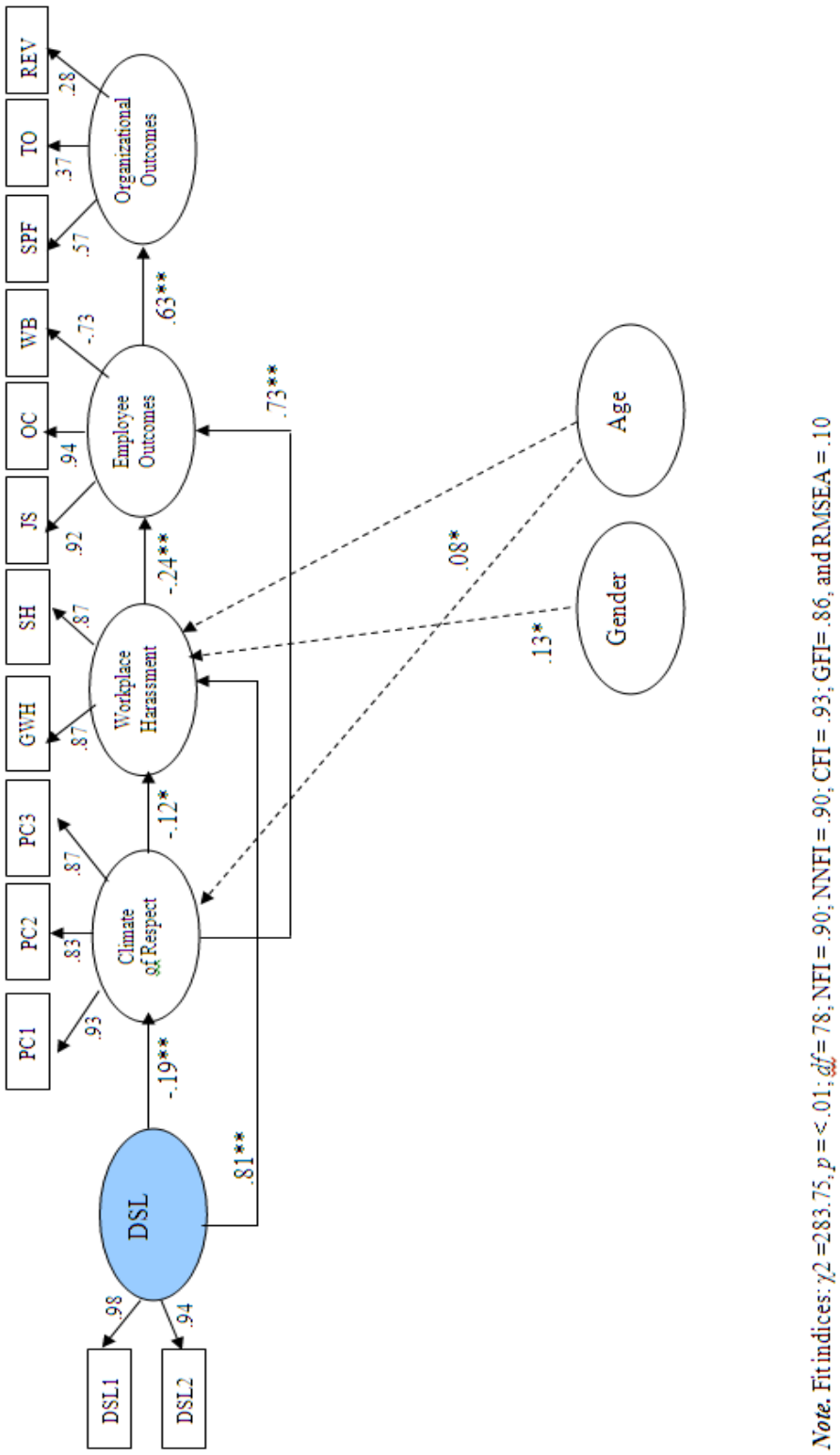

Figure 4.12. Results from the structural model without controlling for the other leadership styles: Destructive leadership.

