

**The Impact of Abusive Supervision on
Organizational Identification: A Moderated
Meditation Analysis of Hotel Employees in Antalya**

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effect of abusive supervision on employee organizational identification by analyzing the mediating effect of psychological contract violation. In addition, it explored the moderating role of favoritism in the direct association of abusive supervision and the organizational identification and the indirect effect through psychological contract violation. A total of 488 seasonal, immigrant and part-time employees from family-run hotel organizations were surveyed during the data collection process. By utilizing Hayes's macro, we found that abusive supervision and psychological contract violation had a significant negative effect on organizational identification. In addition, the results showed that psychological contract violation mediated the effect of abusive supervision on organizational identification and favoritism moderated the effect of abusive supervision on psychological contract violation. The findings highlight the detrimental effects of favoritism and abusive supervision on employee outcomes in the hospitality industry.

Keywords: Abusive supervision, favoritism, psychological contract violation, identification, family firms

ÖZ

Bu çalışmanın amacı, istismarcı yönetimin, çalışanların örgütsel özdeşleşme algısı üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır. Buna ek olarak, psikolojik sözleşme ihlalinin istismarcı yönetim ve örgütsel özdeşleşme arasındaki aracılık rolü, çalışmada irdelenmiştir. Çalışmada ayrıca, istismarcı denetim ve örgütsel özdeşleşme arasındaki doğrudan ilişkide kayırmacılığın moderatör rolünü ve psikolojik sözleşme ihlali yoluyla dolaylı etkisi araştırılmıştır.

Veri toplama sürecinde, aile tarafından işletilen otel işletmelerinde; toplam 488 mevsimlik, göçmen ve yarı zamanlı çalışana anket dağıtılmıştır. Hayes'in Process Macro istatistiki yaklaşımı ele alınarak, istismarcı yönetim ve psikolojik sözleşme ihlalinin, örgütsel özdeşleşme üzerinde önemli bir olumsuz etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, elde edilen bulgular, psikolojik sözleşme ihlalinin, istismarcı yönetimin örgütsel özdeşleşme üzerindeki etkisine aracılık ettiğini ve istismarcı yönetimin psikolojik sözleşme ihlali üzerindeki etkisini kayırmacılığa sebep olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İstismarcı yönetim, kayırmacılık, psikolojik sözleşme ihlali, örgütsel özdeşleşme, aile işletmeleri

DEDICATION

To my family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I hereby would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Dr. Hüseyin Arasli for his help and support in this part of my life.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------|---|
| AET | Affective Event Theory |
| AS | Abusive Supervision |
| AVE | Average Variance Extracted |
| CFA | Confirmatory Factor Analysis |
| CFI | Comparative Fit Index |
| CMV | Common Method Variance |
| DV | Dependent Variable |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| HLM | Hierarchical Linear Modeling |
| IFI | Incremental Fit Index |
| KMI | Key Market Indicators |
| MODMED | Moderated Mediation |
| OID | Organizational Identification |
| PCV | Psychological Contract Violation |
| PLS | Partial Least Squares |
| RMSEA | Root Mean Square Error of Approximation |
| SEM | Structural Equation Modeling |
| SD | Standard Deviation |

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The first chapter comprises all major sections of the thesis, including the study's justification, background information, problem statement and summary of the research field. This chapter discusses the study's aims and contributions. Additionally, the opening of the thesis presents the research questions and the conceptual model for the research. Besides, the equipment for conducting research and information regarding the study sample are briefly presented.

1.1 Rationale of the Study

The hospitality industry is characterized by high-demand job roles and functions (Chiang et al., 2010; Chiang et al., 2014; Singal, 2015). These functions usually create work-related pressure and stress for employees within the industry. Furthermore, the nature of hospitality demands a high degree of attention from employees. With such pressure, it is unsurprising that supervisors, seeking to get the best out of their subordinates display some abusive behaviors on the job. Considering the unfavorable impact of this conduct in the sustainable growth of organizations, a growing number of scholars have tried to examine its origins to decrease its adverse consequences (Li et al., 2020). A recent empirical study also addressed the role of abusive supervision in retaining employees in service organizations (Hussain et al., 2020). The authors found that abusive supervision has a significant impact on employees' psychological well-being and turnover intention.

According to Tepper et al. (2010) abusive supervision (AS) is the subordinates' subjective perception of the display of sustained antagonistic aggression by their supervisor, which can include belittlement, exclusion, and open rebuke—any abusive behavior short of actual physical contact. Kim et al.'s 2020 study also suggested that abusive supervision is considered a serious threat to the health of the affected employees and the sustainable development of organizations. A close link between organizational leadership/supervision and the sustainable development of organizations was also confirmed by several famous theories and approaches. For example, the service profit chain model developed by Heskett et al. (1994) suggested a cascade effect that results in organizations' sustainable performance. The authors argued that to achieve sustainable performance service organizations need to first possess a supervisor or leader who can motivate and retain competent employees. Motivating employees plays a significant role in providing high-quality service (Arasli and Arici, 2019). Parasuraman et al.'s (1985, 1988) SERVQUAL model also supports this relationship between employee performance and the service quality perception of customers. The authors also suggest that service quality is among the most important antecedents of customer satisfaction and, consequently, customer loyalty. Both these approaches verified this process by assessing the organization's profitability and competitive advantage over rivals. From a sustainability perspective, this process starts with healthy supervision and ends with the organization's financial performance and can be used to assess service companies' sustainable development in the market. That is, leadership or supervisor ship is a starting point for ensuring the sustainable development of service organizations in the market. In a similar vein, Barney (1991) resource-based view also contributes to this discussion by developing a conceptual model prioritizing organizational resources (i.e., financial resources, human resources,

and physical resources) as a way to gain a sustained competitive advantage. The author suggested that organizational resources, such as supervisors and employees, should have some attributes (i.e., rare, valuable, inimitable, irreplaceable) that encourage the sustainable development of the market. In other words, this theory also confirms that supervisors and employees are among the most important internal resources for achieving sustainable performance in service organizations. Thus, our study has the potential to provide insight regarding the impacts of abusive supervision on employees and organizations' sustainable development in the hospitality sector.

Leadership has emerged as an active domain in theory building and research, presenting a more scientific and evidence-based background that helped to develop scholars' and practitioners' long-standing attention to this concept. For over 60 years, leadership scholars have struggled to clarify the features of leadership that improve firm performance, particularly in the tourism and hospitality industry (Arasli, Altinay and Arici, 2020; Chon and Zoltan, 2019).

Research over the past half-century has sought to establish why and how some leadership styles are more efficient than others, but the response is elusive and scholars are still trying to clarify numerous issues (Gordon and Yukl, 2004). Many scholars have investigated positive leadership styles and their influences on employee-level and firm-level outcomes (Anser et al., 2021; Cavazotte et al., 2020). Previous studies have examined positive leadership styles, such as transformational leadership (Kara et al., 2013; Tracey and Hinkin, 1994), servant leadership (Chon and Zoltan, 2019; Koyuncu et al., 2014), authentic leadership (Arici, 2018), charismatic leadership (Tuan, 2019), spiritual leadership (Bayighomog and Arasli, 2019), and ethical leadership (Schwepker et al., 2021), in the hospitality sector. Moreover, many researchers have

suggested a foundation of leadership to guarantee the sustainable development of organizations in the hospitality industry (Huang et al., 2016) because of its complex and dynamic nature (Arasli, Altinay and Arici, 2020; Arasli et al., 2019). Other scholars have suggested that leadership influences job performance in the hospitality industry (Elbaz and Haddoud, 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2017). Specifically, leadership style, either positive or negative, has a direct effect on employees' performance and attitudes. Epitropaki and Martin's work found a significant effect of transformational and transactional leadership styles on employee organizational identification (2005). Similarly, Vondey's (2010) study found that servant leadership has a significant impact on employee organizational identification. More recently, one study revealed the significant relationship between authentic leadership and employee organizational identification in healthcare organizations (Fallatah et al., 2017). Several scholars have also investigated leadership styles and their effects on employees' performance and quality of work life. Leitão et al. (2019) pioneering study found that employees who feel supported by their supervisors are more likely to feel that they contribute to the firm's productivity. On the other hand, negative leadership styles were also investigated to test their impacts on employees. To illustrate, Decoster et al. (2013) pioneering work found that AS having a significant effect on organizational identification. Considering this background, hospitality organizations are expected to suffer negative effects from abusive supervision in terms of their employees' psychological and behavioral outcomes (Ma et al., 2021). Based on affective event theory, which posits that affective events within organizations are appraised by individuals cognitively while trying to assess their effect on their personal well-being (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) hospitality employees may attribute negative value to abuse from their supervisor. Employees may then easily believe that their

psychological contract with their organization has been breached as members of the management team are considered to be ambassadors of their departments. Moreover, the core argument of affective event theory is that job attitudes and behaviors are influenced by emotional reactions.

1.2 Originality of the Study

Recent research has investigated employees' emotional reactions by considering burnout syndrome as a moderating variable in the assessment of employees' quality of their work life and their feelings of contribution to the firm's productivity (Leitão et al., 2019). Psychological contracts are based on perceived promises and arise when one party believes that another party is obliged to perform certain deeds and behaviors (Rousseau, 1995). A psychological contract violation, according to Morrison and Robinson, is an employee's perception that their organization has failed to adequately fulfill its psychological contract (Said et al., 2021; Arasli et al., 2021). As many prior research have depicted, the concept of the psychological contract and its violation is rooted in the tenets of social relationships: fulfillment or otherwise of the contract will elicit a commensurate reaction or behavior from employees.

Identity is a reciprocal notion that is constructed by interacting with others (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991). As for organizational identity, it is generally considered fundamental, distinct, and permanent regarding the nature of an organization (Gioia et al., 2000). Research into the organizational behavior literature highlights the relevance and importance of employee identification (Fiol and O'Connor, 2002). In organizational contexts, employees may identify with organizations, and their relations with their supervisors or leaders can shape their identification because supervisors represent the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002). The role of supervisors in

employee identification has been scarcely studied in the hospitality literature. Although much has been discussed regarding the antecedents and consequences of abusive supervision, research into when and how abusive supervision affects employee outcomes, such as a psychological contract violation (PCV) and organizational identification, is lacking. Therefore, we analyzed the potential effect of abusive supervision on employee organizational identification by focusing on the mediating role of a PCV and the moderating role of favoritism (see Figure 1).

1.3 Research Questions

By examining the mediating impact of psychological contract breach, this study examined the effect of abusive supervision on employee organizational identity. Additionally, it examined the moderating influence of favoritism on the direct relationship between abusive supervision and organizational identity, as well as the indirect effect via psychological contract violation. Current research sought to respond following study objectives:

- Does abusive supervision have an effect on employees feeling a psychological contract violation in the hotel sector in Antalya?
- Do Psychological contract violations have an impact on employees' organizational identification. in the hotel sector in Antalya?
- Do Psychological contract violations mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and employees' organizational identification?
- Do climate of favoritism moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and employees' psychological contract violation?

1.4 Contribution of the Study

This research has sparked curiosity on the negative effects of an atmosphere of favoritism on emotional PCVs. A higher volume of PCV measures, for instance, is associated with an increased OID, but only when the environment of favoring around such hotels is more visible. Simply said, if abusive supervision is substituted with ethical leadership, improved managerial outcomes related OID may be achieved. In summary, an environment of partiality acted as a moderator of the association between PCVs and OID. As a result, our work adds to the PCV literature by highlighting critical and novel settings in which PCVs have an effect on OID. Finally, our study established links between AS, PCVs, and OID by examining the border conditions of a climate of favoritism via the eyes of contingent employees. The indirect effect of AS on OID via PCVs was greater when the atmosphere of favoring was substantial; this suggests that in organizations with AS, OID was reduced only when the climate of favoritism was significant. To summarize, incorporating PCVs and a climate of partiality into the hypothesized interactions aided in the knowledge of AS and its relationship to OID.

Additionally, our findings contribute to the literature on sustainability. Our study makes at least two contributions. To begin, we validated the relevance of the dark side of leadership in hospitality businesses by experimentally evaluating the effect of AS in OID. This means that AS should be viewed since a critical agent in service companies, as it influences employee behaviors and attitudes, hence promoting the businesses' long-term market viability. This significant conclusion is consistent with earlier empirical research (Hussain et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2020) that indicated that AS is a significant factor affecting service firms' sustainable growth. As a result of our study, we gained a better knowledge of AS and advocate for more research on its direct

influence on an organization's sustainable performance. Second, our empirical findings corroborated various theoretical recommendations emphasizing the critical significance of internal resources, such as managers, supervisors, and workers, in sustaining a competitive edge in the market (Heskett et al., 1994; Barney, 1991). Our empirical findings corroborated this theoretical knowledge by demonstrating the impact of AS in altering employee OID via PCVs. Additionally, our findings add to prior study (Pointing, 2020) that established a link between leadership and OID in hotel businesses. This raises a new question: Does abusive supervision have an indirect influence on an organization's long-term performance via OID, or is there a meaningful link between a greater degree of OID and an organization's long-term development? Simply put, this study establishes a new channel for examining the role of abusive supervision in the sustainability literature, an area that has garnered surprisingly little attention from sustainability scholars.

1.5 Conceptual Research Model

Figure 1 is shown in below related to the conceptual model of the thesis, which proposed that PCV would mediate the relationship between AS and OID. Besides the model shows that climate of favoritism moderates the effect of AS on PCV and OID. Finally, the model infers that climate of favoritism moderates the indirect effect of AS on PCV and OID.

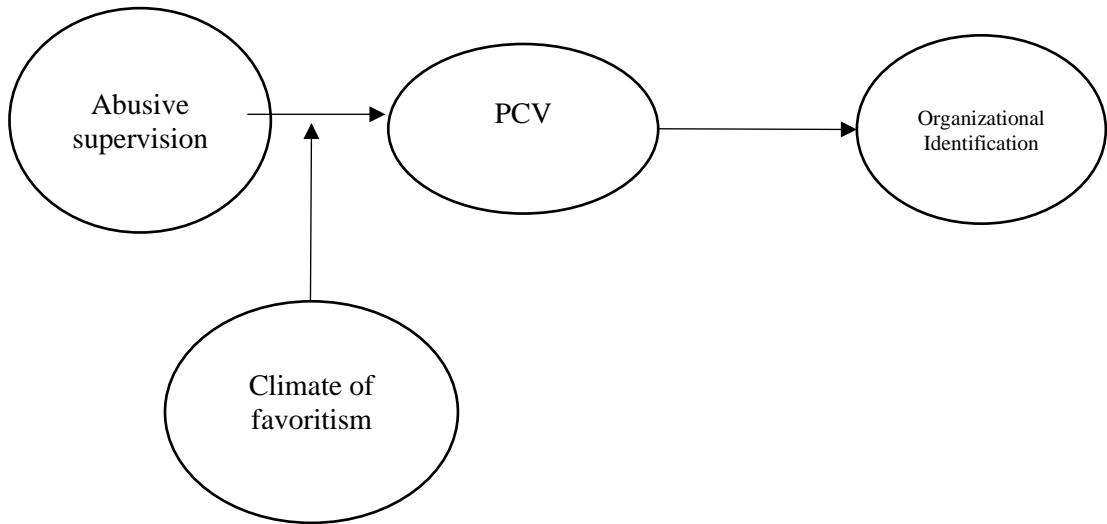


Figure 1: Conceptual Model of the Study

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section presented the hypotheses that were employed to explain the relationship between the research elements. The theories used in this research are tenet of affective event (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) and emotional contagion theory (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006). Information beside abusive supervision as an antecedent variable, perceived organizational identification, favoritism and psychological contract violation is discussed in this chapter.

2.1 Theories

2.1.1 Affective Event Theory

The Affective event theory is consistent with cognitive appraisal theories and research (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996), emphasizing the importance of discrete events as proximal causes of affective reactions, and hence distal causes of attitudes and behaviors, via affective mediation. According to the AET, emotional reactions arise as a result of a dual-level cognitive appraisal process that begins with an initial assessment of an event's significance to the individual. This event influences the strength of the individual's subjective emotional reaction, and the first evaluation results in additional and more precise appraisals of the prospective repercussions of an emotional experience, as well as those attributed to the event. This secondary level of judgment should produce identifiable feelings such as rage or enjoyment (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996).

AET takes an event-based approach to studying emotions and provides a framework for understanding how work environment characteristics might eventually impact individual job behaviors influenced by emotional experiences. According to this "context-feelings-attitudes-behaviors" theory, job behavior or performance is a product of workers' specific emotions toward their companies, which are influenced by organizational elements.

The work environment, according to AET, increases the creation of emotions via environmental cues (Ghasemy et al., 2021). For example, organizations that are supportive of one another generate affective events that result in happy feelings, which subsequently lead to organizational citizenship behaviors (Luo and Chea, 2018). Additionally, AET demonstrates that, in comparison to strong but occasional affective experiences, frequent occurrences that accrue over time might have a greater impact on emotion creation, illuminating the potential impact of corporate culture on emotions (Simillidou et al., 2020).

In other words, based on Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), affective event theory suggests that people evaluate affective events cognitively, examining the event's associations and importance for their individual wellbeing. That is, organizational events are the proximal causes of affective reactions, where these affective reactions have direct influences on behaviors and attitudes (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). The outcomes of these appraisals usually lead to behavioral responses and discrete emotions such as anger or joy (Guzzo, Wang, Madera and Abbott, 2021). The core tenet of affective event theory is that job attitudes and behaviors are influenced by emotional reactions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Its use in understanding leadership has been well documented regarding the related works (Hwang and Wang,

2021; Wang, Guchait and Pasamehmetoglu, 2020; Guzzo, Wang, Madera and Abbott, 2021). The theory also describes the changes in affective state within a person, how these changes are rooted in regular events, and their effects on simultaneous changes in performance-related conduct (Guzzo, Wang, Madera and Abbott, 2021). Like affective event theory, emotional contagion theory suggests that discrete emotions within teams or an organization tend to spread across the entire team through a process of contagion (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Emotions such as happiness, joy, sadness, and anger may, through the trickle-down effect, transfer from a supervisor to their subordinates. Hatfield et al. argued that emotions are “caught” or picked up in a process of emotional contagion among team members (Guzzo, Wang, Madera and Abbott, 2021).

