

THE IMPACT OF UNETHICAL LEADER-REQUESTS ON EMPLOYEES' ANGER,
ANXIETY, AND FAMILY LIVES

by

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A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Department of Management
and the Graduate School of the University of Oregon
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

June 2020

DISSERTATION APPROVAL PAGE

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Title: The Impact of Unethical Leader-requests on Employees' Anger, Anxiety, and Family Lives

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Degree awarded June 2020.

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DISSERTATION ABSTRACT

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Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Management

June 2020

Title: The Impact of Unethical Leader-requests on Employees' Anger, Anxiety, and Family Lives

This dissertation aims to explore the potential non-work consequences of unethical leader-requests. Specifically, it examines how unethical leader-requests can trigger anxiety and anger in employees, which in turn harmfully influence employees' insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and interactions with family members. In addition, this dissertation examines whether employees' moral identity and responsibility displacement propensity will serve as two moderators that affect the degree to which they emotionally and behaviorally respond to unethical leader-requests. A three-wave field survey, a laboratory experiment, and an experience sampling method study were conducted to collectively improve the internal and external validity of the findings. Overall, the findings suggest that employees feel anxious and angry when they are requested by their leaders to engage in unethical behavior and that the negative emotions can spill over to employees' family domain to harmfully impact their family lives. Implications and future directions will be discussed.

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PUBLICATIONS:

- Liu, X., Liao, H., Derfler-Rozin, R., Zheng, X., Wee, E. X. M., & Qiu, F. (2020). In line and out of the box: How ethical leaders help offset the negative effect of morality on creativity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000489>
- Leavitt, K., Qiu, F., & Shapiro, D. L. (2019). Using Electronic Confederates for Experimental Research in Organizational Science. *Organizational Research Methods*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428119889136>

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to sincerely acknowledge many individuals, without whom I would never complete my doctoral studies and become the person I am today. First, I owe an enormous debt to my advisor, David Wagner, whose insights, wisdom, and patience steered me through the rigors in this journey. He deserves credit as a large contributor to my achievements at several stages of my doctoral studies. Second, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my committee members, Keith Leavitt, Debra Shapiro, Jiao Zhang, and Sanjay Srivastava, for their thoughtful and constructive comments that help me improve the quality of this dissertation. Also, I would like to thank the faculty of the Department of Management, the PhD program, the staff at Lundquist College of Business, and the staff at the Research Compliance Services office of the University of Oregon for their continued support.

I dedicate this dissertation to my family. Thank my wife, Guanjun, for changing my life and for making who I am today. Thank my parents for always believing in me and for giving me the courage to face the storm in this journey. Finally, thank my two wonderful and lovely children, Austin and Lillis, for providing endless inspiration.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Leaders' unethicity has become a growing social concern. In the business world, leaders frequently engage in unethical leader behavior (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010). It is estimated that unethical leader behavior costs U.S. firms billions of dollars annually as a function of increased absenteeism, health care expense, diminished productivity, and costs associated with the lawsuit (Detert, Treviño, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007; Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). News reports about corporate scandals often reveal that upper management engages in unethical behavior. Moreover, they even drag their employees into the mire by requesting their employees to commit transgressions. For example, the top managers of some infamous companies such as Enron (Healy & Palepu, 2003) and Theranos (Carreyrou, 2018) have been found to request their employees to engage in extremely unethical business practices such as using deceptive accounting practices and even using problematic and fraudulent procedures to conduct blood tests for patients. More commonly, leaders often request their followers to engage in various more subtle forms of unethical behavior such as using unfair hiring process, overselling a product, and remaining silent about morally questionable behaviors. In management, this unethical leader behavior is identified as making unethical leader-requests which occurs when leaders request their subordinates to engage in morally questionable or unethical behavior (Desai & Kouchaki, 2017). By making unethical requests, leaders can fulfill their "sinful wish" without even directly engaging in the unethical behavior themselves due to their considerable influence and power over subordinates (French Jr & Raven, 1959; Shapiro & Von Glinow, 2007), leading to the prevalence of unethical leader-

requests at work. Despite their prevalence in the business world, unethical leader-requests have long been overlooked by organizational researchers. Research on unethical leader-requests is still in its infancy, and more efforts are needed to establish a comprehensive understanding of its origins and consequences.

This dissertation is dedicated to expanding this line of inquiry by exploring the potential non-work consequences of unethical leader-requests. Specifically, I aim to answer three important but under-investigated questions. First, given that people generally consider themselves just, virtuous, and moral (Tappin & McKay, 2017) and do not want to be a party to unethical behavior, how will employees emotionally respond to unethical leader-requests? Second, if unethical leader-requests arouse emotional responses in employees, how can those emotional responses spill over to non-work domains to influence their wellbeing-related state (e.g., emotional exhaustion) and wellbeing-related behavior (e.g., sleep, interactions with family)? Third, is every employee of whom an unethical request is made equally subject to the effects of unethical leader-requests?

Drawing upon Lazarus's (1991a, 1991b) cognitive appraisal theory of emotion and Staines's (1980) spillover theory, this dissertation aims to investigate how unethical leader-requests can harmfully influence employees' *sleep, emotional exhaustion at home, and interactions with family members*, three wellbeing-related aspects of employees' personal lives that are critical to employees' physical, mental, and social wellbeing, respectively (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In addition, I propose that employees' anxiety and anger in response to unethical leader-requests explain the effects of unethical leader-requests. Lastly, I examine whether employees' moral identity and responsibility

displacement propensity will serve as two moderators that affect the degree to which they feel angry and anxious in response to unethical leader-requests, subsequently influencing the three wellbeing-related aspects (see Figure 1 for the theoretical model)¹.

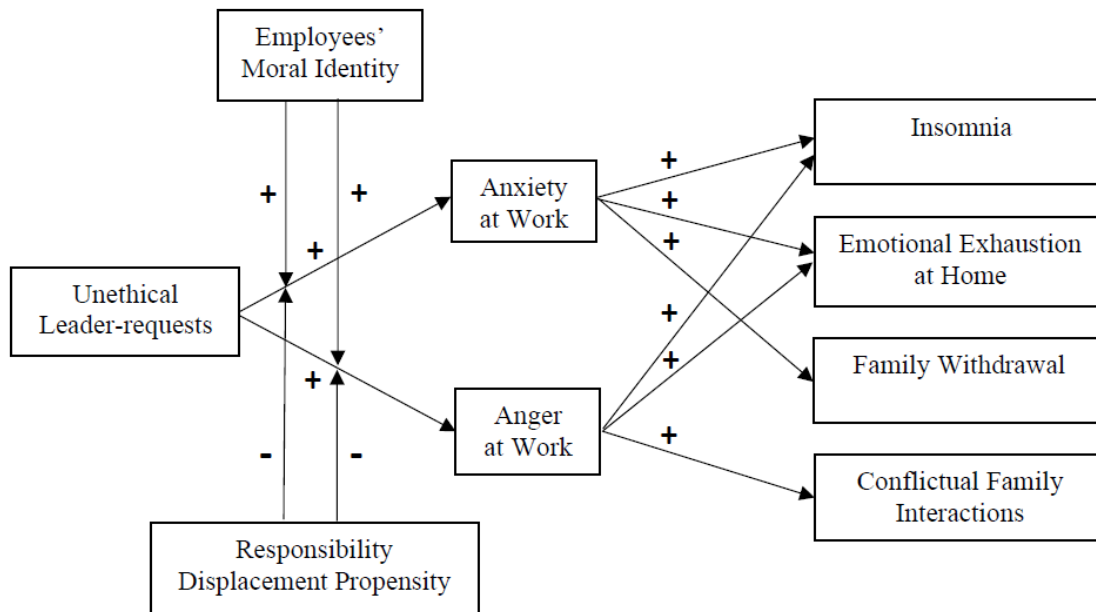


Figure 1. Theoretical model.

The Overall Structure of the Dissertation

In Chapter II, I will first conduct a comprehensive and systematic literature review on the focal variables and the major theories upon which my dissertation will draw. The first purpose of the literature review is to define all key variables of interest. The second purpose is to provide both theoretical and empirical backgrounds for the research questions of this dissertation. To do so, I will elaborate on the most commonly used theoretical perspectives and summarize the main findings in the field of each focal

¹ Conflictual family interactions and family withdrawal in the model stand for *conflictual interactions with family members* and *withdrawal from family interactions* respectively.

variable. In Chapter III, I will discuss how the research questions of this dissertation and the relationships among focal variables are inspired and supported by existing literature. In addition, I will list the main hypotheses. In Chapter IV, I will describe a series of methods I used to test the hypotheses. The description will include the background knowledge of each method, the justification of the choice of each method, both advantages and limitations of the method, as well as detailed description of sample selection, procedure, measures, and data analysis strategy. In Chapter V, I will conclude by summarizing the theoretical insights of my findings and discussing the limitations and future directions.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Leaders' Ethicality and Unethical Requests

Overview of Ethical Leadership. Specific research on ethical leadership can be traced back to the early 2000s (Treviño, Brown, & Hartman, 2003; Trevino, Hartman, & Brown, 2000). The early research on ethical leadership focused on defining leader ethicality from a descriptive perspective. M. E. Brown, Treviño, and Harrison (2005) defined ethical leadership as “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct (e.g., honesty, trustworthiness, fairness, and care) through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (p. 120). Treviño and her colleagues (2002) describe ethical leadership along two dimensions, namely *moral person* and *moral manager* (Trevino et al., 2000). The moral person dimension refers to the quality of being a moral person and reflects the extent to which the leader is seen as consistently moral in both personal and professional lives. The moral manager dimension refers to the extent to which the leader uses their power and status to model, promote, and maintain ethical behavior at work. In sum, “moral persons have a reputation for being fair and principled while moral managers set and communicate ethical standards and use rewards and punishments to ensure those standards are followed” (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010, p. 584).

Research on Ethical Leadership. In the past two decades, a tremendous amount of research endeavor has been exerted to explore a wide range of outcomes of ethical leadership (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; M. E. Brown et al., 2005; D. M. Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Most

research tends to use social learning theory (Bandura & Walters, 1977) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to explain why ethical leadership can have a powerful impact.

On the one hand, according to social learning theory (Bandura & Walters, 1977), people observe and model others' behavior to learn how to interact and communicate through a socialization process—the “monkey see, monkey do” effect (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). In addition, social learning theory suggests that the likelihood of the internalization of behavioral patterns will increase as the credibility and legitimacy of the model increase. In other words, if the observed individual has high credibility, his/her actions will be more legitimate and appropriate to model. Leaders are usually perceived to be experienced, knowledgeable, and powerful, boosting their credibility and legitimacy in the eyes of followers and leading them to be an impactful role model.

On the other hand, according to social exchange theory, people's social and interpersonal behavior is characterized by an exchange of resources (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Social exchange is rooted in the universal reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) and is defined as “voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically in fact bring from others” (Blau, 1964, p. 91). The universal reciprocity norm represents a principal component of individuals' moral codes that consist of two fundamental principles: “people should help those who have helped them, and people should not injure those who have helped them” (Gouldner, 1960, p. 171). It is well known that the pressure of social exchange greatly shapes and constrains interpersonal behavior and is so strong that “face is lost forever if a worthy return is not made” (Mauss, 1923, p. 41). Thus, when

employees believe their leaders have treated them in an ethical, fair, or just manner, they feel obligated to behave positively in return.

Based on both social learning and social exchange theory, research on the outcomes of ethical leadership has been very fruitful. At the individual level, ethical leadership is found to positively predict a variety of desirable employee outcomes such as perceived ethical climate, job satisfaction, prosocial behavior, voice behavior, whistleblowing, extra effort on the job, perceived job autonomy, perceived task significance, and organizational commitment (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; D. M. Mayer, Nurmohamed, Treviño, Shapiro, & Schminke, 2013; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog, & Folger, 2010; Toor & Ofori, 2009; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). At the group level, ethical leadership can promote organizational citizenship behavior and psychological safety and halt workplace deviant behaviors (D. M. Mayer et al., 2009; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). With regard to the antecedents of ethical leadership, researchers have recently begun to investigate the origins of ethical leadership. For example, M. E. Brown and Treviño (2006) have proposed a series of predictors of ethical leadership, including situational (e.g., organizational climate) and individual predictors (e.g., individual characteristics). Empirical endeavor has been taken to test those predictors. For example, researchers found that leaders who were agreeable and conscientious were more likely to display ethical leadership (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

Overview of Unethical Leadership. Research on unethical leadership is strongly connected with research on ethical leadership, but this line of inquiry is less developed. In the following, I will give an overview of unethical leadership.

In comparison to research on ethical leadership, research on unethical leadership has been less systematic and more evolving in the sense that various terms have evolved in the literature. In the past three decades, researchers have uncovered various unethical leadership constructs such as tyrannical leadership (Ashforth, 1994), abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), supervisor undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), and toxic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2005). Recently, researchers have reached a consensus that unethical leaders are oppressive, abusive, manipulative, and undermining (Tepper, 2007). Integrating different perspectives about unethical leadership, M. E. Brown and Mitchell (2010) defined unethical leadership as “behaviors conducted and decisions made by organizational leaders that are illegal and/or violate moral standards, and those that impose processes and structures that promote unethical conduct by followers” (p. 588). Based on this definition, in this dissertation, I see unethical leadership as having two dimensions: 1) leader behaviors and decisions that violate ethical and/or illegal standards, and 2) those that encourage, induce, or suggest followers to engage in unethical behavior. The first dimension of unethical leadership is *direct* in the sense that it reflects leaders’ own unethical behaviors and decisions such as abusing or sexually exploiting followers. The second dimension is *indirect* in the sense that it reflects leaders’ behaviors and decisions that harness and embed unethical behavior by followers such as encouraging lying or cheating.

It is important to note that neither the direct nor the indirect form of unethical leadership is simply the opposite of the ethical leadership (M. E. Brown et al., 2005) because a lack of ethical leadership (e.g., setting an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics, conducting his/her personal life in an ethical manner) does not

equate to or imply engagement in unethical leader behavior (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Greenbaum, Quade, & Bonner, 2015). In other words, a lack of ethical leadership can also mean that one is an ethically neutral leader (Treviño et al., 2003) or an amoral leader (Carroll, 1987). This thus provides theoretical support for the distinction between ethical leadership and unethical leadership.

In the following, I will review research on both direct and indirect forms of unethical leadership in sequence.

Research on the Direct Form of Unethical Leadership. In the past two decades, the consequences of the direct form of unethical leadership have gained a great amount of attention from researchers. Like those studying ethical leadership, unethical leadership scholars tend to use social learning theory (Bandura & Walters, 1977) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to explain the harmfulness of unethical leadership. In addition to those, they have also been adopting self-regulatory perspective (Muraven, Tice, & Baumeister, 1998) and conservation of resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) to explain how unethical leadership can harm employees in not only the work domain (e.g., work performance) but also non-work domains (e.g., personal lives).

According to the self-regulatory perspective, people need to draw from limited self-regulatory resources to purposefully engage in self-regulation (C. M. Barnes, Schaubroeck, Huth, & Ghumman, 2011). Research has described self-regulation metaphorically as a moral muscle that refrains people from engaging in questionable behaviors (Baumeister & Juola Exline, 1999). When the muscle loses some of its strength, people are inclined to engage in questionable behaviors (Muraven et al., 1998). Unethical leadership is taxing or depleting because it leads employees to feel victimized or

threatened and, in turn, impairs their finite self-regulatory resources (Bandura, 1991; Muraven et al., 1998; Thau, Aquino, & Poortvliet, 2007). As a result, unethical leadership impairs employees' ability to self-regulate and resist the temptation of engaging questionable or unethical behavior. It is important to note that the ego-depletion view is recently under great debate (Lurquin & Miyake, 2017). While a series of recent meta-analyses revealed that the effect of ego-depletion might not differ from zero (Carter, Kofler, Forster, & McCullough, 2015; Carter & McCullough, 2014), in a more recent study, Lurquin and Miyake (2017) concluded that "the critical evidence is unlikely to convince proponents that ego depletion does not exist, and the supporting evidence is unlikely to convince skeptics that ego depletion does exist" (p. 125). They also emphasized that "better empiricism and better theory are needed to move the field forward and find more conclusive answers to the question whether, when, and why ego depletion does (not) exist" (p. 125).

By contrast, COR suggests that individuals strive to gain and maintain resources that help them achieve goals (Hobfoll, 1989). When individuals experience psychological stress, it can consume resources and causes a spill-over effect on employees' work and non-work lives. Hence, stress caused by unethical leadership behavior (e.g., abusive supervision, sexual harassment) can negatively influence not only employees' work lives but also their non-work lives (e.g., family).

Drawing upon the above theoretical perspectives, research on the consequences of the direct form of unethical leadership has been very fruitful. Researchers have revealed that the direct form of unethical leadership negatively predicted a wide range of employee outcomes such as work performance (K. J. Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007;

Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002), work attitudes (Tepper, 2000), employees' personal lives (D. Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Hoobler & Brass, 2006), and employees' psychological well-being (Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007). It could also lead to employee deviance and unethical behavior at work (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008; Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009) and employee problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006). In addition, the direct form of unethical leadership has been found to serve as a boundary condition under which employees' certain traits will lead them to engage in unethical behavior at work. For example, based on trait activation theory, a recent research showed that abusive supervision functioned as a trait activator for the positive link between employees' Machiavellianism and their unethical behavior (Greenbaum, Hill, Mawritz, & Quade, 2017). It is worth noting that although great attention has placed on the consequences of the direct form of unethical leadership, the majority of the research to date has predominantly focused on the abusive form of unethical leadership, namely abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), leaving other direct forms of unethical leadership largely overlooked or untested.

With regard to the antecedents of the direct form of unethical leadership, both leader- and follower-level factors have been revealed. As for leader-level factors, research has shown that leaders with certain personality traits such as social dominance orientation (Son Hing, Bobocel, Zanna, & McBride, 2007) and Machiavellianism (Kiazad, Restubog, Zagenczyk, Kiewitz, & Tang, 2010) were more likely to engage in the direct forms of unethical leader behavior such as exploiting or abusing employees. In addition, leaders' moral exclusion belief (Opatow, 1990) has been found to be a potential source of

unethical leadership; when leaders do not think moral rules apply to an employee, they are more likely to perceive abusive treatment as appropriate (Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). Taking the self-regulatory perspective, Joosten, Van Dijke, Van Hiel, and De Cremer (2014) found that constant pressure caused leaders to engage in the direct form of unethical leader behavior such as saying something hurtful to someone. More recently, using an experimental experience sampling study, Foulk, Lanaj, Tu, Erez, and Archaibeau (2018) showed that leaders who perceived a strong psychological power tended to be more abusive toward followers. Another recent study showed that ethical leadership could lead to abusive supervision through ego depletion and moral licensing processes (Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016). As for the follower-level factors, it is well known that employees' performance is a strong predictor of abusive supervision (e.g., Tepper et al., 2011; Walter, Lam, Van Der Vegt, Huang, & Miao, 2015). Interestingly, while poor performers have been found to elicit abusive supervision, a recent study showed that high performers were also subject to abusive supervision. Specifically, Khan, Moss, Quratulain, and Hameed (2018) showed that having high performance could lead to abusive supervision as a function of the perceived threat to hierarchy. In addition, employees' similarity with leaders (similarity in personality, values, and attitudes) has been found to negatively predict abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2011).

Research on the Indirect Form of Unethical Leadership. Although closely related to the direct form of unethical leadership, the indirect form of unethical leadership has received comparatively sparse attention. In the following, I will review research on the indirect form of unethical leadership.

The indirect form of unethical leadership happens when leaders enable or foster unethical behavior among employees rather than engage in unethical behavior themselves (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010). Such a form of unethical leadership is so common that news reports frequently describe corporate scandals that are caused by it. In a review of corporate scandals in *Fortune* 100 corporations, Clement (2006) concluded that those transgressions are primarily caused by the encouragement given by top management and government officials. Leaders can promote unethical behavior among employees by rewarding desirable outcomes of unethical behavior, forgiving transgressors, and overlooking wrongdoing (Ashforth & Anand, 2003; Brief, Buttram, & Dukerich, 2001). In a qualitative study, Sims and Brinkman (2002) highlighted that leaders who value short-term results, model aggressive and Machiavellian behaviors, and promote like-minded employees foster unethical behavior among employees.

In an effort to develop a model that explains how corruption becomes normalized in an organization, Ashforth and Anand (2003) highlighted three processes through which collective corruption emerges: 1) *institutionalization*, the process through which corrupt practices become part of the routine; 2) *rationalization*, the process through which individuals rationalize or legitimize their corrupt practices; 3) *socialization*, the process through which newcomers are taught to accept and engage in corrupt practices. “These three processes are mutually reinforcing and reciprocally interdependent; once established in an organization, the processes create a situation where corruption is practiced collectively by employees and may endure indefinitely” (Ashforth & Anand, 2003, p. 3). According to them, leaders play a significant role in all three processes. Leaders do not have to perform corrupt practices in person to serve a role model of

corruption. Whether intentionally or not, they can facilitate it by rewarding, condoning, or neglecting corruption, and authorize the corruption formally or informally. In sum, their theory provides an important theoretical insight for the research on the indirect form of unethical leadership.

Although it has received both conceptual and empirical support, unlike the direct form of unethical leadership, the empirical support for the indirect form of unethical leadership has been limited, greatly constraining our understanding of the overall harmfulness of unethical leadership. Fortunately, emerging research has started to place more empirical attention on the indirect form of unethical leadership. As a prevalent type of indirect unethical leader behavior, making unethical leader-requests has recently drawn an increasing amount of attention. In the following, I will elaborate on making unethical leader-requests as an important indirect form of unethical leadership.

Unethical Leader-requests. Consistent with existing definitions of other types of unethical leader behavior (e.g., abusive supervision), making unethical leader-requests can be defined as an employees' perception of the extent to which their supervisors ask them to engage in unethical behavior. This could happen, for example, when supervisors ask employees to stay silent while they engage in questionable conduct, when supervisors ask employees to misrepresent facts to make them look good, when supervisors ask employees to treat some people disrespectfully, and when supervisors ask employees to do tasks that involve lying to others (Desai & Kouchaki, 2017).