respect. Laissez-faire and destructive leadership styles were negatively related to the psychological climate of respect and were positively related to workplace harassment. However, transformational and transactional leadership were not related to workplace harassment. Further, while the psychological climate of respect significantly (partially) mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and workplace harassment, it did not mediate any of the relationships between transactional, laissez-faire, and destructive leadership and workplace harassment. Finally, workplace harassment was negatively related with employee outcomes, which in turn were positively related to organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER 5:

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to examine the differential effects of leadership styles on the incidence of workplace harassment, the mediating role of the psychological climate of respect in the leadership-harassment relationship, and the resulting consequences for individuals and organizations. Recruiting a sample of 239 pairs of employees and coworkers from various industries and areas in the US small businesses with less than 500 employees, the study tested the hypothesized relationships using structural equation modeling (SEM) and hierarchical linear regression. The results of these analyses partially supported the predictions made in the study. In particular, the SEM post hoc analyses focusing on the separate effects of individual leadership style were found to be largely consistent with hypotheses of the model. In the following section, I provide a summary that highlights important findings from the analyses.

Summary of Findings

One of the most important findings in the study is that supervisors' transformational leadership behaviors are related to lower levels of harassment in the organization as a function of individual employees' positive perceptions of the climate of respect for people. This indicates that the climate of respect may be another important type of climate that is influenced by transformational leadership, with other examples being service climate (Liao & Chung, 2007) and safety climate (Barling et al., 2002). The finding that transactional leadership has no effect on the climate of respect and workplace harassment seems interesting. Previous work has shown that transactional leadership is

comparable with transformational leadership in terms of its effectiveness (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Walumbwa et al., 2008). However, this study found that transformational leadership would be more effective in deterring employees from harassing others in organizations than transactional leadership.

Destructive leadership was strongly positively related to workplace harassment, and this remained the same even when the other three leadership styles were controlled for. This finding indicates that although supervisors may sometimes display positive behaviors consistent with transformational and transactional leadership, if they also engage in abusing and humiliating employees, the harmful impact of those behaviors may cancel out some of the effects of their positive leadership behaviors—in particular, transactional leadership. Ad-hoc analyses show that although transactional leadership was significantly related to the climate when the other leadership styles were not considered, once the other leadership styles were controlled for (i.e., destructive leadership was controlled for), transactional leadership was no longer related to climate. By contrast, transformational leadership remained significantly related to climate after controlling for other leadership styles. This suggests that the positive effects of transactional leadership on creating the climate of respect may be nullified by the strong negative impact of destructive leadership, whereas transformational leadership may still remain a positive influence. Thus, while transformational leadership and transactional leadership are seemingly alike in terms of effectiveness, they manifest their differences when other leadership styles are taken into consideration.

Laissez-faire leadership was directly related to higher levels of workplace harassment. The negative effects of laissez-faire leadership on the climate of respect and

workplace harassment are comparable to those of destructive leadership in terms of the effect size, suggesting that laissez-faire leaders may be as harmful as destructive leaders. This finding adds additional convincing evidence to the emerging stream of research on the substantial negative consequences of passive types of leadership (e.g., Einarsen et al., 2007; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Skogstad et al., 2007).

With regard to individual and organizational outcomes, workplace harassment was related to lower levels of affective commitment and increased levels of job/work withdrawal, consistent with prior literature (Cortina et al., 2001; Fitzgerald at al., 1997; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007; Willness et al., 2007). Moreover, workplace harassment was positively related to the voluntary turnover rate but not to the sales performance of small firms. The insignificant relationship between workplace harassment and sales performance may be because the sales performance of small businesses tends to be easily affected by other external factors not included in the study, such as the economic situation, competitiveness of industry, and stages of the business life cycle.