Affective event theory claims that affective experiences may have attitudinal and behavioral impacts, which were taken into consideration in this study. Numerous studies have asserted the usefulness of understanding how a leader might influence the attitudinal and behavioral experiences of followers in a failure feedback situation. The literature on leadership and emotions is expanding, with much empirical research regarding the impact of leadership on subordinates. Engle and Lord concluded that a leader’s positive affective disposition triggers higher quality leader–member exchanges, as it enhances the trust level or causes the emotion of the leader to “spread” to followers (Engle and Lord, 1997). Studies on mood contagion in nursing, accounting, and sports teams have concluded that the mood of the group leader impacts the overall affective state of all group members (George et al., 1990; Totterdell et al., 1998). If the leader’s emotions are positive, the group members’ emotions tend to also be positive (Newcombe and Ashkanasy, 2002). On the other hand, some research has

focused on the influence of the leader on subordinates' attitudes and work performance. Organizational studies showed that the more positive the leader's affective disposition is, the better the group performance can be when serving customers (George, 2000). George's research also revealed that a more positive group affective tone could make group members more engaged in prosocial organizational behaviors. Consistent with this theory, this study assumes that a supervisor's negative behavior can be detrimental for employees' psychological outcomes, which in turn can negatively affect employees' organizational identification.

2.1.2 Emotional Contagion Theory

Emotional contagion research aims to understand how emotions are communicated between individuals during communications "catching" other individuals' sentiments alters the dynamics of the social interaction. At both the subconscious and cognitive levels, emotional contagion can occur (Wróbel and Imbir, 2019). That is, emotional contagion can be attributed to people's "automatic mimicry and synchronization of another person's facial expressions, vocalizations, and movements and, as a result, emotional convergence" (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006) and to more conscious social comparison processes between people (Wróbel and Imbir, 2019). With "basic emotional contagion" emotions are transferred between people as a result of the receiver's unconscious, emotive processes. This sort of emotional contagion is facilitated by a two-step imitation process in which a person (1) spontaneously imitates another person's facial expressions and other nonverbal signals and (2) experiences the accompanying feelings via physiological connections (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006). While the individual experiences the feelings associated with imitation, the mechanisms that result in these emotions are frequently "subconscious and automatic" (Wróbel and Imbir, 2019). As a result, theories of emotional contagion propose that

primitive emotional contagion is triggered by the sender's emotional display; a stronger emotional display by the sender leads in more levels of emotional contagion in the receiver. In comparison, "conscious emotional contagion" is based on social comparison processes in which individuals intentionally seek out emotional information as a form of social knowledge (Arasli et al, 2021). This search activity is seen as a fundamental human trait that is amplified under confusing situations (Wróbel and Imbir, 2019; Arasli et al, 2021; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006). Precisely, the tenet of emotional contagion asserts when individual associate his/her attitude to that of another individual, they acquire the sender's emotive level (Wróbel and Imbir, 2019; Arasli et al, 2021; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006). For instance, as lack of other social information, individuals seeing an attorney for the first time might be anticipated to watch the attorney's emotional presentation and subsequently copy his or her feelings in order to get social information and eliminate apparent ambiguity (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006). Different from basic emotional contagion, mindful emotional contagion is defined less by the sender's degree of emotion expression during an encounter and more by the sincerity with which the emotions are presented. When the receiver considers the sender's emotional display as phony or dishonest, he or she will not understand it like sufficient for decreasing supposed vagueness, and so cognizant emotional contagion is less likely to occur (Wróbel and Imbir, 2019; Arasli et al, 2021; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006).

2.2 Abusive Supervision

The way researchers consider about (i.e., theorize and conceptualize) abusive supervision is a critical topic that influences all other elements of the discipline (e.g., measurement and study design). Tepper's first definition, which continues to be the most often used, defines abusive supervision as "subordinates' views of supervisors'

persistent display of hostile verbal and nonverbal actions, excluding physical contact". A definition is a "precise declaration or explanation of something's nature, extent, or meaning" (Oxford English Dictionary), and any construct definition should explicitly explain its bounds in order to differentiate it from comparable concepts, particularly thoroughly associated with independent and dependent (criterion) variables (MacKenzie, 2003). Tepper's (2000) original definition is strong in this regard, stating unequivocally that abusive supervision does not refer to leader behaviors but to followers' subjective evaluations of these behaviors, because "[t]he same individual may view a supervisor's behavior as abusive in one context but not in another, and two subordinates may have divergent views on the same supervisor's behavior". However, academics have frequently used abusive supervision ratings as indicators of leader conduct. For example, abusive supervision has been defined as "nonphysical hostility directed at subordinates by managers" (Tepper et al., 2008; p. 721) and "nonphysical hostility directed at employees' immediate supervisors" (Tepper et al., 2011; p.279). As a result, there is confusion. Ratings of abusive supervision are interpreted in a variety of ways as a communicative dimension. Supervising implies authority, and so pertains to leader activities rather than follower judgements

Table 1: Summary of the past and present studies regarding abusive supervision on customer-contact employees

| Authors | Sample size | Country | Statistical procedure | Major findings |
|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------------------------|--|
| Wang and Xu (2021) | 334 | China | PLS-SEM | There is a positive correlation between perceived deterrent certainty and behavior. When it comes to second-round compliance intention, however, |

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| | | | | ethical leadership has a major indirect influence that matters. Even when managers' intentions are good, abusive supervision has negative impacts. |
| Teng et al. (2021) | 278 | Taiwan | PROCESS Macro | According to the findings, job enthusiasm, work engagement, abusive supervision, and job embeddedness were all associated with one another. Abusive supervision reduced job embeddedness only in a roundabout way by reducing work engagement. |
| Khan et al. (2021) | 213 | Pakistan | MPlus | The findings showed that anger moderated the negative link between abusive supervision and organizational citizenship behaviors of group members as well as the positive association between abusive supervision and disengagement of group members. |
| Caillier (2021) | 208 | U.S | Mixed Method | People who have been subjected to abusive supervision have a tendency to report that it has a negative effect on their work attitudes. As a second effect, abusive supervision heightened targets' views of their intentions to leave, ultimately leading to |

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| | | | | employees quitting their jobs. Third, the self-efficacy of targets was harmed as a result of abusive surveillance. Fourth, poor performance was linked to poor supervision. |
| Lyubykh et al. (2021) | 189 | Intercontinental | Mplus | According to the findings, biased attributions about the conscientiousness of employees might help explain the link between poor employee performance and abusive management. |
| Liu et al. (2021) | 430 | China | Mplus and SPSS | The results reveal that emotional exhaustion plays a mediating role in the path analysis of abusive supervision and voice behavior. |
| Xi et al. (2021) | 508 | China and U.S | HLM | Results provide light on the cross-level factors that contribute to abusive supervision and reveal the crucial role played by emotions in the relationship between HR systems and leadership behavior. |
| Shin et al. (2021) | 440 | South Korea | Mplus Macro | Customer incivility has an indirect influence on job performance through emotional tiredness, as seen by the two-wave panel data obtained from South Korean frontline service personnel. The |

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----|----------|------------------------|--|
| | | | | emotional tiredness caused by rude customers had a higher indirect impact on work performance than abusive supervision did throughout the epidemic. |
| Xiong et al. (2021) | 368 | China | SPSS Macro PROCESS | Results revealed that abusive supervision positively influences unethical pro-organizational behavior and that status challenge mediated this relation. Furthermore, the indirect effect of status challenge was moderated by leader-member exchange. |
| Rani et al. (2021) | 307 | Pakistan | Smart PLS | According to the findings, there is a clear link between abusive supervision and both a promotional and prohibitive voice in the workplace. They also back the idea that paranoid arousal mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and promotional speech. The data, on the other hand, refute the idea that paranoid arousal mediates the link between abusive supervision and prohibited voice. |
| Agarwal et al. (2021) | 388 | India | The SPSS Macro PROCESS | As a consequence, psychological safety was found to be a mediator in the relationship between abusive supervision and knowledge hiding. |

Higher self-esteem also lessened the impact of abusive supervision on psychological safety and knowledge hiding, but more co-rumination amplified the impact, as employees who co-ruminated more were also more affected in psychological safety and knowledge hiding by abusive supervision; this impact was amplified by co-rumination.

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|---------------------------|-------|------------------|-------------------|---|
| Balabanova (2021) | 1,100 | Russia | Regression | The findings demonstrate the significance of managerial practices at the organizational level that establish socio-economic reliance among employees when it comes to forecasting abusive supervision. |
| Farooq and Sultana (2021) | - | Intercontinental | Systematic review | According to the findings, abusive supervision is associated with knowledge hiding, and mistrust mediates this connection. |
| Islam et al. (2021) | 396 | Pakistan | AMOS version 24 | There is a favorable correlation between abusive supervision and knowledge concealing, according to structural equation modeling. Islamic work ethic and future focus are also linked to lower levels of happiness, although the converse is also true. |

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| Rasheed et al. (2021) | 287 | China | AMOS 21 | There is evidence that abusive supervision has a detrimental impact on an employee's capacity to modify their career via the use of career self-efficacy, based on three waves of data collected from 287 individuals working in various firms in China. Furthermore, it was shown that colleague support masked the link between abusive supervision and career flexibility, resulting in a weaker connection as coworker support increased. |
| Ahmed et al. (2021) | 204 | Pakistan | PROCESS Macro in IBM SPSS v.26 and AMOS v. 26 | The study indicates the negative impact of abusive supervision on the knowledge worker productivity through the mediating mechanism of knowledge management processes. |
| Men et al. (2021) | 378 | China | Hierarchical regression | The results show that in a Chinese cultural setting, an abusive supervisory atmosphere has a detrimental impact on team innovation. This negative impact is totally mediated by collective efficacy and group identity. |
| Eissa and Lester (2021) | 181 | U.S | PROCESS macro | Our findings also support the notion that supervisor moral identity and core self-evaluation are important predictors of abusive |

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|-------------------|-----|----------|-----------------|--|
| | | | | supervision. We contend that when supervisor moral identity and core self-evaluation are poor, abusive supervision will be more likely to occur as a result of moral disengagement. |
| Low et al. (2021) | 337 | Malaysia | SPSS | Healthcare ambassadors perceive injustice when subjected to abusive supervision and indulge in deviant behavior; 2) nurses with a high level of power distance orientation are less likely to perceive abusive supervision as injustice; and 3) nurses with an internal locus of control are less likely to engage in deviant behavior. |
| Ampofo (2021) | 274 | Ghana | AMOS version 25 | The findings showed that psychological contract breach negatively influenced hotel employees' life satisfaction. However, abusive supervision was not significantly associated to hotel employees' life satisfaction. Furthermore, job satisfaction and work engagement fully mediated the link of abusive supervision and psychological contract breach with life satisfaction. |
| Ma et al. (2021) | 251 | China | HLM | The findings depicted that abusive supervision positively affects |

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| | | | | service employees' customer-oriented service sabotage through lowering their organizational identification. |
| Ozkan (2021) | 230 | Turkey | Pearson's correlation analysis and multiple and hierarchical linear regression | According to the findings, workplace incivility, abusive supervision, and bullying all have a positive and significant impact on employees' intention to leave. Workplace incivility and bullying are significantly and positively impacted by abusive supervisory practices (abusive supervision). Bullying, incivility, and ostracism in the workplace all had significant moderating effects on the connection between abusive supervisory behavior and desire to leave. |
| Peltokorpi and Ramaswami (2021) | 603 | Japan | AMOS Version 23 | A study showed that the relationship between abusive supervision and work satisfaction is moderated by the degree to which subordinates' power distance orientation rises, because stressor-strain connections are sensitive to individual-level heterogeneity. |

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|--------------------------|------|--------|-----------------------|---|
| Tews and Stafford (2020) | 2056 | U.S | Mplus 8 | The sample's total turnover rose as a result of abusive supervision. However, the impact was greater among the more youthful members of the workforce. Younger workers who had more aggressive supervisors were more likely to leave if constituent attachment was high. |
| Wang et al. (2020) | 233 | Taiwan | SEM | According to the findings, employees who are subjected abusive supervision are more likely to remain silent. Furthermore, the findings revealed that the negative relationships between abusive supervision and employees' level of work engagement and job satisfaction are mediated by the level of employee silence. |
| Xu et al. (2020) | 456 | China | LISREL 8.7 | The results revealed that abusive supervision led to subordinate silence, and human resource management practices intensified this effect. |
| Smallfield et al. (2020) | 428 | U.S | SPSS.22 and Mplus 7.2 | Team task performance as a factor that decreases the degree to which affective tone is related to abusive supervision |

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|--------------------|-----|-------------|------|--|
| Kim et al. (2020) | 190 | South Korea | AMOS | Trickle-down model of abusive supervision is supported by data from 190 supervisor–subordinate dyads. The results also reveal that abusive supervisor conduct has a higher connection to employee emotional weariness when the task performance of the supervisor or the employee promotion focus are both high. |
| Shen et al. (2020) | 470 | China | HLM | In the study, it was found that creative role identities mediated the relationship between abusive supervision (abusive management) and employee creativity (creative work), and that abusive supervision climate (abusive management) moderated the relationship between creativity and individual-level abusive supervision (individual-level abusive work). |
| Wang (2020) | 863 | Taiwan | HLM | Workplace exhaustion is correlated positively with emotional surface acting, which, in turn, results in subpar customer service. Also identified were interactions between perceived organizational support and abusive supervision on the links between |

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| | | | | emotional labor, engagement and burnout as well as on the degree of service quality. |
| Wang and Chan (2020) | 223 | China | MODMED Macro v2.13 Hierarchical linear regression | The findings supported interactional justice mediated the relations between abusive supervision and well-being. |
| Richard et al. (2020) | 324 | China | AMOS 24.0 | To counteract the favorable influence of abusive supervision on turnover intentions, researchers found that both a low power-distance orientation and a high perceived atmosphere of human resource support interacted with abusive supervision to reduce interpersonal hostility. We also discover, via turnover intentions, that persons who are power-distance-oriented and have a negative opinion of HR assistance are more likely to engage in interpersonal violence. |
| Pradhan et al. (2019) | 246 | India | PLS-SEM | The findings revealed that abusive supervision is positively related to intention to quit. Similarly, psychological contract breach and burnout partially mediates the |

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|-------------------------|-----|-------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| | | | | abusive supervision-intention to quit linkage. |
| Park et al. (2020) | 290 | South Korea | Ordinary least squared regression | As hypothesized, when subordinates receive higher levels of coworker support or have higher self-efficacy, abusive supervision is less negatively related to task performance. |
| Al-Hawari et al. (2020) | 335 | UAE | SEM | The findings revealed that employees are more likely to remain silent when they experience abusive supervision and this silence directly affects their ability to serve customers. The effect that abusive supervision has on silence behaviors is stronger when organizational customer orientation is low. |
| Shum (2020) | 146 | U.S | Moderated Cross-lagged Analyze | Abusive supervision worsens service performance and employees with low service performance provoke abusive supervision. Coworker support mitigates the lagged effect between abusive supervision and service performance and that between service performance and abusive supervision. |

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|----------------------------|-----|----------|------------------|--|
| Gurlek and Yesiltas (2020) | 336 | Turkey | PLS-SEM | The findings revealed that abusive supervision impacts on job alienation and service sabotage. Moreover, the study results showed that job alienation affects service sabotage. |
| De Clercq et al. (2021) | 350 | Pakistan | PROCESS Macro | Employees are less likely to engage in self-protective activities in order to avoid conflicts with verbally abusive supervisors, which reduces the likelihood of lower supervisor-rated performance assessments. |

The distinction between leader behaviors and follower assessments may appear to be an unnecessarily crucial, if not trivial, point (Fischer et al., 2021). While behaviors and assessments of behaviors are related, they are different ideas with unique antecedents and outcomes (Fischer et al., 2021). What Fischer et al. (2021) refer to as 'evaluations' are occasionally referred to as 'perceptions.' Whereas perception refers to the act of 'awareness of' occasion, assessment refers to the progression of "making judgments about" an event. Thus, evaluation is a more relevant phrase, as research on abusive supervision needs employees in order to mention their judgements of executives or managers actions, in compared to admitting their presence (Fischer et al., 2021). Thus, assessments and behaviors might diverge for causes other than skewed perceptions. As a result, combining leader behavior judgments with behavior itself impairs both conjectural as well as experiential precision. Previously, similar criticisms were leveled and replied (Fischer et al., 2021). As a sample, group of

scholars stated that "from the construct's inception, those contributing rigorous scholarship to the domain (i.e., research that has found a home in the finest journals of organizational behavior and industrial and organizational psychology) have assumed that subordinate reports of abusive supervision reflect a subjective evaluation and have never claimed that these reports accurately reflect supervisors' behavior" (Tepper et al., 2017; p. 126).