Surprisingly, as an indirect form of unethical leader behavior that occurs ubiquitously, making unethical leader-requests has been largely overlooked by

organizational researchers². However, the topic has long been attended by social psychologists. In social psychology, inquiries that are relevant to unethical leader-requests ascend to as early as the 1960s. In 1961, a U.S. psychologist, Stanley Milgram, ran an experiment to examine justifications for acts of genocide by those accused of war crimes during World War II. The experiment has become one of the most well-known experiments in the field of psychology and other relevant disciplines. Milgram began to conduct the experiment in July 1961, a year after the trial of Adolf Eichmann in Jerusalem. The main purpose of the experiment was to see how far people would go in following orders given by an authority figure (e.g., leader) if the order had something to do with harming or even killing others (S. Milgram, 1974). In the experiment, participants were made to believe that they were interacting with another participant (i.e., the learner) in the other room who did not actually exist (unknown to the participants). Participants were told that the learner had been asked to learn a list of word pairs. Their “jobs” were to test how well the learner could recall those paired words and to give an electric shock every time when the learner made mistakes. The level of shock would increase after every mistake. In the experiment, when the shock achieved a high level

² It is worth noting that in this dissertation, making unethical leader-requests will be seen as a construct that is distinct from ethical leadership for the following reasons. As mentioned earlier, Mesdaghinia, Lewis, and Eisenberger (2019) conceptualized Leaders’ Immorality-encouragement (LIE) as an employee’s perception that his/her supervisor encourages him/her to engage in unethical behavior to benefit the organization and/or its members. In their study, they theoretically and empirically differentiated LIE from ethical leadership. In doing so, they found that none of the ethical leadership items were rated by the raters as consistent with the definition of LIE and that the CFA analyses also showed that LIE is distinct from ethical leadership. The common ground between making unethical leader-requests and LIE is that they both involve asking and encouraging employees to engage in unethical behavior. The difference lies in the intention of giving the requests. By definition, LIE is conducted with the intention to benefit the organization and/or its members, and hence, the intention behind LIE is prosocial or altruistic. In contrast, making unethical leader-requests is a broader construct and does not specify the motivation behind it. In other words, the motivation behind unethical leader-requests could be prosocial or antisocial. Hence, logically, LIE should relate to ethical leadership more closely than do making unethical leader-requests because LIE always involves a prosocial intention, but unethical leader-requests do not. From this perspective, if LIE has been shown to be distinct from ethical leadership, making unethical leader-requests is also likely to be distinct from ethical leadership.

(e.g., 300 volts), participants tended to refuse to give the shock. However, an experimenter (i.e., a confederate) in the same room with participants would press and request participants to give the shock. The findings of the experiment shocked the world—65% of participants continued to the highest level of 450 volts, and 100% of the participants continued to 300 volts. Milgram concluded that people tend to obey orders given by an authority figure, even when the orders are unethical in the sense that it involves harming or killing another person.

S. Milgram (1974) raised an agency theory to explain the findings in the experiment. He proposed that people have two different states when facing social situations: 1) the autonomous state and 2) the agentic state. The autonomous state refers to the situation when individuals can direct and take responsibility for their own behaviors. The agentic state refers to the situation when individuals behave as agents for another person's will; that is, they allow others to direct their behaviors by following the orders and attributing the responsibility to those directing their behaviors. According to Milgram, two premises need to be met for an individual to enter the agentic state. First, the person who gives orders needs to be seen as legitimate, a viewpoint that is consistent with social learning theory (Bandura & Walters, 1977). Second, the individual must believe that the person giving orders will take responsibility for the consequences of his/her behaviors in obedience to the orders. The above proposals have been verified by a series of follow-up studies done by Milgram. One of the studies showed that when participants were reminded that they would be responsible for what they did, very few of them would follow the order.

The Milgram experiment demonstrated that people are inclined to obey the commands by an authority figure even when those commands are unethical even though they tend to have strong emotional responses when they are asked to do so. In organizations, leaders are authority figures, and hence, the findings of the Milgram experiment have a huge implication on the research on how people will emotionally and behaviorally react to the unethical leader-requests in organizations. However, research on unethical leader-requests is still nascent. Until very recently, organizational researchers began to pay close attention to unethical leader-requests.

As for the research on the predictors of unethical leader-requests, to date, very few studies specifically examine when leaders are more or less likely to request their followers to engage in unethical behavior. One of the few studies found that when followers display moral symbols such as words, images, and objects that have moral implications, leaders are less likely to raise unethical requests (Desai & Kouchaki, 2017). With regard to the consequence of unethical leader-requests, in an effort to expand our understanding of why employees engage in unethical behavior that benefits the organization and/or its members, a behavior called unethical pro-organizational behavior (UPB; Umphress & Bingham, 2011; Umphress, Bingham, & Mitchell, 2010), Mesdaghinia et al. (2019) examine whether leaders' unethical requests in the form of Leaders' Immorality-encouragement (LIE) can cause more UPB. They defined LIE as an employee's perception that his/her supervisor encourages him/her to engage in unethical behavior to benefit the organization and/or its members. Using both field study and lab experiment, they found that LIE was positively related to UPB, and the positive relationship was strengthened by leader-member exchange relationship (LMX; Graen,

Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). In addition to moral consequences, researchers have found that unethical leader-requests can cause performance consequences. Specifically, leaders' unethical requests have been found to reduce the employees' job performance by arousing anxiety and impairing employees' intrinsic job motivation (I. H. Smith, Kouchaki, & Wareham, 2013).

Although organizational researchers have realized the significance of studying unethical leader-requests and started paying increasing attention to both antecedents and consequences of unethical leader-requests, what we have learned by far has been limited in the mutual relationships between unethical leader-requests and work domain aspects (e.g., displaying moral symbols at work, unethical behavior at work, job motivation and performance), without regard to the link between unethical leader-requests and non-work domain aspects. Work-family scholars have long emphasized that a comprehensive study of the organizational phenomena needs to include a work-family interface (e.g., Dubin, 1973). Thus, merely focusing on unethical leader-requests' workplace antecedents and outcomes is myopic and even unrealistic, limiting our understanding of this prevalent phenomenon. Therefore, it will be meaningful for me to examine how unethical leader-requests connect to employees' non-work domains such as family. To address this intellectual gap, in this dissertation, I intend to investigate the family outcomes of unethical leader-requests by taking an emotion spillover perspective. Specifically, I argue that two emotional responses (i.e., anxiety and anger), in reaction to unethical leader-requests, can explain how unethical leader-requests readily erode employees' family lives. To provide both theoretical and empirical foundations to explain the psychological bridge between unethical leader-requests and employees' family lives, in the following, I will

review cognitive appraisal theory which will provide an overarching theoretical foundation for this dissertation as well as research on anxiety and anger which are proposed to be two key emotional responses to unethical leader-requests in this dissertation.

Cognitive Appraisal Theory, Anger, and Anxiety

Cognitive Appraisal Theory. Emotion is an interface between an organism and its environment (Mulligan & Scherer, 2012). Emotion episodes involve a series of components, including cognitive appraisal of the emotional stimuli (e.g., event, object, memory), subjective feeling, physiological responses, and expressive behavior (Scherer & Moors, 2019). As one of the most important components, cognitive appraisal has received considerable attention from researchers in a wide range of disciplines including but not limited to psychology, management, marketing, and education. Specific studies using cognitive appraisal approach to explain people's emotional experience in response to emotional stimuli started in the 1980s and flourished in the early 1990s. The popularization of cognitive appraisal approach is a result of its well-known capability of explaining the subtle nuances of emotion. Specifically, the approach aims to predict which specific emotions (i.e., discrete emotions) should be evoked by a given emotional stimulus as well as how elicited emotions affect subsequent behavior. During the period between the 1980s and 1990s, a number of appraisal theories were proposed by researchers (e.g., Lazarus, 1991b; Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988; Roseman, Spindel, & Jose, 1990; C. A. Smith & Ellsworth, 1987). Of those different forms of appraisal theories, Lazarus's (1991a, 1991b) cognitive appraisal theory is one of the most adopted appraisal theories to explain coping responses to stressful situations. The cognitive

appraisal theory was popularized by Richard Lazarus and colleagues (Lazarus, 1966, 1991b; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and has been seen as a promising avenue to study emotions in business research contexts (Johnson & Stewart, 2005). In the following, I will focus on reviewing Lazarus's (1991a, 1991b) cognitive appraisal theory as well as its application in the management literature.

According to Lazarus (1991a, 1991b), the emotion elicitation process consists of two stages: 1) primary appraisal stage and 2) secondary appraisal stage. In the first stage, individuals evaluate whether an emotional stimulus is “goal-relevant” and whether it affects their well-being. This initial evaluation is gross in the sense that it is made based on whether the stimulus furthers or thwarts their personal goals and values (Cropanzano, James, & Citera, 1993; Frijda, 1993; H. M. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In other words, if a stimulus is evaluated as beneficial for achieving a goal, general positive emotions result, and if it is evaluated as harmful, general negative emotions result. The primary appraisal mainly involves valence and intensity of the emotion and happens immediately and automatically; that is, the process could be unconscious. Importantly, it does not determine which discrete emotions individuals will experience. Following the primary stage, the second stage of appraisal is evoked quickly.

The second stage is an interpretive meaning analysis stage (C. A. Smith & Pope, 1992) which leads individuals to experience particular discrete emotions such as happiness, excitement, sadness, anger, anxiety, shame, and pride. In the second stage, individuals will evaluate the three dimensions of the emotional stimulus in terms of attribution of causes, potential for coping, and certainty of outcome. Specifically, attribution of causes dimension pertains to the extent to which we should blame (in the

case of negative emotions) or credit (in the case of positive emotions) self, another, or no one. The potential for coping dimension is associated with whether we can influence the environment for changes. Lastly, the certainty of outcome dimension pertains to the belief that outcomes will be desirable or undesirable. By evaluating the three dimensions of the emotional stimulus, individuals can simultaneously experience different discrete emotions. For example, one may feel happy for his/her brother's success in academic performance while feeling envious. One may feel excited about receiving an offer from a high-paying company while feeling anxious and stressed about the performance pressure after entering the company.

As a promising avenue to study the elicitation process of discrete emotions in business contexts (Johnson & Stewart, 2005), cognitive appraisal theory has gained popularization in the management literature. Research has adopted it to explain various emotional situations in organizations such as injustice, abusive supervision, work-related identifications, and role conflict (Conroy, Becker, & Menges, 2017; Lian et al., 2014; Perrewé et al., 2004; H. M. Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). For example, based on Lazarus's (1991a, 1991b) framework, Perrewé et al. (2004) found that perceived role conflict positively predicted strain, and the relationship was weakened when one's political skill was strong. More recently, drawing from the same framework, Lian et al. (2014) found that abusive supervision led subordinates to react hostilely and, in turn, resulted in supervisor-direct aggression.

Given the original purpose of cognitive appraisal theory—to explain individuals' emotional responses to stressful situations—organizational researchers are inclined to use it to explain employees' negative emotions such as anxiety and anger in response to

stressful organizational situations. In line with this, this dissertation is mainly interested in two negative discrete emotions—*anxiety* and *anger*—as reactions to unethical leader-requests. To provide a foundation for these two emotions, in the following, I will review historical perspectives of *anxiety* and *anger* along with organizational research on these two emotions.

Overview of Anger. Long accepted as one of eight basic emotions of human beings, *anger* is highly recognizable, and even infants can reliably recognize its expression and experience (Ekman, 1992). Attempts to define and conceptualize the role of *anger* in human interaction ascend to Aristotle’s time (J. Barnes, 1984). However, a consensus in terms of the definition and conceptualization of *anger* has not been fully met yet. Psychologists have highlighted *anger* as a “fuzzy concept” in the sense that we know when we see and feel it, but it is challenging for us to define it (Russell & Fehr, 1994). Recently, organizational researchers have tried to draw a firmer definition of *anger*. In their work of reviewing research on *anger* in organizations, D. E. Gibson and Callister (2010) defined *anger* as “an emotion that involves an appraisal of responsibility for wrongdoing by another person or entity and often includes the goal of correcting the perceived wrong” (p. 68). They defined *anger* around three critical components: 1) *Anger* is a discrete emotion which is characterized by a unique expression, specific physiological responses (i.e., increased heart rate and blood pressure; Stark, Walter, Schienle, & Vaitl, 2005), and a limited set of source events; 2) *Anger* is a social emotion in the sense that it is evoked by perceived others’ wrongdoing (e.g., incivility, unfairness, injustice, unethicality, goal interference) and also directed toward others (Averill, 1983); 3) *Anger* can be both trait-like and state-like. Trait *anger* is a stable dispositional

tendency to experience state anger in terms of frequency and intensity (Spielberger, 1991) while state anger is a temporary emotional state “consisting of feelings ranging from irritation to intense rage, physiological and cognitive reactions, behavioral tendencies, and observable verbal and motor behaviors” (D. E. Gibson & Callister, 2010, p. 68).

Research on Anger. As a common discrete negative emotion, anger has been studied by scholars from a wide range of disciplines including but not limited to psychology, marketing, education, sociology, and management. In the following, I will mainly review research on anger on two aspects: 1) the antecedents of anger and 2) the consequences of anger. The review will mainly focus on research that views anger as a short-term emotion rather than a trait. In addition, the review will mainly focus on organizational research on anger while taking perspectives from other disciplines as supporting information.

A variety of workplace sources have been found to be responsible for anger at work. These sources can be generally grouped into three categories: 1) unfairness and injustice, 2) interpersonal conflict, and 3) goal interference. There is a large body of research drawing on fairness and justice perspectives to examine the antecedents of anger at work. For example, based on Adams’ (1965) equity theory that emphasizes the perception of inequity, researchers have found that unjust or unfair treatments by others (e.g., supervisors) can lead the employees to feel angry and experience physiological states associated with anger (Cropanzano, Weiss, Suckow, & Grandey, 2000; Domagalski & Steelman, 2005; Fitness, 2000; Harlos & Pinder, 2000). Relatedly, research has revealed that employees also feel angry when experiencing incivility (i.e., “acting rudely or discourteously, without regard for others, in violation of norms for respect in social

interactions"; Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 455), disrespect, and condescension at work (Domagalski & Steelman, 2005; Fitness, 2000; Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002).

Interpersonal conflict is a natural and important part of the workplace and occurs when parties perceive that they have different values, attitudes, viewpoints, and goals (Jehn, 1997). The conflict is thus associated with a sense of threat. From an evolutionary perspective, anger is an instinctive reaction to reduce or completely remove perceived threats (Tracy, 2014). Anger has also been seen as the only self-protective emotion that motivates individuals to actively address perceived threats (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004; Johnston & Glasford, 2014). Accordingly, anger has been argued to be the most prominent and pervasive emotion among all emotions that arise in interpersonal conflict (Allred, 1999). These viewpoints regarding the relevance of anger to the interpersonal conflict have been supported both conceptually and empirically. For example, conceptually, based on attribution theory (Kelley, 1967), Allred (1999) proposed that interpersonal conflict can lead to anger and retaliation when the person believes another party is responsible for the act. Empirically, in a work of identifying sources of workplace anger and aggression, Glomb (2002) found that 80% of the respondents indicated interpersonal conflict at work as one of the primary sources.

Researchers have also identified goal interference (i.e., blockage for one's execution of plans or attainment of goals) as a primary source of anger (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'connor, 1987). Such a perspective has a long history and can be traced to the 1930s. Dollard, Miller, Doob, Mowrer, and Sears (1939) proposed that a person will respond aggressively when his/her goal or plan is interrupted or hindered (i.e., frustration-aggression model). Researchers later criticized the one-sided view of this

proposal and confirmed that anger mediated the link between frustration and aggression (Berkowitz, 1993). In line with this perspective, another study found that when employees' personal and organizational goals were constrained by situational factors, a feeling of anger resulted, subsequently leading them to engage in counterproductive workplace behaviors (Chen & Spector, 1992).

Indeed, anger comes with consequences, both negative and positive. As for negative consequences, anger has been found to positively associated with a wide range of undesirable outcomes such as increased blood pressure, heightened chance of heart diseases, decreased job satisfaction, harmful organizational climates, increased incivility, unethical behaviors, and even aggressive and violent behaviors (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Aquino, Douglas, & Martinko, 2004; Begley, 1994; Fox & Spector, 1999; Glomb, 2002; Mitchell, Baer, Ambrose, Folger, & Palmer, 2018). Researchers have also revealed a series of desirable consequences of anger, which speaks to the socially functional aspect of anger. For example, anger can motivate protective physiological changes and behaviors to address perceived threats such as experienced injustice and inequity (Bies, 1987; Frijda, 1986). Furthermore, anger expression has been found to help individuals clarify and signal boundaries for others' proper decisions and behaviors, refraining others from socially undesirable manners (Tafate, Kassinove, & Dundin, 2002). Researchers have also argued that strategically expressing anger can sometimes lead to desirable negotiation outcomes that benefit the anger expresser (D. E. Gibson & Schroeder, 2002).

In the above, I have given a review of anger and relevant conceptual and empirical research. Similar to anger, anxiety is also a negative and high arousal emotion. In this dissertation, I argue that anxiety is another negative emotional response to

unethical leader-requests. In the following, I will provide a review of anxiety as well as relevant research.

Overview of Anxiety. Serving as an emotion that alerts us to potential threats and allows us to appropriately evaluate and respond to them, anxiety is “a state of distress and/or physiological arousal in reaction to stimuli including novel situations and the potential for undesirable outcomes” (Brooks & Schweitzer, 2011, p. 44). According to the affective circumplex model, anxiety is an emotion with negative valence or unpleasantness and a high level of activation (Russell, 1980). By definition, anxiety can arise when individuals confront threatening situations that have the potential for undesirable outcomes (Gray, 1991). For example, students will feel anxious when teachers give a random in-class quiz, workers will feel anxious when a deadline is approaching, and investigators will feel anxious when they see the downfall of the price of a stock they own. Anxiety is not a single feeling, but a mixed feeling consists of fear, frustration, stress, tension, worry, apprehension, and nervousness (Gray, 1991), and it is usually accompanied with an intense sense of uncertainty and of a lack of control (Raghunathan & Pham, 1999). Common physiological responses of anxiety include muscular tension, fatigue, restlessness, and concentration deficiency (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Common behavioral responses to anxiety include rumination, somatization, and pacing back and forth (Seligman, Walker, & Rosenhan, 2001).

Unlike anger that motivates people to actively address the threatening situations (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004; Johnston & Glasford, 2014), anxiety is passive and aversive by nature in the sense that it can motivate individuals to escape, withdraw, or

flee from sources that have provoked anxiety (Nesse & Marks, 1994). However, like anger, anxiety is also a self-protective emotion because from the evolutionary perspective, the defensive responses provoked by anxiety help to prevent people from further harm by driving them to stay away from the anxiety-producing situations rather than actively eliminate or remove those situations. Like anger, anxiety can also be a trait. Researchers have identified anxiety as a long-term stable dispositional characteristic that determines how strongly and frequently individuals feel anxious in response to anxiety-producing situations (Endler & Kocovski, 2001). In addition, the trait anxiety has been found to contribute to various mental disorders such as anxiety disorders and depression (Hettema, 2008; Sandi & Richter-Levin, 2009).

Research on Anxiety. Anxiety has long received attention from researchers from various disciplines such as psychology, marketing, education, sociology, and management. In the following, I will mainly review research on anxiety in terms of 1) the antecedents of anxiety and 2) the consequences of anxiety. The review will mainly focus on research that views anxiety as a short-term emotion rather than a trait. In addition, the review will mainly focus on organizational research on anxiety while taking perspectives from other disciplines as supporting information.

Previous research on the antecedents of anxiety can be approximately grouped into two categories: 1) internal sources and 2) external sources. As for internal sources of anxiety, Hochschild (1983) emphasized that individuals' sense of self may be threatened when their own behavior is inconsistent with what they believe they should behave because the need to maintain self-consistency is one of the most important human needs. The threat to self can produce anxiety (Lazarus, 1991a). In line with the self-consistency

perspective, researchers have revealed that when people engaged in inauthentic behaviors such as lying and surface acting (e.g., suppressing one's emotion to display unfeigned emotions), they tended to feel anxious (Ennis, Vrij, & Chance, 2008; Tomura, 2009; D. T. Wagner, Barnes, & Scott, 2014).

With regard to external sources of anxiety, research has indicated a series of work-relevant stressors that are closely related to employees' anxiety. For example, Doby and Caplan (1995) found that work stressors threatening employees' reputation (e.g., negative feedback from leaders) caused anxiety at both work and home. Totterdell, Wood, and Wall (2006) conducted a one-week daily diary study and showed that participants reported a higher level of anxiety during weeks when work demands were high versus low. In addition, Perrewé et al. (2004) showed that role conflict was positively related to anxiety, and political skills mitigated the positive relationship.

As for the consequences of anxiety, a large body of research in occupational health has revealed a positive link between anxiety and stress (e.g., Fay & Sonnentag, 2002; Ford, Cerasoli, Higgins, & Decesare, 2011; Gomes, Faria, & Gonçalves, 2013). This line of inquiry highlights the negative impact of anxiety on employees' physiological and mental health. Another line of inquiry focuses on how anxiety can influence employees' workplace outcomes such as work performance (e.g., Haslam, Atkinson, Brown, & Haslam, 2005; M. K. Jones, Latreille, & Sloane, 2016). For example, drawing from conservation of resource theory, McCarthy, Trougakos, and Cheng (2016) found that anxiety harmfully influenced work performance as a function of emotional exhaustion, and such effect was attenuated by employees' social exchange relationship with their supervisors and coworkers. In addition, anxiety has been found to positively

predict undesirable workplace outcomes such as turnover intentions (Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013) and the adoption of inferior negotiation strategies (Brooks & Schweitzer, 2011).

Work-family Spillover

In the last section, I review research on anxiety and anger, two proposed key emotional responses to unethical leader-requests in this dissertation. The next question is how these two emotions spill over to employees' family domain. To answer this question, I will draw upon perspectives in the work-family spillover literature. In this section, I will provide a high-level overview of the major theories and perspectives about both negative and positive work-family spillovers.

Overview of Work-family Spillover Theories. Staines's (1980) spillover theory highlights that work experiences (e.g., affect, attitudes, values) can readily spill over to the family domain and vice versa. In line with Staines's spillover theory, later research of this inquiry tends to agree that spillover is a major linkage between work and family (e.g., Pleck, 1995). Empirical evidence has generally supported the spillover theory (e.g., Williams & Alliger, 1994). As the spillover perspective evolved and advanced, research has identified and differentiated two distinct types of spillovers, namely *positive spillover* and *negative spillover*.

The first type of spillover represents positive spillover between work and family and has become the major theoretical framework upon which the work-family enrichment literature draws (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), "work-family enrichment happens when work experiences improve the quality of family life, and family-work enrichment happens when family experience improves the quality

of work life” (p. 73). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) highlighted two paths through which one domain can facilitate another domain. The first one is the instrumental path; that is, resources (e.g., energy, self-esteem, skills, knowledge, social capital) generated in one domain directly transfer to another domain and then facilitate performance in the domain. Research has validated the theorization of the first path. For example, Wayne, Randel, and Stevens (2006) showed that both family instrumental and emotional support positively predicted work-family enrichment. More recently, drawing from self-determination theory, Menges, Tussing, Wihler, and Grant (2017) found that family motivation could compensate for low intrinsic motivation at work and, ultimately, improved work performance. The second one is the affective path; that is, resources generated in one domain can lead to positive affect, which ultimately facilitates performance in another domain. The second path has also received empirical support. For example, using a 2-week daily diary study, Leavitt, Barnes, Watkins, and Wagner (2019) found that sexual activities on a given evening led to positive affect at work the next morning, which in turn increased job satisfaction and job engagement.

The second type of spillover involves negative spillover between work and family and serves as an essential conceptual foundation for the work-family conflict literature (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Small & Riley, 1990). In the seminal work, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) referred to the work-family conflict as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (p. 77). Three types of work-family conflicts were identified, namely time-based conflict (i.e., engaging in family or work domain activities reduces the time available for another domain), strain-based conflict (i.e., stress derived from one domain

reduces the ability to perform in another domain), and behavior-based conflict (i.e., the behavioral pattern of a role disables functional behavioral adjustment for another role). All three types of conflicts have received an extensive amount of empirical support. Research has found that the number of children was negatively associated with employees' ability to satisfy work demands (Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985). Relatedly, researchers also found that individuals had young children at home were more likely to experience work-family conflict as a function of the reduced time available for work (Burke, Weir, & DuWors Jr, 1979; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). In addition, unpleasant work experience in the form of abusive supervision has been found to lead abused employees to engage in family undermining behaviors (e.g., taking negative work emotions out on family members, giving negative evaluations directed toward family members) as a function of displaced aggression (Hoobler & Brass, 2006).