Theoretical Implications

The results of the study have several important theoretical implications. First, this study extended and tested leadership theory in the workplace harassment context. Although scholars have long examined antecedents of workplace harassment, the role of immediate supervisors has not been well understood to date. Building on relevant theories, this study empirically demonstrated that different leadership behaviors displayed by supervisors differentially affect employees' experience of workplace harassment. The study provided comprehensive analyses of the effects of individual leadership style, both with and without consideration of the influence of other leadership styles. Because

different leadership types can be present within the same person, it is important to examine multiple types of leadership together (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). This seems especially true in studying leadership in connection with workplace harassment because the effects of certain types of leadership are differently manifested under the simultaneous influence of other leadership styles. Therefore, the most appropriate way of examining the role of leadership in preventing or promoting workplace harassment would be to examine the concomitant effects of all relevant leadership styles. In this regard, the current study goes beyond the extant literature that has exclusively focused on one specific type of leadership without simultaneously considering other leadership styles.

On a separate note, the focus on individual leadership style in prior theory and empirical research may explain why the results from the SEM analyses without controlling for other leadership styles were more consistent with the hypotheses of the study. The hypotheses were developed based upon evidence accumulated in this tradition of leadership research. Future researchers should pay special attention to the implications of the specific theory or context they are interested in examining in order to determine the most appropriate way of investigating the effects of leadership.

Second, this study introduced and examined individual employee perceptions of the climate of respect for people as a potential mediating mechanism in the leadership-harassment relationship. Based upon the argument that organizational climate arises out of individuals' cognitive appraisals, social interactions, and sense-making (James & James, 1989; Schneider, 1983) of leaders and practices (Litwin & Stringer, 1968), the study showed that leaders affected employees' evaluations and expectations of the ways

to treat each other in the organization through modeling and observations, in turn, influencing the occurrence of workplace harassment. The investigation of the abstract and perceptual nature of climate, differentiated from the visible and quantifiable characteristics of organizations such as policies, procedures, and gender composition, is important because this aspect of climate has not been systematically incorporated into harassment research. For example, Miner-Rubino and Cortina (2007) attempted to assess a climate of hostility by combining an incivility measure and a sexual harassment measure to predict individual outcomes, but what they actually measured was observed workplace harassment, not a climate as a distinctive antecedent of workplace harassment. Further, the extant literature has tended to focus on objective features of organizations such as gender ratio and organizational tolerance captured by organizational policies and practices regarding sanctions against offenders and handling complaints (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1997). Thus, the finding on significant mediating role of the climate of respect in the transformational leadership-harassment relationship suggests that studies on workplace harassment will greatly benefit from using the climate literature.

Third, the current study contributed to the leadership literature by adding employees' harassing behaviors to a list of important employee outcomes associated with leadership. As the conception of performance broadens to include contextual performance and counterproductive workplace behaviors (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Sackett & DeVore, 2001), the exclusive focus on task performance cannot provide a complete picture of employee outcomes affected by leadership. This study has revealed that interpersonal types of counterproductive behaviors such as workplace harassment may serve as a meaningful indicator of leadership effectiveness, which also has bearing

on individual and organizational effectiveness. Thus, future research should continue to look into a variety of outcomes including workplace harassment-related variables in studies of leadership effectiveness.

Fourth, the study added critical evidence from the small business sector to the research on the negative impacts of workplace harassment on organizations' bottom line. This study purposefully targeted small businesses to directly examine the relationship between workplace harassment and firm performance and showed that workplace harassment had detrimental effects on the effectiveness of small businesses through increased voluntary turnover. The levels of voluntary turnover in small businesses were collectively affected by decreased employee job satisfaction, decreased organizational commitment, and increased turnover intentions. The generalizability of these findings is enhanced by the fact that respondents of the study came from a variety of small firms in terms of individual demographics, industry types, legal structures, and areas in the US. Hence, the study contributes to promoting our knowledge about the linkage between individual-level harassment experiences and organizational-level turnover rates and thus provides implications for employee retention strategies in small businesses.