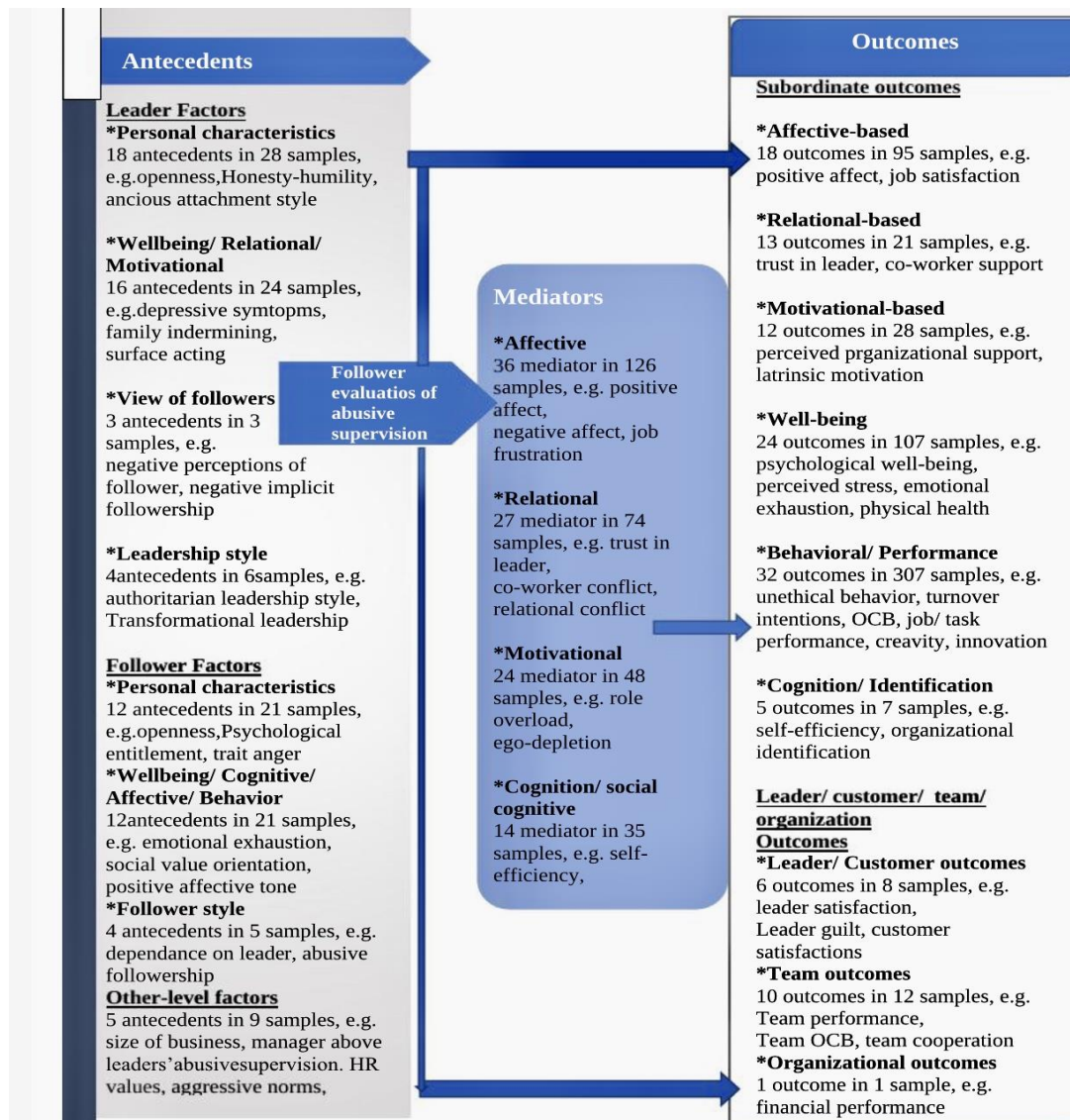


Figure 2: Nomological Network of Abusive Supervision (Fischer et al., 2021).

Number of research has been documented broadly in the domain of tourism, leisure hospitality and travel. Due to the huge number of outcome factors, Fischer et al. (2021) have categorized them to aid in interpretation and debate (see Fig. 1). Numerous research, for example, examine the relationship regarding the abusive supervision and follower behavior. The results encompass both desirable (e.g., extra-role performance, job performance, productivity) and unwanted (e.g., intention to quit, uncivil or toxic) behaviors.

2.2.1 Definition and Measure of Abusive Supervision

Organizations and academic institutions alike have committed resources in gaining a better understanding of leadership. From the C-suite to the front line, from private enterprise to the public sector to the military, leaders have an influence on organizational outcomes and the lives of their direct reports (Fischer et al., 2021). The majority of research on leadership styles has been on constructive types. Not all leadership approaches are helpful; leadership has an 'evil' side. Abusive supervision is a type of leadership that falls under the destructive leadership category (Schyns and Schilling, 2013). Approximately the last roughly 19 years, over 200 empirical studies on abusive supervision have been published (Tepper et al., 2017). Additionally, multiple reviews (Tepper et al., 2017) have been written on the issue, including recommendations for future study directions. The majority of these research used pioneer study concept and measure of abusive supervision conducted by Tepper (2000).

Tepper's major work on abusive supervision (2000) produced a workable construct based on justice theory and an operationalized tool to assess the subordinate's sense of supervisory abuse. The term "abusive supervision" refers to "subordinates' views of

supervisors' persistent exhibition of hostile verbal and nonverbal actions, avoiding physical contact". Toxic supervision or in other words, abusive supervision is assessed subjectively, generally from the standpoint of a subordinate. Supervisory abuse is a context-dependent occurrence. Individuals may have varying perspectives about their supervisor's actions depending on the circumstances. This concept has created a fertile environment for academics to investigate the setting, supervisor characteristics, and subordinate characteristics that contribute to the phenomena of abusive supervision. Additionally, Tepper designed a single-factor, 15-item test to assess the frequency with which a subordinate views their boss to be abusive (Tepper, 2000). There has been substantial controversy about how research measures and defines abusive supervision. Abusive supervision is a subjective concept that refers to a supervisor's opinion of abusive behavior, not to real proof of abusive behavior. Martinko and colleagues' (2013) study of abusive supervision proposed a distinction between perceived and real abusive conduct in the recognized research model. They propose this change to the model in light of the necessity for more study into causal pathways such as reverse causation (subordinates' traits and behaviors precipitating supervisor abusive actions) and the measurement of independent judgments of supervisory abuse. The last half of this reasoning was refuted by Tepper and colleagues' (2017) assessment of abusive supervision. They emphasized that agreement between subjective assessments of leader conduct does not imply objectivity. "In other words, when it comes to views of abusive supervisor conduct, inter-subordinate disagreement is natural and may represent reality more accurately than agreement does (p. 126)." Numerous studies on abusive supervision have incorporated Tepper's (2000) theory and instrument. Mackey and colleagues (2017) examined how 130 papers used or changed the original scale in empirical research. "Tepper (2000) utilized the anchor scale points 1 (I cannot recall

him/her ever engaging in this conduct with me) and 5 (He/she engages in this activity with me frequently) as scale points. While some studies employed Tepper's original scale points, others used agreement scales (e.g., strongly disagree to strongly agree) with other scale point combinations (i.e., 0–0; 1–; 1–) or different frequency scale points, for example, 1 (never) to 5 (very frequently) and 1 (never) to 7. (frequently, if not always). The majority of research (p. 1952) employed frequency formats (k = 84) rather than agreement scales (k = 46)." With this information in hand, researchers set out to get a better understanding of supervisor and subordinate qualities, as well as the settings that lead to abusive supervision (Ramey, 2021). Unsurprisingly, supervisors in the hotel business do not always act responsibly on the job (Albashiti et al., 2021; Zhao and Guo, Wu et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2020). Existing research indicates that supervisors engage in abusive communication, withhold crucial information, and mock or threaten subordinates (Arici et al., 2021; Park and Kim, 2019; Al-Hawari et al., 2020). Abusive supervision, which is not physical abuse, has been linked to a number of significant workplace consequences, including emotional tiredness, emotion management difficulties, decreased performance, and deviant conduct (Tews and Stafford, 2020; Moin et al., 2021; Santos et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2018). Voluntary turnover—a subordinate's decision to leave his or her job—imposes significant direct and indirect costs on hospitality organizations in terms of staffing, training, and development, loss of high performers and social capital, functional interruption, demoralization, and increased work pressure on remaining employees (Valle et al., 2019). Subordinates often enjoy a set of job expectancies, one of which includes favorable supervisory interactions, according to the met expectation model (Porter and Steers, 1973). Additionally, the likelihood of turnover increases in hospitality companies when such unfulfilled expectations exist. According to the

literature, factors that contribute to a negative appraisal of one's employment likely to encourage disengagement (Valle et al., 2019).

A positive connection between employees and supervisors is critical to the success of both employees and companies (Tsai et al., 2010). Employee performance (including that of temporary workers), wages, and career trajectories are all highly associated with their supervisor relationships (Kong et al., 2015; Kong et al., 2016). As a result, employees' views of abusive supervision, which is defined as supervisors exhibiting persistent displays of hostile verbal and nonverbal conduct, are critical and have long-term negative consequences (Tepper, 2000). According to Zhang and Bednall (2016), the growing interest in unethical leadership in the context of organizational behavior has resulted in a proliferation of research examining abusive supervision. Abusive supervision, defined as "subordinates' perceptions of supervisors' sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors" (Tepper, 2000, p.178), has been shown to have a variety of negative consequences (e.g., workplace deviance, poor service performance, and a high turnover rate), and the relationship is influenced by a variety of variables (e.g., power distance and organizational and coworker support (Yu et al., 2020)).

Abusive supervision is also upsetting; hence it results in negative repercussions for the employees (Vogel & Bolino, 2020). Several meta-analyses and reviews have shown that supervisors who are abusive to their employees have negative effects on their employees. As a result, individuals may engage in retaliatory aggressive behaviors, experience lower well-being (e.g., psychological distress), have negative attitudes toward their jobs (e.g., job satisfaction and commitment), perform poorly (e.g., contextual performance, effort, and organizational citizenship behaviors), and have a

negative perception of justice (Caillier, 2021). Two more negative effects of abusive supervision have been discovered via research, highlighting the seriousness of this type of managerial behavior. First and foremost, abusive supervision has an emotional toll that doesn't always go away when the abuse is stopped; rather, these effects might remain and continue to damage the target even if they switch jobs or obtain a new boss (Vogel and Bolino, 2020). In addition, the negative effects of this management style reach well beyond the specific person. As an example, people who are close to the harassed employees, such as coworkers, personal acquaintances, and family members, are affected by abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007). This is due to the fact that persons who are being subjected to abusive supervision frequently require strong emotional support from others around them, and this can place a strain on those relationships (Caillier, 2021).

2.2.2 Consequences of Abusive Supervision

Despite the fact that abusive supervision has been utilized in the extant tourism and hospitality literature, there is scarce research regarding the abusive supervision. Over the last few decades, a growing corpus of study has concentrated on abusive supervision, which is defined as "subordinates' assessments of supervisors' sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal actions, excluding physical contact" (Fischer, Tian, Lee and Hughes, 2021; Valle et al., 2020). As a hallmark of destructive leadership (Aasland et al., 2010), abusive supervision has a negative impact on subordinates and organizations (Jabbar et al., 2020; Aryee et al., 2008; Harris, Kacmar and Zivnuska, 2007; Fischer, Tian, Lee and Hughes, 2021; Valle et al., 2020; Lian et al., 2012). Existing research establishes that abusive supervision results in psychological distress (Park et al., 2018; Saleem et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2018; Ogunfowora et al., 2021), low organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Lim

et al., 2020; Guan and Hsu, 2020; Luu, 2018; Moin et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2019), workplace deviance (Javed et al., 2019; Kluemper et al., 2019; Chen and Liu, 2019; Faldetta, 2020; Pradhan and Jena, 2019), poor individual and group performance (Rice et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2018; Ambrose and Ganegoda, 2020). These adverse impacts cost US firms an estimated \$23.8 billion yearly (Tepper, Duffy, Henle and Lambert, 2006). Understandably, abusive supervision is a perplexing social problem, and its pervasiveness in the workplace and its repercussions necessitate continuous academic investigation.

The majority of study has focused on the implications of abusive supervision. Tepper (2007) did a qualitative evaluation and discovered that nearly all of the twenty published research on abusive supervision concentrated on its repercussions. In addition, the research reported that the majority of the eighty-two published research on abusive supervision focused on the repercussions of abusive supervision (Martinko et al., 2013). Existing research on abusive supervision has aided in our knowledge of the detrimental consequences abusive supervision has on subordinates and organizations (Rice et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2018; Ambrose and Ganegoda, 2020). However, these numerous studies were done in silos, and little investigation or work has statistically and fully incorporated in order to provide portray repercussions of AS. Only a few research have examined the quantitative repercussions of abusive supervision (Lim et al., 2020; Guan and Hsu, 2020; Luu, 2018; Moin et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2019). They have, however, seen AS as a subset of interpersonal aggressiveness or destructive leadership and have neglected several significant repercussions of toxic leadership style/supervision, for instance subordinates' family outcomes and supervisor-subordinate interaction styles.

Abusive supervision has been demonstrated to have a detrimental effect on targets and the organization. When this action occurs, whether publicly or surreptitiously, it has far-reaching consequences. As previously noted, most study on abusive supervision is conducted from the subordinate's perspective as the target. The consequences for those subjected to abusive monitoring are widely established. Martinko et al. (2013) provided a concise overview of the research on the repercussions of abusive supervision. "34 studies examined the outcomes of abusive supervision; 17 (50%) examined some form of aggression or deviance in response to abuse perceptions; 14 (41%) examined psychological distress or wellbeing as outcomes; seven (21%) examined attitudinal outcomes (primarily job satisfaction); four (12%) examined performance outcomes; three (9%) examined justice outcomes; and three (9%) examined family well-being as outcomes (p. 126)". Subordinates face negative consequences such as decreased job satisfaction (Tepper, 2000), psychological distress and well-being (Tepper et al., 2007), physical health issues, work-family conflict (Hoobler & Brass, 2006), increased intention to quit, decreased job satisfaction, psychological stress (Tepper, 2007), high job strain, job burnout, decreased organizational commitment, decreased self-efficacy, increased workplace deviance and retaliatory behavior (Martinko et al., 2013). These investigations established a link between harsh supervision and bad effects. Abusive supervision has a detrimental effect on not just the subordinates who are subjected to it, but also on the entire company. Subordinates who are subjected to abusive supervision may suffer physical or mental health issues, increasing healthcare expenditures. Businesses may see an increase in time spent away from work, resulting in decreased production. Additionally, organizations may witness subordinates engage in workplace misbehavior (Tepper et al., 2006).

Mackey et al. (2017) discovered that disruptive leadership is positively associated with organizational-, interpersonal-, and leader-directed deviance in a meta-analysis of links between destructive leadership, such as abusive supervision, and follower workplace behaviors (Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007). Workplace deviance is defined as "voluntary activity that breaches important organizational standards and so jeopardizes the organization's, or its members', well-being (p. 556)." (Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Additionally, their findings indicate that both organizational and interpersonal forms of workplace deviance are associated with destructive behaviors (Valle et al., 2019), stealing and acting rudely toward coworkers, working slowly on purpose, taking excessively long breaks, verbal harassment, sexual harassment, and assault (Park and Kim, 2019). The ramifications of supervisory abuse are enormous. There is a majority of evidence linking abusive supervision to harmful results. It is critical that study continue to look for strategies to mitigate and maybe stop the flow of abusive supervision inside businesses (Ramey, 2021).

2.2.3 Abusive Supervision Antecedents

Recent trends in the research on the origins of abusive supervision have been recognized by scholars. Since 2000, the number of studies published on antecedent variables has grown dramatically. Scholars have increasingly taken up the constructions and processes that explain why abusive supervision is more or less likely to be seen in the last six years (Tepper et al., 2017). Zhang and Bednall's (2016) meta-analysis of antecedents of abusive supervision largely supports links across four kinds of abusive antecedents. These categories include supervisor-related antecedents (negative affect, stress, and a perceived lack of interactional and procedural justice), organization-related antecedents (norms and climate), subordinate-related antecedents (power distance, political skill, narcissism, neuroticism, conscientiousness,

extraversion, and agreeableness), and demographic characteristics of supervisors and subordinates (age, tenure, time working under the supervisor) (Zhang and Bednall, 2016).

Abusive supervision—"subordinates" views of the amount to which supervisors exhibit hostile verbal and nonverbal actions on a consistent basis, without physical contact (Tepper 2000)—is a very visible occurrence when we consider it in workplace (Valle, Kacmar, Zivnuska and Harting, 2019). Schat et al. (2006) indicated that in excess of 13.6 percent of employees have witnessed or personally experienced abusive supervision at work. Numerous polls have revealed that 65–75 percent of employees rated their boss as the worst aspect of their employment. Abuse of supervision has a number of negative repercussions, including higher healthcare expenditures, moral disengagement, and scarce amount of efficiency and competence (Valle, Kacmar, Zivnuska and Harting, 2019). It is critical to understand how companies can reduce the likelihood of abusive supervision occurring. As a result, it is both important and vital to investigate the origins of abusive supervision.

The factors affection or triggering AS can be generally classified as supervisor-related antecedents, workplace-associated factors, subordinate-related factors, and supervisor- and subordinate-related factors. Below it can be viewed that there are antecedents of abusive supervision in different context as well as variables.

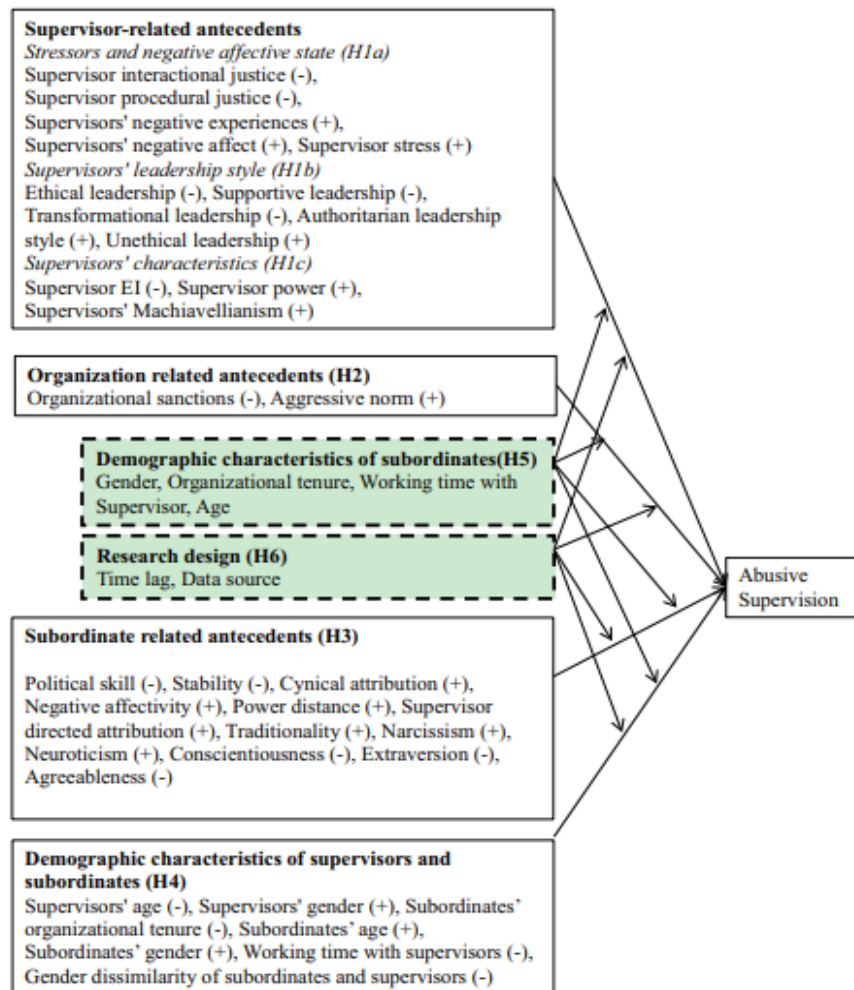


Figure 3: The antecedents of abusive supervision (Zhang and Bednall, 2016)

The variables in this model were chosen based on prior empirical research on the determinants of abusive supervision. Supervisor-related antecedents include constructs based on supervisors' states, leadership styles, and personality qualities (Zhang and Bednall, 2016). Aggressive norms and the application of punishments are categorized as organization-related antecedents since they represent an organization's features (Mackey, Frieder, Brees and Martinko, 2011). Most of the research used demographic qualities of employees as an employee factor with AS (Park, Hoobler, Wu, Liden, Hu and Wilson, 2019). Although empirical studies typically use supervisor and subordinate demographic variables like control variables, an earlier systematic

literature review studies or meta-analysis showed there is a strong and positive association among age, tenure, nationality or income level on organizational deviance (Park, Hoobler, Wu, Liden, Hu and Wilson, 2019; Mackey, Frieder, Brees and Martinko, 2011). Zhang and Bednall (2016) study examines the influence of demographic variables in abusive supervision as a subtype of workplace aggressiveness. When demographic factors are hypothesized to have distinct impacts, they are not classed as supervisor or employee associated factors.