In this dissertation, I am mainly interested in negative spillover, and I examine whether as unpleasant work experience, unethical leader-requests can spill over to employees' family domain to influence their family domain outcomes. Specifically, I focus on three family domain outcomes—sleep, emotional exhaustion at home, and interactions with family. While the work-family scholars have emphasized the work-family conflict as a consequence of strain spillover, time conflict, and role incompatibility (D. S. Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), my dissertation goes beyond work-family conflict because I do not focus on general workplace stressors which lead to generalized strain or conflict at home. While most research on negative spillover focuses on examining family stress as a consequence of

general job stressors (Westman & Vinokur, 1998), this dissertation focuses on a more specific job stressor that is likely to be ignored by leaders—unethical leader-requests. Furthermore, I focus on specific stressful family outcomes that are critical to employees’ physiological, mental, and social wellbeing (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Hence, my dissertation helps to provide a more nuanced angle to look into how discrete and adverse workplace stressors can contaminate specific aspects of employees’ family lives. As such, the findings of my investigation could be particularly worrisome. Given that making unethical leader-requests is a comparatively morally subtle and fuzzy form of unethical leader behavior in comparison to others such as abusive supervision, leaders are more unlikely to envision the harmfulness of unethical leader-requests to the employee who is requested to engage in unethical behavior. The perception of the harmlessness of unethical leader-requests is dangerous because it promotes unethical leader-requests which can cause great harm to employees’ lives without receiving leaders’ attention.

Sleep, Emotional Exhaustion, and Interactions with Family

In this section, I will first review Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) viewpoint regarding the three dimensions of employee wellbeing. Then, I will review research on sleep, emotional exhaustion, and family interactions. Lastly, I will elaborate on how previous and recent research adopts a work-family spillover lens to explore the role of the three focal outcome variables of this dissertation, sleep, emotional exhaustion at home, and interactions with family, in the work-family interference process.

Physiological, Mental, and Social Wellbeing. Employee wellbeing lies in the heart of employee job satisfaction (Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000) and has been found to be a key determinant of workplace behavior (e.g., Wright & Bonett, 2007). As a result,

in the past two decades, great attention has been directed to the antecedents of employee wellbeing (Cotton & Hart, 2003). However, while a great number of studies have focused on specific aspects of employee physiological and mental wellbeing such as sleep (Barling, 2016), eating (Y. Liu et al., 2017), and burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001), little research has paid attention to employee social wellbeing, not to mention simultaneously examining all three aspects of employee wellbeing. Employee wellbeing scholars have long advocated that in order to show a complete picture of employee wellbeing, researchers need to include all three aspects of employee wellbeing—physiological, mental, and social (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, researchers tend to “emphasize one specific aspect of employee wellbeing without regard to others” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 182). Guided by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), in this dissertation, I will simultaneously examine all three aspects of employee wellbeing at home. In so doing, I select sleep, emotional exhaustion at home, and negative family interactions as focal outcome variables to represent physiological, mental, and social wellbeing respectively.

In the following, I will review research on sleep, emotional exhaustion, and family interactions in sequence. The review will mainly contain organizational research while taking perspectives from other disciplines as supporting information.

Employee Sleep. People spend one-third of their time at work and another third of their time on sleep. Sleep plays a critical role in important human functioning such as learning and memory (U. Wagner, Gais, Haider, Verleger, & Born, 2004; Walker & Stickgold, 2006) and immune system responsiveness (Irwin, 2015). The relationship between work and sleep has long been recognized, but the research on their relationship

flourished only recently. About a decade ago, organizational researchers started to pay increasing attention to the interdependence between work and sleep. As a result, in the past decade, researchers have adopted a wide range of theories and approaches to uncover various mechanisms through which work experience influences sleep and vice versa, and an extensive body of research has been conducted to provide rich empirical evidence for the connection between work and sleep. The following review will mainly center on two aspects of work-sleep interdependence: 1) how sleep experience can spill over to the work domain to affect workplace outcomes (e.g., work performance) and 2) how work experience (e.g., leaders' behavior) can spill over to the family domain to affect sleep.

Given that more than 25% of workers in the U.S. are involved in some forms of shift work (Alterman, Luckhaupt, Dahlhamer, Ward, & Calvert, 2013) which is closely related to employee sleep problems (Åkerstedt, 2003; Drake, Roehrs, Richardson, Walsh, & Roth, 2004), researchers in this area of inquiry has been particularly eager to study how sleep problems detrimentally influence employees' workplace outcomes. Research over the past decade has shown that sleep deprivation is a strong predictor of various workplace outcomes. For example, C. M. Barnes and Wagner (2009) found that sleep quality was a strong predictor of workplace injuries. Specifically, via two novel studies using archival data, they found that sleep deprivation caused by daylight saving time led to more workplace injuries. Based on the self-regulatory perspective, C. M. Barnes et al. (2011) found that sleep deprivation could reduce one's self-control resource and, in turn, lead employees to engage in more unethical behavior. D. T. Wagner, Barnes, Lim, and Ferris (2012) found that loss of sleep could positively predict cyberloafing which occurs when employees use office computers for something unrelated to their jobs. C. M.

Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, and Christian (2015) found that leaders' lack of sleep could lead to more abusive supervision. C. M. Barnes, Guarana, Nauman, and Kong (2016) found that leaders' sleep deprivation could reduce their emotional labor performance and, in turn, negatively affect subordinate's perception of charismatic leadership. In addition, they found that subordinates' sleep quality could also influence their perception of leaders' charisma as a function of reduced positive affect. More recently, a relevant study by Guarana and Barnes (2017) showed that both leaders' and followers' lack of sleep negatively influenced the perception of relationship quality between them, and hostility explained the effects. In sum, research on how sleep can influence workplace outcomes has been very fruitful.

Due to a great number of negative workplace outcomes caused by poor sleep, increasing attention has been directed at stressful work experience that can impair employees' sleep. Research has identified a great number of work stressors related to poor sleep. Those stressors can be grouped into two categories: 1) task stressors and 2) non-task stressors. The first group of stressors are relevant to job task per se and can be manifested as high job demands. There is an extensive body of empirical evidence supporting the positive link between job demands such as workload, job rules, and time pressure, and sleep problems (e.g., Berset, Elfering, Lüthy, Lüthi, & Semmer, 2011; Winwood & Lushington, 2006). Research findings generally support that high job demands will lead to difficulty of falling asleep, maintaining sleep, and waking up (Åkerstedt et al., 2002; Knudsen, Ducharme, & Roman, 2007). For example, as one of the common work norms or rules in service relevant jobs, emotional labor has been found to be a novel indicator of insomnia (D. T. Wagner et al., 2014). In a meta-analysis

looking into the overall effect of job demands on poor sleep, Nixon, Mazzola, Bauer, Krueger, and Spector (2011) revealed a positive correlation between job demands and sleep disturbances, providing solid evidence for the relevance of task stressors to sleep.

The second group of stressors is relevant to the work but not to the job task itself. Non-task stressors have received as much empirical attention as task stressors. One of the most salient non-task stressors is social stressors. Social stressors exist in any type of social structure, and given the social nature of the organizational structure, social stressors will inevitably emerge in any organization. Recognizing the impactful role of social stressors in organizations, researchers have identified a series of social stressors such as interpersonal conflicts, the experience of workplace bullying, the experience of inequity or injustice, and the experience of abusive supervision as the indicators of sleep problems (Greenberg, 2006; Hietapakka et al., 2013; Niedhammer et al., 2009; Winwood & Lushington, 2006). Another non-task stressor is derived from employees' concerns about their careers. Little research has attended to this perspective. One of the very few studies showed that job insecurity negatively predicted sleep quality (Burgard & Ailshire, 2009). A more recent study showed that being over-qualified could also predict sleep problems (Stenfors, Hanson, Oxenstierna, Theorell, & Nilsson, 2013). Lastly, research has also revealed that employees' own decisions or behaviors can cause sleep problems. A very recent study by Yuan, Barnes, and Li (2018) showed that engaging in counterproductive work behavior could lead the actors to lose sleep (i.e., insomnia) as a function of moral deficits and a heightened level of rumination.

Employee Emotional Exhaustion. Research on specific topics of emotional exhaustion started in the 1970s, but at the time, there was not a systematic framework for

the inquiry of emotional exhaustion, as Schuler (1980) noted that little had been known about stress and emotional exhaustion at work. In the 1980s, this line of inquiry moved from the periphery to the mainstream of organizational research, and a tremendous amount of attention was placed on the importance of emotional exhaustion. Nowadays, employee emotional exhaustion is still a major topic of interest in the management literature. Historically, organizational research on emotional exhaustion has been predominately guided by Maslach's and Jackson's three-dimension conceptualization of burnout (Maslach, 1982; Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwab, 1986; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). According to the model, burnout comprises three interdependent or interrelated dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment.

As one of the critical dimensions, emotional exhaustion is defined as a chronic state of physical and emotional depletion that is caused by an overly heavy workload and continuous hassles (Shirom, 1989; Zohar, 1997). It is a feeling of physical fatigue and of being psychologically drained. Although all three dimensions of burnout are important, researchers generally agree that emotional exhaustion is the key dimension of burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Gaines & Jermier, 1983; Wright & Bonett, 1997; Zohar, 1997). Such consensus has been evidenced by both theoretical and empirical research. Shirom (1989) concluded that emotional exhaustion characterized by physical and psychological depletion lies in the "heart" of burnout. Furthermore, in a field study, Lee and Ashforth (1993) found that emotional exhaustion was a central mechanism in the burnout process. Since the 1980s, emotional exhaustion has been a critical topic in organizational research and has been seen as having great implications for employees'

workplace behavior and overall wellbeing (Cherniss, 1993; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Kahill, 1988; Maslach, 1982). Given the importance of emotional exhaustion, researchers have explored both outcomes and antecedents of emotional exhaustion.

In terms of the outcomes of emotional exhaustion, researchers have long been interested in the negative outcomes of emotional exhaustion, and a large body of research has shown that it can lead to a series of undesirable workplace outcomes such as reduced work performance (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Maslach, 1982; Wright & Bonett, 1997), reduced commitment and job satisfaction (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Green, Walkey, & Taylor, 1991; Lee & Ashforth, 1996), increased actual turnover or turnover intention (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998), impaired work attitudes (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Wolpin, Burke, & Greenglass, 1991), and increased counterproductive work behavior (Quattrochi-Tubin, Jones, & Breedlove, 1982). More recently, Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) found that emotional exhaustion influenced three different motivations (i.e., achievement striving, status striving, and communion striving) and, in turn, influenced employees' in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Van Jaarsveld, Walker, and Skarlicki (2010) found that emotional exhaustion was positively related to employee incivility toward customers. In sum, emotional exhaustion has been generally found to have a negative impact on organizational functioning.

As compared to the outcomes of emotional exhaustion, at least an equal amount of attention has been placed on the causes of emotional exhaustion. As highlighted in the definition of emotional exhaustion (Shirom, 1989; Zohar, 1997), the excessive workload

has been seen as the most direct predictor of emotional exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001). Accordingly, research has provided rich evidence for this insight (e.g., Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). As this line of inquiry advanced and evolved, researchers have revealed an extensive number of antecedents of emotional exhaustion including but not limited to employees' personal characteristics such as personality, self-esteem, gender, and education (Maslach et al., 2001), employees' workplace behavior such as emotional labor (Grandey, 2003; Martínez-Iñigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007), peers' behavior such as workplace bullying by coworkers (Sa & Fleming, 2008) and peer-support (Peterson, Bergström, Samuelsson, Åsberg, & Nygren, 2008), and leaders' behavior such as abusive supervision (Wu & Hu, 2009), ethical leadership (Zheng et al., 2015), and goal-focused leadership (Perry, Witt, Penney, & Atwater, 2010). Overall, research on this area of inquiry has been very fruitful, providing us a solid foundation to understand the factors that can increase or reduce employees' emotional exhaustion.

Employee Negative Family Interactions. Historically, research on family interactions is sociological and can be traced back to as early as the 1920s (Gottman, 2013). At that time, researchers started to explore the link between sexual activities of couples and marital satisfaction. As research in this area evolved, researchers started to explore other factors associated with family interactions such as economic status and personality. Specific research on the relationship between work and family interactions started in the period from the 1970s to the 1980s. Early research in this area has documented that positive and healthy interactions with family are not always easy to achieve among employees, and researchers generally agree that unpleasant or stressful

work experience on a given day can impair their quality of interactions with family later that day through negative spillover (e.g., Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989). Research on negative marital interactions generally examines four dimensions: 1) defensiveness, 2) conflict, 3) stubbornness, and 4) withdrawal (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; R. L. Weiss & Summers, 1983). Therefore, in light of this, in this dissertation, I define negative family interactions as family interactions that harm the relationship between family members. The forms of negative family interactions include being defensive to family members, being stubborn toward family members, conflicting with family members, or withdrawing from family interactions. In addition, based on research on the negative and unsupportive social interaction literature (e.g., Ingram, Betz, Mindes, Schmitt, & Smith, 2001), negative family interactions can be seen as interpersonal behavior among family members that produce physiological hurt or unpleasant psychological feelings such as distress, sadness, isolation, and rejection.

In the past four decades, voluminous studies have provided evidence for the link between work experience and negative family interactions. Although there are several different forms of negative family interactions, existing research tends to focus on two forms of negative family interactions: 1) conflictual interactions with family members and 2) withdrawal from family interactions.³

With regard to the first form, research has shown that work stressors can lead employees to engage in conflictual family interactions. For example, Bolger et al. (1989) found that having a stressful day at work led to arguments and tense interactions at home. Relatedly, research showed that parent-child tension was greater on Monday when work

³ In the following content, conflictual family interactions with family members and withdrawal from family interactions respectively will be referred to as *conflictual family interactions* and *family withdrawal*.

stress is more salient (Almeida & McDonald, 1998). Another study showed that fathers were more likely to have conflicts with their children on workdays with excessive workload than on days with a typical workload (Almeida, Wethington, & Chandler, 1999). Research has also indicated specific work stressors that can lead to conflictual family interactions. For example, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found that employees abused by their supervisors were more likely to undermine family members (e.g., giving negative labels) after going home as a function of displaced aggression.

In terms of the second form, research has shown various work experience that can lead to employees' family withdrawal. For example, Repetti (1989) found that an increased daily workload was associated with increased marital withdrawal at home manifested by reduced employees' involvement or interest in interacting with their spouses. Similarly, drawing from resource allocation theory which suggests that individuals tend to conserve their resource lost when a certain resource is stretched thin, Harrison and Wagner (2016) found that creative behavior at work could negatively predict the time spent with spouses at home. Relatedly, Leavitt, Barnes, et al. (2019) found that daily work-related stress could spill over to the family domain and, in turn, reduce the probability of having sex—an important marital interaction for maintaining healthy marriage relationship—later that night. Furthermore, through a moral licensing lens (Benoit Monin & Miller, 2001), Li, Mai, and Bagger (2017) found that engaging in prosocial behavior at work led to a reduced provision of family support at home. Of all the forms of negative family interactions, conflictual interactions and family withdrawal are the most common reasons for the breakdown of family relationships (e.g., divorce; Chang, 2004; Gigy & Kelly, 1993; Hawkins, Willoughby, & Doherty, 2012). For

example, in a survey of 437 men and women who had divorced, having conflict and growing apart were rated as two top reasons for divorce (Gigy & Kelly, 1993).

Conflictual family interactions and family withdrawal contribute to family conflict and growing apart, respectively. Hence, it is important for us to pay great attention to conflictual family interactions and family withdrawal. In light of this, this dissertation will focus on these two forms of negative family interactions.

Moral Identity

Overview of Moral Identity. An identity refers to a person's self-conception or self-definition (Erikson, 1964). Moral identity is a specific type of identity that reflects the moral aspects of a person, and individuals differ in the strength of such identity (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Lapsley & Lasky, 2001). Moral identity is defined as "the mental representation of one's moral character held internally as a cognitive schema and expressed to others externally through one's actions" (Winterich, Aquino, Mittal, & Swartz, 2013, p. 759). First proposed by Aquino and Reed (2002), moral identity has been widely adopted to explain people's own moral decisions and behaviors as well as their judgment and reaction toward others' moral decisions and behaviors. In their seminal work, Aquino and Reed (2002) described moral identity along two dimensions: *moral identity internalization* which is conceptualized as the private dimension and *moral identity symbolization* which is conceptualized as the public dimension.

Moral identity internalization is rooted in a self-consistency perspective (Blasi, 1984) and is associated with self-monitoring. As the private dimension of moral identity, identity internalization reflects moral centrality and indicates the extent to which a person is chronically accessible to moral-related knowledge of his/her moral characters such as

moral traits, goals, and behaviors within the working self-concepts (Aquino, Freeman, Reed, Lim, & Felps, 2009; Winterich et al., 2013). In other words, identity internalization answers if moral self-schemas preexist within the working self-concepts without considering situational factors. Hence, for those high in identity internalization, moral self-schemas are firmly “preinstalled.” Conversely, individuals low in identity internalization are less constrained by moral self-schemas, and thus, are more “morally flexible” regarding their moral decisions and behaviors.

Unlike moral identity internalization, moral identity symbolization is rooted in a symbolic-interactionist perspective (Mead, 1934; O'brien, 2006) and is related to the recognition of self as a social entity (Goffman, 1959). As the public dimension of moral identity, identity symbolization indicates the extent to which a person tends to engage in the public display of visible activities (e.g., prosocial behavior) to convey one’s moral characters, and a higher identity symbolization represents a stronger willingness to do so (Aquino & Reed, 2002). Individuals high in identity symbolization are conceptualized as especially active in conveying their commitment to certain moral goals and ideals to others. By contrast, individuals low in identity symbolization are less likely to engage in publicly visible moral behaviors.

Together, identity internalization and identity symbolization dimensions reflect a person’s moral identity (D. M. Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012). Although both of them are closely associated with a person’s moral self-concept, it has been argued that because moral behavior is seen as mostly driven internally (Bandura, 1999; Rest, 1986; Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007), the internalization dimension should more directly reflect the core definition of moral identity and should be a stronger predictor of moral

behaviors than the symbolization dimension (Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007), and empirical findings generally support the argument (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Aquino, Reed II, Thau, & Freeman, 2007; I. Reed & Aquino, 2003; Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007).

Research on Moral Identity. There is a large body of empirical research on moral identity. Research has generally focused on two aspects: 1) direct consequences of moral identity, and 2) moderating effects of moral identity.

Extensive research has shown that moral identity is a critical predictor of individuals' moral decisions and behaviors. Moral identity has been found to directly motivate a variety of ethical or prosocial behaviors such as volunteering, willingness to minimize harm, and charitable giving (Aquino & Reed, 2002; I. Reed & Aquino, 2003; Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007). It has also been found to effectively refrain people from engaging in unethical or antisocial behaviors such as cheating and lying (Sage, Kavussanu, & Duda, 2006). In a meta-analysis of 111 studies from a wide range of intellectual fields including management, marketing, psychology, education, sociology, and sport science, Hertz and Krettenauer (2016) examined the relationship between moral identity and moral behavior and found that moral identity could positively predict moral behavior categorized as 1) avoidance of antisocial behavior, 2) prosocial behavior, and 3) ethical behavior.

In terms of serving as a boundary condition, moral identity has been found to neutralize the effectiveness of various factors that contribute to unethical or antisocial behaviors. For example, it has been found to weaken the link between moral disengagement and pro-war cognitions and emotions (Aquino et al., 2007), the link between social anxiety and academic dishonesty (Wowra, 2007), and the link between

employees' affective commitment and their unethical pro-organizational behavior (Matherne III & Litchfield, 2012). Moral identity has also been found to influence how individuals perceive and react to others' and their own moral behavior. For example, A. Reed, Aquino, and Levy (2007) found that consumers tended to perceive the charitable activities in the form of giving time as more moral than the form of donating money, and such effect was stronger for consumers who held a strong (rather than weak) moral identity. Aquino, McFerran, and Laven (2011) found that after being exposed to acts of uncommon moral goodness (e.g., reading a story about uncommonly prosocial behavior) individuals who held a strong (versus weak) moral identity were more likely to experience a state of moral elevation characterized by elevating emotions (i.e., compassion, inspired, awe, and admiration), positive views of humanity, and desire to become a better person. More recently, Yuan et al. (2018) showed that after engaging in counterproductive work behavior, employees tended to experience moral deficits (i.e., loss of moral credits; Benoît Monin & Jordan, 2009; Zhong, Liljenquist, & Cain, 2009) and in turn, kept mentally revisiting (i.e., rumination; Watkins, 2008) their morally questionable behavior. They also found that moral identity moderated the link between moral deficits and rumination such that the positive link was stronger for those who held a strong versus weak moral identity.

Integration of Moral Identity and Leaders' Ethicality. Given the significant role of moral identity in shaping people's moral judgments, decisions, and behaviors, in the early 2010s, researchers started realizing that "moral identity is relevant to the study of leadership and particularly business ethics" (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010, p. 598). Answering the call, organizational researchers recently began to integrate perspectives

from moral identity and leaders' ethicality perspectives to deepen our understanding of the factors influencing leaders' ethicality as well as those influencing how followers react to leaders' ethicality.

Given that moral identity reflects the extent to which a person believes moral characteristics such as compassion and honesty are important to himself/herself, it is not surprising to see that leaders' moral identity can play a critical role in their own ethicality. Accordingly, leaders' moral identity has been found to positively predict ethical leadership (D. M. Mayer et al., 2012; Zhu, Treviño, & Zheng, 2016). Furthermore, leaders' moral identity can have a contagious effect in the sense that it can facilitate ethicality among employees. For example, Zhu et al. (2016) found that leaders' moral identity positively shaped employees' moral identity and moral attentiveness, a moral trait defined as "the extent to which an individual chronically perceives and considers morality and moral elements in his or her experiences" (Reynolds, 2008, p. 1028). Research has found that a leadership style that is ethical by nature can influence followers' moral identity. For example, transformational leadership has been found to have a positive impact on followers' moral identity (Zhu, Avolio, Riggio, & Sosik, 2011).

Recently, answering Brown and Michell's (2010) call, recent studies have started to explore whether moral identity can influence how employees judge and react to leaders' ethicality. To investigate how employees will react to their supervisors' abusive behavior toward customers, Greenbaum, Mawritz, Mayer, and Priesemuth (2013) found that when knowing that their supervisors abused customers, employees had a heightened intention to turnover and display constructive resistance, and such effects were stronger for employees who held a strong moral identity. It has been shown that the positive link

between unethical leadership and followers' deviance was mitigated by followers' moral identity (Greenbaum et al., 2013). In addition, researchers found that followers' moral identity could strengthen the link between leaders' moral identity and followers' perception of ethical leadership (Giessner, Van Quaquebeke, van Gils, van Knippenberg, & Kollée, 2015).

