Abusive supervision, work engagement and burnout:

Does employee trait mindfulness buffer the effects of leader abuse?

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Abstract

Job demands and job resources can motivate employees to perform at their best; however, when leadership is no longer considered a job resource and instead becomes a job demand, employees can experience an imbalance leading to negative outcomes. The current research body is well equipped with empirical evidence supporting the relationships between abusive supervision – a hostile and destructive leadership style – and these negative outcomes. Despite this, the majority of this research has used single-sourced correlation and cross-sectional research designs – creating a single-source method bias. As such, little research has been dedicated to understanding the effect on employee work engagement and burnout from this abuse overtime. This study aimed to bridge the gap in the knowledge base by comparing data from two timepoints. Furthermore, employee trait mindfulness has yet to be explored as a personal resource moderating these relationships and so the current study aimed to examine this.

Drawing on 318 employees from matched Time 1 and Time 2 data, the current research set out to (1) determine the longitudinal effects of abusive supervision on employee work engagement and burnout levels and (2) assess the role of employee trait mindfulness in these relationships, assessing where in the relationship this personal resource would likely cause a buffering influence. To analyse this, data were collected using self-report questionnaires at two timepoints, four weeks apart.

The results of the study find, longitudinally, that abusive supervision plays a negative role in employee work engagement and burnout levels. The results suggest that employees who are experiencing abusive supervision are more likely to report lower levels of work engagement and higher levels of burnout overtime.

While direct effects of mindfulness on engagement and burnout were found, moderation analyses indicated that trait mindfulness did not have a buffering effect on the

negative outcomes of abusive supervision. Employees' levels of mindfulness did not have an impact on the levels of work engagement and burnout experienced due to abusive supervision overtime. This might suggest that mindfulness does not provide enough in terms of employee personal resources needed to overcome the job demand of abuse by a leader. It is thought that abuse may limit an employee's ability to be mindful due to the depletion of cognitive resources drained via abuse and thus mindfulness is unable to buffer the effects of the abuse.

Future research may wish to consider whether mindfulness provides more of a buffer closer to when the outcomes of abuse are experienced due to the acceptance tendencies that mindfulness provides. This opens the research body up to a number of research opportunities, including examining the boundary conditions of mindfulness in the face of abusive supervision.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Leadership is a complex but well-discussed phenomenon in research as it can determine the success or downfall of any organisation (Thoroughgood, Padilla, Hunter, & Tate, 2012). It is an interactive process whereby leaders affect their followers and followers affect their leaders in order to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2018). This describes an influence relationship. One cannot occur without the other, with the quality of the leadership process determined by the effect each party has on one another. The common goal, a mutual purpose, sets the direction for the group but leadership is the process that creates a pathway to successfully achieving this goal (Ciulla, 1999; Northouse, 2018). 'Good' leadership is said to be effective (successfully leads followers towards achieving a common goal) and ethical (with good intentions, driven by morality) (Ciulla, 1999). The way a leader gives direction, distributes the team's workload and handles arising issues has a strong influence on the behaviours and well-being of followers (Schmid, Pircher Verdorfer, & Peus, 2018). Therefore, the balance of support and ethics is crucial in ensuring the health of employees during the leadership process.

In this view, leaders should be motivating, supportive and inspiring, challenging their followers to reach goals through a positive energy and attitude. Leaders should engage employees in work, communicating their expectations, providing feedback and encouraging creative solutions to problems (Fors Brandebo, Österberg, & Berglund, 2019; Northouse, 2018). Their aim should be to establish an environment where followers can flourish by creating psychological safety, that is, an emotional state where individuals feel safe to voice their concerns. They can do this by showing they are interested in their followers' views and that they will not punish unintentional mistakes (Bienefeld & Grote, 2013). These positive leadership styles see followers with increased job satisfaction (Fors Brandebo et al., 2019; Nielsen, Yarker, Brenner, Randall, & Borg, 2008), motivation (Fors Brandebo et al., 2019) and well-being (Nielsen et al., 2008).

However, while leadership can be considered a bidirectional influence, there are instances where leaders are not concerned about the followership side of the leadership relationship. Leadership no longer is about the effect the leader and follower have on one another, rather it becomes unidimensional: centred on the influence the leader has on their employees. In these cases, employees do not 'follow' their leader, instead they simply exist in a hierarchical nature. For the purposes of their work, these employees are influenced by their leader however there is no followership beyond that of the basic job requirements (Hollander, 2013). Leaders that do not have followership in mind may abuse their hierarchical position. They might develop mistrust by being manipulative, patronising and ill-tempered (Rogelberg, 2007). They may micromanage, failing to give up control as they believe they cannot trust others. These leaders may go as far as to abuse their employees.