While the negative relationship between workplace harassment and turnover rates logically extends to the adverse impact of harassment on firms' financial performance (i.e., sales performance), this study failed to find support for this relationship. The absence of the effects of harassment on firm-level sales performance may be related to the measures of firm performance used in the current study (i.e., reports were prone to bias from the respondent) or other variables influencing the cross-level relationship of individual-level harassment and organizational-level sales performance that were not

considered in the study. For instance, previous studies investigating the effects of harassment on financial performance utilized profit/loss measures directly obtained from company records, and their investigations were limited to the team or business unit level (e.g., Detert et al., 2007; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Raver & Gelfand, 2005). Given a lack of research on firm performance relating to workplace harassment, more attention to organizational-level outcomes is warranted.

Lastly, although examining negative affectivity as a moderator in the leadership-climate relationship was not part of formal hypotheses, this study provides evidence that negative affectivity should not be controlled for when studying stressors such as harassment (Spector et al., 2000). For individuals with low negative affectivity, the relationship between destructive leadership and the climate of respect was stronger than for those with high negative affectivity. The mechanism behind this relationship was not explored because it was out of the scope of the study. I speculate that because high negative affectivity individuals tend to experience dissatisfaction across time and situations (Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989) or may experience conflict with others more often than their low negative affectivity counterparts (Depue & Monroe, 1986), their perceptions regarding how they are treated by others in the organization are already negative and thereby less likely to affect their reactions to destructive leadership. Future research is warranted on this topic. It is also recommended that researchers provide more explicit theory regarding the role of negative affectivity if it is controlled for in their study, rather than simply following the convention of "blindly adding it as a control in the hope that it will purify results" (Spector & Bannick, 2010, p. p.17).

Practical Implications

This study has practical implications for organizations seeking to reduce workplace harassment. First, the present work highlights immediate supervisors' leadership behavior as an important correlate of workplace harassment. Organizations should, therefore, be aware of the salience of supervisors as a role model of displaying respectful interactions among organizational members and creating a civil work environment. Hence, organizations should monitor managers' behaviors toward employees and guide them to acquire and implement effective leadership skills. For example, individualized concern, a core dimension of transformational leadership, can be oriented toward showing concern for the interpersonal treatment employees receive in the organization, sensing potential harassment incidents, and intervening in a proactive manner. Such timely intervention by supervisors is critical because subtle types of interpersonal conflict can easily escalate into more violent types of aggression (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). To do so, it is important for supervisors to make it a regular practice to speak with employees and ask them about their working environment to make sure it stays harassment free. Furthermore, when handling grievances regarding workplace harassment, supervisors should take all complaints seriously and perform a thorough investigation following due processes (with help from HR personnel when it is available). Thus, supervisors should be well informed of organizational policies and processes for reporting and investigating complaints about harassment. Finally, given the positive effects of laissez-faire and destructive leadership on workplace harassment, when organizations notice a manager displaying these leadership styles toward

employees, they should take swift action to stop him/her from exhibiting those behaviors, thereby deterring others from engaging in similar behaviors.

Second, the significant mediating role of the climate of respect in the transformational leadership-workplace harassment relationship suggests that a climate of respect provides a strategic focus, enabling organizations to effectively guide employee behaviors to create a civil work environment. To enhance employees' positive perceptions of the climate of respect, organizations should value and emphasize the importance of respectful treatment among employees. This can be done through specifying appropriate organizational behaviors, while highlighting a zero tolerance rule for harassing behaviors, as part of an employee handbook, antiharassment policy, or corporate credo. Yet, organizational efforts to implement those policies are more critical (Williams et al., 1999). Thus, organizations should develop and execute orientation programs, employee training, and leadership development dedicated to creating a work environment where individuals treat each other with dignity and respect. Further, organizations should strive to consistently apply their specific policies and procedures regarding workplace harassment to decisions on the allocation of rewards and punishment (e.g., promotions or demotions, positive or negative performance ratings, and discussions with the manager). This will help to signal organizational intolerance of harassment to individuals, thereby preventing them from engaging in harassing behaviors (Hulin et al, 1996). Finally, given that employee perceptions of the manager (supervisor) serve as the filter through which organizational efforts are translated, managers should possess attitudes and display behaviors that can elicit employees' positive evaluations regarding how much the organization cares about employees' dignity and well-being. To