It is important to note that although it has been emphasized that more attention needs to be placed on whether moral identity can influence how employees perceive and react to their leaders' ethicality (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010), little research has empirically examined the role of moral identity in the extent to which employees cognitively or behaviorally respond to unethical leader behavior (for an exception see Greenbaum et al., 2013). Specifically, we know little about whether moral identity will affect the extent to which employees feel negative emotions in response to unethical leadership. In addition, we do not know how employees' moral identity plays a role in their responses to the indirect form of unethical leader behavior such as making unethical leader-requests. My dissertation thus answers M. E. Brown & Mitchell's (2010) call by broadening our knowledge regarding the role of moral identity in employees' perception and reaction toward their leaders' ethicality.

Moral Disengagement.

Overview of Moral Disengagement. "People do not ordinarily engage in harmful conduct until they have justified to themselves the morality of their actions" (Bandura, 1999, p. 194). The cognitive mechanisms through which people justify their unethical behavior is referred to as moral disengagement. In his seminal work, Bandura (1986) first described moral disengagement, and he elaborated it in his later work regarding moral

behavior (Bandura, 1991, 1999). According to Bandura (1999), moral disengagement allows people to engage in unethical behavior while being “freed from self-sanctions and the accompanying guilt that would ensue when behavior violates internal standards” (Detert, Treviño, & Sweitzer, 2008, p. 375). Through moral disengagement, individuals rationalize their unethical behavior by using eight dissonance-reducing practices including 1) moral justification, 2) euphemistic labeling, 3) advantageous comparison, 4) displacement of responsibility, 5) diffusion of responsibility, 6) disregard or distortion of consequences, 7) dehumanization, and 8) attribution of blame (Bandura, 1999). I will next briefly discuss each mechanism.

When a person performs *moral justification*, they emphasize the bright side of the unethical behavior by mentally reframing the unethical behavior as being for a greater purpose. For example, an employee may convince themselves that their unethical behavior can help their company get rid of financial difficulty. In management, this type of unethical behavior refers to unethical pro-organizational behavior (i.e., UPB; Umphress & Bingham, 2011), and moral justification has been argued to be one of the main reasons why UPB keeps recurring in organizations. *Euphemistic labeling* is used to rename or rephrase unethical actions to make them sound less harmful or more benign (Bolinger, 2014). For example, in military terms, “kill” is replaced by “waste” and “bombing missions” are replaced by “servicing the target” (Bandura, 1999). Hence, an enemy is wasted rather than killed, and the target is serviced rather than exploded. When a person performs *advantageous comparison*, they compare their current unethical behavior to other more harmful ones so that their current unethical behavior seems less harmful (Bandura, 2002). For example, copying others’ homework can be seen as more

acceptable when compared to cheating in an exam. *Displacement of responsibility* occurs when a person attributes personal responsibility for their unethical behavior to authority figures who may have requested the behavior (e.g., S. Milgram, 1974). For example, a soldier may not feel guilty after killing innocent people if they believe they do it in compliance with their leaders' commands (Wainryb, 2011). *Diffusion of responsibility* occurs when a person disperses their personal responsibility across others. For example, unethical behavior appears to be more acceptable if it is a result of a group decision rather than an individual decision (e.g., the Challenger disaster; Vaughan, 1996). *Disregard or distortion of consequences* refers to minimizing or completely disregarding the harmfulness of one's unethical behavior. For example, stealing from a big for-profit company appears to be more benign than from a small non-profit organization (Benson, 1985). *Dehumanization* refers to framing the victims of unethical behavior as lacking human qualities such as feelings and hopes. For example, Greek torturers used to dehumanize their victims by calling them "worms" (J. T. Gibson & Haritos-Fatouros, 1986). Lastly, *attribution of blame* occurs when a person attributes their personal responsibility for their unethical behavior to the victim of the unethical behavior. For example, a rapist may assign the responsibility to the victim by claiming that the victim should not have worn sexy clothing (Chamberlain, 2013).

Moral Disengagement as a Behavioral Propensity. For the last three decades, moral disengagement theory has been widely used to explain moral-related phenomena in a great number of disciplines, including but not limited to developmental psychology (e.g., Gini, Pozzoli, & Hymel, 2014), military psychology (e.g., McAlister, Bandura, & Owen, 2006), marketing (e.g., Egan, Hughes, & Palmer, 2015), and management (e.g.,

Welsh, Ordóñez, Snyder, & Christian, 2015). Meanwhile, researchers, including Bandura (1999) himself, have predominantly viewed moral disengagement as a psychological process or state. Recently, researchers have argued that some people are more inclined to engage in moral disengagement than others, which lies a foundation for the theorization of moral disengagement as a personality trait; that is, propensity to morally disengage (Moore, Detert, Klebe Treviño, Baker, & Mayer, 2012). In the following, I will give a summary of prior research that focuses on both forms of moral disengagement, 1) moral disengagement as a psychological state and 2) moral disengagement as a trait.

In terms of seeing moral disengagement as a psychological state or process, there is a large body of research showing that moral disengagement mediates the effects of individual-level antecedents on moral-related outcomes. For example, Welsh et al. (2015) found that moral disengagement explained why employees' ethicality will gradually reduce over time and how small ethical transgressions can lead to larger future transgressions (i.e., the slippery slope effect of unethical behavior). Duffy, Scott, Shaw, Tepper, and Aquino (2012) found that moral disengagement mediated the relationship between envy and social undermining at work. Huang, Wellman, Ashford, Lee, and Wang (2017) found that job insecurity predicted employee deviant behavior through moral disengagement. Shu, Gino, and Bazerman (2011) found that participants who decided to cheat in a task were more likely to engage in strategic forgetting of moral rules and that such effect was mediated by moral disengagement.

Another emerging set of research focuses on moral disengagement as a disposition and how dispositional moral disengagement moderates the link between individual-level predictors and unethical behavior. This line of inquiry steams from

Moore et al.'s (2012) work conceptualizing moral disengagement as a trait. Compared to research on moral disengagement as a psychological process, research on moral disengagement as a trait is relatively less studied. However, there is an increasing number of studies that explore how trait moral disengagement can amplify the likelihood of unethical behavior in unethicity-inducing circumstances. For example, the positive relationship between negative affect and counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB) was found to be stronger for people with a strong (rather than weak) propensity to engage in moral disengagement (Samnani, Salamon, & Singh, 2014). In addition, people who were more likely to morally disengage were more inclined to seek revenge after being insulted (White-Ajmani & Bursik, 2014). Although this line of inquiry is growing, most research sees moral disengagement propensity as a single unity without paying attention to specific dimensions or mechanisms of it. However, such an unsubtle view may fall short of providing a nuanced angle to explain how moral disengagement influences unethical behavior in specific circumstances since "specific moral disengagement mechanisms are most likely triggered by particular circumstances" (Moore et al., 2012, p. 38). In this dissertation, to answer Moore et al.'s (2012) call, I focus on a specific moral disengagement mechanism, responsibility displacement propensity, and attempt to explain how the individual difference in responsibility displacement propensity can impact employees' emotional and behavioral responses to unethical leader-requests.

CHAPTER III: THEORETICAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

In this dissertation, drawing upon Lazarus's (1991a, 1991b) cognitive appraisal theory of emotion and Staines's (1980) spillover theory, I propose that unethical leader-requests can detrimentally influence employees' insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and interactions with family members by leading the employees to feel anxious and angry simultaneously. In the following, I will elaborate on both conceptual and empirical supports for the hypothesized links among the focal variables.

Cognitive Appraisal, Unethical Requests, Anxiety, and Anger

According to cognitive appraisal theory of emotion (Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b), in the presence of a stimulus (e.g., event, situation, object), individuals will evaluate or judge the stimulus in terms of whether it will further or thwart personal goals and values. If the stimulus is perceived as threatening or harmful, negative emotions such as anger, sadness, and anxiety will result. If the stimulus is perceived as positive or beneficial, positive emotions such as happiness, excitement, amusement, and pride will arise. I argue that unethical leader-requests tend to be perceived as negative stimuli that threaten requested targets' personal goals and values, leading them to feel anxious and angry. This exploration aims to extend the existing findings in the unethical leadership literature in terms of how unethical leadership can trigger high arousal negative emotions. Unethical leadership has been suggested to cause negative emotions such as anxiety and anger (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010), and this view has generally supported by empirical evidence. Research has shown that employees felt anxious and angry in responses to their coworkers' abusive supervision—a direct form of unethical leader behavior (K. Harris, Kacmar, & Boonthanum, 2005; Mitchell, Vogel, & Folger, 2015; Tepper, 2000).

However, to date, researchers have not examined whether the indirect form of unethical leader behavior will also lead to anxiety and anger. This is particularly problematic because this myopic view focusing on employees' emotional responses toward the direct form of unethical leadership overlooks the role of the indirect form of unethical leadership in employees' discrete emotions. Given that the indirect form of unethical leadership is as prevalent as the direct form, it is important to use a multidimensional lens to understand the indirect form of unethical leadership as an additional source of anxiety and anger.

In this dissertation, I first argue that as an indirect form of unethical leadership, making unethical leader-requests will result in anxiety because it places employees in a morally dilemmatic situation (i.e., moral dilemma). Empirical research has supported that individuals respond emotionally when they face moral dilemmas. For example, using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) technology, Greene, Sommerville, Nystrom, Darley, and Cohen (2001) found that participants responded emotionally during the contemplation of moral dilemmas, which can be manifested by increased activation in the brain areas that are associated with emotions. Moreover, using a self-report measure of emotion (i.e., PANAS-X; Watson & Clark, 1994), Horne and Powell (2016) found that reading vignettes that involve moral dilemmas evoked strong negative emotions such as afraid, scared, nervous, and distressed, many of which are closely related to the feeling of anxiety.

Unethical leader-requests create a morally dilemmatic situation in which employees have to act to avoid an undesirable outcome, but the taken action will inevitably lead to another undesirable outcome. On the one hand, as leaders possess

considerable coercive power over employees, disobeying the requests could cause negative consequences such as negative job evaluation by leaders, demotion, or even dismissal (French Jr & Raven, 1959; Shapiro & Von Glinow, 2007). On the other hand, following the requests by engaging in unethical behavior could harm a third party. Therefore, regardless of which decision is made, there will be undesirable outcomes associated with the decision. Anxiety is “a state of distress and/or physiological arousal in reaction to stimuli including novel situations and the potential for undesirable outcomes” (Brooks & Schweitzer, 2011, p. 44). Hence, when leaders request employees to engage in unethical behavior, the employees will struggle with the moral dilemma which evokes anxiety. I posit:

Hypothesis 1: Unethical leader-requests will positively predict requested employees' anxiety at work.

Furthermore, I argue that making unethical leader-requests can arouse anger in employees by leading to a perception that unethical leader-requests will thwart their moral goals. Most people consider themselves just, virtuous, and moral, and they are motivated to engage in self-enhancement to remain or strengthen such belief (Tappin & McKay, 2017). Such belief is so important to people that the magnitude of self-enhancement for one's moral characteristics such as integrity and trustworthiness have been found by a number of studies to be greater than other desirable non-moral characteristics such as intelligence and competence (Alicke, Vredenburg, Hiatt, & Govorun, 2001; J. D. Brown, 2012; Möller & Savyon, 2003; Van Lange & Sedikides, 1998; Zell & Alicke, 2011). In addition, as people age, although the self-enhancement for desirable non-moral characteristics fades away, the self-enhancement for moral

characteristics remains consistently strong throughout the life span (Zell & Alicke, 2011). The self-enhancement of being a moral person is so strong that even prisoners believe they are more moral than the average population, including those who are also prisoners and those who are not (Sedikides, Meek, Alicke, & Taylor, 2014). As the self-enhancement of being a moral person is so strong, most people usually do not want to be a party to unethical behavior. As described earlier in the literature review, anger has been found to be a primal reaction to goal blockage (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004; Frijda, 1986, 1993). Therefore, when employees are requested to engage in unethical behavior, they will feel angry because the requests tend to thwart their goals of behaving morally in accordance with their internal moral standards and public moral standards in beholders' eyes. Hence, I posit:

Hypothesis 2: Unethical leader-requests will positively predict requested employees' anger at work.

Spillover of Anxiety and Anger across Work-family Boundary

The work-family boundary continues to erode, and as a consequence, the spillover from work to family becomes more likely and increasingly salient (Hulin, 2002). The spillover is particularly problematic if it causes work-to-family strained-based conflict which happens when work-related stresses are carried over from work to home (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In line with this, researchers have generally agreed that stressful or negative emotions such as anxiety and anger at work can readily spill over to the family domain (Barling & Macewen, 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Staines, 1980; Williams & Alliger, 1994). Researchers have also provided empirical evidence for this viewpoint. For example, Doby and Caplan (1995) found that anxiety at work and anxiety

at home were positively correlated ($B = .51$). Matjasko and Feldman (2006) found that anger at work positively predicted anger at home later that day ($B = .10$). These findings lead me to further posit that both anxiety and anger at work stemming from unethical leader-requests will spill over to employees' family domain to influence their feeling and behavior at home.

First, anxiety and anger can both result in insomnia. In terms of anxiety, there is a large body of research providing evidence for the link between anxiety and sleep problems. As mentioned, anxiety is a mixed feeling that consists of fear, frustration, stress, tension, worry, apprehension, and nervousness (Gray, 1991). Using a 42-day daily diary study to test the within-individual fluctuation in sleep, Åkerstedt et al. (2012) found that worry, a key emotional component of anxiety, at bedtime predicted poor sleep quality. Stress has also been found to be a key reason for the development of insomnia (Espie, 2002; Morin, Rodrigue, & Ivers, 2003). Another key emotional component of anxiety, fear, has also been found to predict sleep problems (e.g., Sanford, Yang, & Tang, 2003). More directly, researchers have found that anxiety disorder is highly predictive of having difficulties in initiating and maintaining sleep (e.g., Papadimitriou & Linkowski, 2005). In terms of anger, anger will lead people to rehearse the anger-producing episodes (i.e., anger rumination; Sukhodolsky, Golub, & Cromwell, 2001). Anger rumination is defined as "a tendency to engage in unintentional reoccurring thoughts about anger episodes" (Sukhodolsky et al., 2001, p. 693). The thoughts can include repetitive attention to past anger episodes and fantasies of retaliation or punishment. Research on psychological detachment from work has emphasized mentally detaching from work as a key for one's recovery at home (Fritz, Yankelevich, Zarubin, & Barger, 2010; Sonnentag,

Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008). Ruminative thoughts about anger-producing episodes can prevent angered employees from effectively detaching from work, leading to poor recovery experience, including poor sleep quality. Furthermore, according to the “hyperarousal” model of insomnia (Bonnet & Arand, 1997, 2010), inappropriate physiological arousal contributes to difficulty in falling and staying asleep. Supporting this view, researchers have found that increased heart rate at bedtime is closely associated with poor sleep quality (Bonnet & Arand, 1998; Haynes, Adams, & Franzen, 1981; Stepanski, Glinn, Zorick, Roehrs, & Roth, 1994). Both anxiety and anger are high arousal emotions associated with increased heart rate. This thus provides further support for the positive effects of anxiety and anger on insomnia. Therefore, I posit:

Hypothesis 3: Anxiety will mediate the positive link between unethical leader-requests and employees’ insomnia.

Hypothesis 4: Anger will mediate the positive link between unethical leader-requests and employees’ insomnia.

Second, I argue that anxiety and anger at work will be carried over to the home domain to cause emotional exhaustion at home. Emotional exhaustion is particularly likely when negative emotions need to be managed and regulated (Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002). Engaging in self-regulation of emotions (i.e., emotion regulation; Thompson, 1994) is a taxing and depleting process by nature. In a study, researchers found that participants who were asked to control their emotions while watching an emotional video had a poorer performance in a subsequent self-control task in comparison to those who were not asked to control their emotions (Muraven et al., 1998). Individuals strive to maintain a positive state but are motivated to reduce or remove unpleasant feelings or states

(Schwarz & Clore, 1983; Wyer & Carlston, 1979). Therefore, as unpleasant emotional states, anxiety and anger tend to drive individuals to engage in self-regulation process which can result in a depletion of cognitive and emotional resources (Muraven et al., 1998), and resource depletion can lead to emotional exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001). This is consistent with previous findings that effortful emotion regulation can lead to an increased level of emotional exhaustion and strain (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003). Such effects remain even when felt negative emotions were controlled (Gross & Levenson, 1993). Hence, I posit:

Hypothesis 5: Anxiety will mediate the positive link between unethical leader-requests and employees' emotional exhaustion at home.

Hypothesis 6: Anger will mediate the positive link between unethical leader-requests and employees' emotional exhaustion at home.

Third, behavioral tendencies resulting from anxiety and anger will lead employees to have negative interactions with their family members. Due to their differences in influencing cognitive functioning, I argue that anxiety and anger will lead to family withdrawal and conflictual family interactions—the two most harmful forms of negative family interactions—respectively.

First, I argue that anxiety can lead employees to withdraw from family interactions. An underlying mechanism stems from the affect-as-information effect (Schwarz, 1990; Schwarz & Clore, 1996). According to the affect-as-information theory, people's perceptions, thoughts, and judgment toward an object will be colored or biased by their current affective states. Such phenomenon can also be manifested by another effect known as mood congruency or affect congruency which occurs when people are

experiencing positive (negative) affect, they tend to perceive a stimulus (e.g., object, memory, another person) positively (negatively) (e.g., J. D. Mayer, Gaschke, Braverman, & Evans, 1992). Furthermore, the experienced affect can be completely incidental in the sense that it can be completely unrelated to the stimulus per se. For example, after riding on a roller coaster, a person will feel panic, and such a panic feeling may lead the person to expect the incoming mid-term exam to be harder than a calm person because hardness is congruent with panic. From the affect-as-information perspective, anxiety will lead a person to misattribute their feeling of anxiety to a person or an object that is actually not a source of anxiety (Ashby & Isen, 1999; Schwarz & Clore, 1983). Hence, an anxious employee may falsely regard their family members as the sources of their anxiety. As mentioned earlier, anxiety motivates individuals to escape, withdraw, or flee from anxiety-producing sources (Nesse & Marks, 1994). Therefore, anxiety will lead employees to avoid having interactions with their family members; that is, family withdrawal. Hence, I posit:

Hypothesis 7: Anxiety will mediate the positive link between unethical leader-requests and employees' family withdrawal.

An underlying mechanism bridging the link between anger and conflictual family interactions is emotional displacement. The concept of emotional displacement was initially raised by Freud (1977). According to him, negative feelings associated with a person can be displaced onto another person, and such a process partially serves as a coping mechanism to reduce or remove those negative feelings. This perspective has been validated by later research (Marcus-Newhall, Pedersen, Carlson, & Miller, 2000). For example, researchers found that when participants could not retaliate directly against

the source of anger or hostility, they were inclined to behave aggressively and harshly against innocent third parties (Pedersen, Gonzales, & Miller, 2000). In addition, abusive supervision has been found to lead abused employees to engage in family undermining behavior (e.g., taking negative work emotions out on family members, giving negative evaluations directed toward family members) as a function of displaced aggression (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). In this dissertation, I argue that in the face of unethical leader-requests, employees tend to displace aggression to their family members because they are aware of the high cost of retaliating against their leaders. Hence, via aggression displacement, employees' anger stemming from leaders' unethical requests tends to redirect them to behave aggressively and hostilely against their family members who seem less threatening to their job and career, leading to conflictual family interactions (Schaefer, Coyne, & Lazarus, 1981). Therefore, I posit:

Hypothesis 8: Anger will mediate the positive link between unethical leader-requests and employees' conflictual family interactions.

Moral Identity as a Moderator

Although most people generally consider themselves ethical (Tappin & McKay, 2017), they vary in the strength of such belief (Aquino & Reed, 2002). This individual difference can be manifested by moral identity which reflects the extent to which being a moral person is important to one's self-concept (Aquino et al., 2009; Winterich et al., 2013). In this dissertation, I select moral identity as a stage-one moderator, and I propose that a strong moral identity will intensify the effects of unethical leader-requests on anxiety and anger at work. The selection of this moderator is derived from cognitive appraisal theory which is one of the overarching theories upon which this dissertation

draws. As mentioned, goal violation lies in the heart of cognitive appraisal theory as an explanation of why people will experience negative emotions such as anxiety and anger. The importance of a goal is a determinative factor for the intensity of negative emotions arisen in response to goal violation (e.g., Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004; Johnson & Stewart, 2005; Lazarus, 1991a; Lazarus, 1991b). Moral identity represents the importance of moral goal to a person and thus is directly relevant to the core of cognitive appraisal theory. In this dissertation, I argue that moral identity will amplify the intensity of anxiety and anger in reaction to unethical leader-requests. I will describe my rationale in detail below.

First, individuals with a strong (rather than weak) moral identity will be more anxious when facing the morally dilemmatic situation caused by unethical leader-requests because decision-making in the dilemma is more difficult for them. In other words, the moral dilemma will seem more dilemmatic to those with a strong moral identity. Moral identity reflects the extent to which a person defines the sense of self with a series of moral characteristics (e.g., honest, fair, kind; Aquino & Reed, 2002) and effectively regulates one's moral behavior (Aquino et al., 2011; Aquino, Reed, Stewart, & Shapiro, 2005). A strong moral identity motivates individuals to ensure that their behavior is consistent with their sense of morality (Jordan, Mullen, & Murnighan, 2011). In addition, individuals with a strong moral identity tend to consider the ethical implications of their behavior toward others because a strong moral identity commands "a commitment to one's sense of self to lines of action that promote and protect the welfare of others" (Hart, Atkins, & Ford, 1998, p. 515). Hence, individuals with a strong moral identity feel a strong moral obligation to show concerns for others and strive to minimize the harm of

their behavior to others (Aquino et al., 2007; I. Reed & Aquino, 2003). In contrast, since moral benchmark does not apply to individuals with a weak moral identity, they are less likely to take into consideration the moral implications of their behavior toward others (Mitchell et al., 2015). That is, they are less likely to consider whether others will be harmed by their decisions. Based on this, in the face of unethical leader-requests, individuals with a weak moral identity will find it easier to make the decision (i.e., obeying or disregarding the unethical request) than those with a strong moral identity. Therefore, individuals who hold a strong moral identity will be more psychologically distressed and thus more anxious when confronting unethical leader-requests than those who hold a weak moral identity.

Second, individuals with a strong moral identity will be angrier in response to unethical leader-requests than those with a weak moral identity. On the one hand, I argue that individuals who hold a strong moral identity will be more emotionally reactive when they believe the unethical leader-requests prevents them from fulfilling their moral goals than those who hold a weak moral identity. Moral identity has been found to positively predict the avoidance of engaging in unethical behavior (Hertz & Krettenauer, 2016). Hence, the goal of not engaging in unethical behavior is more personally important to individuals with a strong (rather than weak) moral identity, which can be manifested by their strong eagerness to refrain from engaging in unethical behavior. The more personally important a goal is to an individual, the angrier the individual will be when he/she is kept from reaching the goal (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004; Johnson & Stewart, 2005; Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b). As Johnson and Stewart (2005) noted:

The appraised importance of a goal increases the intensity of emotion because it is associated with the value or desirability of the state that is sought, and if the

situation is extremely divergent from expectations in a negative direction, the resulting negative emotion is likely to be more intense than if the situation merely fell slightly short of the desired state or met pessimistic expectations. (p. 17)

Based on this, in the presence of unethical leader-requests, employees who hold a strong (rather than weak) moral identity tend to react more strongly to unethical leader-requests which prevent them from not engaging in unethical behavior, leading to a higher level of anger.