2.3 Favoritism

Favoritism aids certain people in achieving their goals. In other words, you're picking a person over others due of their affiliation with a certain organization, not because they're the greatest at what they do. International corporate enterprises have an ethical dilemma when it comes to favoritism. Altruism is supposed to lead to favoritism toward acquaintances and friends, although the results might be contentious. As outlined by Adams (1965), the derivative equity hypothesis states that underprivileged workers may engage in destructive behavior when they sense unfairness and imbalance (political behaviors). In the hospitality business, Daskin and Tezer (2012) performed empirical study and found a strong link between favoritism and political perceptions. Despite the fact that the private sector employs a vast number of people in developing nations, most positions are not filled on the basis of merit, which results in underperformance (Nadeem et al., 2015). Organizational favoritism, nepotism, and corruption are rampant at the highest levels. It's not uncommon in companies to see favoritism, and it's widespread (Ozler and Buyukarslan, 2011). Favoritism refers to the act of giving a preference to one individual over another based on personal preferences (Kwon, 2005). There are clashes in companies due to favoritism, nepotism, and cronyism, and employees are left dissatisfied (Nadeem et al., 2015).

Favoritism, according to Ozler et al. (2007), is the practice of giving preference to one person over another, even though the other person is more efficient and capable. In organizations, favoritism is quite common, and it may be found virtually anywhere. A study by Ponzo and Scoppa (2010) found that group bias is common; in certain cases, favoritism lowers the cost of the recruiting process for companies. The fact that favoritism isn't deemed unlawful according to Ozler and Buyukarslan (2011) leads individuals to act favoritively without hesitating. Although similar, nepotism refers according to Nadeem et al. (2015) as preference given to relatives over other applicants who may or may not come from the same family, although it is not required. When competency, knowledge, talent, capacity, and proficiency are given greater weight in the workplace, it has an impact on not just the performance of other workers but also the business as a whole. Nepotism is a factor not only in the recruiting process but also in the decision to fire employees (p.225).

Furthermore, according to Kwon (2006), favorites appeared as one of the most important variables that destroy organization productivity as well as efficiency also triggers employees' proclivity to leave organization. Organizational politics and power struggles are predictors and results of this behavior. According to Arasli and Tumer (2008), favoritism in the workplace leads to high levels of stress, which might increase the likelihood of turnover or lead to employees engaging in political behavior in order to gain favor with management. In the long run, partiality can lead to faulty conclusions and a decline in organizational cohesion and success (Daskin, 2013).

Favoritism benefits just close friends and links, not the entire organization (Arasli and Tumer, 2008; Daskin and Tezer, 2012). Favoritism is most often seen in the employment and granting of contracts to close friends and family members. Work-

related strain such as job stress is common among employees who work in politically sensitive situations with unfair practices and processes as well as favoritism. When it comes to favoritism, research shows that these sorts of behaviors are a major source of friction and tension in the workplace. Workplace favoritism has been found to be the second most common cause of conflict after egoism (Comerford, 2002), and managers think that favoritism is the most unethical behavior in a company (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Favoritism and unjust behaviors are common in hospitality-related employment contexts (Arasli and Karadal, 2009; Sroka and Vveinhardt, 2020; Akuffo and Kivipõld, 2021; Karaca, 2021; Daskin, 2013; Akuffo and Kivipõld, 2019), according to current research. After coming to this conclusion, Daskin (2013) founded that discriminatory hiring practices in the hotel sector can contribute to burnout and stress among otherwise talented and hardworking managers and staff. For this reason, working in an atmosphere predominately characterized by favoritism practices may alleviate subordinates and their acquaintances to create strong relationships with hotel management in order to maintain their jobs, rather than by demonstrating true performance. When it comes to nepotism, Pelletier and Bligh (2008) describe it as favoritism shown to family members throughout the hiring process or during decision-making processes for promotions. According to the authors, these actions serve as a breeding ground for corruption since those who stand to gain from the process are more likely to comply with the request made of them. It's widely accepted that nepotism is an unethical practice since it ignores the qualifications and expertise of non-relatives, despite the fact that these factors are critical.

Favoritism, according to Arasli and Tumer (2008, p.1239), is "the offering of particular privilege to friends, colleagues and acquaintances, in areas of work, career and

personnel choices. Favoritism gives friends and colleagues a leg up when it comes to getting hired and promoted inside the company. Due to their position of authority, those with tighter links to leaders or managers may receive job offers without following the normal hiring procedures. When it comes down to it, the term "cronyism" refers to the behavior of one member of a social network showing preference to another in order to acquire personal benefits for the latter at the expense of third parties outside the network, governed by a reciprocity standard. Similarly, cronyism was characterized by Arasli and Tumer (2008, p. 1239) as "providing precedence to politicians' particularly cronies (close friends of long standing), notably as seen in the appointment of hangers-on to government without regard to their credentials". Favoritism and cronyism, according to the authors, are particularly difficult to curb in societies that place a high value on personal relationships. We found evidence of favoritism, cronyism, and nepotism in the literature while studying recruiting. Furthermore, favoritism in terms of position, cronyism, and nepotism in terms of business operations are also issues.

Furthermore, research shows that cronyism and nepotism are linked to business operations in organizations (Akuffo and Kivipõld, 2019). When we talk about organizational operations, we're referring to how things get done on a daily basis. According to Safina (2015), nepotism inhibits the ability of industrious workers to compete effectively for higher positions since employees with relatives in top management favor their relatives in day-to-to-day operations after being hired. While riding on the backs of relatives in high positions, employees disobey superiors and colleagues, resulting in a lack of dedication and operational efficiency (Arasli and Tumer, 2008). Similarly, cronyism in operations arises when staff appointed because

of political connection violate supervisors' instructions, affecting operational efficiency.

These types of unethical behavior, according to Erdem and Karatas (2015), contribute to corruption. The distinction between nepotism and cronyism is that one is linked with helping family members, while the other is related with helping members of the same political party or network (Arasli and Tumer, 2008). We found no evidence of favoritism in operations, which is understandable given that favoritism in positions serves a comparable function. Finally, we discovered from the research that only favoritism is linked to a person's status among the unethical behaviors. The desire of workers to develop strong relationships with those in high positions inside the organization in order to safeguard them from unjust hiring choices, such as promotions. Favoritism of positions. This type of positional favoritism allows employees to rise up the ranks by decimating their rivals and winning over powerful bosses in order to acquire an advantage over their subordinates. As an example, Abubakar et al. (2017) found that individuals with no connections have a hard time being promoted when they are up against colleagues who have friends in higher positions and access to more resources. Due to the de facto powers and favors that nepotism and cronyism grant its recipients by virtue of their family or political connection, and the fact that they do not need to impress any leader in order to get favors, no signs of these corruption practices were observed (Pelletier and Bligh, 2008).

2.4 Organizational Identification

Relational psychological contracts may exert direct control over in- and extra-role performance, as well as indirect control via other processes. Although people barely

understand these processes, proposes that one of the processes may be organizational identification (Arasli et al, 2021). Organizational identification denotes to the proclivity of an individual or employee of a workplace to identify with that workplace, and this is most possible through relational psychological contracts of individuals (Lu et al., 2016).

For two reasons, employees who feel identification toward their work will foster a vast amount of affinity in compared to those does not have it. To begin, once employees need and wants nurtured by the organization, their psychological contract will be positive. This is achieved by providing financial rewards as well as other supports through the development and practice of justice, trust, loyalty (Rousseau, 1995). Employees will get emotionally involved in the organization's well-being and success in exchange for these rewards. Thus, subordinates once they have psychological contracts are able to demonstrate as well as strengthen their association, commitments and connections to the organization by identifying with and adopting the organization into the construction of their self-concept. Rather of developing and expanding within a company, these people develop and grow alongside it. Second, identifying with an organization by workers with relational psychological contracts is an indication of prolong relationship with the business. Employees who have a longer-term perspective on the employment connection will probably link their sense of self-worth to the company's performance consequence to their desire to comply with their relational commitments and uphold a prolonged engagement with the business (Arasli et al., 2021; Restubog et al., 2008).

Organizational identification is related to the notion of Social Identity (Tajfel and Turner, 1979), which is concerned with the characteristics that an individual shares

with his or her organization (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994). Organizational identification is described as an individual's "sense of identification with or belonging to the organization" (Ashforth and Mael, 1989, p. 21). According to study, it is stated that organizational identification is "the person's concept of oneness with or belongingness to an organization, in which the individual defines himself or herself in terms of the organization to which he or she belongs" (Bartels et al.,2006). It's self-evident that the more the organizational identification, the greater the beneficial influence on employee engagement and corporate citizenship activity (Srivastava and Singh, 2020; Zhang and Wang, 2021; Lee, Kim, Lee and Li, 2012; Liu, Wang, Tian and Tang, 2017). Akin to tenet of SIT, organizational identification is a result of an employee's emotional connection to his organization (Shah et al., 2021; Chan et al., 2018). In other words, whether an employee feels linked to a group cognitively (by absorbing the organization's ideals) or emotionally (by developing a feeling of pride), or both, the employee perceives a high organizational identification level (Riketta, 2005). Individuals attempt to identify with organizations in the belief that organizations provide them with a sense of social identity (Edwards and Peccei, 2007). Lu et al. (2016) discovered that organizational identification was a significant mediator between psychological contract and service-oriented conduct among lodging industry workers.

The topic of organizational identity is addressed in two aspects in Organizational Behavior literature: early conceptualizations and conceptualizations based on Social Identity Theory (Teng et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2017). The idea of organizational identity will be founded in Social Identity Theory in the current study; nevertheless, early conceptualizations of organizational identification will be briefly discussed.

Identification may be described as the internalization of and emotional attachment to one or more identities (Foote, 1951). Foote is credited for coining the term "identification" in an organizational setting. According to him, employees developed a sense of self-worth as a result of their membership in an organization. His research was motivated. Thus, membership in an organization is seen as a trigger for workers to act on the organization's interest (Teng et al., 2020).

That is, organizational identification reflects the extent to which an employee's cognitive commitment to an organization is strong. A person who has a strong identification with an organization is more likely to define himself/herself in terms of organizational qualities and to behave in the organization's best interests (Ashforth et al., 2008). Organizational identification has been shown to be a major predictor of a variety of positive organizational outcomes, including increased work participation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and extra role performance (Frisby, Sidelinger and Tatum, 2019; Allen, Attoh and Gong, 2017; Zappalà, Toscano and Licciardello, 2019; Li et al., 2021; Shim and Faerman, 2017; Cheema, Afsar and Javed, 2020). Brown, without a doubt, is another individual who contributed to the notion of identity (1969). In his study, he used the word organizational identification to refer to the act of identifying with an organization. According to Brown, employees are more likely to identify with their organizations when the following conditions exist: (1) the organizations provide opportunities for personal achievement, (2) the employees have power within the organizations, and (3) there is no other competing source that prevents employees from identifying with the organization. Brown (1969) suggested that four dimensions of involvement must be considered while developing a helpful index for organization research: compatibility of individual and organizational

objectives, attractiveness to the organization, self-reference to organizational membership, and loyalty. Four distinct questions were asked of the participants in the research, all of which were related to the factors described above. To assess the consistency of individual and organizational objectives, participants were presented with two distinct situations and asked to indicate if they believe there is consistency between individual and organizational goals (Mael and Tetrick, 1992).

To assess the company's attractiveness, participants replied to the following question: "If you could start working again in the same occupation as you are now, how likely would you be to pick this organization as a place to work?" Participants were asked how they felt about their organization's loyalty when they heard or read someone criticizing it. Finally, the self-referential nature of organizational membership was assessed by asking workers how they would define themselves if asked to speak about themselves in a single sentence. Brown's (1969) study elucidates why workers identify with their firms and enables the development of a valid assessment method. Lee (1971) was another proponent of the organizational identity notion. The term "organizational identification" was defined as "the extent to which an individual's wide personal affiliation with the organization exists" (p. 215). When it comes to delving deeper into organizational identification, Lee (1971) stressed three points: a sense of belongingness, loyalty, and common qualities. Lee (1971) claimed that employees have a feeling of belonging when they share common aims or when they believe their work is critical to meeting their own needs. Identification with the organization as a source of loyalty may emerge from activities such as taking pleasure in being a member, protecting the organization against outsiders, and supporting the organization's aims. Finally, identification as common traits related to the employee's

similarity to other workers in terms of quality. From the foregoing, it is clear that Lee (1971) expanded our understanding of the idea of organizational identity. Even if the definition and notion of organizational identification varies, it is simple to see that there are several places of convergence. The majority of researchers have focused on the relationship between the individual and the organization. As indicated previously, the terminology and conceptualization of organizational identity employed in this study were derived from Tajfel and Turner's Social Identity Theory (SIT) (1979). Thus, conceptualizations subsequent to Social Identity Theory initiated a new chapter in the literature on organizational identity. In the present research on Organizational Behavior, Social Identity Theory is still recognized as one of the most prevalent theories for explaining organizational identity. According to the Social Identity Approach, which is a synthesis of Social Identity Theory and Social Categorization Theory (SCT), individuals are prone to self-identify and self-categorize within a recognized group (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel et al., 1979). Individuals frequently identify with a "self-concept" derived from perceived membership in a relevant social group. According to SIT, individuals often have a personal identity as well as a couple of social identities that enable them to function in their social context, such as a father at home, a manager at work, or a student at school. SCT asserts, based on SIT's assumptions, that people are prone to classify themselves once they identify themselves. As a result, the psychological categorization of people into members of an in-group and members of an out-group is developed. The aforementioned identification and classification procedures generate a new process dubbed "Social Comparison." According to Festinger's (1954) Social Comparison theory, individuals constantly compare themselves to others in order to gauge their own growth, motivate themselves, and establish a more positive self-image during the assessing process.

Ashforth and Mael are credited with coining the phrase organizational identity through extensive use of Social Identity Theory (Bartels, 2006). Ashforth and Mael (1989) defined identification as "the experience of oneness or belongingness to a human aggregate" (p. 21). This term has been the most often used in the organizational identification literature. According to Ashforth and Mael (1989), the organization of personnel may provide insight into who they are. Thus, the researchers hypothesized that organizational identification may be seen as a kind of social identification. Individuals' identities are formed not just by their organizations, but also by their workgroups, departments, and lunch groups. Additionally, Ashforth and Mael point out that there is substantial uncertainty in the literature on organizational identity and organizational commitment. The researchers noted that whereas identification was previously thought to be organization-specific, commitment may not be. They stated that if a company provides better working circumstances for an employee, even if the individual is dedicated to the organization, he or she can quit; but, if the employee has a strong connection with the organization, leaving might cause psychological distress. In comparison to previous academics, Ashforth and Mael (1989) concentrated on the causes and effects of organizational identity. The antecedents of organizational identification might include the group's ideals and practices being unique from those of comparable groups, the group's reputation, and knowledge of out-groups. Additionally, organizational identification has the following consequences: (1) employees choose activities that are consistent with their identities and support organizations that enable them to demonstrate their identities, (2) social identification results in group formation, and (3) the more individuals internalize with the group, the more they value the group formation.

Employees will get emotionally involved in the organization's well-being and success in exchange for these rewards. Thus, employees with relational psychological contracts are able to demonstrate and strengthen their association, commitments and connections to the organization by identifying with and adopting the organization into the construction of their self-concept. Rather of developing and expanding within a company, these people develop and grow alongside it. Second, identifying with an organization by workers with relational psychological contracts is an indication of prolong relationship with the business. Employees who have a longer-term perspective on the employment connection will probably link their sense of self-worth to the company's performance consequence to their desire to comply with their relational commitments and uphold a prolonged engagement regarding organization (Arasli et al, 2021). Moreover, organizational identification can be defined as attachment to an organization by individuals, regarding their attributes as well as accomplishment combined into individuals (Arasli et al, 2021), and it is generally acknowledged to significantly impact on individual's behavior. Based on attachment theory, John Bowlby (1982) claimed that newborns are born with an innate desire to seek and maintain a close relationship with their primary caregiver. Bowlby postulated that young children feel safe, comfortable, and confident enough around their caregivers to explore their environment. When newborns are separated from their caregivers, they exhibit a range of "attachment behaviors" such as watching, seeking, and whimpering to try to re-establish contact. The way a primary caregiver responds to these attention-seeking behaviors shapes a child's cognitive working models of self and others (Robertson et al, 2018).