take an example of transformational leadership, in order to promote the climate of respect for people, managers should demonstrate behaviors such as presenting an ideal vision of how individuals should treat each other in workplace, appealing to their higher values and thus encouraging respectful interactions among employees, and promoting ethical policies and procedures. Moreover, it is important that managers actually carry out what they say, minimizing a discrepancy between stated desires and perceived practices. For example, if they say they promote respectful workplace but do not discipline or punish people who engage in harassment, this will foster a hostile work workplace. Therefore, managers should develop congruence between their espoused theories of action and theories-in-use (Agyris, 1980), minimizing the gap between enacted and espoused climate (Zohar, 2010).

Third, this study has a number of meaningful implications for small businesses. The significant relationship found between workplace harassment and voluntary turnover rate suggests that small businesses need to create a pleasant working environment where harassment issues do not become a reason for leaving the organization. This is especially crucial given that small businesses usually have difficulties attracting and retaining people and human capital is a key factor to their success. However, creating an environment free from harassment may not be an easy task for small firms because of their limited resources and informality in the HR department and HR practices (Cardon & Stevens, 2004; Hornsby & Kuratko, 1990; Kotey & Slade, 2005). These circumstances make managers' leadership a more critical factor for determining the success of organizational efforts to stop workplace harassment in small businesses. Hence, small businesses should actively utilize their managers to set the right tone for a climate of

respect for people in the organization. Thus, all the recommendations from the earlier discussion on leadership apply here as well. Besides, small businesses should carefully screen out potential harassers by using valid staffing processes when selecting employees, such as seeking multiple references and conducting a background check for a history of harassment. This can be done through a more cautious approach by managers or outside help (e.g., outsourcing) when the firm lacks HR function.

Limitations

Several issues remain to be addressed in future research. First, the data used in the study were derived from a cross-sectional design. Longitudinal data are needed if inferences about causal or mediational relationships between leadership, harassment, and outcome variables are to be firmly made. However, given the nascent stages of the literature that examines leadership relating to workplace harassment, a cross-sectional study can be used as a first effective step (Spector, 1994). Moreover, the focus of the study was examining the general patterns of relationships among leadership, the climate of respect, workplace harassment, and consequences to employees and organizations, rather than confirming the sequence of each variable in the respective relationships. To facilitate logical interpretation of the study model, I maintained a temporal alignment between leadership and workplace harassment by qualifying employees' experiences of harassment as "while working with your supervisor" in the survey question. This allowed me to interpret the results in a way consistent with theory, such that supervisors' leadership behaviors observed while employees worked with them were related to their experiences of workplace harassment during the same period of time. Moreover, based on the average 5-year tenure among the employees and their supervisors, it is logical to

conclude that employees' experiences of harassment in the past 5 years were likely to affect the voluntary turnover rate of their small firms in the past 3 years (2007-2009).

Second, the psychological climate of respect, workplace harassment, and individual outcomes were all assessed by employees' (i.e., focal respondents) self-report within one time period; thus, the observed relationships might have been inflated by common-source bias. However, the use of self-reports in studying harassment often requires the same individual to respond to questions whose answers cannot be provided by others (Goldman, Gutek, Stein, & Lewis, 2006). To minimize common-source bias, I placed questions regarding outcome variables at the beginning of the survey, followed by climate and workplace harassment questions (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Also note that common-source bias was not a problem in predicting the leadership-climate relationship because the four leadership styles were assessed by invited coworkers, not focal respondents. Future researchers should strive to supplement self-report data by combining surveys, role-playing studies, and experiments in both laboratory and field settings.