Taken together, employees who hold a strong (rather than weak) moral identity will feel more anxious and angrier in reaction to unethical leader-requests, leading them to have more serious insomnia, a higher level of emotional exhaustion at home, and worse interactions with family members. Hence, I posit:

Hypothesis 9: Employees' moral identity will moderate the relationship between unethical leader-requests and anxiety such that the positive relationship will be stronger for individuals who are high versus low in moral identity.

Hypothesis 10: Employees' moral identity will moderate the indirect positive effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and family withdrawal through anxiety such that the indirect effects will be stronger for individuals who are high versus low in moral identity

Hypothesis 11: Employees' moral identity will moderate the relationship between unethical leader-requests and anger such that the positive relationship will be stronger for individuals who are high versus low in moral identity.

Hypothesis 12: Employees' moral identity will moderate the indirect positive effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and conflictual family interactions through anger such that the indirect effects

will be stronger for individuals who are high versus low in moral identity.

Responsibility Displacement Propensity as a Moderator

Moral disengagement (Bandura, 1999) “frees people from self-sanctions and the accompanying guilt that would ensue when behavior violates internal standards” (Detert et al., 2008, p. 375). Through moral disengagement, individuals rationalize their unethical behavior by using various dissonance-reducing practices, including moral justification, euphemistic labeling, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, distorting consequences, dehumanization, and attribution of blame (Bandura, 1999). As suggested by Moore et al. (2012), it is valuable and important to focus on specific moral disengagement mechanisms for particular research contexts, and responsibility displacement is the key moral disengagement mechanism when employees are requested to engage in unethical behavior by their leaders. In this dissertation, joining Moore et al. (2012), I focus on responsibility displacement propensity which can be defined as an individual difference in the way that people attribute personal responsibility for their unethical conduct to others who request the unethical conduct. I argue that a strong responsibility displacement propensity will weaken the effects of unethical leader-requests on anxiety and anger at work.

Individuals with a strong propensity to displace responsibility tend to convince themselves that they are just asked to behave unethically on their leaders’ behalf. They do not see themselves as the actual agent of their unethical behavior and attribute the responsibility to dominant authority figures who give the command (Kelman & Hamilton, 1989; Stanley Milgram & van Gasteren, 1974; Sykes & Matza, 1957). When people believe that they are less responsible for an unethical behavior, they are less emotional in

response to the ethical decision-making process (Bandura, 1999). As a piece of direct neuroscience evidence, in a study that used fMRI technology to examine the level of activity of brain areas associated with emotions during footbridge and trolley problems, researchers found that those emotion-related brain areas were much more active when participants faced the footbridge problem in which they imagined pushing someone to death in comparison to trolley problem in which they imagined hitting a switch to cause someone's death (Greene et al., 2001). Greene et al. (2001) argued that the thought of hitting a switch made participants believe they only indirectly caused someone's death, and such psychological distance significantly reduced the salience of emotional responses.

Taken together, employees with a strong (rather than weak) responsibility displacement propensity will feel less anxious and angry in reaction to unethical leader-requests, leading them to have a better sleep, a lower level of emotional exhaustion at home, and better interactions with family members. Hence, I posit:

Hypothesis 13: Responsibility displacement propensity will moderate the relationship between unethical leader-requests and anxiety such that the positive relationship will be weaker for individuals who have a strong responsibility displacement propensity.

Hypothesis 14: Responsibility displacement propensity will moderate the indirect positive effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and family withdrawal through anxiety such that the indirect effects will be weaker for individuals who have a strong responsibility displacement propensity.

Hypothesis 15: Responsibility displacement propensity will moderate the

relationship between unethical leader-requests and anger such that the positive relationship will be weaker for individuals who have a strong responsibility displacement propensity.

Hypothesis 16: Responsibility displacement propensity will moderate the indirect positive effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and conflictual family interactions through anger such that the indirect effects will be weaker for individuals who have a strong responsibility displacement propensity.

CHAPTER IV: METHODS

I conducted three studies to test the hypotheses. I first conducted a three-wave field survey, then a laboratory experiment, and finally, an experience sampling method (ESM) study. I used the three different methods that were intended to complement each other to collectively enhance both internal and external validity of the findings. The first study was a three-wave field survey which aimed to establish external validity and provide an organizational context. The purpose of the second study—an experiment—was to establish causality and increase internal validity. The third study used the ESM approach to assess day-to-day fluctuation in the focal variables, examining the within-individual variance in the focal variables. In this chapter, I will elaborate on each study and discuss the findings.

Study 1 (Field Survey)

Population and Sample Selection. I initially recruited 301 working adults living in the United Kingdom through Prolific.ac⁴. All participants were full-time employees and had at least a direct supervisor at work to meet the selection criteria. Given that participants would be asked to complete three surveys at three different time points with a one-week interval, to reduce the attrition rate, I gradually increased the amount of payment they would receive upon the completion of each survey (i.e., \$1.50, \$2.00, and \$2.50 for the first, second, and third surveys respectively). Of the 301 participants, 259

⁴ I estimated the sample size by conducting an *a priori* power analysis with the effect sizes in prior research that is closely related to my research questions. In attempt to examine the link between abusive supervision and abused employees' family undermining behavior, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found that the coefficient between the abusive supervision and family undermining was .19 on average. I converted the coefficient to effect size, $d = .21$. As both abusive supervision and making unethical leader-requests are considered as unethical leader behaviors, I expected to obtain a similar effect size in Study 1. The power analysis showed that I need a total sample of 173 to achieve a power of .8. For a conservative attempt, I decided to initially recruit 301 participants after considering the potential attrition.

participants completed all three surveys. I further removed five participants who failed attention checks, resulting in a final sample size of 254 and a final response rate of 84%. The average age was 41.35 years ($SD = 9.78$), 59 percent were female, and 89 percent were white. In terms of working status, average working hours per week were 34.47 ($SD = 10.29$), average organizational tenure was 9.69 ($SD = 7.68$), and 55 percent were non-managerial employees. Participants were from a wide range of industries. Participants who were excluded in the analysis were not different from those who were included in age, gender, and race.

Study Procedure. The study consisted of three waves. In Survey 1, participants completed a series of questions about unethical leader-requests, moral identity, responsibility displacement propensity, control variables, and demographic information (e.g., gender, race, age, type of job). A week later, participants completed Survey 2 which included questions about their experience of anxiety and anger at work. In order to immerse participants into their work contexts, following previous research (Mitchell et al., 2018), I instructed them to recall how they feel when thinking about their leaders' guidance on how to carry out their work. A week after Survey 2, participants completed Survey 3 which measured insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and family interactions. Consistent with previous research that examined the relationships between unethical leadership behaviors and employee family lives (D. Carlson et al., 2012; Han, Harms, & Bai, 2017; Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Isenhour et al., 2012), I used a general referent (i.e., "generally speaking, ...") for the assessments of my independent variable, mediators, and dependent variables across all three surveys. Using the general referent could help to maximize the variance in the focal variables that are morally sensitive by

nature, such as unethical leader-requests and conflictual family interactions, because these behaviors are less likely than others such as insomnia to occur on a daily or weekly basis. Only those who completed all three surveys and passed attention checks were included in the data analysis.

Measures. To measure unethical leader-requests, I used Desai and Kouchaki's (2017) 6-item unethical leader-requests scale. Participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*)⁵. Sample items include "My supervisor asks me to look the other way while he/she engaged in questionable conduct" and "My supervisor asks me to do tasks that involve lying to others" ($\alpha = .88$).

To assess moral identity, I used Aquino and Reed's (2002) five-item moral identity internalization subscale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Participants were first provided with some characteristics that describe a person, including caring, compassionate, fair, friendly, generous, helpful, hardworking, honest, and kind. Then, they were asked to rate five statements in terms of the extent to which these characteristics are important to them. Sample statements include "It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics" and "I strongly desire to have these characteristics" ($\alpha = .75$).

To assess responsibility displacement propensity, I used Moore et al.'s (2012) 3-item responsibility displacement propensity subscale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Sample items include "People cannot be blamed for misbehaving if their friends pressured them to do it" and "People shouldn't be held accountable for doing

⁵ This response anchor has been used in prior research that attempted to measure ethical leader behavior and abusive supervision in a given timeframe (Lin et al., 2016)

questionable things at work when they were just doing what an authority figure told them to do” ($\alpha = .77$).

To assess anger, I selected two adjectives, angry and hostile, from PANAS-X (Watson & Clark, 1994), following a recent study in management (Mitchell et al., 2018). Mitchell et al. (2018) assessed anger with the same two adjectives, and the measure indicated a high level of reliability. In my study, participants rated the extent to which they agree that they feel angry and hostile at work on a 5-point scale ($\alpha = .89$; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

To assess anxiety, I used Lu, Lee, Gino, and Galinsky’s (2018) 4-item measure of anxiety. Participants rated the extent to which they agree that they feel distressed, irritable, nervous, and scared at work on a 5-point scale ($\alpha = .82$; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). In addition, I used a single-item pure measure of anxiety, “I feel anxious at work,” as a supplementary measure of anxiety, and participants rated this item on the same 5-point scale.

To assess insomnia, I used Scott and Judge’s (2006) 4-item measure of insomnia (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). The items were adapted to reflect the general level of insomnia. Sample items include “I have trouble falling asleep” and “I wake up several times during the night” ($\alpha = .83$).

To assess emotional exhaustion at home, I used Maslach and Jackson’s (1981) 9-item emotional exhaustion scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Sample items include “I feel emotionally drained at home” and “I feel fatigue when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job” ($\alpha = .95$).

For the conflictual family interactions and family withdrawal measures, following Menges et al. (2017), I treat the family as a perceptual entity in the sense that it refers to whomever employees consider to be in their domestic group. To assess conflictual family interactions, I used six items adapted from Fok, Allen, Henry, and Team's (2014) family relationship scale. Participants responded to the items on a 5-point scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*). Sample items include "I get mad at my family members" and "I act violently toward my family members" ($\alpha = .85$).

As there is no direct measure of family withdrawal, I decided to use four items adapted from Fok et al.'s (2014) family relationship scale. In their original family relationship scale, the selected four items are intended to assess how often people interact with family members by supporting family members, talking to family members, and, more broadly, doing things together with family members. In this dissertation, family withdrawal is defined as the unwillingness to involve in family interactions. Hence, the four selected items closely overlap with the opposite side of the phenomenon I attempted to examine (i.e., family withdrawal). Participants responded to the items on a 5-point scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*). Sample items include "I talk with my family members" and "I spend time doing things together with my family members" ($\alpha = .85$). Because the items were framed to reflect participants' involvement in family interactions, I reverse coded all items so that the rating represented family withdrawal.

Several variables were included as control variables to eliminate alternative explanations for the proposed relationships. First, leaders who make unethical leader-requests may be likely to engage in other forms of unethical leader behaviors. As a widely studied unethical leader behavior, abusive supervision has been found to

positively predict abused employees' negative family interactions (e.g., family undermining; Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Therefore, I controlled for abusive supervision by using Mitchell and Ambrose's (2007) 5-item abusive supervision scale. Participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*). Sample items include "My supervisor tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid" and "My supervisor puts me down in front of others" ($\alpha = .89$).

Furthermore, as job-relevant demands or stress have been found to associate with emotional exhaustion (Van Jaarsveld et al., 2010), sleep disturbances (Åkerstedt et al., 2002), and mental strain (Karasek Jr, 1979), I also controlled for work performance pressure by using Mitchell et al.'s (2018) 4-item work performance pressure scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Sample items include "The pressures for performance in my workplace are high" and "If I don't produce at high levels, my job will be at risk" ($\alpha = .87$).

Also, employee unethical behavior has been shown to impact behaviors in the home domain (Yuan et al., 2018). I, therefore, sought to rule out the alternative explanation that emotional and behavioral outcomes are caused by employees' unethical behavior (in response to the unethical leader-requests), as opposed to merely receiving the unethical leader-requests. Ideally, it would be methodological proper to measure whether the employees complied with an unethical request, but this option was not feasible because, for those who did not receive any unethical leader-requests, they would not be able to answer this question. Hence, I eventually decided to measure the likelihood of complying with unethical requests so that every participant would be able to respond to this question. I acknowledge that there is a discrepancy between intentions and

behaviors (e.g., Fife-Schaw, Sheeran, & Norman, 2007), but “current evidence suggests that intentions get translated into action approximately 50 percent of the time” (Sheeran & Webb, 2016, p. 511). Hence, although not ideal, the likelihood of compliance measure can serve as a decent proxy of behavioral compliance. The item is “How likely would it be for you to comply if your supervisor requested that you do something that violates your company’s standards of ethical business conduct?” (1 = *very unlikely* to 5 = *very likely*). I also controlled for the number of family members given that it will impact the likelihood and frequency that they interact with family members. Lastly, I controlled for participants’ age and gender.

Data Analysis Procedure and Strategy. I used ordinary least squares (OLS) regression to test the effects of unethical leader-requests on anxiety and anger at work. I used Model 4 in PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) to test the mediating effects of anxiety and anger by using the bootstrapping approach with 5,000 resamples to place 95% confidence intervals around estimates of the indirect effects. Lastly, I used Model 7 in PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) to test the moderating effects of moral identity and responsibility displacement propensity by using the same bootstrapping approach.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). First, I ran a set of confirmatory factor analyses to assess the discriminant validity of my measurement model. I ran CFA with each item loaded on their respective latent variable, and the results indicated that when I used the 4-item anxiety scale, the hypothesized nine-factor model had a mediocre fit, with $\chi^2(824) = 1528.93, p < .001$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .89, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06. The CFI index was slightly below the traditional acceptable level (i.e., .9).

When I used the single-item pure measure of anxiety, the hypothesized eight-factor model⁶ had a good fit, with $\chi^2(674) = 1179.07$, $p < .001$; CFI = .91, RMSEA = .05. This is a better fit than the nine-factor model. Hence, in the following, I will use the single-item pure measure of anxiety to conduct all analyses, including further CFA analyses and hypothesis testing.

I further compared the hypothesized eight-factor model with other alternative models. The hypothesized eight-factor model fitted the data better than all other models. The one-factor model had the poorest fit overall, $\chi^2(702) = 4187.66$, $p < .001$; CFI = .39, RMSEA = .14. Please see Table 1 for detailed CFA results.

Table 1. Confirmatory factor analyses for Study 1 variables

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta \chi^2 (\Delta df)^a$
8 Factors ^b	1179.07	674	1.75	0.05	0.91	
7 Factors ^c	1501.18	681	2.20	0.07	0.86	322.11**
6 Factors ^d	1717.85	687	2.50	0.08	0.82	538.78**
5 Factors ^e	2245.78	692	3.25	0.09	0.73	1066.71**
4 Factors ^f	2669.12	696	3.83	0.11	0.65	1490.05**
3 Factors ^g	3023.63	699	4.33	0.11	0.59	1844.56**
2 Factors ^h	3463.70	701	4.94	0.13	0.51	2284.63**
1 Factors ⁱ	4187.66	702	5.97	0.14	0.39	3008.59**

Note. N = 254.

** $p < .01$.

RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; IFI = incremental fit index; CFI = comparative fit index. ULRs = unethical leader-requests; MI = moral identity; RDP = responsibility displacement propensity; ANG = anger; INS = insomnia;

⁶ Following previous research that did not include single-indicator variables in CFA (e.g., D. M. Mayer et al., 2013), I excluded the single item of anxiety from the CFA model because single indicator is not sufficient to estimate a factor variance.

Table 1. (continued)

EE = emotional exhaustion; FI = family withdrawal; CFIs = conflictual family interactions; RLVs = rest latent variables.

^aComparison to the intended measurement model with eight separate factors.

^bModel with eight factors.

^cModel with seven factors: (ANG+EE) with RLVs.

^dModel with six factors: (ANG+EE) (MI+RDP) with RLVs.

^eModel with five factors: (ANG+EE) (MI+RDP) (FI+CFIs) with RLVs.

^fModel with four factors: (ANG+EE) (MI+RDP) (FI+CFIs+INS) with RLVs.

^gModel with three factors: (ANG+EE) (ULRs+MI+RDP) (FI+CFIs+INS).

^hModel with two factors: (ANG+EE) (ULRs+MI+RDP+FI+CFIs+ INS).

ⁱModel with one factor: All latent variables combined to one factor.

Study 1 Results. Table 2 provides means, standard deviations, and correlations among Study 1 variables. The control variables were entered in the first step in every step of the analysis below. *Importantly, all results remained consistent with or without control variables.*

Table 2. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among Study 1 variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Unethical leader-requests	1.39	0.60	—														
2. Anxiety	2.04	1.22	.33**	—													
3. Anger	1.68	0.95	.55**	.46**	—												
4. Insomnia	3.08	1.09	.18**	.23**	.17**	—											
5. Emotion exhaustion	2.82	1.08	.25**	.38**	.30**	.45**	—										
6. Family withdrawal	2.03	0.70	.11	.19**	.25**	.10	.18**	—									
7. Conflictual family interactions	1.95	0.54	.05	.19**	.11	.14*	.23**	.18**	—								
8. Moral identity	4.52	0.58	-.10	.03	-.15*	-.03	-.03	-.20**	-.01	—							
9. Responsibility displacement propensity	2.06	0.87	.13*	.03	.17**	.03	.12	.08	.11	-.22**	—						
10. Abusive supervision	1.24	0.50	.69**	.25**	.43**	.22**	.26**	.10	.09	.01	.09	—					
11. Work performance pressure	3.43	0.96	.11	.17**	.08	.24**	.36**	-.02	.11	.03	.07	.14*	—				
12. Compliance likelihood	1.55	0.79	.33**	.18**	.24**	.05	.14*	.19**	.08	-.21**	.24**	.25**	.04	—			
13. Family member number	2.44	1.11	-.07	-.08	-.06	-.07	-.15*	-.28**	.08	.08	-.06	-.11	-.02	.03	—		
14. Age	41.35	9.78	-.06	-.13*	-.04	.17**	-.16*	.00	-.12	-.03	.09	-.03	-.02	-.02	.01	—	
15. Gender ^a	0.41	0.49	-.01	-.09	.00	-.16**	-.11	.14*	-.07	-.25**	.01	.00	.01	.10	-.05	-.05	—

Note. N = 254.

^a Coded as 0 = female, 1 = male.

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

To test H1 and H2, I conducted a linear regression analysis. As shown in Tables 3 and 4, the main effects of unethical leader-requests on anxiety ($B = .52, t = 3.09, p < .01$) and anger ($B = .72, t = 6.09, p < .001$) were both significant. Thus, H1 and H2 were supported.

Table 3. Mediation analyses for anxiety in Study 1

Step 1: Mediator variable model	Anxiety				
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
Constant	1.30	0.48	0.01	0.35	2.26
Unethical leader-requests	0.52	0.17	0.00	0.19	0.85
Abusive supervision	0.07	0.20	0.74	-0.32	0.45
Work performance pressure	0.17	0.08	0.03	0.02	0.32
Compliance likelihood	0.14	0.10	0.16	-0.05	0.33
Family member number	-0.07	0.06	0.29	-0.20	0.06
Age	-0.01	0.01	0.05	-0.03	0.00
Gender ^a	-0.25	0.15	0.09	-0.54	0.04
Step 2: Outcome variable model	Insomnia				
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>		95% CI	
Indirect effect via anxiety	0.08	0.04		0.01	0.17
Step 3: Outcome variable model	Emotional exhaustion				
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>		95% CI	
Indirect effect via anxiety	0.11	0.05		0.02	0.22
Step 4: Outcome variable model	Family withdrawal				
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>		95% CI	
Indirect effect via anxiety	0.05	0.02		0.01	0.10

Note. N = 254.

^a Coded as 0 = female, 1 = male.

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

Table 4. Mediation analyses for anger in Study 1

Step 1: Mediator variable model	Anger				
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
Constant	0.34	0.34	0.32	-0.33	1.01
Unethical leader-requests	0.72	0.12	0.00	0.49	0.95
Abusive supervision	0.19	0.14	0.18	-0.09	0.46
Work performance pressure	0.01	0.05	0.85	-0.09	0.11
Compliance likelihood	0.08	0.07	0.27	-0.06	0.21
Family member number	-0.01	0.05	0.78	-0.10	0.08
Age	-0.00	0.01	0.96	-0.01	0.01
Gender ^a	0.00	0.10	0.99	-0.20	0.20
Step 2: Outcome variable model	Insomnia				
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>		95% CI	
Indirect effect via anger	0.07	0.06		-0.05	0.19
Step 3: Outcome variable model	Emotional exhaustion				
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>		95% CI	
Indirect effect via anger	0.17	0.07		0.05	0.32
Step 4: Outcome variable model	Conflictual family interactions				
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>SE</i>		95% CI	
Indirect effect via anger	0.04	0.03		-0.02	0.12

Note. N = 254.

^a Coded as 0 = female, 1 = male.

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

To test H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, and H8 (the mediating effects of anxiety and anger), I used Model 4 in Process (Hayes, 2013) with the bootstrapping approach (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). I estimated the indirect effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia, emotional exhaustion, and family withdrawal (conflictual family interactions for anger)

through anxiety (anger) using unstandardized coefficients and bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples to place 95% confidence intervals around estimates of the indirect effects. Mediation is present when the confidence interval for the indirect effect does not include zero. As shown in Table 3, the indirect effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia (coefficient = .08, 95% CI [.008, .172]), emotional exhaustion (coefficient = .11, 95% CI [.023, .224]), and family withdrawal (coefficient = .05, 95% CI [.007, .103]) through anxiety were significant. These supported H3, H5, and H7. Meanwhile, as shown in Table 4, although it was in the hypothesized direction, the indirect effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia (coefficient = .07, 95% CI [-.046, .192]) and conflictual family interactions (coefficient = .04, 95% CI [-.019, .116]) through anger were not significant, but the indirect effect on emotional exhaustion (coefficient = .17, 95% CI [.053, .320]) was significant. Hence, H6 was supported while H4 and H8 were not supported.

To test H9 and H10 (the moderated mediating effects through anxiety with moral identity as the moderator), I used Model 7 in Process (Hayes, 2013). I estimated the conditional indirect effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia, emotional exhaustion, and family withdrawal through anxiety using unstandardized coefficients and bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples to place 95% confidence intervals around estimates of the indirect effects. Supporting the interactive effect, the interactive effect between unethical leader-requests and moral identity on anxiety was significant ($B = .42, t = 2.24, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.050, .795]$). The positive effect of unethical leader-requests on anxiety was stronger for individuals who were high in moral identity (simple slope effect = .74, $t = 3.88, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.364, 1.115]$) than for individuals who were low in moral

identity (simple slope effect = .29, $t = .147$, *ns*, 95% CI [-.098, .684]). As showed in Table 5, the indices of moderated mediation when insomnia (index = .06, 95% CI [-.009, .154]), emotional exhaustion (index = .09, 95% CI [-.007, .211]), and family withdrawal (index = .04, 95% CI [-.004, .114]) were entered in turn as the dependent variable were not significant. Despite of the non-significant mediating effects, the indirect effects on each dependent variable were contingent upon the level of moral identity. For insomnia, the indirect effect was stronger for individuals who were high in moral identity (coefficient = .11, 95% CI [.020, .219]) than for individuals who were low in moral identity (coefficient = .04, 95% CI [-.030, .137]). For emotional exhaustion, the indirect effect was stronger for individuals who were high in moral identity (coefficient = .16, 95% CI [.058, .304]) than for individuals who were low in moral identity (coefficient = .06, 95% CI [-.041, .192]). For family withdrawal, the indirect effect was stronger for individuals who were high in moral identity (coefficient = .07, 95% CI [.015, .154]) than for individuals who were low in moral identity (coefficient = .03, 95% CI [-.020, .081]). Hence, H9 was supported while H10 was not supported.