According to social identity theory, individuals' actions and behaviors parallel with power as well as focus of their identification with an organization, thus increasing their confidence and assurance (Van Knippenberg, 2000; Arasli et al., 2021). When employees connect toward their workplace, it automatically entwines their personal interests with organizational goals, thus, corporate achievements translate to personal accomplishments (Gillet et al., 2013). Number of academical piece depicted as well as reported that when employees convey identification toward their organization, real care for the organization's success and effectiveness will be heightened (Dutton et al., 1994; Demirtas et al., 2017). Indeed, people with a higher level of organizational identification are less constrained in defining their job tasks and are more likely to engage in organizationally beneficial activities (Karanika-Murray et al., 2015; He, Zhu and Zheng, 2014; Hur et al., 2017; Hameed et al., 2016; Traeger and Alfes, 2019). Additionally, persons who have a strong connection with the company are more motivated to improve their performance in their jobs and devote more effort to them since it benefits the organization and thus supports their self-esteem (Carmeli, Gilat and Waldman, 2007; Schaubroeck et al., 2013; Astakhova and Porter, 2015; Piccoli et al., 2017; Miao et al., 2019; Gillet et al., 2013). Given that tourist operators' success is highly related with the superiority of service they provide for the consumers (Katrinli et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2016; Carmeli et al., 2011; Efraty et al., 1991). As a result, employees who identify with the business are likely to contribute more than is expected of them. Along with improving performance in service-oriented roles, service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors are strengthened by organizational identification (Lu et al., 2016). Employees that have a strong identification partake vested palisade considering the workplace achievement, as such, are more inclined to participate in altruistic activities to help the business succeed (Lu

et al., 2016). Indeed, organizational identification fosters service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors that transcend the needs of the assigned function (Restubog et al., 2008). Riketta (2005) discovered positive linkage between organizational identification and organizational citizenship activities in a meta-analysis. Additionally, academical pieces showcased those once employees convey organizational identification, possibility of those employees is higher to show positive job outcomes such extra-role performance since they will consider themselves part of the organization (Lu et al., 2016).

2.5 Psychological Contract

It has been found to be consistently associated with a variety of attitudes with psychological contract with behaviors/attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit), performance indicators (organizational citizenship behavior, turnover, performance, organizational deviance), and well-being (Rayton and Yalabik, 2014; McDonald and Makin, 2000; Knights and Kennedy, 2005; López Bohle et al., 2017; Ahmad and Zafar, 2018; Tufan and Wendt, 2020). Nonetheless, the processes behind such correlations have received scant attention (Estreder et al., 2019). Akin to SET, once employees trust or psychological contract erodes by organization, employees will exchange this unexpected erosion by consulting “tit-for-tat” behavior (Estreder et al., 2019). Additionally, Morrison and Robinson (1997) regarded psychological contract breach and psychological contract violation (PCV) to be distinct phenomena, and psychological contract models believed psychological contract violation to play a significant role in mediating the link between psychological contract satisfaction and job results.

Individuals' subjective assessments or impressions of abusive supervision, organizational identification, and psychological contract breaches are all subjective. As a result, it is reasonable to assume that their coexistence will have an effect on one another. For instance, an employee who has a high impression of supervisor maltreatment is very likely to perceive a breakdown of the psychological contract and have emotions of alienation from the business. While abusive supervision may have a detrimental effect on workers' emotions of togetherness and belongingness, psychological contract breaches may function as a mediator between these two constructs, weakening employees' identification with the business (Arasli et al., 2021).

As previously mentioned, the connection between abusive supervision and service sabotage may potentially be explained using notions of misplaced anger and self-regulation impairment (Valle et al., 2019). However, these theoretical explanations may fall short of adequately addressing the 'deliberate' nature of service sabotage, since both misplaced angers.

Psychological contracts are broken when employees believe their company has failed to live up to its promises (Karatepe et al., 2020). Reneging and incongruence are seen as the primary reasons of psychological contract violation (Pate, Martin and McGoldrick, 2003; Pavlou and Gefen, 2005). Reneging occurs when an organization knowingly breaches a committed commitment, whereas incongruence arises when employees and management have divergent opinions on a pledged responsibility (Valle et al., 2020). Because the organization establishes policies, defines role behaviors, and compensates employees through its agents, reneging on and incongruence in psychological contracts between employees and the organization are frequently embedded in the exchange relationship between employees and their

supervisors (Arasli et al., 2021). According to afore-said information, when the point comes to quality of supervisor-subordinate exchanges, it can be stated that it is essential in the formation of psychological contract violation (Pate, Martin and McGoldrick, 2003; Pavlou and Gefen, 2005).

According to Pradhan et al. (2019) a PCV regarding subordinates' opinion on the duties imposed by their employer, whether legally or informally, openly or implicitly. As a result, the employee observes his/her workplace as the primary perpetrator as well as the superior who abuse its employees. In return, employees may want to take revenge by showing or exhibiting lower performance or unwanted act. Valle et al. (2020) showed that employees who encountered with abusive supervision first morally disengaged, then, they exhibit counterproductive work behavior as a retaliation.

Park and Kim (2019) argue that abusive supervision causes employees to perceive a breakdown of their psychological contract. The severity of psychological contract breach reactions "is closely related not just to disappointed expectations for specific rewards or advantages, but concerns general attitudes about respecting individuals, standards of conduct, and other patterns of behavior linked with trust-based relationships" (Tian et al., 2014). Abusive supervision may be thought of as anti-normative actions that undermine subordinates' overall perception of the organization treating them with dignity and respect. Wu and Chen (2015) discovered that psychological contract fulfillment acts as a mediator between empowered leadership and hotel employee service performance.

Rai and Agarwal (2018) aimed to investigate the impacts of workplace bullying on employee silence, as well as to analyze the mediating function of psychological

contract violation in this connection. The moderated mediation condition was confirmed by the findings, which indicate that psychological contract violation mediated the bullying-silence connection. Chen et al. (2021) conducted another study in which they examined the association between perceived fairness, psychological contract breaches, and action intention. The findings of the cited authors established that psychological contract violations are critical in mediating both the association between procedural justice and bad word of mouth and the relationship between distributive justice and negative word of mouth. One research conducted by Chambel and Castanheira (2012) in Portugal aimed to analyse psychological contract as a mechanism through which training affects stress in call centers. Cited authors results showed that training is negatively related to call center employees' exhaustion and that the relationship is fully mediated by the fulfilment of socioemotional obligations.

As prior studies have suggested, service organizations must ensure that employees are highly committed and identify with the organization to harness their full potential to achieve customer satisfaction; hence, it is imperative that abuse is prevented in such organizations. Therefore, understanding the mechanism through which abusive supervision impedes employees' identification is critical.

2.6 Hypothesis development

2.6.1 Abusive Supervision and Psychological Contract Violation

Organizations and academic institutions alike have invested significant resources in developing a more nuanced understanding of leadership. From the executive suite to the front line, from private company to government to the military, leaders have an impact on organizational outcomes and the lives of their direct reports (Liu, Zhu and Wei, 2019). The majority of study on leadership styles has been on positive

characteristics. Not all leadership styles are beneficial; leadership have an 'evil' side. Abusive supervision is a kind of negative leadership (Pan, Sun, Sun, Li and Leung, 2018). Over 200 empirical studies on abusive supervision have been published in the last roughly 19 years (Yu, Xu, Li and Kong, 2020). Additionally, many reviews have been produced on the subject (Tepper et al., 2017), including recommendations for future research areas.

Tepper's seminal work on abusive supervision (2000) resulted in the development of a practical construct based on justice theory and an operationalized instrument for assessing a subordinate's perception of supervisory abuse. The phrase "abusive supervision" relates to "subordinates' perceptions of supervisors who persistently show aggressive verbal and nonverbal behaviors while avoiding physical contact" (p. 178). Abuse of supervision is subjectively judged, often from the perspective of a subordinate. Supervisory abuse occurs in a variety of contexts. Depending on the circumstances, individuals may have varied perceptions on their supervisor's conduct. This notion has fostered academic inquiry into the environment, supervisor qualities, and subordinate attributes that contribute to the phenomenon of abusive supervision. Additionally, Tepper developed a single-factor, fifteen-item test to determine how frequently a subordinate perceives their superior as abusive (Tepper, 2000). There has been much debate regarding how research defines and quantifies abusive supervision. Abusive supervision is a subjective term that relates to a supervisor's perception of abusive conduct, not to actual evidence of abuse. Martinko and colleagues' (2013) study on abusive supervision advanced the established research paradigm by establishing a difference between perceived and actual abusive behavior. They recommend this modification to the model in light of the need for more research into

causative pathways such as reverse causation (subordinates' qualities and behaviors prompting supervisor abusive conduct) and the measuring of independent supervisory abuse judgements. Tepper et al. (2017) examination of abusive supervision disputed the final half of this argument. They stressed that agreement among subjective perceptions of a leader's behavior does not reflect objectivity. " In other words, when it comes to supervisory abuse, inter-subordinate disagreement is natural and may more precisely reflect reality than agreement (p. 126)." Numerous research examining abusive supervision have made use of Tepper's (2000) theory and instrument. Mackey and colleagues (2017) analyzed how 130 articles in empirical research used or modified the original scale. "Tepper (2000) used the anchor scale points 1 (I have no recollection of him/her ever participating in this behavior with me) and 5 (He/she regularly participates in this behavior with me) as scale points. While some studies utilized Tepper's original scale points, others used agreement scales (e.g., strongly disagree to strongly agree) with other scale point combinations (i.e., 0–0; 1–; 1–) or with various frequency scale points, for example, 1 (never) to 5 (very frequently) and 1 (never) to 7. (almost usually, if not always). Rather than agreement scales (k = 46), the bulk of study (p. 1952) used frequency forms (k = 84). " With this data in hand, researchers sought to get a deeper knowledge of supervisor and subordinate characteristics, as well as the conditions that contribute to abusive supervision (Ramey, 2021).

Unsurprisingly, hotel supervisors do not always act appropriately on the job (Albashiti et al., 2021). According to existing studies, bosses communicate abusively, conceal critical information, and mock or threaten subordinates (Arici et al., 2021; Arasli et al., 2021). Abusive supervision, which is not physical abuse, has been associated to a

variety of negative workplace outcomes, including emotional exhaustion, difficulty managing emotions, lower performance, and deviant behavior (Tews and Stafford, 2020; Moin et al., 2021; Santos et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2018). Voluntary turnover—the decision by a subordinate to leave his or her job—imposes significant direct and indirect costs on hospitality organizations in terms of staffing, training, and development, loss of high performers and social capital, functional interruption, demoralization, and increased work pressure on remaining employees (Valle et al., 2019). According to the fulfilled expectation model, subordinates frequently enjoy a set of employment expectations, one of which involves good supervising interactions (Porter and Steers, 1973). Additionally, when such unmet expectations exist in hospitality businesses, the chance of turnover increases. According to the literature, things that lead to a poor assessment of his/her work has a vast amount of possibility to promote disengagement (Valle et al., 2019).

A healthy association considering the bond among subordinates as well as superiors is important to both employees' and businesses' performance (Tsai et al., 2010). Employee performance (including temporary employees' performance), wages, as well as occupation tracks are all strongly related to their supervisor relationships (Kong et al., 2015; Kong et al., 2016). As a result, workers' perceptions of abusive supervision, which is defined as persistent displays of hostile verbal and nonverbal behavior on the part of supervisors, are essential and can convey enduring and hazardous also detrimental implications (Tepper, 2000). According to Zhang and Bednall (2016), increased attention in toxic supervision especially regarding the organizational behavior has resulted in an explosion of research on abusive supervision. Abusive supervision, pioneer research done by Tepper (2000) defined as "subordinates'

perceptions of supervisors' sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors", has been linked to a variety of negative outcomes (e.g., unethical behavior, lack of productivity, and a high turnover rate), and the link is predisposed by a variety of variables (Yu et al., 2020).

Abusive supervision is extremely distressing, and as a result, it has a bad effect on the employees (Arasli et al., 2021). Numerous meta-analyses and studies have established that abusive bosses have a detrimental influence on their staff. As a result, individuals may engage in retaliatory aggressive behaviors, experience decreased well-being (psychological distress), have negative attitudes toward their jobs (e.g., job satisfaction and commitment), perform poorly in certain contexts (contextual performance, effort, and organizational citizenship behaviors), and have a negative perception of justice (Caillier, 2021). Two more detrimental outcomes of abusive supervision have been revealed via study, demonstrating the gravity of this form of management behavior. To begin, abusive supervision has an emotional toll on the target that does not always subside when the abuse is ended; rather, these consequences may linger and continue to harm the target even if the target changes employment or gets a new boss (Vogel and Bolino, 2020). Additionally, the harmful consequences of this management style extend way beyond the individual. For instance, abusive supervision has an effect on those who are close to harassed employees, such as coworkers, personal friends, and family members (Tepper, 2007). This is because individuals who are exposed to abusive supervision usually require significant emotional support from others around them, which can strain such relationships (Caillier, 2021).

Psychological contract has been consistently linked to a variety of attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit), performance indicators

(organizational citizenship behavior, proclivity to leave job, engagement, and lack of productivity), and well-being (Tufan and Wendt, 2020). Nonetheless, the mechanisms behind these associations have received little study (Estreder et al., 2019). When we consider the mental pledge (unofficial) or in other words psychological contract, as we stated based on SET, place a premium on reciprocity as a fundamental mechanism for explaining why (in)fulfillment of commitments can result in employee attitudes and behaviors (Estreder et al., 2019). Additionally, Morrison and Robinson (1997) distinguished psychological contract breach from psychological contract violation, and psychological contract models postulated that psychological contract violation played a significant role in mediating the relationship between psychological contract satisfaction and job performance.

Subjective evaluations or impressions of abusive supervision, organizational identification, and psychological contract violations are all subjective. As a result, it is logical to infer that their cohabitation will have a cumulative effect. For example, an employee with a strong perception of supervisor abuse is extremely likely to sense a breach of the psychological contract and have feelings of estrangement from the organization. While abusive supervision may have a negative influence on employees' feelings of togetherness and belongingness, psychological contract violations may operate as a mediator between these two conceptions, eroding employees' identification with the organization (Arasli et al., 2021).

As previously stated, the interaction between service sabotage and abusive supervision can be explained in part by the notion of misdirected rage and lack of self-discipline (Valle et al., 2019). However, these theoretical explanations may fall short of effectively understanding the 'planned' nature of service sabotage, since both

misdirected rage and self-regulation impairment may motivate incidental rather than deliberate and volitional activities. According to the foregoing, Park and Kim (2019) suggest that psychological contract violation appeared as an intervening mechanism in the link regarding abusive supervision and service sabotage, motivating as well as intentional sabotage operations.

Follower-workplace association has been discussed as exchange partnerships in which employees' time, efforts, and loyalty are exchanged for financial and socio-emotional gains from the firm (Park and Kim, 2019; Arasli et al., 2021). Rousseau's (1989) psychological contract theory has been frequently employed to depict employee-employer trade relations. In this sense, the psychological contract refers to workers' distinctive perspectives on the exchange of tasks between employees and employers. In addition, it can be stated that inherently perceptual and subjective in nature, hence, having a clear understanding of this concept is crucial when the point comes to psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995).

Psychological contracts are developed as a result of an organization's genuine and perceived commitments made via proper or unceremonious channels. With another explanation, PCV are developed not just via formal job pledge, nonetheless also via dialogues and discussions with organizational agents such as supervisors or managers. Additionally, subordinates' judgments of PCV might influenced via his/her contacts with the organization's social environment, which includes procedural fairness as well as organizational politics (Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagencyk and Hochwarter, 2009). Psychological contracts have a transactional dimension determined by immediate inducements like as perks and salary, but they also have a relational component

determined by less explicit tasks such as education/orientation as well as organizational support practices.

When workers consider, their company has failed to meet its pledges, psychological contracts are broken (Valle et al., 2020). Renewal and inconsistency are recognized as the major reasons of psychological contract breakdown (Valle et al., 2020). Reneging happens when a business willfully deceives an assured commitment, whereas mismatch emerges when employees and management have differing viewpoints on a pledged responsibility (Tian et al., 2014). Since this entity establishes policy initiatives, identifies specific behaviors, as well as adjusts workers through its own officials, contraventions as well as errors in psychological contracts among both workers and the company have been commonly integrated inside the exchange process among both superiors and subordinates (Valle et al., 2020).

According to Pradhan et al. (2019), a psychological contract is an employee's perception of the responsibilities imposed by his or her employer, whether legally or informally, explicitly or implicitly. When an employee believes that the corporation has broken its pledges or accountability, workers can feel that their immediate company deceived them by not keeping their promises (unwritten). Under these circumstances, this can be called psychological contract breach (Said, Ali, Ali and Chen, 2021; Bari, Ghaffar and Ahmad, 2020). When an employee regards his or her immediate supervisor as a representation of the company and views him or her as abusive, the employee feels the organization has violated the contract of fair, just, and respectful treatment. As a result, subordinates may observe and criticize his/her workplace like primary offender as well as their executives as an agent doing the abuse on behalf of the organization. Additionally, the aggrieved employee may point the

finger onto his or her colleagues for failing to aid and support him or her throughout the incident (Said, Ali, Ali and Chen, 2021; Bari, Ghaffar and Ahmad, 2020).

Workplace conditions affect employees' attitudes and behaviors. This is a core tenet of affective event theory. Abusive supervision may be considered an affective episode with several affective events that span across a certain period (Nielsen et al., 2017; Ozturk and Ascigil, 2017; Ford et al., 2018). Each abusive event, such as verbal aggression, results in an affective reaction. Incidents of abuse may increase the level of negative emotions experienced by the abused subordinates. Supervisors are often considered representatives of the organization by their subordinates, as most management decisions and directions are communicated to the employees through supervisors. Therefore, if supervisors act in a hostile manner or are abusive toward their subordinates, it can be interpreted as the organization condoning such behaviors. Hence, the perception of a psychological contract breach may be strengthened. In particular, since a breach of a psychological contract is a subjective evaluation, it is easy for abused employees to conclude that the organization has failed to deliver on its promises (Kraak et al., 2017). Since psychological contract fulfillment is important for the emotional stability of the employees and, indirectly, their contribution to organizational performance, a breach of contract must be avoided. Thus, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 1 (H1). Abusive supervision has a positive influence on employees feeling a psychological contract violation has occurred.

2.6.2 Psychological Contract Violations and Organizational Identification

Psychological relationships can exert direct influence on in- and extra-role performance, as well as indirect control via additional processes. Despite the fact that

these instruments are poorly comprehended (Arasli et al., 2021), Rousseau (1998) suggests that one of them may be organizational identification. Organizational identification, as a key concept in workplace psychology and denotes to the degree to which employees define themselves as a member of the organization can be occurred (Ashforth and Mael, 1989), once psychological commitments might form the relationships (Lu et al., 2016).