Third, although the use of objective outcome measures (i.e., sales performance and turnover rate) was appropriate, data from coworkers may be less accurate than from HR personnel or senior managers of their organizations. However, given the sensitive nature of survey items regarding workplace harassment, this was a trade-off between confidentiality and accuracy. I thought that ensuring confidentiality of the data was more critical, because if respondents knew their HR department or supervisors would be contacted for the survey, they may not have provided honest answers out of a fear of being identified and punished. In addition, the potential for low response rates was high if

participants were asked to refer their HR personnel or supervisor, and that was another reason why I collected data on organizational outcomes from coworkers. The use of archival data on sales performance was not available, as I did not ask the name of the company respondents worked for in order to maintain complete anonymity of respondents' identity. Nonetheless, future researchers should strive to develop creative ways of obtaining objective measures on individual and organizational outcomes. One way of doing so would be to use the industry data on average sales performance to create a new indicator of each firm's sales performance using a Likert scale.

Fourth, the results of the SEM analyses revealed marginal fitness between the hypothesized model and the data. One possible reason would be the use of sales performance and voluntary turnover rates. Although these measures have frequently been used in studies of small business, they may not be the best indicators of organizational outcomes, particularly when examining the organizational effectiveness during the recession that has been in progress since December 2007. However, given the difficulty of assessing organization-level outcomes, the support for hypothesized relationships suggests that the results of the study are promising.

Future Research Directions

One fruitful avenue for future research is to examine the role of organizational leadership (CEO or top management) along with immediate supervisors in the context of workplace harassment. CEOs may have a stronger impact on individual employees in small firms than in larger firms because of the smaller number of employees and increased opportunities to interact with them. Further, compared with immediate supervisors, CEOs may have a more powerful impact on employee behaviors due to their

greater position power. Additionally, since founders usually exert strong influence in shaping the norms of the organization, affecting both employee and managerial behaviors (Ogbonna & Harris, 2001; Schein, 1983), it would be interesting to examine the effects of founders. In relation to founder effects, the business life cycle and the size of the firms may provide a useful insight into understanding workplace harassment issues in the organizations.

Another promising area for future research is to examine a trickle-down model of leadership in terms of workplace harassment—how leadership flows from top levels of management to immediate supervisors and employees. Research on the cascading effect of leadership (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Bass, 1990; Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Webb, 1987) suggests that the influence of top management on employee behavior in organizations tends to be indirect through immediate supervisors. For instance, Mayer and colleagues (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009) showed that the effects of top management's ethical leadership on employees' deviant behaviors (e.g., taking property from work without permission or coming in late to work without permission) were mediated by supervisory ethical leadership. This stream of research generally suggests that if top management wants the effects of their commitment to ending workplace harassment to flow down to employees, they should be able to effectively utilize their frontline supervisors, who play a prominent role in influencing employees' behavior. Thus, examining a trickle-down model of leadership with regard to workplace harassment will shed light on leadership processes across top, middle, and line managers that affect the occurrence of harassing behaviors.

Finally, this study was primarily interested in individual-level perceptions associated with reports of workplace harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Hulin et al., 1996). Future researchers should extend the findings of the psychological climate of respect for people to the team or organizational level by investigating the organizational climate of respect. To do so, researchers should first examine whether there is consensus among individual perceptions regarding how the organization cares about employee dignity and well-being. If consensus exists, then researchers can examine the relationship between shared perceptions of the climate of respect among group members (i.e., organizational climate of respect) and employees' experiences of harassment at the team or organization level. The multilevel investigation may also shed light on the mechanism behind the relationship between workplace harassment and firms' overall performance. Although a few scholars have studied harassment issues in the context of teams or business units (e.g., Detert et al., 2007; Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Lim et al., 2008; Raver & Gelfand, 2005), a multilevel theoretical framework and empirical evidence regarding the organization level are relatively scant. Thus, more research on multilevel issues is warranted.