Table 5. Indirect effects via anxiety contingent on moral identity in Study 1

Conditional indirect effects via anxiety	Insomnia			
	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Moral identity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.04	0.04	-0.03	0.14
Moral identity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.11	0.05	0.02	0.22
Index of moderated mediation	0.06	0.04	-0.01	0.15

Table 5. (continued)

Emotional exhaustion				
Conditional indirect effects via anxiety	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Moral identity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.06	0.06	-0.04	0.19
Moral identity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.16	0.06	0.06	0.30
Index of moderated mediation	0.09	0.06	-0.01	0.21
Family withdrawal				
Conditional indirect effects via anxiety	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Moral identity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.03	0.03	-0.02	0.08
Moral identity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.07	0.04	0.02	0.15
Index of moderated mediation	0.04	0.03	-0.00	0.11

Note. N = 254.

To test H11 and H12 (the moderated mediating effects through anger with moral identity as the moderator), I used the same bootstrapping approach. First of all, the interactive effect of unethical leader-requests and moral identity on anger was not significant ($B = .16, t = 1.23, ns, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.098, .428]$). Meanwhile, as shown in Table 6, the indices of moderated mediation when insomnia (index = .02, 95% CI [-.038, .074]), emotional exhaustion (index = .04, 95% CI [-.069, .137]), and conflictual family interactions (index = .01, 95% CI [-.021, .043]) were entered in turn as the dependent variable were not significant. Therefore, H11 and H12 were not supported.

Table 6. Indirect effects via anger contingent on moral identity in Study 1

Insomnia				
Conditional indirect effects via anger	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Moral identity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.06	0.06	-0.04	0.18
Moral identity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.07	0.06	-0.05	0.20
Index of moderated mediation	0.02	0.03	-0.04	0.07
Emotional exhaustion				
Conditional indirect effects via anger	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Moral identity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.15	0.07	0.03	0.31
Moral identity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.19	0.07	0.06	0.35
Index of moderated mediation	0.04	0.05	-0.07	0.14
Conflictual family interactions				
Conditional indirect effects via anger	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Moral identity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.04	0.03	-0.02	0.11
Moral identity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.05	0.04	-0.02	0.12
Index of moderated mediation	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.04

Note. N = 254.

To test H13 and H14 (the moderated mediating effects through anxiety with responsibility displacement propensity as the moderator), I used the same bootstrapping approach (Model 7 in Process with 5,000 resamples). I estimated the conditional indirect effects of unethical leader-requests on insomnia, emotional exhaustion, and family withdrawal through anxiety. First of all, supporting the interactive effect, the interactive effect between unethical leader-requests and responsibility displacement propensity on anxiety was significant, ($B = -.35$, $t = -3.06$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.573, -.124]). As shown in Table 7, the positive effect of unethical leader-requests on anxiety was weaker for

individuals who were high in responsibility displacement propensity (simple slope effect = .24, $t = 1.28$, *ns*, 95% CI [-.130, .612]) than for individuals who were low in responsibility displacement propensity (simple slope effect = .84, $t = 4.31$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.458, 1.230]). Supporting the moderated mediation, the indices of moderated mediation when insomnia (index = -.05, 95% CI [-.123, -.001]), emotional exhaustion (index = -.077, 95% CI [-.165, -.009]), and family withdrawal (index = -.03, 95% CI [-.085, -.001]) were entered in turn as the dependent variable were all significant. For insomnia, the indirect effect was weaker for individuals who were high in responsibility displacement propensity (coefficient = .04, 95% CI [-.027, .131]) than for individuals who were low in responsibility displacement propensity (coefficient = .13, 95% CI [.026, .274]). For emotional exhaustion, the indirect effect was weaker for individuals who were high in responsibility displacement propensity (coefficient = .05, 95% CI [-.042, .172]) than for individuals who were low in responsibility displacement propensity (coefficient = .19, 95% CI [.074, .377]). For family withdrawal, the indirect effect was weaker for individuals who were high in responsibility displacement propensity (coefficient = .02, 95% CI [-.022, .076]) than for individuals who were low in responsibility displacement propensity (coefficient = .08, 95% CI [.016, .184]). Hence, both H13 and H14 were supported.

Table 7. Indirect effects via anxiety contingent on responsibility displacement propensity in Study 1

Insomnia				
Conditional indirect effects via anxiety	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Res displacement propensity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.13	0.06	0.03	0.27
Res displacement propensity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.04	0.04	-0.03	0.13
Index of moderated mediation	-0.05	0.03	-0.12	-0.00
Emotional exhaustion				
Conditional indirect effects via anxiety	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Res displacement propensity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.19	0.08	0.07	0.38
Res displacement propensity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.05	0.05	-0.04	0.17
Index of moderated mediation	-0.08	0.04	-0.16	-0.01
Family withdrawal				
Conditional indirect effects via anxiety	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Res displacement propensity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.08	0.04	0.02	0.18
Res displacement propensity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.02	0.02	-0.02	0.08
Index of moderated mediation	-0.03	0.02	-0.08	-0.00

Note. N = 254.

Res displacement propensity = responsibility displacement propensity.

To test H15 and H16 (the moderated mediating effects through anger with responsibility displacement propensity as the moderator), I used the same bootstrapping approach. First of all, the interactive effect of unethical leader-requests and responsibility displacement propensity on anger was not significant ($B = .01, t = .08, ns, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.154, .167]$). Meanwhile, as shown in Table 8, the indices of moderated mediation when insomnia (index = .0007, 95% CI [-.031, .035]), emotional exhaustion (index = .0017, 95% CI [-.055, .069]), and conflictual family interactions (index = .0004, 95% CI [-.015,

.025]) were entered in turn as the dependent variable were not significant. Therefore, H15 and H16 were not supported.

Table 8. Indirect effects via anger contingent on responsibility displacement propensity in Study 1

Insomnia				
Conditional indirect effects via anger	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Res displacement propensity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.07	0.06	-0.04	0.19
Res displacement propensity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.07	0.06	-0.04	0.20
Index of moderated mediation	0.00	0.02	-0.03	0.04
Emotional exhaustion				
Conditional indirect effects via anger	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Res displacement propensity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.17	0.07	0.04	0.33
Res displacement propensity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.17	0.07	0.05	0.34
Index of moderated mediation	0.00	0.03	-0.06	0.07
Conflictual family interactions				
Conditional indirect effects via anger	<i>Coeff./index</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	
Res displacement propensity (-1 <i>SD</i>)	0.04	0.03	-0.02	0.11
Res displacement propensity (+1 <i>SD</i>)	0.04	0.04	-0.02	0.12
Index of moderated mediation	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.02

Note. N = 254.

Res displacement propensity = responsibility displacement propensity.

Study 1 Discussion. Although Study 1 provided preliminary support for the overall relationships among the focal variables, it has several limitations that constrain the internal validity of the findings. First, Study 1 was not able to provide causal support for the hypothesized relationships. Since it was a correlational study by nature, it was

possible that the findings were the results of reverse causality (e.g., unpleasant interactions with family cause anxiety and anger, which in turn lead to the perception of unethical leader-requests) rather than the hypothesized causal relationships. Given that individuals who experience negative emotions are more likely to evaluate others negatively (Schwarz, 1990; Schwarz & Clore, 1996), compared to those who generally do not experience negative emotions at work, those who experience anxiety and anger often may be more likely to recall unethical requests by their leaders. Furthermore, the negative emotions may even bias employees' evaluation toward their leaders, and as a result, some neutral requests could be perceived as violating ethical standards. Second, I asked participants to report their leaders' behavior, their emotional experience at work, and their family activities in a general way (i.e., "generally speaking") rather than in a given time frame (e.g., last week). Such a setting could add a great amount of noise to the findings because it might lead participants to recall events that are more salient and memorable, but subtle or low-intensity things make up most of our life. In other words, the setting is subject to a series of recall biases (e.g., availability bias, negativity bias, decay effect) that might lead to biased memory that is inconsistent with what actually happened. However, I tried to rule out alternative explanations by controlling several highly relevant variables, including abusive supervision, work performance pressure, and the likelihood of compliance. Even so, I acknowledge that it was impossible to rule out all alternative explanations. Third, all measures were self-reported, and thus, the findings might be subject to common method bias (e.g., response tendencies; P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, to reduce the effect of potential common method bias, I measured the independent variable, mediators, and dependent variables in

three separate surveys with a time interval of a week. While separating surveys at different time points can help minimize the effect of common method bias, the remedy itself could cause another problem—incidents that happen at work during the a-week time interval could add a great amount of noise to the findings. For example, some participants might receive a promotion after they completed the first survey, and as a result, they might report a lower level of negative emotions at work in general in the second survey due to recall bias.

To address the above limitations, I ran a randomized experiment (Study 2) in order to examine the hypothesized causality relationships in a highly controlled context. The purposes of the experiment were to establish the causality between unethical leader-requests and the two emotional responses, examine the interaction between unethical leader-requests and moral identity and the interaction between unethical leader-requests and responsibility displacement propensity, and examine the effect of unethical leader-requests on emotional exhaustion. Although I theorize that unethical leader-requests will impact other dependent variables such as insomnia and conflictual family interactions, these are more appropriately studied in a cross-domain context, so I focused the experiment on emotional exhaustion.

Study 2 (Lab Experiment)

Population and Sample Selection. A total of 324 participants living in the United States and the United Kingdom were initially recruited from Prolific.ac. Participants could receive a total of \$4.00 if they completed both phases of the study. Of the 324 participants, 175 did not complete the second phase, 68 of whom explicitly declined to complete the second phase (i.e., they chose not to participate in the second phase after

reading the instructions of the second phase potentially because they did not want to download and install the software required to run the experiment). One hundred and forty-nine participants completed both phases of the study. I excluded six participants who failed naivety checks which will be described below, resulting in a final sample size of 143 and a final response rate of 44%. The average age was 32.87 years ($SD = 11.36$), 52 percent were female, and 75 percent were white. Excluded participants were not different from those who were included in age, gender, and race.

Experimental Procedure. I utilized a 2 (moral identity activation vs. no moral identity activation) \times 2 (unethical leader-requests vs. neutral leader-requests) factorial design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions. The experiment comprised of two phases. In the first phase, participants completed a short survey about their responsibility displacement propensity and demographic information.

Several days⁷ later, participants were invited to participate in the second phase which consisted of three parts. In the first part, participants completed a short personality survey (i.e., a 10-item personality inventory; Rammstedt & John, 2007) that is not directly relevant to the experiment per se.

In the second part, participants completed a structured recall task in which I manipulated their moral identity, and the details will be provided in the experimental intervention section. Immediately after the recall task, they were asked to rate the extent

⁷ I eventually conducted two rounds of data collection. Participants in the first round of data collection completed the second phase two weeks after the first phase. After the first round of data collection, I realized that the sample size was smaller than the necessary sample size computed via a priori power analysis due to the high attrition rate. Hence, I decided to collect more data until I reached an acceptable sample size. I conducted the second round of data collection in which participants completed the second phase five days after the first phase.

to which the experience they recalled involved morality as a manipulation check of the moral identity activation manipulation.

In the third part, participants teamed up with other three participants who were actually electronic confederates (unbeknown to participants) to engage in a creativity task called Synergize (see Erez, Schilpzand, Leavitt, Woolum, & Judge, 2015; Leavitt, Qiu, & Shapiro, 2019; X. Liu et al., 2020; Schilpzand, Leavitt, & Lim, 2016). Next, participants selected an avatar, entered a username, and were informed that the system would select a player to be the leader based on the personality survey and that the rest of them would be the subordinates who complete the task under the supervisor of the leader. In addition, they were told that based on the personality survey, one of the subordinates would be selected to be the spokesperson of the leader, the person who sends messages to the team on the leader's behalf. They were told that the duties of the leader included 1) supervising the subordinates and 2) deciding if subordinates could earn a \$1.00 bonus. Participants were told that the task would have two 3-min rounds. During each round, except for the leader, every teammate would take turns at generating creative usages for a randomly selected common object (e.g., a paperclip, a brick; Dippo & Kudrowitz, 2013) until the time was up. They were told that if they gave 40 or more answers across the two rounds, each of them would receive a \$1.00 bonus unless the leader decided they could not receive the bonus. During each turn, a specific teammate who took the turn needed to enter an answer in a textbox in 10 seconds. The answer would be subsequently displayed on the screen. After a turn was skipped, if no answer was entered in 10 seconds, a teammate would be randomly selected (by the system) to take the next turn. Notably, they were told that the computer could only recognize "pass," and all other answers would be

considered legitimate. In other words, typing “pass” would not add any point to the total score. Hence, they were explicitly and clearly asked to type “pass” if they did not have a good answer for a given turn. In addition, participants would be able to send a text message to the team during their turns, and the message would be displayed on the screen.

After the first round of the task, participants completed a short survey in which they rated their current states of anxiety and anger and reported their emotional exhaustion at the current moment. In addition, a textbox was incorporated into the survey in which they were given a chance to send a message to the team. Next, participants were told that they were disconnected from the server so that they would not be asked to do the second round. Then, we asked participants to answer two naivety check questions in order to determine whether they were aware of the nature of the confederates. At the very end of the experiment, they were asked to report whether the leader asked them to engage in any unethical behavior as the manipulation check for the unethical leader-request manipulation. Lastly, I provided a debriefing message to inform participants of the nature and the actual purpose of the study before they left the study.

Experimental Intervention. Previous studies have found that asking people to recall a time when they were moral could effectively increase people’s moral identity (e.g., Yam et al., 2019). Therefore, I used a moral identity activation manipulation adapted from Yam et al. (2019). For the moral identity manipulation, participants in the moral identity activation condition were instructed to read below:

Please recall a time when being moral was especially self-defining to you. In other words, identify a time when you were especially caring, compassionate, fair, friendly, generous, helpful, hardworking, honest, or kind. Then, close your eyes and truly engage in the recall experience for 1 minute.

Then, they were asked to visualize what they recalled, imagine they are watching themselves, and answer three questions, including “Can you see what you were wearing?” “Can you see who you were interacting with?” and “Can you see what you were doing?” Then they were asked to write a few sentences to describe the incidents they recalled. In the no moral identity activation condition, participants were asked to recall what they did in the prior day, answer the same three questions, and write down what happened. This manipulation method has been used broadly in studies that attempt to activate a specific aspect of a person’s identity and is found to be particularly useful (Leavitt, Reynolds, Barnes, Schilpzand, & Hannah, 2012; Libby, Eibach, & Gilovich, 2005; Peters & Gawronski, 2011).

For the unethical leader-request manipulation, as mentioned, except for participants, all others in the Synergize task were electronic confederates who were programmed to behave as real participants (Erez et al., 2015; X. Liu et al., 2020; Schilpzand et al., 2016), and messages sent by the confederate who was chosen to be the leader represented the unethical leader-request manipulation. The confederates’ avatars, usernames, and messages were pre-scripted and displayed during the task. Procedural delay was incorporated into the design such that thinking time delays occurred while the confederates were “typing” answers or messages, further facilitating believability. In terms of leader selection, a confederate was always selected as the leader, and a text title “Leader” appeared above this confederate’s avatar throughout the task. The leader was preprogrammed to send messages during the task.

The leader messaged the participants two times throughout the task (at the beginning of the first round and the end of the first round). After receiving the second

message, participants in both conditions would no longer receive any turns to give answers or send messages in the first round.

In terms of the first message, in both unethical leader-requests and neutral leader-request conditions, once the first round of the task starts, the leader messaged the participants “*I decide if you will receive the bonus. Tell them to think hard.*”

In terms of the second message, at the end of the first round, the leader sent another message to participants, the content of which varied across conditions. Notably, during the first round, a subordinate was programmed to type “pass” very frequently, indicating poor performance. I will refer to this subordinate as *the poor performer* in the following. The leader said below in the unethical leader-request condition and the neutral leader-request condition, respectively:

Unethical leader-request condition: It seems like the computer can’t tell the difference. Just type whatever as fast as you can. Also, make sure you say this ‘[the poor performer’s name] please stop typing pass you fool. You are wasting our time! Just type whatever as fast as you can!’ and send the exact words to everyone when you get a chance.

Neutral leader-request condition: Give answers as fast as you can. Also, make sure you say this ‘[the poor performer’s name] please stop typing pass. Try to give some answers.’ and send the exact words to everyone when you get a chance.

Although I endeavored to facilitate participants’ naivety to the manipulations, some participants might have suspected that the other participants were actually virtual confederates rather than real individuals. Therefore, I incorporated two naivety check items into the design. After the task, participants were first asked to answer an open-ended question, whether they knew the gender of the others in the task. Then, they were asked to describe the study purpose in their opinion in a text box. As indicating that they knew the other participants’ gender, or that they did not know, would suggest that they

were not suspicious of whether their teammates were real people (i.e., not answering “they were bots”), such answers indicate naivety to the manipulations (Erez et al., 2015; X. Liu et al., 2020; Schilpzand et al., 2016). As mentioned earlier, six participants failed the naivety check and thus were excluded from the data analysis.

Measures. For responsibility displacement propensity, the same scale used in Study 1 was used (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .54$).

For the moral identity manipulation check, immediately after the recall task, participants were asked to indicate to what extent the experience they recalled involved morality (1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*).

For the unethical leader-request manipulation check, after all post-experiment questions but before the debriefing message, participants were asked to answer the question, “Did your team leader ask you to engage in any unethical behavior during the task?” (1 = yes, 0 = no). I located the manipulation check at the very end of the study to reduce the likelihood that participants would be skeptical of the true purpose of the study.

For anger, the same two items used in Study 1 were used. After the first round, participants rated the extent to which they felt angry on a 5-point scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*) by responding to two survey items “Please rate the extent to which you feel angry at this moment” and “Please rate the extent to which you feel hostile at this moment” ($\alpha = .78$).

For anxiety, I aggregated the ratings of distressed, afraid, nervous, and scared as a measure of anxiety (D. T. Wagner et al., 2014). Participants rated the extent to which they felt each of them at the moment on a 5-point scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*; $\alpha = .86$).

For emotional exhaustion, I used six items from Maslach and Jackson's (1981) 9-item emotional exhaustion scale on a 5-point scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*). The three excluded items do not directly describe and assess individuals' current feelings (i.e., "Working with people all day is really a strain for me," "I feel I'm working too hard on my job," and "Working with people directly puts too much stress on me") and hence are not suitable for the experimental context. The remaining six items were adapted to fit the nature of the experiment. Sample items include "I feel emotionally drained at this moment" and "I feel frustrated at this moment" ($\alpha = .93$).

Data Analysis Procedure and Strategy. I used analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test the effects of unethical leader-requests on anxiety and anger. I then used Model 4 in PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) to test the indirect effects of unethical leader-requests on emotional exhaustion through anxiety and anger by using the bootstrapping approach with 5,000 resamples to place 95% confidence intervals around estimates of the indirect effects. Lastly, I used Model 7 in PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) to test the moderating effects of moral identity and responsibility displacement propensity by using the same bootstrapping approach.

Study 2 Results. In terms of manipulation checks, the experience participants in the moral identity activation condition recalled ($M = 3.42$, $SD = 1.09$) involved more morality than the experience participants in the no moral identity activation condition recalled ($M = 1.64$, $SD = 1.06$), $t_{141} = 9.79$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.66$. In addition, 68 percent of participants in the unethical leader-request condition indicated that the leader asked them to engage in unethical behavior in comparison to 2 percent in the neutral

leader-request condition ($\chi^2 = 68.38, p < .01, \phi_c = .69$). The results supported the effectiveness of the manipulations of moral identity and unethical leader-requests.

To test H1 and H2, I ran a series of ANOVA analyses. Participants in the unethical leader-request condition ($M = 1.58, SD = .80$) did not report a significantly higher level of anxiety than those in the neutral leader-request condition ($M = 1.54, SD = .68$), $F(1, 141) = .06, ns$. Participants in the unethical leader-request condition ($M = 1.32, SD = .55$) did not report a significantly higher level of anger than those in neutral leader-request condition ($M = 1.34, SD = .63$), $F(1, 141) = .04, ns$. Hence, H1 and H2 were not supported. Although I do not hypothesize the main effect of unethical leader-requests on emotional exhaustion, I compared the mean emotional exhaustion in both conditions. Results showed that participants in the unethical leader-request condition ($M = 1.69, SD = .95$) did not report a significantly higher level of emotional exhaustion than those in the neutral leader-request condition ($M = 1.67, SD = .81$), $F(1, 141) = .02, ns$.

To test H5 and H6, I used Model 4 in Process (Hayes, 2013) with the bootstrapping approach (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). I estimated the indirect effect of unethical leader-requests on emotional exhaustion through anxiety (or anger) using unstandardized coefficients and bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples to place 95% confidence intervals around estimates of the indirect effect. Mediation is present when the confidence interval for the indirect effect does not include zero. Results showed that the indirect effect of unethical leader-requests on emotional exhaustion through anxiety was not significant (coefficient = .02, 95% CI [-.109, .142]) and that the indirect effect through anger was also not significant (coefficient = -.01, 95% CI [-.127, .113]). Therefore, H5 and H6 were not supported.

To test the moderating effects of moral identity (H9, H10, H11, H12), I used Model 7 in Process (Hayes, 2013). I estimated the conditional indirect effect of unethical leader-requests on emotional exhaustion using unstandardized coefficients and bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples to place 95% confidence intervals around estimates of the indirect effects. The results showed that the interactive effect between unethical leader-requests and moral identity on anxiety was not significant ($B = -.06$, $t = -.23$, *ns*, 95% CI [-.561, .442]). The indirect effect through anxiety in moral identity activation condition (coefficient = $-.004$, 95% CI [-.258, .199]) was not significantly different from no moral identity activation condition (coefficient = $.03$, 95% CI [-.108, .195]). In addition, the results showed that the interactive effect between unethical leader-requests and moral identity on anger was not significant ($B = -.10$, $t = -.49$, *ns*, 95% CI [-.496, .299]). The indirect effect through anger was significant neither for participants in moral identity activation condition (coefficient = $-.05$, 95% CI [-.243, .158]) nor for those in no moral identity activation condition (coefficient = $.01$, 95% CI [-.137, .171]). H9, H10, H11, and H12 were thus not supported.

To test the moderating effects of responsibility displacement propensity (H13, H14, H15, H16), I used the same bootstrapping method above. The results showed that the interactive effect between unethical leader-requests and responsibility displacement propensity on anxiety was not significant ($B = .35$, $t = 1.95$, *ns*, 95% CI [-.005, .696]). The indirect effect on emotional exhaustion through anxiety was significant neither for those who were high (coefficient = $.13$, 95% CI [-.052, .316]) in responsibility displacement propensity nor for those who were low in responsibility displacement propensity (coefficient = $-.11$, 95% CI [-.283, .062]). In terms of anger, the interactive

effect between unethical leader-requests and responsibility displacement on anger was not significant ($B = -.06$, $t = -.45$, ns , 95% CI [-.340, .213]). The indirect effect through anger was significant neither for participants who were high in responsibility displacement propensity (coefficient = $-.04$, 95% CI [-.227, .172]) nor for those who were low in responsibility displacement (coefficient = $.01$, 95% CI [-.138, .144]). Therefore, H13, H14, H15, and H16 were not supported.