Organizational identification is connected to the concept of Social Identity (Tajfel and Turner, 1979), which is concerned with the traits shared by an individual and his or her organization (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994). Individual identification with or belonging to an organization denoted "feeling of identifying with or belonging to the organization" (Ashforth and Mael, 1989, p. 21). Organizational identification, as defined by Bartels, Douwes, Jong, and Pruyn (2006), is "a person's sense of oneness with or belongingness to an organization, in which the individual identifies oneself or herself in terms of the organization to which he or she belongs." According to Ashforth, Harrison, and Corley (2008), organizational identification not only aids individuals in assessing their self-worth, but also encourages an individual's sense of 'belongingness' inside the organization. It is self-evident that the stronger the organizational identity, the more positive the effect on employee engagement and corporate citizenship action (Srivastava and Singh, 2020; Zhang and Wang, 2021; Lee, Kim, Lee, & Li, 2012; Liu, Wang, Tian and Tang, 2017). Organizational identification, according to social identity theory, occurs as a result of an employee's emotional attachment to his organization (Shah et al., 2021; Arasli et al, 2021). In other words, whether a person identifies with an organization cognitively (by absorbing its ideas) or emotionally (by gaining a sense of pride), or both, the employee senses a high degree

of organizational identification (Riketta, 2005). Individuals strive to identify with groups in the hope of acquiring a sense of social identity (Edwards and Peccei, 2007). In a research of hotel employees, Lu et al. (2016) revealed that organizational identity was a major mediator between psychological contract and service-oriented behavior.

The Organizational Behavior literature discusses organizational identity in two ways: early conceptualizations and conceptualizations based on Social Identity Theory (Teng et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2017). The notion of organizational identity will be established in the current study via the lens of Social Identity Theory; nevertheless, early conceptualizations of organizational identity will be examined briefly. Internalization and emotional attachment to one or more identities might be defined as identification (Foote, 1951). Foote is credited for coining the phrase "identification" in the context of an organization. Employees, he asserts, gain a feeling of self-worth as a result of their affiliation with a firm. His investigation was motivated. Thus, workers' participation in an organization is viewed as a cue to behave in the group's best interests (Teng et al., 2020).

That is, organizational identification shows an employee's degree of cognitive commitment to the organization. A person who has a strong connection with an organization is more likely to identify himself/herself in terms of organizational characteristics and to act in the best interests of the company (Ashforth et al., 2008). Organizational identification has been shown to be a significant predictor of a variety of positive organizational outcomes, including increased work participation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance in extra roles (Frisby, Sidelinger, and Tatum, 2019; Allen, Attah, and Gong, 2017; Zappalà, Toscano, and Licciardello, 2019; Li et al., 2021; Shim and Faerman, 2017; Cheema, Afsar, and

Brown, without a doubt, is another figure who shaped the concept of identity (1969). He coined the term "organizational identification" to refer to the act of associating with an organization in his study. According to Brown, employees are more likely to identify with their organizations when the following conditions exist: (1) the organizations provide opportunities for personal achievement, (2) the employees have power within the organizations, and (3) there is no other competing source of identity for employees. Brown (1969) proposed that while establishing a useful index for organization research, four aspects of engagement should be considered: congruence of individual and organizational aims, attraction to the organization, self-reference to organizational membership, and loyalty. Four unique questions were posed to the research participants, all of which were connected to the criteria mentioned above. To determine the degree of consistency between individual and organizational goals, participants were presented with two unique scenarios and asked to identify whether they believed there was consistency between individual and organizational goals (Mael and Tetrick, 1992).

Participants were asked to rate the company's attractiveness by responding to the following question: "If you could start working again in the same occupation as you do now, how likely would you be to choose this organization as a place to work?" When participants heard or read someone criticizing their organization, they were asked how they felt about its loyalty. Finally, we examined the self-referential aspect of organizational membership by asking workers how they would identify themselves in a single statement. Brown's (1969) study sheds light on why employees connect with their employers and paves the way for the establishment of a viable assessment system. Lee (1971) was another advocate for the concept of organizational identity.

The word "organizational identification" was defined as "the degree to which an individual has a broad personal connection to the organization" (p. 215). Lee (1971) emphasized three factors when diving deeper into organizational identification: a sense of belongingness, loyalty, and shared characteristics. According to Lee (1971), employees have a sense of belonging when they share similar goals or believe their job is vital to achieving their own needs. Identification with the organization as a source of loyalty may arise as a result of behaviors such as enjoying the benefits of membership, defending the organization against outsiders, and promoting the organization's objectives. Finally, common characteristics relating to the employee's resemblance to other workers in terms of quality are identified. As a result of the above, it is obvious that Lee (1971) contributed to our knowledge of organizational identity. Even if the definition and concept of organizational identity vary, there are numerous points of commonality. The bulk of scholars have concentrated regarding interaction of subordinates with their correspondent workplace. As previously stated, this study's vocabulary and conception of organizational identity are based on SIT theory. Thus, conceptualizations subsequent to Social Identity Theory ushered in a new age of organizational identity scholarship. Social Identity Theory continues to be one of the most common theories for understanding organizational identity in current organizational behavior research. Individuals are prone to self-identify and self-categorize within a recognized group, according to the Social Identity Approach, which is a fusion of Social Identity Theory and Social Categorization Theory (SCT) (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel et al., 1979). Individuals commonly identify with a "self-concept" generated from perceived social group membership. Individuals frequently have a personal identity in addition to a few social identities that enable them to operate in their social contexts, such as a father at home, a manager at work, or a student at school,

according to SIT. SCT states, based on SIT's assumptions, that once individuals identify themselves, they are prone to self-classify. Psychological contract has been consistently linked to a variety of attitudes (engagement), performance indicators and well-being (Rayton and Yalabik, 2014; McDonald and Makin, 2000; Knights and Kennedy, 2005; López Bohle et al., 2017; Ahmad and Zafar, 2018; Tufan and Wendt, 2020). Nonetheless, the mechanisms behind these associations have received little study (Estreder et al., 2019). Moreover, extant literature delineates information regarding the model of psychological contract, which are based on SET, place a premium on reciprocity as a fundamental mechanism for explaining why (in)fulfillment of commitments can result in employee attitudes and behaviors (Estreder et al., 2019). Additionally, Morrison and Robinson (1997) distinguished psychological contract breach from psychological contract violation, and psychological contract models postulated that psychological contract violation played a significant role in mediating the relationship between psychological contract satisfaction and job performance.

Subjective evaluations or impressions of abusive supervision, organizational identification, and psychological contract violations are all subjective. As a result, it is logical to infer that their cohabitation will have a cumulative effect. For example, an employee with a strong perception of supervisor abuse is extremely likely to sense a breach of the psychological contract and have feelings of estrangement from the organization. While abusive supervision may have a negative influence on employees' feelings of togetherness and belongingness, psychological contract violations may operate as a mediator between these two conceptions, eroding employees' identification with the organization (Arasli et al., 2021).

Identity is defined as the essence of an individual or a group. Organizations differ from each other in their ideals, norms, and beliefs, all of which form a unique identity for an organization (Thomas, 2017). These elements of organizational identity also govern the systems, processes, and operations of organizations. Therefore, it is important for the management of service organizations that want to differentiate themselves from the pack to devise mechanisms through which organizational identity is transferred from the visionaries, who are most often top executives, to the lowest-ranked member of staff. Among other means, psychological contract fulfillment is a way in which the management of a service establishment can motivate their employees into embracing the identity of their organization. In contrast, a psychological contract breach, which is usually defined in the literature as the employees' perception that the promises made by their organization to them have not been fulfilled (Baer et al., 2018; Robinson, 1996; Robinson and Morrison, 2000), tends to generate negative emotions among employees, making them question the authenticity of the organization's commitment to them, thereby reducing their sense of identification with the organization. When employees, based on a feeling of injustice or unfairness, feel that their psychological contract has been breached, they are less likely to commit to the norms, ideals, and traditions of the organization. Bearing this in mind, the next hypothesis was proposed: **Hypothesis 2 (H2)**. Psychological contract violations negatively influence employees' organizational identification.

2.6.3 Mediating Role of Psychological Contract Violations

Psychological contract (PCV) has been consistently linked to a variety of attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit), performance indicators (organizational citizenship behavior, turnover, performance, and organizational deviance), and well-being (Rayton and Yalabik, 2014; Arasli et al., 2021).

Nonetheless, the mechanisms behind these associations have received little study (Karatepe et al., 2021). Additionally, Morrison and Robinson (1997) distinguished psychological contract breach from psychological contract violation, and psychological contract models postulated that psychological contract violation played a significant role in mediating the relationship between psychological contract satisfaction and job performance.

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When employees think, their employer has failed to keep its commitments, psychological contracts are broken (Valle et al., 2020). Renewal and inconsistency are seen as the key reason of PCV (Li, Wong and Kim, 2016; Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, Dyaram, and Ziegler, 2017; Kaya and Karatepe, 2020). Reneging occurs when an organization knowingly breaches a committed commitment, whereas incongruence arises when employees and management have divergent opinions on a pledged responsibility (Tian et al., 2014). Due to the fact that the organization sets up guidelines, characterizes specific behaviours, as well as adjusts personnel through its own officials, breaching as well as mismatch in emotional treaties among subordinates

and hotel company are commonly integrated with in common give-and-take between workers and the management (Arasli et al, 2021). As such, the quality of supervisor-subordinate interactions plays a significant role in the psychological contract breach process (e Li, Wong and Kim, 2016; Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, Dyaram, and Ziegler, 2017; Kaya and Karatepe, 2020). A psychological contract, according to Pradhan et al. (2019), is indeed a worker's impression of something like the requirements imposed from his or their workplace, albeit officially or unofficially, explicitly or indirectly.

According to Park and Kim (2019), harsh supervision causes employees to experience a breach in their psychological contract. The severity of psychological contract breach reactions is "inextricably linked to not only disappointed expectations for specific rewards or advantages, but also to more general attitudes about individual respect, standards of conduct, and other patterns of behavior associated with trust-based relationships" (Said et al., 2021). Workers appreciate fairness information, according to the fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001; Van den Bos et al., 1998) since it enables them to judge their exchange relationship with and the business's honesty. Chen et al. (2021) conducted another study in which they examined the association between perceived fairness, psychological contract breaches, and behavior intention in the setting. According to the referenced authors, psychological contract breaches play a crucial role in mediating both the correlation between procedural justice and negative word of mouth and the relationship between distributive justice and negative word of mouth.

Abusive supervision, organizational identification, and psychological contract violations are all subjective evaluations or perceptions made by individuals. It is thus expected that their co-existence may impact one another. For example, an employee

with a high perception of abuse from their supervisor is highly likely to sense a psychological contract breach and have feelings of alienation from the organization. While abusive supervision may negatively affect employees' feelings of togetherness and belongingness, psychological contract breaches may also act as a mediator between these two constructs such that employees' identification with the organization may be weakened after experiencing a psychological contract breach. As prior studies have suggested, service organizations must ensure that employees are highly committed and identify with the organization to harness their full potential to achieve customer satisfaction; hence, it is imperative that abuse is prevented in such organizations. Therefore, understanding the mechanism through which abusive supervision impedes employees' identification is critical.

Hypothesis 3 (H3). Psychological contract violations mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and employees' organizational identification.

2.6.4 The Moderating Role of a Climate of Favoritism

Treating workers in a just and equal way causes them to perceive their organization as having kept to its psychological contract (Flood et al., 2001). On the other hand, a violation arises if one side perceives that the other side has not kept its promises (Arasli and Arici, 2020; Kaya and Karatepe, 2019; Wu, Lin and Wang 2021). The psychological contract involves an unspoken contract from between employer-employee relationship in order to have a healthy link (Arasli et al., 2021). The disregard or breaking of this agreement can be avoided if the two parties have the same attitude toward liabilities and are aware of how these could have discharged by each side. However, in a work atmosphere that fosters favoritism, it is not possible to conduct HR practices in a just and transparent way (Arasli et al, 2021) since certain

employees might be rewarded owing not to good performance but to being favored by the employer (Caroline, 2015). This kind of treatment could impair the perception of equality in family firms (David and Singh, 1993). Hence, comprehending the PCV and its possible impacts upon family businesses is necessary for the future of a firm since former research on PCVs has posited that a violation of this agreement could result in higher turnover and lower levels of trust, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Ford et al., 2018; Kraak et al., 2017; Baer et al., 2018; Chrisman et al., 2013). Therefore, we posited the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4 (H4). A climate of favoritism moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and employees' psychological contract violation.

The unfavorable work-associated changes that derive from favoritism could produce PCVs in the organization from the perspective of employees. The harmful effects of a work climate of favoritism can also trigger employee perceptions of inequality, especially among non-family-member employees, such as seasonal and migrant workers (Barnett and Kellermanns, 2006). Several scholars have suggested that employees' perception of inequality is associated with PCVs and results in negative employee outcomes, for instance nonattendance or absenteeism as well as deviant or toxic attitude (Ma, Liu, Lasseben and Ma, 2019; Li and Chen, 2018). In addition, recent studies have noted the effects of PCVs in terms of reduced employee satisfaction and organizational commitment (Robinson and Morrison, 2000; Anderson and Gerbing, 1998). In such a work environment, the leadership style adopted by supervisors, particularly one that involves favoritism, could decrease the number of employees PCVs by providing fair leadership practices, such as authentic supervision, which can ensure that a family-run organization is still a meritocracy (Arasli et al.,

2019). However, unethical leadership principles, such as abusive supervision, may enhance employees' feeling of a breach of the psychological contract, particularly in family firms, due to favoritism (Arasli et al., 2019; Mhatre et al., 2012). Based on the argument that a significantly negative association exists between PCVs and employee organizational identification when Favoritism and abusive supervisor practices are adopted, the present academical piece suggesting indirect effect of abusive supervision on employee identification through PCVs will be stronger in a work climate of favoritism. Therefore, the following hypothesis was posited:

Hypothesis 5 (H5). Favoritism will moderate the indirect influence of abusive supervision on employee organizational identity through PCVs such that the indirect influence is stronger when the employee's perception of favoritism is high.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Chapter three contains an explanation of the research design. Additionally, sample and processes, instruments' measurements, and data analysis methodologies were shown in this chapter.

3.1 Research Design

The current dissertation utilizes a quantitative approach to ascertain which factors have a substantial effect. According to Dornyei (2007), a quantitative method involves the collection and analysis of data using statistical techniques. The impacts of the factors were quantified using statistical tools in this study. Quantitative research is a method that entails quantifying and evaluating data in a logical manner in order to establish a connection between theory and research objectives (Altinay, Paraskevas and Jang, 2015).

3.2 Sample and Sampling Method

This research gathered data from 23 family-run hotel organizations in Antalya, Turkey, between July and September 2019. The cover letter included a question that was used to identify the participant's job position in the work setting (i.e., seasonal, migrant, or part-time employee) as well as distinguish the study population, aside from a brief text stating the study's purpose and ensuring confidentiality. The cover letter, also the survey, was distributed by a researcher to all participating employees. We used the judgmental sampling method to choose seasonal, migrant, and part-time hotel employees from the population, utilizing the above-indicated question. Family hotels

were included because these firms had more potential to incorporate favoritism-oriented management practices in the work setting because of the close relationships between family members (Arasli et al., 2019). Drawing on the guidelines produced by (Podsakoff, 2003), a one-month time lag was used to control for common method variance (CMV). In total, 700 questionnaires were delivered to the Employees at time I, of which 612 (87.4%) were returned. Afterward, 612 time II surveys were distributed, with 495 returned. After sorting through the returned questionnaires and removing invalid questionnaires with incomplete information, 488 questionnaires were considered valid, which provided a response rate of 69.7%.

3.3 Back Translation

The researchers translated the surveys in English and subsequently translated them into Turkish. Throughout the translation process, we enlisted the assistance of three English Language PhD students. Thus, questionnaire items were translated with the assistance of doctorate students. Additionally, a pilot study was conducted with thirty workers who worked in frontline departments in the hotel business to confirm that the questions were understandable. In other words, all survey questions that we used in our study were initially developed in English and then translated into Turkish using the back-translation method (McGorry, 2000).

3.4 Measurements

3.4.1 Abusive Supervision

This study measured abusive supervision, using the 15-item scale developed by (Tepper, 2000). A sample item is “My supervisor gives me the silent treatment.” A five-point Likert scale was used to anchor this measurement, with 1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree.