Conclusion

Even though scholars have long examined antecedents affecting the incidence of workplace harassment, immediate supervisors have been little researched to date. Drawing from the leadership, social learning, and harassment theories and empirical evidence, I hypothesized and found that transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and destructive leadership have differential relationships with incidents of harassment in small businesses. The results also suggest that individual employees' perceptions

regarding the climate of respect for people in the organization mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and workplace harassment. Thus, organizations should be aware of the significant relationship between leadership behaviors and workplace harassment and strive to create a pleasant and productive work environment where employees feel they are treated with dignity and respect by others. This, in turn, will relate to positive employee attitudes and behaviors, reducing the voluntary turnover rates of small businesses. Therefore, this study provides important implications to small businesses with regard to their employee retention strategies by highlighting the relationships among immediate managers' leadership, employees' perceptions of the climate of respect, and workplace harassment.

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APPENDIX :

SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

Leadership Behavior

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X; Bass & Avolio, 1997)
*Due to copyright restrictions of the MLQ, three of these items are presented.

1. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.
2. My manger tells me what I've done wrong rather than what I've done right.
3. My manager takes no action even when problems become chronic.

(1= *not at all* to 5 = *frequently or always*).

Destructive Leadership (Abusive Supervision;Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007)

Please use the 5-point scale to indicate how frequently your immediate supervisor performs the following behaviors. Your responses are anonymous and confidential; please be honest.

1 = "I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me."
2 = "He/she very seldom uses this behavior with me."
3 = "He/she occasionally uses this behavior with me."
4 = "He/she uses this behavior moderately often with me."
5 = "He/she uses this behavior very often with me."

My boss

1. Ridicules me.
2. Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.
3. Gives me the silent treatment.
4. Puts me down in front of others.
5. Tells me I'm incompetent.

Psychological Climate of Respect for People

Concern for employees (Chuang & Liao, 2010)

1. The organization strongly considers employees' goals and values.
2. Help is available from the organization when employees have a problem.
3. The organization really cares about my well-being.
4. The organization would forgive an honest mistake on employees' part.
5. The organization is willing to help employees when they need a special favor.
6. If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of employees. (R)
7. The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)

8. The organization cares about employees' opinion.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

Items crated for the study

1. Overall, the organization values fair and respectful interpersonal treatment among employees.
2. People around here are expected to treat others with respect.
3. The organization emphasizes the importance of treating employees with respect.
4. In this organization, uncivil or attacking behaviors are not discouraged. (R)

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

Workplace Harassment

Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001)

While you are working for the current supervisor, how often have you been in a situation where any of your superiors or coworkers:

1. Put you down or was condescending to you?
2. Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?
3. Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?
5. Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie?
6. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility?
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters?

(0 = *never* to 4 = *many times*)

Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ-R; Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999)

While you are working for the current supervisor, how often have you been in a situation where a supervisor or coworker. . .

1. told offensive sexual stories or jokes?
2. made unwelcome attempts to draw you into discussion of sexual matters?
3. treated you differently because of your sex?
4. made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities?
5. made gestures or used body language of a sexual nature that offended you?
6. displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials?
7. made offensive sexist remarks?
8. made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage him?
9. continued to ask you for dates, drinks, dinner, etc., even though you said "No"?
10. made you feel like you were being bribed with a reward to engage in sexual behavior?

11. made you feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative?
12. touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable?
13. made unwanted attempts to stroke, fondle, or kiss you?
14. treated you badly for refusing to have sex?
15. implied better treatment if you were sexually cooperative?
16. put you down or was condescending to you because of your sex?

(1= *never* to 5 =*once a week or more*)

Employee outcomes

Overall job satisfaction (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979)

Below is a list of statements about your attitudes regarding your work and job. Please indicate your level of agreements based on the following scales.

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job. (R)
3. In general, I like working here.

Affective Commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

(1= *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

Work Withdrawal (Unfavorable job behaviors) (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990)

1. Using the work phone for personal calls.
2. Being unconcerned about personal appearance or manners at work.
3. Making excuses to get out of work.
4. Doing poor quality work.
5. Using equipment for personal purposes without permission.
6. Drinking or using illicit drugs after work because of things that occur at work.

*(*0 = *never,* 2 = *maybe once a year,* 3= *two or three times a year,* 4 = *once a week)*

Job Withdrawal (Turnover intentions) (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979)

1. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year.