Study 2 Discussion. The experiment was intended to establish the causality among the focal variables. However, the results failed to provide support for the hypothesized causal relationships. One conclusion could be that there is no meaningful relationship among these constructs. Another possibility is that there were a number of shortcomings in the experiment that resulted in the unsupported alternative hypotheses. First, the experiment lacked overall psychological realism. Second, the unethical leader-request manipulation was not strong enough to trigger responses. Third, I failed to create a morally dilemmatic situation which is the core of this dissertation's theorization. I will elaborate upon these reasons in the discussion section. In addition, I will present a follow-up experiment designed to address these shortcomings. This experiment is described in the discussion section of this dissertation.

Study 3 (Experience Sampling Method Study)

Although the combination of Studies 1 and 2 contributed to both internal and external validity of the findings, they only focused on between-individual variance and thus were not able to capture day-to-day fluctuation in the focal variables. Researchers have advocated that “between-subject models do not imply, test, or support causal accounts that are valid at the individual level” (Borsboom, Mellenbergh, & Van Heerden,

2003, p. 214). Individual behavior tends to be explained more by within-individual variance than by between-individual variance (e.g., Ilies et al., 2007). Given the dynamic nature of the variables in my model. It will be methodologically beneficial to use the ESM approach to assess day-to-day fluctuation in unethical leader-requests, anger, anxiety, insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and interactions with family while testing the moderating effects of employees' moral identity and responsibility displacement propensity. In addition to giving a more dynamic view of the focal variables by looking into within-individual variance, the ESM approach has another two prominent advantages. First, ESM studies can minimize recall biases. As mentioned earlier, a series of recall biases (e.g., availability bias, negativity bias, decay effect) might have undermined the validity of the findings in Study 1 because using general referent (i.e., generally speaking) might lead participants to have false or biased memory that deviates from what actually happened. It is worth noting that participants in ESM studies are usually instructed to recall their experience in the last few hours, and thus, the memory tends to be more salient and accurate due to the recency effect (Baddeley & Hitch, 1993). Second, time lags are commonly used in ESM studies, which may suggest causality (Fisher & To, 2012). This is a prominent advantage over Study 1 because measuring the variables in a temporal order can help to infer (although not directly support) the causal relationships among the variables in my model. Hence, in an effort to offer a dynamic understanding of the link between the focal variables and a meaningful methodological complement for Studies 1 and 2, I used ESM approach in Study 3.

Population and Sample Selection. I initially considered the entire subject pool of Prolific.ac. However, due to the special features of the study and the consideration of data

collection smoothness, participants needed to meet several selection criteria in order to be eligible for the formal study. I used a two-round screening process to find an eligible sample that was suitable for this study. In the first round of the screening process, I set selection filters for nationality (living in the United States or the United Kingdom), marital status (being married), supervisor-subordinate relationship (having a direct supervisor at work), working hours (working more than 30 hours per week), and employment status (being a full-time employee). Then, 645 employees who met all the selection criteria completed a prescreening survey which represents the second round of the screening process. In the survey, they answered several questions to determine whether they met additional selection criteria. The additional selection criteria include 1) agreeing to invite their spouse or significant other to co-participate, 2) working Monday through Friday, 3) not indicating that they would take vacation during the data collection period, 4) not indicating that their supervisors would take vacation during the data collection period, and 5) usually starting working in the morning and leaving work in the afternoon. It was very time-consuming and financially costly to find a group of participants who met all these additional criteria. Among all of these criteria, finding a group of employees who would like to invite their spouses to co-participate was the most challenging step. Prolific has explicitly prohibited researchers from asking Prolific workers to provide their personal email addresses as well as the email addresses of individuals in their social network (e.g., coworkers, family members). As a result, their spouses must first create an account on Prolific in order to participate in our study, which significantly increased the recruitment difficulty. In order to overcome the challenge, I paid each employee a \$5.00 bonus if they asked their spouse to sign up on Prolific.ac. In

some circumstances, I needed to have a personal conversation with them in order to persuade them to do so. Eventually, of the 645 employees who were initially recruited, 113 of them met all additional section criteria and thus were eligible for the study, resulting in 113 participant dyads (i.e., 113 couples).

Study Procedure. To initiate their participation in the study, all the employees first completed a one-time entry survey capturing the measures of Level-2 variables including moral identity, responsibility displacement propensity, and demographic information (e.g., gender, race, age, type of job). One week later, all the employees were instructed to complete a 15-day period daily survey. In each day, daily survey links were sent to their email addresses. Over a period of 15 working days (three consecutive work weeks), they were asked to complete *a daily survey before noon* (at 11:00 am), *a daily survey before they left the job* (at 4:00 pm), and *a daily survey before they went to bed* (at 8:00 pm). In the first daily survey (Time 1), they answered questions about their insomnia last night. In the second daily survey (Time 2), they answered questions about unethical leader-requests made to them on the given workday and their emotions at work. In the third daily survey (Time 3), they answered questions about their emotional exhaustion. In addition, *in each evening* (at 8:00 pm), the employees' spouses were asked to report the employees' family interactions (i.e., conflictual family interactions and family withdrawal) in the given evening. Timestamps were recorded to ensure that the participants completed each daily survey in the scheduled time frame.

Data Cleaning Process. Due to the complexity of the data structure, I will describe how I cleaned the data step by step in the following. I first dropped 19 couples that did not have at least one fully matched day. Among the remaining 94 couples, a large

portion of employees in this group (53 employees) did not report that they received any unethical leader-requests during any of the 15 days of the study (and hence had no within-individual variance in the independent variable). This happened may because the study window (3 weeks) was not wide enough to capture unethical leader-requests for many of the employees or because social desirability bias prevented them from responding openly and honestly. Therefore, I excluded the 53 couples, analogous to the method used by previous research to target the questionnaire toward participants with sufficient information to answer it (C. M. Barnes et al., 2015; Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau, 2011). As a result, the final sample includes 41 couples, who collectively completed a total of 478 usable observations (*approximate observations per participant dyad* = 12). The 41 included employees did not differ from the excluded 53 employees (who did not have within-individual variance in unethical leader-requests) in age, gender, and race. For the employees who were included in the final sample, the average age was 38.98 years ($SD = 9.59$), 34 percent were female, and 90 percent were white. In terms of working status, average working hours per week were 39.61 ($SD = 3.64$), average organizational tenure was 7.80 ($SD = 4.82$), and 48.7 percent were non-managerial employees. They were from a wide range of industries. Finally, the 41 included employees did not differ from 68 excluded employees in age, gender, and race.

Although I put great endeavors to obtain an eligible sample, I acknowledge that the final individual-level sample size (41) was far from an ideal sample size of yielding robust results. It is important to note that I conducted the daily survey between February 17, 2020, and March 6, 2020. Hence, the study was not directly affected by COVID-19.

However, the potential for collecting additional data and increasing the sample size was curtailed by the pandemic because of the change in work routines caused by a series of social and legal constraints such as the stay-at-home orders. As a result, collecting additional data for this study was not feasible before my final oral defense. Despite a small individual-level sample size, many other aspects of this study are congruent with recommended practices for ESM studies. First, the group of participants (41 couples) included in the final sample completed an average of about 12 fully matched days per couple, resulting in a final day-level sample size of 478. This is remarkable and meaningful. For within-individual analyses, a large day-level sample size is most important because it offers me sufficient data points to look into individual fluctuation in Level-1 variables. According to Reis and Wheeler (1991), a two-week period (10 workdays) can represent a generalizable sample of employees' daily lives. Consistent with Reis and Wheeler's (1991) opinion, organizational researchers have commonly been conducting ESM studies over a two-week period (C. M. Barnes et al., 2015; Harrison & Wagner, 2016). Second, the data were collected at multiple time points and from multiple sources, which can help minimize the potential effects of common method bias (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2003). Given these merits, while noticing that a small individual-level sample size might hinder my cross-level interaction analyses, this data set should be able to provide me with preliminary findings for the proposed relationships between Level-1 variables in my model.

Measures. For moral identity and responsibility displacement propensity, the same scales used in Study 1 were used. Participants responded to the items on a 5-point

scale ($\alpha_{\text{moral identity}} = .71$; $\alpha_{\text{responsibility displacement propensity}} = .76$; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

To assess daily unethical leader-requests, as in Study 1, I used Desai and Kouchaki's (2017) 6-item unethical request scale. I adapted the items to reflect day-to-day fluctuation in the focal variables. Sample items include "Today, my leader asked me to look the other way while they engaged in questionable conduct" and "Today, my leader asked me to do tasks that involve lying to others." Participants responded on a 6-point scale (The mean α across days = .69; 1 = *never* to 6 = *five or more times*). I realized that the mean coefficient alpha for daily unethical leader-requests is below the level of reliability that is commonly considered good (i.e., .8). However, in general, a coefficient alpha in the 0.6-0.7 range indicates an acceptable level of reliability (Ursachi, Horodnic, & Zait, 2015).

To assess daily anger, as in Studies 1 and 2, I used Mitchell et al.'s (2018) 2-item measure of anger. Participants rated the extent to which they felt angry and hostile at work on the given day on a 5-point scale (The mean α across days = .66; 1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*).

To assess daily anxiety, I combined items used by previous studies to measure anxiety (Lu, Lee, Gino, & Galinsky, 2018; Rodell & Judge, 2009; D. T. Wagner et al., 2014) to form a 6-item measure of anxiety. Participants rated the extent to which they felt distressed, irritable, nervous, scared, afraid, and anxious at work on the given day (The mean α across days = .74; 1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*).

To assess daily insomnia, the same 4-item insomnia scale used in Study 1 (Scott & Judge, 2006) was used. Sample items include "I had trouble falling asleep last night"

and “I woke up several times during the night last night.” Participants responded to these items on a 5-point scale (The mean α across days = .83; 1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*).

To assess daily emotional exhaustion at home, I used a 4-item short version of emotional exhaustion scale (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; D. T. Wagner et al., 2014). The items were adapted to reflect day-to-day fluctuation in emotional exhaustion. Sample items include “I feel emotionally drained from my work right now” and “I feel used up right now.” Participants responded to these items on a 5-point scale (The mean α across days = .92; 1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*).

To assess daily conflictual family interactions, the same items used in Study 1 were used. The items were adapted to reflect day-to-day fluctuation. Sample items include “Today, after work my spouse argued with family members” and “Today, after work my spouse got mad at family members.” Spouses responded to the items on a 5-point scale (The mean α across days = .77; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

To assess daily family withdrawal, the same items used in Study 1 were used. The items were adapted to reflect day-to-day fluctuation. Sample items include “Today, after work my spouse spent time doing things together with family members” and “Today, after work my spouse talked with family members.” Spouses responded to the items on a 5-point scale (The mean α across days = .70; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). The items were all reverse coded to reflect daily family withdrawal. In addition, spouses rated the number of hours their spouses spent with them on the given day (e.g., 1 hour, 1.1 hours, 1.2 hours; Harrison & Wagner, 2016) as a supplementary measure of daily family withdrawal.

Furthermore, daily workload was controlled because it has been found to positively predict negative emotions in employees (Ilies et al., 2007). An 8-item workload scale (Ilies et al., 2007) was used. Sample items include “Today, I had to work fast” and “Today, I had too much work to do.” Participants responded to the items on a 5-point scale (The mean α across days = .90; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).⁸

Data Analysis Procedure and Strategy. One of the key assumptions of OLS is that random errors are independent and normally distributed. The observations in the study design are nested within individuals, which causes the violation of the independence assumption of OLS. Hence, I used hierarchical linear modeling (Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000) to test the model. At the Level-1 of the model, I entered daily unethical leader-requests as the substantive predictor; I also included daily workload as a control in the regression (only for the independent variable-mediator paths). Following the suggestion by (Hofmann et al., 2000), I centered all Level-1 predictors at the individual mean and centered all Level-2 predictors at the grand mean. To ensure that the variables in my study had sufficient within-individual variance, I first ran a series of null models. As indicated in Table 9, for every variable, a large proportion of the total

⁸ I also attempted to control for daily abusive supervision in addition to daily workload, given that it has been linked to employees’ anxiety and anger (K. Harris et al., 2005; Tepper, 2000, 2007). The same abusive supervision scale in Study 1 was used, and it was modified to fit the daily context. Sample items include “Today, my supervisor ridiculed me” and “Today, my supervisor told me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.” Participants rated the frequency with which they experienced abusive supervision on the given day on a 6-point scale (1 = *never* to 6 = *five or more times*). The results mostly remained with or without daily abusive supervision as a control. However, the mean coefficient alpha across days ($\alpha = .42$) failed to achieve the traditional acceptable cut-off level because there were four days in which the scale demonstrated zero-variance items, which violates the assumptions of reliability model (McNeish, 2018). This considerably reduced the mean coefficient alpha because the coefficient alpha on the four days were zero or below zero. I also calculated McDonald’s omega reliability (McNeish, 2018), but given the existence of zero-variance items in the specific days, the reliability in the days could not be computed. Hence, I decided to exclude daily abusive supervision from the formal analysis.

variance was within-individual (ranging from 36% to 76%), supporting the logic of ESM and HLM.

Table 9. Variance components of null models for Level-1 variables in Study 3

Variable	Within-individual variance	Between-individual variance	% variability within individual
Unethical leader-requests	0.047**	0.017**	73.44
Anxiety	0.110**	0.074**	59.78
Anger	0.177**	0.078**	69.41
Insomnia	0.533**	0.369**	59.09
Emotion exhaustion	0.437**	0.477**	47.81
Family withdrawal	0.387**	0.247**	61.04
Time spent with family	1.436**	2.538**	36.13
Conflictual family interactions	0.086**	0.027**	76.11
Workload	0.425**	0.455**	48.30

Note. % variability within individual is computed by dividing within-individual variance by total variance.

** $p < .01$.

Study 3 Results. The means, standard deviations, and correlations among Study 3 variables are presented in Table 10. As shown in the table, daily (within-individual) correlations among the focal variables provide initial support for some of my hypotheses. Specifically, daily unethical leader-requests were positively correlated with daily anxiety ($r = .24, p < .01$) and daily anger ($r = .24, p < .01$). In addition, daily anxiety and anger were correlated with some of the focal dependent variables such as emotional exhaustion

(for anxiety, $r = .20, p < .01$; for anger, $r = .17, p < .01$) and family withdrawal (for anxiety, $r = .14, p < .01$).

Table 10. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among Study 3 variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	11	12
<i>Level 1 (within-individual)</i>													
1. Daily unethical leader-requests	1.10	0.15	—										
2. Daily anxiety	1.31	0.29	.24**	—									
3. Daily anger	1.29	0.30	.24**	.40**	—								
4. Daily Insomnia	1.94	0.66	-.03	.03	-.00	—							
5. Daily emotional exhaustion	1.92	0.71	.14**	.20**	.17**	-.02	—						
6. Daily family withdrawal	2.11	0.52	.06	.14**	.02	.01	.08	—					
7. Daily time spent with family	3.41	1.60	.03	-.07	.03	-.02	-.02	-.20**	—				
8. Daily conflictual family interactions	1.12	0.17	.13**	.07	.04	-.01	.15**	.12**	-.03	—			
9. Daily workload	2.79	0.71	.08	.17**	.13**	.05	.19**	.11*	.03	.12**	—		
<i>Level 2 (between-individual)</i>													
10. Moral identity	4.46	0.52	-.03	-.03	-.23**	-.08	.01	-.09*	-.04	-.09*	-.01	—	
11. Responsibility displacement propensity	2.33	0.84	.27**	.19**	.18**	.30**	.12**	-.12**	.46**	.27**	-.21**	-.07	—

Note. N (Level-1) = 478; N (Level-2) = 41.

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

Because the within-individual data are nested within the between-individual data, the between-individual data for variables 10 and 11 were repeated across each subject's within-individual data to compute the correlations between Level-1 and Level-2 data.

Next, I will elaborate on the results, and all results are presented in Tables 11 and 12. First, I tested the effects of unethical leader-requests on anxiety and anger. As shown in Table 11, after entering daily workload as control, daily unethical leader- requests were positively related to daily anxiety ($B = .35, p < .01$) and daily anger ($B = .44, p < .01$), supporting H1 and H2.

Table 11. Results for anxiety and anger in Study 3

Variables	Anxiety		Anger	
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>SE</i>
Intercept	1.31**	.05	1.29**	.05
<i>Within-individual variables</i>				
ULRs	.35**	.10	.44**	.08
Workload (control variable)	.08*	.03	.07*	.03
<i>Between-individual variables</i>				
ULRs	.81 [†]	.45	.31	.33
Workload (control variable)	.11 [†]	.06	.17*	.05
<i>Cross-level interactions</i>				
ULRs × MI	.20	.19	-.34*	.15
ULRs × RDP	-.10	.15	-.06	.76

Note. N (Level-1) = 478; N (Level-2) = 41.

All regression coefficients are unstandardized.

[†] $p < .1$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

ULRs = unethical leader-requests; MI = moral identity;

RDP = responsibility displacement propensity.

Next, I tested the indirect effects of unethical leader-requests via anxiety and anger on the focal dependent variables. The mediation results are presented in Table 12. First of all, the indirect effect of unethical leader-requests on daily insomnia via the two emotions were significant neither for anxiety ($B = .06, ns$) nor for anger ($B = .02, ns$). The indirect effect on daily emotional exhaustion via anxiety ($B = .12, p < .1$) approached traditional significance cut-off levels (i.e., marginal significance) but failed to achieve statistical significance. The indirect effect on daily emotional exhaustion via anger ($B = .10, p < .05$) was significant. In terms of family interactions, the indirect effect

via anxiety on daily family withdrawal ($B = .09, p < .05$) and daily time spent with family members ($B = -.11, p < .05$) were both significant. Lastly, the indirect effect on daily conflictual family interactions via anger was not significant ($B = .003, ns$). These results supported H6 and H7 but failed to support H3, H4, H5, H8.

Table 12. Results for indirect effect on final dependent variables in Study 3

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Mediator	Indirect effect
H3	Daily Insomnia	Daily anxiety	.06
H4	Daily Insomnia	Daily anger	.02
H5	Daily emotion exhaustion	Daily anxiety	.12 [†]
H6	Daily emotion exhaustion	Daily anger	.10 [*]
H7	Daily family withdrawal	Daily anxiety	.09 [*]
H7	Daily time spent with family	Daily anxiety	-.11 [*]
H8	Daily conflictual family interactions	Daily anger	.003

Note. N (Level-1) = 478.

All regression coefficients are unstandardized.

[†] $p < .1$. ^{*} $p < .05$.

The last step is to test the moderating effects of moral identity and responsibility displacement propensity. I included the two Level-2 variables (either moral identity or responsibility displacement propensity) as a predictor of the Level-1 regression coefficient of the emotions (either anxiety or anger) on unethical leader-requests (intercepts- and slopes-as-outcomes model). The cross-level interactions are presented in Table 11. Neither the unethical leader-requests-moral identity interaction term predicting anxiety ($B = .20, ns$), nor that predicting anger ($B = -.34, p < .05$) was significant in the hypothesized direction. Similarly, the unethical leader-requests-responsibility

displacement propensity interaction term was not significant when either anxiety ($B = -.10, ns$) or anger ($B = -0.6, ns$) was entered as the dependent variable. Thus, all the moderation-relevant hypotheses (i.e., from H9 to H16) were not supported.

Study 3 Discussion. Although Study 3 has several strengths, including carefully selecting an eligible group of participants and using multi-source and multi-moment measures, it is not without limitations. The first limitation is that several key variables, including unethical leader-requests, anxiety, anger, insomnia, and emotional exhaustion at home, were collected through self-reports. Such a setting might leave the study vulnerable to the effects of common method bias. However, I took two steps, in particular, to minimize this concern. First, most variables were collected at different time points and in different locations. According to P. M. Podsakoff et al. (2003), “when different constructs are measured at the same time or in the same location, artifactual covariance independent of the content of the constructs themselves may result” (p. 882). My independent variable (unethical leader-requests) was measured in the afternoon right before they left their job (at 4 pm) while emotional exhaustion was measured in the evening before they went to bed (at 8 pm) and insomnia was measured in the morning of the next day (at 11 am). Therefore, there was a time interval between the independent variable and those dependent variables, and they were also assessed in different locations (workplace vs. home), minimizing the measurement context effects (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2003). Second, I centered all individual-level predictors on individual means (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Hofmann et al., 2000). By using the individual-mean centering approach, I focus on departures from the individual mean, which removes potential confounds that might stem from between-individual differences such as response

tendencies and personalities (Ilies et al., 2007). In addition, this approach allowed me to ensure that “relations among the within-individual variables are not confounded by personality or other individual differences” (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006, p. 131). While acknowledging using self-report for those variables (i.e., unethical leader-requests, anxiety, anger, insomnia, and emotional exhaustion at home) might potentially cause a confounding issue, self-report appears to be the best way to assess them. Unethical leader-requests may not be accurately assessed by leaders themselves because social desirability bias (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2003) could prevent them from giving honest responses. Moreover, as anxiety, anger, insomnia, and emotional exhaustion are all subjective experiences, I could maximize the accuracy of the measures by using self-report.

The second limitation is that my mediators (i.e., anxiety and anger) were measured at the same time as my independent variable. This limits the degree to which we can infer causal relationships between unethical leader-requests and the emotional responses. N. P. Podsakoff, Whiting, Welsh, and Mai (2013) suggested that measuring variables using a different number of anchor points and different response formats effectively reduce the effects of common method bias. Based on the findings in social psychology that repeatedly being exposed to the same message diminishes people’s motivation to centrally process the message’s content (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979, 1986), N. P. Podsakoff et al. (2013) proposed that:

Repetitiveness in the number of anchor points, or the labels used for responses, may decrease a respondent’s motivation to exert cognitive effort to process the information presented in scale items and response formats and increase the probability of nondifferentiated responses. In contrast, varying the number of anchor points or the response formats across scales in a survey (thus minimizing their repetitiveness) should result in higher levels of information processing, and thus, lower levels of stylistic response patterns and common method biases. (p. 865)

Hence, following their suggestions, I measured my independent variable with a 6-point anchor (1 = *never* to 6 = *five or more times*) and my mediators with a 5-point anchor (1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 5 = *extremely*).