3.4.2 Psychological Contract Violations

To measure psychological contract violations, we adopted Morrison and Robinson's 4-item scale (Robinson and Morrison, 2000). A sample item was "I feel that this organization has violated the contract between us." A five-point Likert scale was used, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.4.3 Organizational Identification

Organizational identification was measured with a 6-item scale adapted from Mael and Ashforth (1992). A sample item is "When I talk about this organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'." The anchor response scale ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.4.4 A Climate of Favoritism

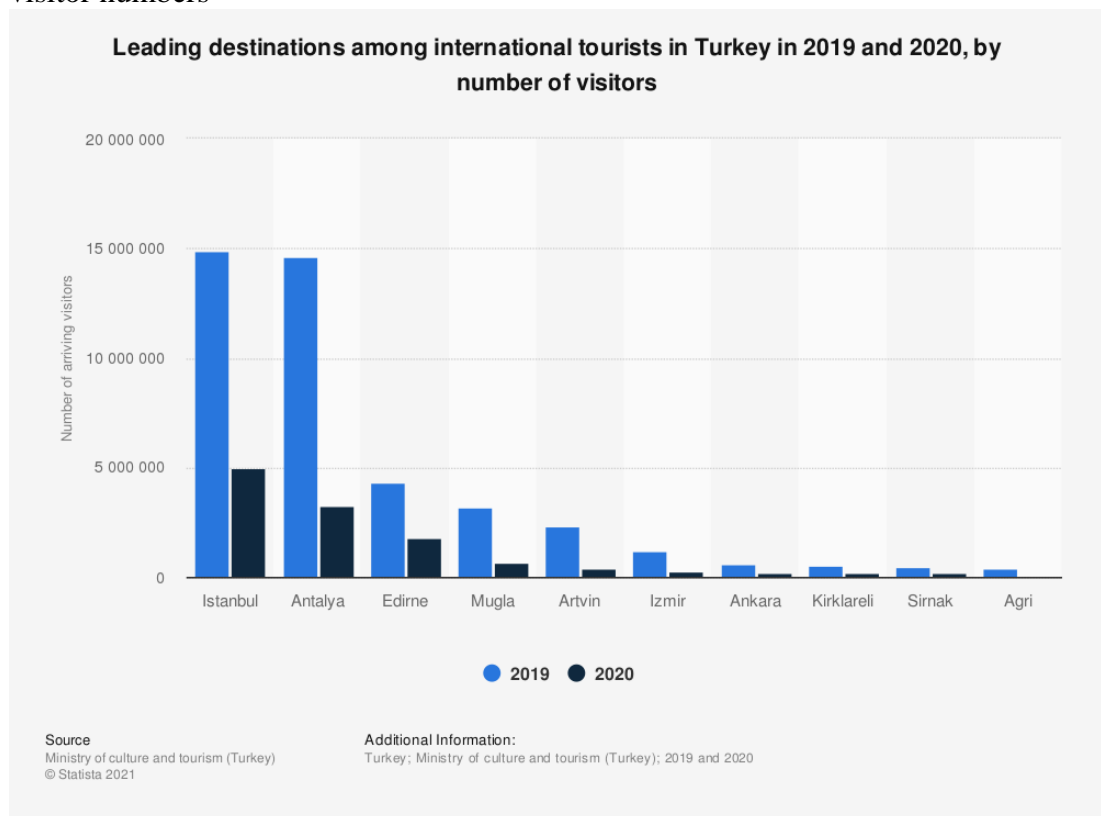
Favoritism was measured using a 5-item scale adapted from Arasli and Tumer (2008). The scale was tested with a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.5 Antalya as a research context

Turkey is a modern country, characterized by an enticing fusion of antiquity and modernity, as well as East and West. Discover fascinating facts about Turkey and educate yourself about Turkey's history, culture, art, nature, geography, traditional culinary culture and authentic Turkish lifestyle. Everything you need to know about Turkey and the surrounding region is Turkish culture. Turkish culture is a vibrant blend of West and East, modern and ancient. Additionally, life in Turkey is characterized by a great diversity of cultures and customs, some of which date back centuries and others of which are of more recent origin. Turkish cuisine is considered as one of the greatest in the world. Due to the breadth of its dishes and flavors, it is regarded as one of the world's three major cuisines. Turkey may be the only country in the world that

encompasses all facets of Eastern and Western culture. Turkey's history reveals a 10.000-year-old civilization. Learn about prehistoric ages, Anatolian civilizations, the Roman era, the Seljuk Empire, the Ottoman Empire, and contemporary Turkey (gotourismturkey, 2021).

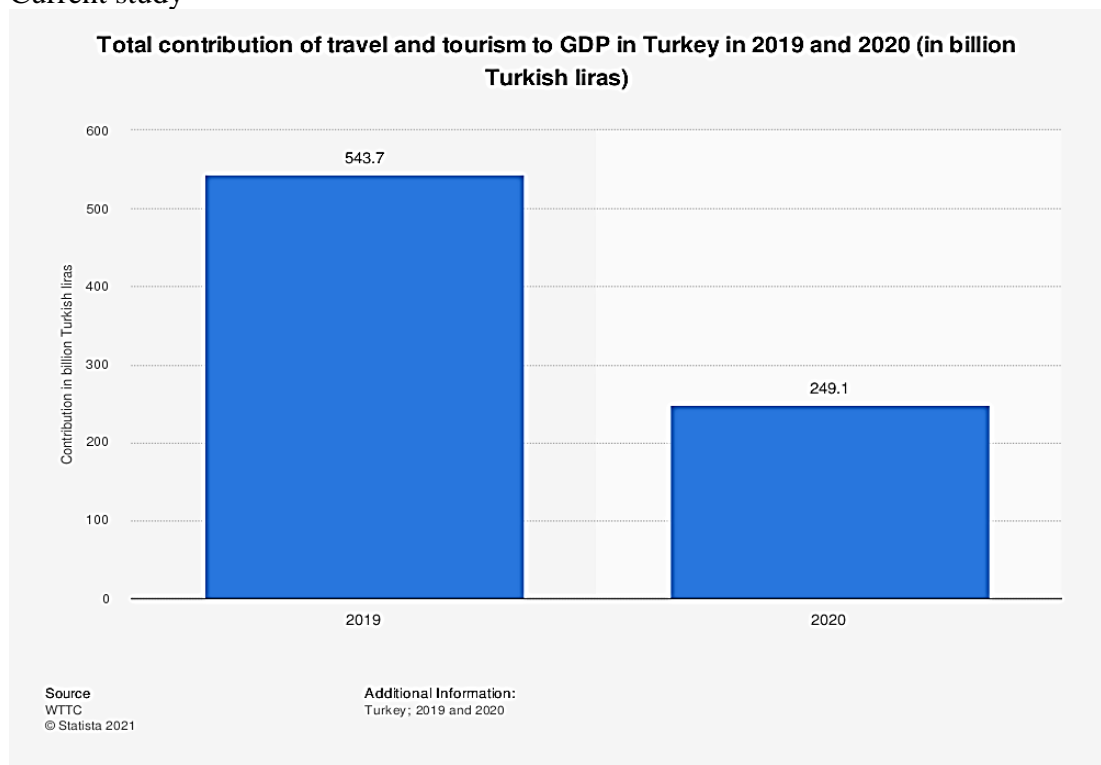
Table 2: Leading international tourism sites in Turkey in 2019 and 2020, based on visitor numbers



Tourism is critical to Turkey's economic growth (Cakar, 2018). Istanbul was Turkey's most popular tourist destination both in 2019 and 2020. However, as a result of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic's impact, the number of international arrivals in Istanbul decreased significantly in 2020, falling from 14.9 million to about five million. Antalya was Turkey's second most popular international visitor destination in 2020, with almost 3.3 million arrivals (Table 2). The Turkish tourism sector is heavily reliant on overseas visitors perceived as 'sun and sea seekers' who flock to the country,

particularly during the summer season (Ozdemir et al., 2012). Indeed, foreign tourism accounts for more than 80% of overall tourist earnings in Turkey (Akal, 2010). Tourism income provided by overseas tourists specifically contribute to the Turkish economy's development, by helping to reduce external deficits, increase employment and improve the balance of payments (Ozdemir et al., 2012). Tourism revenue's direct contribution to the gross domestic product (GDP) is viewed as critical, since the country's economy is strongly reliant on it as a source of export money (Yilanci & Eris, 2012). Prior to the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, travel and tourism contributed around 543.7 billion Turkish liras to Turkey's gross domestic product (GDP). By 2020, when the health crisis began, this sum had fallen to around 249 billion Turkish liras (Table 2).

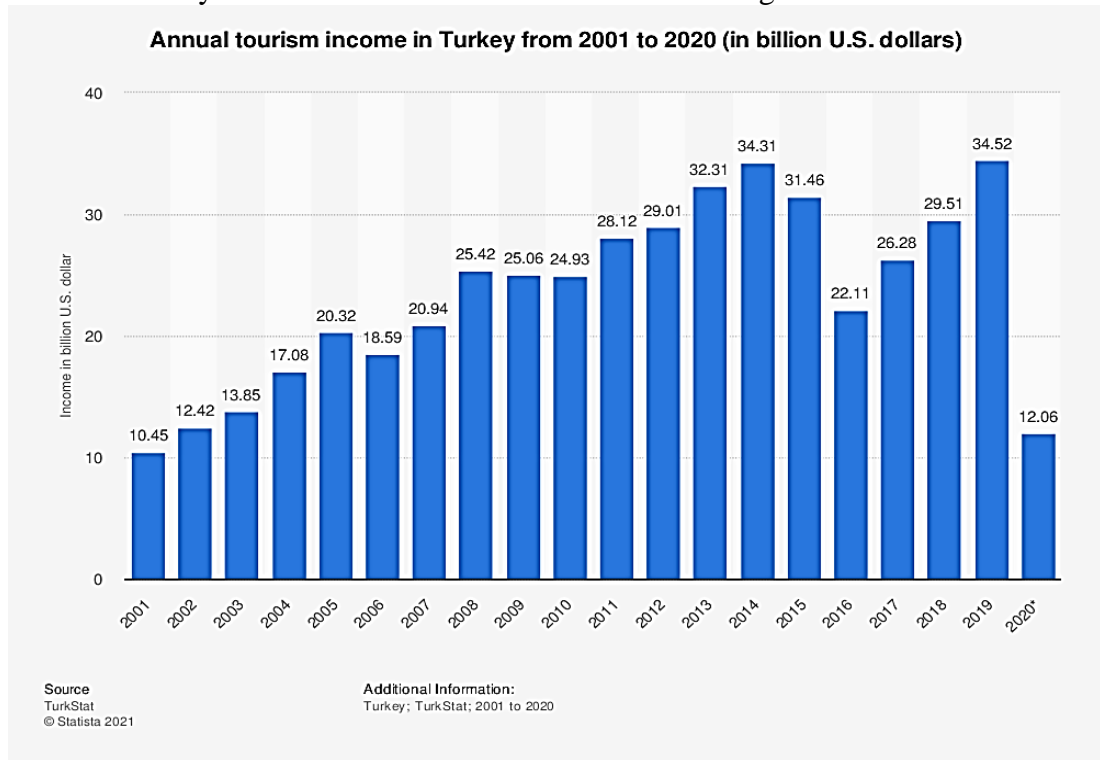
Table 3: Travel and tourism's total contribution to Turkey's GDP in 2019 and 2020
Current study



According to the Ministry of Culture and Tourism's accommodation statistics for 2019, the number of domestic tourists arriving at accommodations with a tourism operation certificate and a municipality certificate is 42 million, the number of overnight stays is 78.5 million, and the average length of stay is 1.87 nights. Istanbul ranks first with 4.7 million domestic arrivals, followed by Antalya with 4.4 million domestic arrivals and Ankara with 2.4 million domestic arrivals (Ilgaz et al., 2021). As stated by statistics information computed as the flow of international visitors by province of entry who arrived in Turkey by water or by using aviation means in 2014, Antalya welcomed almost twelve million foreign tourists.

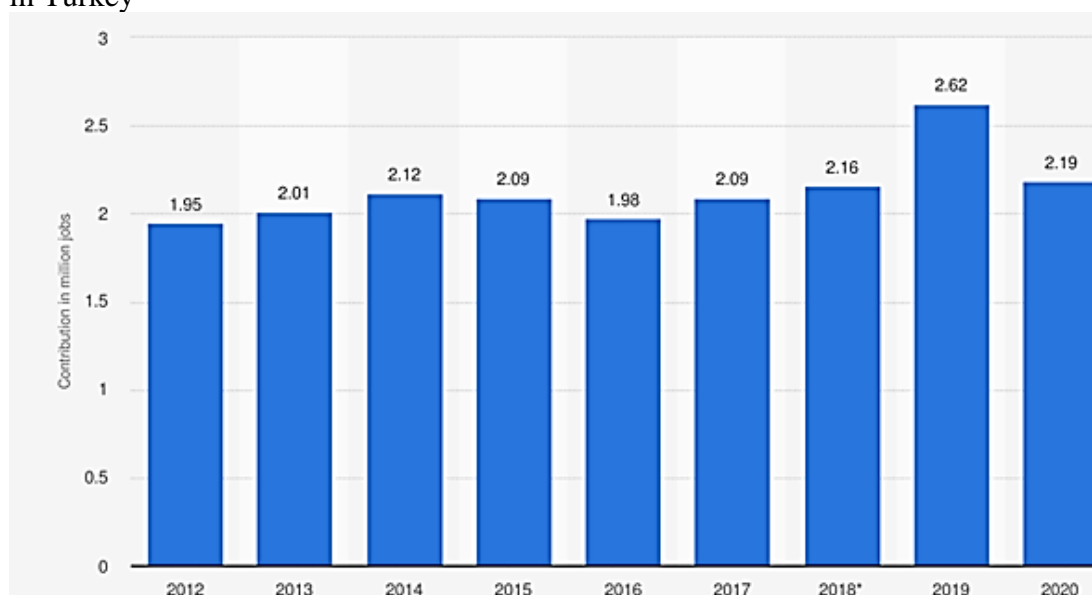
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Table 4: Turkey's annual tourism revenue from 2001 through 2020



Owing to the outbreak, Turkey's overall tourism revenue fell significantly in 2020 compared with the previous year. As shown in Table 4, the combined expenditure of foreign and domestic visitors in 2020 will be around 12.06 billion US dollars. This is a drop of almost 22 billion US dollars from the previous year (TurkStat, 2021).

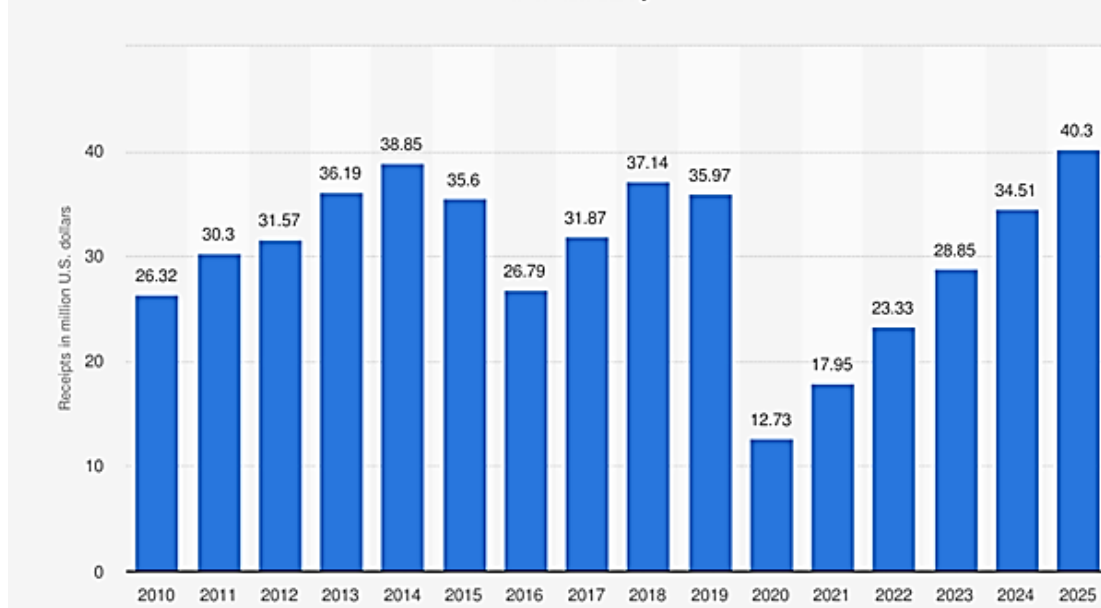
Table 5: From 2012 to 2020, the total contribution of travel and tourism to employment in Turkey



Due to the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, the total contribution of travel and tourism to employment in Turkey decreased dramatically in 2020 compared to the previous year. In all, these industries supported around 2.19 million employments directly and indirectly in 2020, down from almost 2.6 million in 2019 (WTTC, 2021b) as shown in the figure 5.

According to statistic provided by Statista (2021), discourse regarding Turkey's expected foreign tourist receipts until 2025. By 2025, it is expected to reach 40.30 million US dollars. Receipts document inbound travelers' expenditures (figure 5). Tourism expenditures in the domestic market are not included. The projection has been updated to account for the anticipated effect of COVID-19. The data in this section is an extract from Statista's Key Market Indicators (KMI).

Table 6: Forecast of the international tourism receipts in Turkey from 2010 to 2025



The KMI is a collection of primary and secondary indicators that reflect the macroeconomic, demographic, and technical environments of over 150 nations and regions worldwide. All data sources are international organizations, national statistics agencies, and trade associations. Each piece of data has been processed to create similar datasets (see supplementary notes under details for more information).

3.6 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

There were 327 males (67.0 percent) and 161 women among the participants (33.0 percent). In terms of age, approximately one-third of participants were between the ages of 26 and 34, 18.2 percent were between the ages of 18 and 25, and 27.9 percent were between the ages of 36 and 40, while the remaining were beyond 41. 70.1 percent had earned a senior high school diploma or less, 18.9 percent had earned a two-year junior college degree, and 14.7 percent had earned a bachelor's degree or higher. Of the participants, 52.6% had a work experience at least two years. Of the 488 respondents, 14.3% were part-time workers, 46.1% were seasonal employees, and 39.5% were migrant workers.

3.7 Data Analysis

The psychometric accuracy of the items was tested. Precisely, our research employed confirmatory factor analysis to address issues of convergent and discriminant validity as well as composite reliability (Bouzari and Karatepe, 2020). The reliabilities were tested via the threshold value of 0.70. In addition, to test the links between variables, a correlation analysis was performed. We adopted a moderated mediation model in which PCVs were utilized as the mediator and a culture of favoritism was the moderator. Hence, Hayes's process macro was conducted to examine the moderated mediation effect (Hayes, 2017).

Chapter 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Validation of the Measurement Model

To test the measurement model, the CFA estimated the internal consistency for the latent variables and determined whether construct validity existed. The findings showed that the measurement model fit the data excellently ($\chi^2 = 938.76$, $df = 408$, $p < 0.001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.301$, $RMSEA = 0.067$, $CFI = 0.94$, $IFI = 0.91$, $TLI = 0.90$). The items were significantly loaded onto their related latent construct ($p < 0.01$). The factors involved a high degree of composite reliability, ranging from 0.83 to 0.90 (see Appendix A).

In addition, the AVEs by abusive supervision and psychological contract violation do not worsen the fit statistics depicted overhead. An examination of the extant service research also presents the findings for AVEs of several variables, which are lower than 0.50 (Karatepe, Ozturk and Kim, 2019). Overall, the findings provided support for convergent validity. In addition, the squared scores of correlations between a pair of constructs did not exceed the AVE scores, which verified the discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

In the first step, analyses of the descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations were performed. Table 7 shows the mean scores, standard deviations, and correlations

between the variables. As seen in Table 7, all hypothesized relationships were as expected ($p < 0.01$).