2. I often think about quitting.
(1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

(1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

Organizational Effectiveness

Revenue

What is your revenue (sales performance) in the past three years?

1. 2007 : $_____
2. 2008 : $_____
3. 2009 : $_____

Turnover Rate (Number of employees lost)

How many employees left the firm in the previous year?

The number of employees who voluntarily left: _____person(s)
The number of employees who involuntarily left: _____person(s)
If you do not know the above information, how many employees IN TOTAL left the company in previous year? _____person(s)

Subjective firm performance (Delaney & Huselid, 1996)

Compared to other organizations that do the same kind of work, how would you compare the organization's performance for the past 12 months in terms of …

1. Marketing?
2. Growth in Sales?
3. Profitability?
4. Market share?

(1 = *much worse* to 5 = *much better*)

Negative Affectivity (PANAS-X; Watson & Clark, 1992)

The questions below ask about how YOU tend to feel, in general, in your life. Read each statement carefully. Circle the number that BEST corresponds to your opinion.

1. How often do you generally feel scared?
2. How often do you generally feel irritable?
3. How often do you generally feel guilty?
4. How often do you generally feel hostile?
5. How often do you generally feel upset?
6. How often do you generally feel distressed?

(1 = *very slightly or not at all*, 2 = *a little*, 3 = *moderately*, 4 = *quite a bit*, 5 = *extremely*)

Demographic Questions

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about YOURSELF. This information will NOT be used to identify you personally.

1.What is your gender? (please check one) _____ Female _____ Male

2. What is your age? (please write in) _____Years

3. Which of the following BEST describes your racial or ethnic background? (please check one)

_____ Native American/American Indian
_____ Asian
_____ Black (African or Caribbean)
_____ Caucasian/White
_____ Hispanic
_____ Other (please specify)
_____

4. Which category best describes your highest level of educational achievement?

a. _____Middle school b. _____ High school
c. _____Technical school/Associates degree d. _____ Undergraduate degree
e. _____Masters degree f. _____ PhD/JD/MD

5. How many years (cumulative) of paid work experience *in the labor market* do you have?

_____Years _____ Months

6. How long have you been working at the current employing organization?

_____Years _____ Months

7. What is your position in the current organization? (please check one)

a. _____Entry level b. _____ Middle employee level
b. _____Middle Manager level d. _____ Senior manager level
c. _____Executives/CEO

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following questions about YOUR SUPERVISOR. This information will NOT be used to identify you personally.

8. How long have you been working for the current supervisor?

_____Years _____Months

9. What is your supervisor's gender? (please check one)

a. _____ Female _____ Male

10. What is your supervisor' age? (please write in) _____Years

11. What is your supervisor's rank in the current organization? (please check one)

a. _____ Entry level b. _____ Middle employee level
b. _____Middle Manager level d. _____ Senior manager level
e. _____Executives/CEO

12. How many employees (including yourself) does your supervisor have in his/her team?

_____Persons

13. Is your supervisor a founder of the company?

_____Yes _____No

Organizational Characteristics

1. When was your company founded? _ _/_ _ _ _
mm/ yyyy

2. What is the primary type of business? (Please choose only one)

□ Construction □ Manufacturing □ Consulting
□ Wholesale □ Finance, Insurance and Real Estate
□ Entertainment □ Retail □ Restaurant
□ Engineering □ Publishing □ Education
□ Service □ Health Care □ Day Care
□ Transportation Computer Systems & Design
□ Other (describe) _____

3. What is the type of legal structure of your company?

Proprietorship _____ Partnership _____ LLC _____
LLP _____ S Corporation _____ Corporation _____

4. Is your company owned by family?

_____Yes _____No

5. Do you have a union in the company?

_____Yes _____No

6. Do you have a formal HR department or HR personnel in the company?

_____Yes _____No

7. Do you have anti-harassment policies in the company?

_____Yes _____No

8. How would you describe the genders of your coworkers in the company?

1-----2------3------4-----5

1 = almost all men

2 = more men than women
3 = half men, half women
4 = more women than men
5 = almost all women