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

In an effort to deepen our understanding of unethical leader-requests, drawing upon Lazarus's (1991a, 1991b) cognitive appraisal theory of emotion and Staines's (1980) spillover theory, I examined how employees emotionally react to unethical leader-requests and how unethical leader-requests can harmfully influence employees' family lives. In addition, I explored whether the effects of unethical leader-requests could be amplified or weakened by employees' moral identity and responsibility displacement propensity. A three-wave field survey, a lab experiment, and an ESM study were conducted to enhance both internal and external validity of the findings. The findings supported several hypotheses in this dissertation. In the following, I will discuss the implications of the findings, limitations of each study, and future directions.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

Consequences of Unethical Leader-requests. My dissertation contributes to the ongoing conversation regarding the consequences of unethical leader-requests. Research in this area of inquiry has predominantly focused on employee outcomes in the work domain, such as job motivation and job performance, to the exclusion of the link between unethical leader-requests and employee outcomes in non-work domains (I. H. Smith et al., 2013). For decades, work-family scholars have emphasized that a comprehensive study of organizational phenomena cannot disregard work-family connections (e.g., Dubin, 1973). As Orison Swett Marden said, "Work, love, and play are the great balance wheels of man's being" (Marden, 1918, p. 109), people spend one-third of their lives at work but spend the rest in other equally important domains such as family. A large body of work-family research has indicated that work plays a critical role in family domain activities,

and vice versa (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Byron, 2005; Ernst Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). Hence, focusing on the link between unethical leader-requests and only work domain outcomes greatly limits a realistic understanding of this phenomenon. To address such one-sided view, I highlight how the effects of unethical leader-requests can steadily spill over to employees' non-work domains such as family, thus drawing a more complete picture about the consequences of unethical leader-requests.

In addition to the theoretical implication described above, a deeper understanding of the consequences of unethical leader-requests offers important managerial implications for managers. My findings urge managers to be more aware of how their requests for behaviors that potentially violate moral standards can harmfully impact several aspects of employee health, especially for those who hold a high level of moral standard. Based on my findings, employees who hold a strong moral identity and who are less likely to mentally escape responsibility for unethical behavior they conduct in compliance with their leaders' requests are most vulnerable to the negative effects of unethical leader-requests. Recently, companies are increasingly adding value to individual moral characteristics when hiring new employees (Treviño, Den Nieuwenboer, & Kish-Gephart, 2014; Vidaver-Cohen, 1998), forecasting an upward trend in the overall level of employee morality in the future. In this regard, emphasizing the negative effects of unethical leader-requests on employee health can carry a long-term financial meaning as companies are often responsible for a large portion of employee health care expenses and could lose a huge amount of dollars due to employee health problems.

Harmfulness of Unethical Leadership. My dissertation contributes to our understanding of the harmfulness of unethical leadership in general. The majority of research on unethical leadership has focused on leaders' abuse of subordinates or abusive supervision (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010), a form of unethical leader behavior that is morally intense and salient by nature. Meanwhile, there is a lack of attention directed at other forms of unethical leader behavior that may not be seen by leaders themselves as particularly morally questionable. As M. E. Brown and Mitchell (2010) suggested, unethical leaders not only engage in unethical behavior themselves but also "foster unethical behavior among followers without engaging in the behavior themselves" (p. 588). Unfortunately, empirically, we know little about the negative consequences of unethical leader-requests. Based on my findings, I am convinced that there is a major reason why unethical leader-requests have drawn little empirical attention—unethical leader-requests are difficult to capture or simulate via regularly used organizational research methods. In terms of experimentally manipulating unethical leader-requests, as I will elaborate later, there are several technical difficulties to overcome in order to realistically manipulate unethical leader-requests. These difficulties include, but are not limited to, the difficulty of temporarily forming a leader-subordinate relationship between two strangers (a confederate plus a participant) who have never met. With regard to survey methods, as I showed in Studies 1 and 3, unethical leader-requests appear to be a low-base rate incident. This greatly increases the difficulty of reaching sufficient variance in unethical leader-requests which is a key to examine relationships between unethical leader-requests and other constructs. However, determined to cut through the methodological difficulties, I conducted three different studies to examine how unethical

leader-requests can harm employees, providing a multidimensional lens to see the undesirable consequences of unethical leadership as a whole.

Moreover, by emphasizing that unethical leader-requests are a highly overlooked but hazardous type of unethical leader behavior, this dissertation provides further reason to reduce such behavior in organizations. By making unethical leader-requests, leaders may not feel bad because of diffusion of responsibility (i.e., they are not doing the bad thing alone; Bandura, 1999) but can easily achieve “desirable” outcomes without soiling their hands, which reinforces such behavior in organizations. This represents a particularly worrisome aspect of unethical leader-requests—unethical leader-requests could be rapid-spreading and difficult to detect. “A single spark can start a prairie fire” (Mao, 1953, p. 2), and thus, the ignorance of an inconspicuous threat is dangerous, especially given that the unethicality is a threat that is highly contagious (Darley, 2005; Dimmock, Gerken, & Graham, 2018; Gino, Ayal, & Ariely, 2009; Gino, Gu, & Zhong, 2009; Robert & Arnab, 2013). Therefore, practically speaking, unethical leader-requests may be as dangerous and problematic as other forms of unethical leader behavior such as abusive supervision and sexual exploitation. My findings provide a reason for stakeholders to pay extra attention to identify leaders who make unethical leader-requests and implement policies to prevent unethical leader-requests from recurring in organizations.

Employee Wellbeing. Lastly, my dissertation examines employees’ wellbeing using a multidimensional lens. While introducing cognitive appraisal theory for the first time, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) advocated that it is important for researchers to simultaneously attend to all three dimensions of wellbeing, namely physiological, mental,

and social, that can be affected by stressful stimuli. Although later research has generally reached a consensus that these three dimensions are the core elements of employee wellbeing (e.g., Grant, Christianson, & Price, 2007; Purcell & Kinnie, 2007; Van De Voorde, Paauwe, & Van Veldhoven, 2012), little empirical research linking work stressors to employee wellbeing has looked into all three dimensions parallelly. In line with Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) insights, my dissertation integrates an aspect that is relevant to employees' social wellbeing (i.e., interactions with family)—a less studied angle in the employee stressor-wellbeing literature—with two aspects that are well known to greatly impact employees' physical and mental wellbeing (i.e., sleep and emotional exhaustion). It thus helps to broaden our understanding of how work stressors can multilaterally influence employee wellbeing.

My multidimensional findings in terms of employee wellbeing also highlight the necessity of attending to several different aspects of employee wellbeing, offering employees and spouses valuable implications of how to better manage the impact of work stressors on their wellbeing. Based on my findings, a single work stressor—receiving unethical leader-requests—can affect across all three dimensions of employee wellbeing (i.e., insomnia, emotional exhaustion, negative family interactions). Insomnia and emotional exhaustion are characterized by a series of physical and mental symptoms that directly affect individuals' basic functioning (Felton, 1998; Riemann & Voderholzer, 2003; Roth, Roehrs, Costa Silva, & Chase, 1999). According to Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory (Maslow, 1970), a person who feels sick will first focus on how to fulfill their basic survival needs and, thus, will not be interested in interpersonal relationships. In other words, when insomnia, emotional exhaustion, and negative family

interactions occur at the same time, employees may intuitively prioritize finding solutions for the first two problems. In my case, employees may consider sleeping more and relaxing as a greater priority than proactively easing the tension with family members. As a result, negative family interactions may not receive direct and timely attention.

Nevertheless, as mentioned earlier, conflictual interactions and family withdrawal are the two most common reasons for the breakdown of family relationships (e.g., divorce; Chang, 2004; Gigy & Kelly, 1993; Hawkins et al., 2012). Knowing that work stressors could have this easy-to-neglect but far-reaching impact may allow employees and their family members to have a more concrete discussion about work stressors and to develop more comprehensive strategies to cope with the impact of work stressors.

Limitations and Remedies

The Experiment. Although the overall findings of my dissertation were positive and provided support for the correlational relationships among the variables, I did not successfully find support for the hypothesized causal relationships by conducting the experiment (Study 2). Hence, it is premature to make any conclusions in terms of causal relationships before conducting further studies. To design better follow-up studies, I need to first reflect on the reasons why the experiment failed to provide evidence. Assuming the theorization in this dissertation is mostly correct, there are four major reasons why these results may be attributable to the design of the experiment. First, the experiment did not effectively simulate a realistic leader-subordinate relationship. In other words, participants might not see the leader as a true leader; that is, they might either see the leader as having no leader qualities or be skeptical of the confederate nature of the leader. There were several settings that could contribute to this problem. For example, the leader

exerted little control over participants. Moreover, the task did not require interdependence between participants, and hence coordination by the leader was not necessary in order for the participants to successfully complete the task. In other words, the leader did not play a meaningful role in the task. This could cause two problems: 1) participants did not see the leader as a person who had considerable influence and power over them, and 2) the existence of the leader in the experiment seems superfluous, leading people to question the confederate nature of the leader. A potential solution for these problems is to hire a human confederate who is well trained to engage in in-person interactions with participants.

Second, the moral intensity of unethical behavior requested by the leader was low. In the experiment, participants were asked to 1) cheat by typing anything and 2) treat the others disrespectfully by speaking to a teammate rudely on the leader's behalf. The manipulation worked in the sense that most participants in the unethical leader-request condition (68%) reported that the leader asked them to engage in unethical behavior while only a very small portion of participants in the neutral leader-request condition (2%) reported so. Meanwhile, it did not work in the sense that 32% of participants in the unethical leader-request condition did not report the incidence of any unethical behavior; moreover, the manipulation may have been too morally subtle to elicit emotional responses. The problem might lie in the moral intensity of the requested unethical behavior. Moral intensity plays an essential role in people's moral recognition, evaluation, intention, and behavior, as well as how people respond to moral dilemmas (May & Pauli, 2002). According to T. M. Jones (1991), moral intensity consists of six dimensions, including the magnitude of consequences, social consensus, the probability

of effect, temporal immediacy, proximity, and concentration of effect. Morris and McDonald (1995) found that the six dimensions explained a large portion of variance (18% to 41%) in people's moral judgment. In my experiment, two of the six dimensions, the magnitude of consequences and proximity, were weakly operationalized. The magnitude of consequences refers to the degree to which an act can harm potential victims, and proximity represents the degree to which the decision-makers feel psychologically or emotionally close to potential victims. However, in my experiment, cheating in the task or treating other participants disrespectfully might not be perceived as causing substantial harm to victims. By contrast, workplace unethical behavior could be much worse and could include behaviors that financially cost investors (e.g., using deceptive accounting practices) or even physically harm customers (e.g., selling expired foods or drugs). In terms of proximity, in the experiment, everyone in the task was anonymous, and our participants never met their teammates before. Therefore, there was little psychological or emotional connection or closeness between participants and their teammates. Nevertheless, in the workplace, potential victims of unethical conduct are often people who know each other or who live in the same area. Hence, it is clear that if I increase the moral intensity of the requested unethical behavior, the manipulation will be more likely to achieve the wanted effects.

Third, the task may have been too difficult and could have led participants to believe the chance of qualifying for the bonus was too small. As mentioned earlier, participants were told that if they gave 40 or more answers across the two rounds, each of them would be qualified for a \$1.00 bonus (unless the leader decided they could not receive the bonus). Importantly, the premise was that they gave 40 or more answers

across the two rounds, but the average number of answers they gave as a team was 10 ($SD = 1.98$) in the first round. In other words, on average, they would need to give at least 30 answers in the second round to meet the target, which might diminish participants' confidence in being qualified for the bonus. Such a lack of confidence could also be manifested by participants' written comments at the end of the experiment. When asked to describe the purpose of the study, one of the participants wrote "annoying people with an impossible task." As a result, they might believe disobeying the unethical requests was unlikely to cost them anything because it was unlikely for them to achieve such a high level of performance in the second round, contributing to the failure of creating a dilemmatic situation. Therefore, if I can lead participants to believe that the leader's decision is the only factor that can impact their gaining of the bonus, the creation of a dilemmatic situation will be more likely.

Lastly, the incentive may have failed to trigger a feeling of worry about losing entitled benefits. In a real workplace, disobeying unethical leader-requests could bring negative personal consequences such as demotion or even dismissal, which is the heart of the theorization of this dissertation. However, in the experiment, although participants were told that the leader would decide whether they could receive the bonus if they were qualified for the bonus, the only consequence of disregarding the unethical request was potentially losing the \$1.00 bonus which might not be enough to trigger emotional responses. Due to the budget constraint, it was not financially possible to offer participants more bonuses, given that I must assign bonuses to every participant regardless of their actual performance in the task (in compliance with IRB policies). It is convincing that if the bonus is more desirable to participants such as extra course credits

or even a \$100.00 bonus, it will be much more likely to trigger emotional responses in them. After considering the above potential reasons for the failure, I have designed a new experiment that may potentially address the limitations. The experiment requires in-person interactions between students and a human confederate (rather than an electronic confederate). However, due to the current legal and social constraints, I am not able to conduct the data collection before my oral defense, but I will consider running the experiment between September 2020 and June 2021. I describe the experimental design in the following section.

Proposed Experiment 2.1. I plan to recruit 200 student participants who are enrolled in business classes at a university in the United States. Participants will participate in the experiment in exchange for course credits. They will be told that the study is about individual and team problem-solving ability. They will be told that they will receive a fixed amount of course credits upon the completion of the experiment. In addition to the fixed amount of course credits, they will be told that they may receive some bonus course credits, depending on their performance in the tasks. *Unbeknown to participants, following IRB policies, I will eventually assign bonus course credits to every one of them.*

I will utilize a 2 (moral identity activation vs. no moral identity activation) \times 2 (unethical leader-requests vs. neutral leader-requests) factorial design. Participants will be randomly assigned to one of the four conditions. The experiment comprises of two phases. In the first phase, participants will complete a short survey about their responsibility displacement propensity and demographic information. A few weeks later, participants will go to a lab to complete the second phase which consists of three parts.

The first two parts will be the same as the first two parts in Study 2 (i.e., completing a short personality survey, a structured recall task, and lastly, a manipulation check question for the moral identity manipulation).

In the third part, participants will team up with three other participants, one of whom will be a hired and well-trained confederate (unbeknown to participants). In this part, participants will first complete an individual problem-solving task and then a team problem-solving task in a room. Participants will be told that one of them will be selected to be the leader based on the personality survey they just completed, and the rest of them will complete the tasks under the supervision and coordination of the leader. The confederate will always be selected to be the leader. Participants will be told that the duties of the leader include 1) introducing task instructions for both individual and team tasks, 2) coordinating the team task, 3) evaluating each participant's involvement and performance in the team task, and 4) deciding whether each participant is eligible for the bonus course credits of the team task.

Participants will first do an individual task by spending 10 minutes to complete a paper-based quiz. Before they start the task, the leader will read the instructions. The leader will emphasize while reading the instructions that 1) they will receive a certain amount of bonus course credits for each correct answer, that 2) they must complete the quiz independently, and that 3) they are not allowed to use smartphones to search for answers on the internet. During the task, the leader will engage in a very overt cheating behavior by using his/her smartphone to search for answers occasionally. After the cheating behavior, the leader will speak to others. The content of what the leader will say varies across conditions. In the unethical leader-request condition, the leader will say, “I

was just texting my mom, not searching for answers. If they ask whether any one of us used smartphone, just say no.” In the neutral leader-request condition, the leader will say, *“I was just texting my mom, not searching for answers.”* Although the leader will engage in overt cheating behavior in order to earn more bonus course credits in both conditions, he/she will only actively ask participants in the former condition to stay silent about the cheating behavior. This setting can help differentiate unethical leader-requests from other forms of unethical leader behaviors in the sense that making the unethical request could explain the variance beyond the leader’s cheating behavior.

After the individual task, a researcher will enter the room (*note: this is an important setting because this gives participants a chance to report the leader’s cheating behavior to the researcher. This can help create a dilemmatic moment that elicits emotional responses.*) to gather the answer sheets and then ask participants to complete a short survey in which they rate their experience of anxiety and anger at the moment. Next, participants will be told to start the team problem-solving task which will be a 30-minute business case study.

Next, the leader will read the instructions for the team task. It will be made clear in the instructions that 1) as long as they complete the case study in a quality manner, every one of them will be able to receive a same certain amount of bonus course credits, and that 2) to avoid free riders, at the end of the study, based on their level of involvement and performance during the team task, the leader will decide whether each participant can receive the bonus course credits for the case study. During the team task, the leader will not engage in any transgressions.

After the team task, the researcher will enter the room again and ask participants to complete a short survey in which they report emotional exhaustion at the moment.

In terms of the manipulation check for the unethical leader-request manipulation, I could locate the manipulation check at the end of the experiment (as what I did in Study 2), so even if the manipulation check indeed causes any skepticism of the true purpose of the experiment, there should be no impact on participants' responses in the experiment. However, unlike Study 2, the proposed experiment will be conducted with student participants, some of whom will complete the lab session earlier than others and may talk with those who have not completed the lab session about the experiment. Therefore, I will not incorporate a manipulation check for the unethical leader-request manipulation in the experiment in order to prevent student participants who have not taken the experiment being aware of the true purpose of the study. However, to address this limitation, I will run a pilot experiment with a small group of participants and will check the effectiveness of the manipulation in the pilot experiment.

In sum, several features of this newly designed experiment should be able to address some of the limitations in Study 2 (which have been discussed earlier). First, it can better simulate a realistic leader-subordinate interaction given that a well-trained human confederate will play the role of the leader who cheats but asks others to stay silent about the cheating. Hence, it can help to enhance psychological realism. Although the operationalized unethical leader-request is consistent with one of the items in Desai and Kouchaki's (2017) unethical request scale, "asking others to look the other way while he/she (the leader) engaged in questionable conduct," I notice this is a request for a lie of omission rather than a lie of commission (Shu & Gino, 2012). Hence, in this experiment,

the manipulation may not be able to represent all types of unethical leader-requests, which is a limitation of the design. Second, the requested unethical behavior can potentially trigger a higher level of moral intensity because of a larger magnitude of consequences and a stronger sense of proximity. In the experiment, the leader will cheat for more bonus course credits, which will cause unfair advantage against other students or participants themselves. Accordingly, staying silent about cheating behavior is likely to be perceived as morally problematic because participants are likely to have a close psychological connection with potential victims. Third, the bonus will be course credits which are highly desirable to student participants. Losing some course credits may be more “painful” than losing a small amount of monetary bonus (e.g., \$1.00) to participants. Hence, this incentive setting can help effectively create a morally dilemmatic situation.

Future Directions

My dissertation specifically focuses on the effects of receiving unethical requests without regard to the effects of compliance with unethical requests. This is because, in line with cognitive appraisal theory and previous research on employees’ reactions toward unethical leadership, unethical leader-requests are standalone stimuli that can thwart one’s moral goal and place one in a morally dilemmatic situation, subsequently evoking anxiety and anger as two immediate and direct emotional responses. This is in line with the viewpoint of most emotion theorists that emotions are initiated by the perception of a stimulus (e.g., Ekman, 1992). From this perspective, unethical leader-requests do not differ remarkably from other forms of unethical leader behaviors because they are all emotional stimuli when employees are exposed to them. On the other hand,

unlike other forms of unethical leader behavior such as abusive supervision or lying, unethical leader-requests tend to trigger immediate compliance due to its nature of being a command by an authority figure, as shown in the Milgram experiment (Stanley Milgram, 1963). This raises two unanswered questions: Will compliance influence the extent to which employees feel angry and anxious in response to the request itself? If so, how does this happen?

According to cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1962), people strive to keep their attitudes and actions consistent or consonant, and if their attitudes are inconsistent with their displayed behavior, they will feel psychologically uncomfortable. This psychological discomfort will drive people to restore consonance, often by changing their prior attitudes to be more consistent with the displayed behavior (Van Veen, Krug, Schooler, & Carter, 2009). This instinct tendency is called cognitive-dissonance reduction which has been seen as one of the most influential findings in psychology (E. E. Jones, 1998). A large body of research has provided empirical support for cognitive-dissonance reduction. For example, it has been shown that when participants were forced to give a speech supporting a viewpoint with which they previously disagreed, their personal standpoint moved toward the viewpoint they advocated in the speech (Janis & King, 1954; King & Janis, 1956). This implies that compliance will motivate changes in attitude, and this phenomenon has been highlighted by Festinger himself in his early work about the cognitive consequences of forced compliance (Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959). In my case, compliance with unethical leader-requests is likely to be perceived to conflict with cognition associated with felt anger. Anger involves “an appraisal of responsibility for wrongdoing by another person or entity and often includes the goal of

correcting the perceived wrong” (D. E. Gibson & Callister, 2010, p. 68). Therefore, anger should result in a strong eagerness to actively “battle” against an unethical leader-request because it thwarts one’s moral goals. Compliance, by contrast, represents one’s submission to the unethical leader-request. Hence, this dissonance between anger and compliance will motivate individuals to reduce or remove the unpleasant feeling of dissonance by changing their attitude toward the leader; that is, they will strive to reduce their anger at their leaders. In other words, they will tell themselves that if they had been so angry, they would have refused to follow the request. Hence, employees who have complied with unethical leader-requests may be less angry than those who have not complied unethical leader-requests and thus, may be less likely to have insomnia, emotional exhaustion at home, and conflictual family interactions. Hence, I encourage future research to look into how behavioral compliance could impact the extent to which employees respond to unethical leader-requests.

Second, despite identifying two important moderators that can impact the extent to which employees respond to unethical leader-requests, I acknowledge that additional individual and contextual factors that I did not examine in this dissertation may also influence employees’ reactions. For example, employees may respond more strongly to unethical requests made by a leader who has a high-quality relationship with the leader’s leader (i.e., leader-leader exchange; Tangirala, Green, & Ramanujam, 2007). As a high-quality leader-leader exchange relationship implies the leader’s superior status and accessibility to organizational resources (W. Liu, Tangirala, & Ramanujam, 2013), employees will perceive a higher cost of disobeying their leaders and thus feel more anxious. In addition, future research may want to explore whether peers’ moral

characteristics could affect the extent to which employees respond to unethical leader-requests. For example, given that moral identity has been proposed to positively predict whistleblowing (Vadera, Aguilera, & Caza, 2009), employees working with coworkers who have a strong moral identity may feel riskier to comply with unethical requests, leading to an even more dilemmatic situation and thereby a stronger response to unethical leader-requests.

Lastly, my dissertation mainly focuses on employees' family domain activities. However, it is possible that work experience could spill over to other life domains such as friendship. Will unethical leader-requests lead employees to have a worse relationship with their friends (e.g., distrusting a friend)? Will unethical leader-requests lead employees to behave aggressively or rudely toward a stranger (e.g., road rage)? Will unethical leader-requests lead to more deviant behavior in public (e.g., stealing)? By answering these questions, we can deepen our understanding of the impact of unethical leader-requests on employees' lives as a whole. In addition, it is worth noting that activities in the family domain have been found to affect activities in the work domain (e.g., C. M. Barnes et al., 2015; Courtright, Gardner, Smith, McCormick, & Colbert, 2016). Although I did not examine any outcome variables in the work domain, my findings indirectly imply that the negatively affected family domain activities may eventually harm work domain activities such as job performance and creativity. This raises another compelling question: will unethical leader-requests impact family domain activities and then, in turn, influence in-role (i.e., job performance) or extra-role performance (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior)? Future research would benefit from examining this "work-family-work" spillover effect.

Conclusion

Leaders' unethicity has become a social hazard as business leaders frequently commit transgressions (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010). In some circumstances, they even request their employees to commit transgressions (Desai & Kouchaki, 2017). Despite their prevalence in the business world, unethical leader-requests have long been overlooked by organizational researchers. This dissertation is dedicated to exploring the potential non-work consequences of unethical leader-requests. My findings support that unethical leader-requests can harmfully impact employees' family lives. This adds to our understanding of the non-work consequences of unethical leader-requests.

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