Table 7: Correlation matrix

| Variables | Means | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|------------------------|-------|------|----------|----------|-----------|--------|
| 1. Abusive supervision | 2.34 | 0.99 | (0.81) | | | |
| 2. PCV | 2.21 | 1.03 | 0.452 ** | (0.89) | | |
| 3.OID | 3.04 | 0.73 | 0.317 ** | 0.351 ** | (0.95) | |
| 4. Favoritism | 2.27 | 0.80 | 0.477 ** | 0.522 ** | -0.510 ** | (0.95) |

Note: SD—standard deviation, PCV—psychological contract violation. Values in parentheses provide the internal consistencies (Cronbach’s alpha); ** $p < 0.01$.

4.3 Hypothesis Testing

The findings show that abusive supervision had a significant and positive effect on PCVs ($\beta = 0.45$, $p < 0.01$), providing support for H1. In addition, the findings confirmed that PCVs had a negative and significant effect on employee organizational identity ($\beta = -0.35$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, H2 was also supported (see Table 8).

Table 8: Hypothesis testing: regression analysis

| PCV | Organizational Identification | β | t |
|----------|-------------------------------|----------|-------------|
| Constant | 1.11 ** | | 3.59 (0.07) |
| AS | 0.45 | 11.17 ** | |
| PCV | | -0.35 | -8.26 ** |
| R^2 | 0.20 | 0.12 | |

Note: PCV—psychological contract violation; ** $p < 0.01$.

H3 proposed the mediating effect of PCVs on the relationship between abusive supervision and organizational identity. To test this mediation effect, we adopted the conditions produced by Preacher and Hayes (2017). The guidelines included:

1. Assuming a significant relationship between the independent variable (abusive supervision) and the mediator (PCVs) (Table 10, model 1, $b = 0.47, p < 0.01$);
2. Estimating the significant relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable (organizational identity) (model 2, $b = -0.18, p < 0.01$) when controlling for the influence of the independent variable (model 2, $b = -0.15, p < 0.01$);
3. Bootstrapping the sampling distribution of indirect influence and determining the confidence interval (CI) with the statistical results from the bootstrapped sampling distribution.

Table 9: Assessing the mediating role of OID

| Variables | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|-----------|----------------|-----------------|
| | DV: PCV | DV: OID |
| AS | 0.47 (0.04) ** | -0.15 (0.03) ** |
| PCV | — | -0.18 (0.03) ** |
| R^2 | 0.20 | 0.15 |

Note: $n = 488$; values corresponding to the independent constructs are coefficient impacts, β , with standard errors given in parentheses. PCV—psychological contract violation. ** $p < 0.01$. The results regarding variance inflation factors did not demonstrate any problems of multicollinearity.

As indicated in table 9, the indirect influence via PCVs was estimated to be between -0.16 and -0.07 with 95% confidence and normal theory tests ($z = -7.91, p < 0.01$). Since there was no zero within the confidence interval, the indirect influences were significantly above zero and PCVs mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and organizational identity, supporting H3.

H4 proposed that a climate of favoritism moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and PCVs. The proposed interaction of abusive supervision \times climate of favoritism ($b = 0.11, p < 0.01$) was significant and thus supported H4 (see Table 10).

Table 10: Moderator effect of favoritism

| Variables | DV: PCV |
|--|----------------|
| Constant | 2.17 (0.04) ** |
| Abusive supervision | 0.26 (0.05) ** |
| Climate of favoritism | 0.52 (0.06) ** |
| Interaction: AS \times Climate of favoritism | 0.11 (0.04) ** |
| R^2 | 0.33 |

Note: $n = 488$; values show coefficient effects of independent variables, β , with standard errors given within parentheses. PCV—psychological contract violation. ** $p < 0.01$. The results regarding variance inflation factors did not demonstrate any problems of multicollinearity.

H5 suggested a conditional indirect effect such that the indirect influence of abusive supervision on organizational identity would be moderated by a climate of favoritism. The conditional indirect influence of abusive supervision via PCVs is illustrated in Table 11. Notably, the indirect influence of abusive supervision through PCVs under a more pronounced climate of favoritism ($b = -0.03$) was stronger than that under a less obvious climate of favoritism ($b = -0.06$). The moderated mediation index provides additional support (Hayes, 2017). The index was significant when PCVs were added into the model as a mediator (effect = -0.03 , SE = 0.01, 95% CI = $[-0.103, -0.03]$). These empirical findings show that the indirect influence of abusive supervision on organizational identity through the mediating role of PCVs was enhanced as the climate of favoritism increased. Thus, H5 was also supported.

Table 11: Conditional effect of abusive supervision on organizational identity through PCV For distinct scores of favoritisms

| Mediator | Decentralization | Effect | SE | LLCI | ULCI |
|-----------------|-------------------------|---------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| PCV | -1 SD | -0.03 | 0.01 | -0.60 | -0.13 |
| | 0 | -0.04 | 0.01 | -0.76 | -0.26 |
| | +1 SD | -0.06 | 0.02 | -0.103 | -0.03 |

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This work outlined the predictors and psychological mechanisms of organizational identification (OID), by focusing on the fundamental influence of abusive supervision (AS), the mediating role of PCVs, and the moderating role of a climate of favoritism. The study findings demonstrate that abusive supervision was significantly associated with psychological contract violation, and the association was more powerful for employees encountering a stronger climate of favoritism in family-run organizations. Moreover, PCVs mediated the joint influence of a climate of favoritism and abusive supervision on OID.

5.1 Theoretical Implications

Based on both affective event and emotional contagion theories, we examined the influence of AS on OID by examining the mediating role of PCVs. Moreover, we investigated the moderating effect of a climate of favoritism on the association among PCVs and OID as well as the secondary association in the link of AS-OID. PCVs played intervening mechanism considering link of AS-OID. Furthermore, a climate of favoritism moderated the direct effect of PCVs on OID, and the indirect effect of AS on OID through the extent of PCVs.

The study helped us to understand how PCVs impacted the relationship between AS and OID and how a climate of favoritism moderated its direct and indirect effects on OID using a sample of 23 family-run hotels. The findings suggested that AS

significantly affected OID, which corroborates the empirical results and outcomes of Decoster et al. (2013), Liu et al. (2016), and Wei and Si (2013). Our results also show that PCVs were related to OID. This is consistent with prior research (Kraak et al., 2017; Epitropaki, 2016; Epitropaki, 2013; Shahnawaz and Goswami, 2011) in that the combination of abusive leadership practices and PCVs significantly influences OID. Additionally, PCVs mediated the relationship between AS and OID. Therefore, our results are consistent with previous studies (Liu et al., 2016), indicating that AS is one of the important antecedents of PCVs, which subsequently determines the OID of the employees in the research content. In addition to aforesaid information, one of the most valuable findings regarding the current study is the empirically evidenced association and link of a climate of favoritism and PCVs by the employees to produce a negative influence on OID. This work has attracted interest regarding the detrimental influences of a climate of favoritism on affective PCVs. In particular, a greater volume of PCV measures is linked with an enhanced OID, but only when the climate of favoritism of such hotels is more obvious. Simply stated, better managerial outcomes could be accomplished regarding OID if abusive supervision is replaced by ethical leadership. In short, a climate of favoritism moderated the relationship between PCVs and OID. Therefore, this study contributes to the PCV literature by identifying crucial and new situations under which PCVs influence OID. Finally, our study confirmed the relationships between AS, PCVs, and OID by analyzing the boundary conditions of a climate of favoritism from the perspective of contingent employees. The indirect influence of AS on OID through PCVs was stronger when the climate of favoritism was high; this means that, in organizations where AS did exist, OID was lowered only when the climate of favoritism was strong. To sum up, simultaneously including PCVs

and a climate of favoritism in the hypothesized relationships facilitated the comprehension of AS, as well as its link to OID.

Our findings also contribute to the sustainability literature. The contribution of our study is at least twofold. First, by empirically examining the role of AS in OID, we confirmed the importance of the dark side of leadership in hospitality organizations. This implies that AS needs to be considered as an important agent of service organizations that leads to changes in employees' behaviors and attitudes, which in turn leads to organizations' sustainable development in the market. This important finding is congruent with previous empirical studies (Hussain et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2020) that suggested that AS is an important factor that affects organizations' sustainable development in service industries. Thus, our study extended our understanding regarding AS and we call for further research on its direct impacts on the sustainable performance of organizations. Second, our empirical findings also endorsed several theoretical guidelines that suggest the important role of internal resources, such as managers, supervisors, and employees, in achieving sustained competitive advantage in the market (Heskett et al., 1994; Barney, 1991). This theoretical knowledge was shown by our empirical findings by revealing the role of AS in affecting employee OID via PCVs. Our findings also contribute to previous research (Pointing, 2020) that revealed the relationship between leadership and OID in hotel organizations. This brings with itself a new question: does abusive supervision have an indirect effect on organizations' sustainable performance via OID or is there a significant relationship between a higher level of OID and the sustainable development of organizations? Simply stated, this study opens up a new avenue through which to examine the role of abusive supervision in the sustainability

literature, which has received surprisingly little attention from sustainability researchers.

5.2 Practical Implications

Several implications may be identified from the findings of this work. First, PCVs trigger aggrieved employees to act abusively toward their peers and customers. Thus, hotel management ought to try to steer clear of the negative impacts connected with psychological contracts by avoiding impractical promises made during selection, orientation, promotion, rewarding, and job communications. According to Arasli et al. (2019), management promises might be raising expectations and could be motivating in the short term, but in the long term, they might harm both workers and companies if the promises are not kept. If AS is inevitable, feelings of anger and distrust might be reduced and staff trust increased via an ethical, authentic leadership style (Robinson and Morrison, 2000). Furthermore, hospitality specialists can benefit from this study by familiarizing themselves with the antecedents of OID to find ways to improve their management practices. The results specify that AS negatively affected OID, especially due to the undesired contribution of favoritism in family organizations. Practitioners might thus try to develop human resources policies, such as recruitment and selection policies, making them more transparent and efficient in terms of organizational outcomes.

As an entrepreneur in the sector for many years, I can state that the majority of the facilities, located in the Antalya region are family businesses. With the tourism encouragement law enacted in the early 1980s, mono-cultural tourism started to increase rapidly in the region. In this way, high-capacity hotels started to serve the

increasing number of guests. It is necessary to examine the socio-cultural effects as well as the economic developments, brought about by this rising graphic.

In order to be able to comment on management, which is the subject of this thesis, we also need to analyze the investors-managers and boards of directors in these facilities. The large-scale accommodation facilities built have brought along vertical personnel diversity. As a result of the interviews I have made, I understand that the first-generation managers are usually investors or family members. The most important reason for this is the facilities of the scarcity of this scale in other tourism regions of the country in these years and professional illiteracy that manage these facilities. In addition, human resource transfer from abroad could not be made in this period.

Over the past years, tourism investors have trained their second-generation family members to specialize in accommodation, and in addition to this, the number of professionals has started to increase with the developing sector structure. In our investigations today, we understand that a mixed management structure consisting of second-generation family members and professionals dominates the market.

The tourism industry has to develop business models that interact with people in many different cultures and as a result, appeal to international tastes. With this structure, it also differs from the sectors that serve local dynamics in terms of human resources. To elaborate on this issue, managers in tourism accommodation enterprises should be extremely meticulous in their attitudes and behaviors towards their employees, especially about courtesy. Otherwise, we can say that the material and moral practices that can be interpreted as inequality between men and women and the differences between domestic and foreign personnel may cause significant disruptions in the

business. Again, based on my personal observations, I can posit that the above-mentioned disruptions in the accommodation sector are experienced at a minimum level.

5.3 Limitations and scope for future study

Apart from the contributions outlined before, this study has a number of drawbacks. First, although the sample included three different employment types, namely, seasonal, migrant, and part-time employees, all three were considered as one group and we ignored their potential differences. Upcoming research could focus on the differences between the employment types to expand our understanding of the proposed model. Second, the study's findings relied on data gathered from a single source (i.e., employees). Thus, collecting data from multiple sources, including employees and supervisors, and comparing their answers would pay dividends. Third, in this study, family firms were considered, and other types of hospitality organizations were not included. Future examinations could include other types of hotels.

Fourth, upcoming pieces could also examine the potentially detrimental effects of AS on other employee outcomes, such as engagement, citizenship behaviors, and job embeddedness. Last but not least, future studies could adopt a longitudinal approach to obtain stronger findings on the hypothesized relationships suggested in the study model.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Measurement Parameter Estimates

| | Standardized Loading | CCR | AVE |
|--|----------------------|------|------|
| Abusive supervision | | 0.85 | 0.67 |
| My supervisor: | | | |
| Ridicules me. | 0.81 | | |
| Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid. | 0.69 | | |
| Gives me the silent treatment. | 0.77 | | |
| Puts me down in front of others. | 0.85 | | |
| Invades my privacy. | 0.85 | | |
| Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures. | 0.68 | | |
| Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort. | 0.70 | | |
| Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment. | 0.72 | | |
| Breaks promises he/she made. | 0.69 | | |
| Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason. | 0.81 | | |
| Makes negative comments about me to others. | 0.75 | | |
| Is rude to me. | 0.71 | | |
| Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers. | 0.71 | | |
| Tells me I'm incompetent. | 0.74 | | |
| Lies to me. | 0.76 | | |
| Favoritism | | 0.88 | 0.63 |
| Employees of this hotel always feel that they need friends and acquaintances in a high-level position. | 0.80 | | |
| Employees who are promoted or rewarded only because of close friendship ties are a negative influence on this organization. | 0.77 | | |
| Executives' close friends are frustrated by never really knowing whether they were appointed because of their talent or friendship ties. | 0.86 | | |
| Friends and acquaintances' disagreements become business problems in organizations allowing favoritism. | 0.81 | | |
| Executives are more interested in keeping friends and acquaintances in good positions than they are in those employees' performance or the organization's profitability. | 0.79 | | |
| Organizational identity | | 0.83 | 0.61 |
| When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult. | 0.77 | | |
| I am very interested in what others think about this organization. | 0.76 | | |
| When I talk about this organization, I usually say "we" rather than "they." | 0.82 | | |
| This organization's successes are my successes. | 0.70 | | |
| When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment. | 0.72 | | |
| I act like a (name of organization) person to a great extent. | 0.72 | | |
| Psychological contract violation | | 0.90 | 0.79 |
| I feel that my organization has violated the contract between us. | 0.85 | | |
| I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organization. | 0.91 | | |
| I feel betrayed by my organization. | 0.86 | | |
| My employer has broken many of their promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal. | 0.73 | | |

Note: CCR—composite construct reliability, AVE—average variance extracted. All loading values were significant at the 0.05 level.

Appendix B: Survey

Dear Participant,

I invite you to participate in a research study entitled: The Effect of Abusive Supervision on Organizational Identification: A Moderated Mediation Analysis. I am currently enrolled in the Tourism Management PhD program at Eastern Mediterranean University in North Cyprus and I am in the process of writing my PhD Thesis.

The enclosed questionnaire has been designed to collect information on employee's perspective toward their work. Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary. You may decline altogether or leave blank any questions you do not wish to answer. Your responses will remain confidential and anonymous. Data from this research will be kept confidential and will only be used for research purposes. No one other than the researchers will know your answers to this questionnaire. If you agree to participate in this project, please answer the questions on the questionnaire as best you can. It should take approximately (10 minutes) to complete. If you have any questions about this project, feel free to contact Mustafa Cengiz (mustafa.cengiz@khanhotel.com).

Thank you for your assistance in this important endeavor.

Sincerely yours, Mustafa Cengiz

Ph.D. Candidate, Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University,

Famagusta North Cyprus

Section I.

Demographic Features

1. Gender.

Male () Female ()

2. Age.

18 – 25 () 26 – 33 () 34 – 41 () 42 – 49 () over 50 ()

3. Education.

Primary education () High School () 2 year College () University () Master or Phd ()

4. Marital Status.

Married and Childless () Married with Children () Single () Other ()

5. Department.

Food & Beverage () Front Office – Reception () Housekeeping ()
Human Resources () Accounting – Finance () Other ().....

6. Tenure.

Less than 1 year () 1-3 years () 4 - 6 years () 7-9 years () Over10 years ()

7. Status.

Full-time Employee () Seasonal Employee () Immigrant Employee ()
Part-Time () Other.....

Section II.

| | Regarding below mentioned criteria please indicate your answer. 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neutral 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|----|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1 | <u>My supervisor:</u> Ridicules me. | | | | | |
| 2 | Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid. | | | | | |
| 3 | Gives me the silent treatment. | | | | | |
| 4 | Puts me down in front of others. | | | | | |
| 5 | Invades my privacy. | | | | | |
| 6 | Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures. | | | | | |
| 7 | Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort. | | | | | |
| 8 | Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment. | | | | | |
| 9 | Breaks promises he/she made. | | | | | |
| 10 | Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason. | | | | | |
| 11 | Makes negative comments about me to others. | | | | | |
| 12 | Is rude to me. | | | | | |
| 13 | Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers. | | | | | |
| 14 | Tells me I'm incompetent. | | | | | |
| 15 | Lies to me. | | | | | |
| 16 | Employees of this hotel always feel that they need friends and acquaintances in a high-level position. | | | | | |
| 17 | Employees who are promoted or rewarded only because of close friendship ties are a negative influence on this organization. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 18 | Executives' close friends are frustrated by never really knowing whether they were appointed because of their talent or friendship ties. | | | | | |
| 19 | Friends and acquaintances' disagreements become business problems in organizations allowing favoritism. | | | | | |
| 20 | Executives are more interested in keeping friends and acquaintances in good positions than they are in those employees' performance or the organization's profitability. | | | | | |
| 21 | When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult. | | | | | |
| 22 | I am very interested in what others think about this organization. | | | | | |
| 23 | When I talk about this organization, I usually say "we" rather than "they." | | | | | |
| 24 | This organization's successes are my successes. | | | | | |
| 25 | When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment. | | | | | |
| 26 | I act like a (name of organization) person to a great extent. | | | | | |
| 27 | I feel that my organization has violated the contract between us. | | | | | |
| 28 | I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organization. | | | | | |
| 29 | I feel betrayed by my organization. | | | | | |
| 30 | My employer has broken many of their promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal. | | | | | |

Thank you for answering the survey.