In this light, leaders can be considered job resources and job demands. The Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R model) suggests that job strain is a response to an imbalance between the job demands placed on employees and the resources those employees have to deal with those job demands. Good leaders are considered resources, while poor leaders are considered demands. Job resources refer to aspects of a job that reduce job demands – they are functional in achieving work goals and stimulate learning (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). These job resources can be organisational resources or personal resources, of which equip employees with the means to manage demands and facilitate growth, learning and development (Huang, Wang, & You, 2016). Organisational resources are aspects of a job that reduce job demands, such as feedback, support (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Huang et al., 2016) and communication tactics (Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007), whereas personal resources are "… the aspects of self that are linked to resiliency and individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon the environment successfully" (Huang et al., 2016, p. 563), such as optimism, resilience and mindfulness. A motivation process becomes relevant here in that increases in these resources can impact an

employee's motivation, which can lead to increased performance (Bakker et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2016).

Job demands, alternatively, are the aspects of a job that require sustained physical and psychological efforts or skills, such as a heavy workload or poor relationships (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). Grover, Teo, Pick, Roche, and Newton (2018) state that "high and prolonged levels of job demands impair health by drawing on resources beyond individual capabilities" (p. 969). Scheuer, Burton, Barber, Finkelstein, and Parker (2016) acknowledge that while all job demands cause a degree of strain, some of these demands elicit responses leading to exhaustion. Without a proper balance between job demands and the resources needed to withstand them, employees can become exhausted, both physically and mentally. This results in job strain and may eventually lead to job burnout. Leaders who adopt destructive leadership styles can be considered demands. Their inability to provide the necessary organisational resources will see high job demands, increasing employees' risk of experiencing the negative outcomes of this imbalance. The amount of time and energy needed to sustain the working relationship may deplete the employee's resources, leading to negative outcomes such as burnout (Aryee, Sun, Chen, & Debrah, 2015; Schaufeli, 2015; Scheuer et al., 2016).

Drawing on research that further delves into the issue with demands, is the 'bad is stronger than good' phenomenon. This means that a positive experience does not have the same effect as a negative experience (Fors Brandebo et al., 2019; Schmid et al., 2018). Negative ordeals have a greater impact on an individual, meaning multiple positive experiences are needed to overcome just that one negative experience (Fors Brandebo et al., 2019). This is due to individuals processing negative information differently to positive information – those negative events are processed more thoroughly, causing more emotional significance. If a supervisor subjects their employees to repeated negative events (such as intimidation or blaming) research suggests that multiple other resources will be needed to counteract these demands of leadership (Schmid et al., 2018). Thus,

demands take an important toll on employee health and well-being and not having these can lead to decreased job satisfaction, decreased performance, and increased absenteeism and turnover (Fors Brandebo et al., 2019; Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2017; Pelletier, 2010).

Destructive Leadership and Abusive Supervision

Destructive leadership is the systematic, volitional and repeated behaviours exhibited by a leader that negatively impact the organisation and/or the leader's employees (Erickson, Shaw, Murray, & Branch, 2015; Fors Brandebo et al., 2019). This type of leadership style involves a leader who has self-centered attitudes and behaviours, acting with an inflated sense of self-worth. Their lack of concern for others sees a use of deception, intimidation or coercion in order to get their way (Fors Brandebo et al., 2019). More often than not, employees act in accordance with these behaviours due to positional power dynamics. The fear of further projection from their leader onto themselves, or a fear of losing their job, limits their willingness to speak up (Erickson et al., 2015; Song, Qian, Wang, Yang, & Zhai, 2017).

Furthermore, destructive leadership can range in hostility and direction. One destructive leader may engage in harmful workplace behaviours, such as taking drugs at work, while another may manipulate employees to serve their own interests (Schmid et al., 2018). Other destructive leader behaviours can include taking credit for others work, lying about important issues and engaging in sexual harassment (Erickson et al., 2015). With this in mind, Krasikova, Green, and LeBreton (2013) outline two manifestations of destructive leadership. The first manifestation occurs when a leader encourages employees to pursue goals harmful to the organisation. For example, encouraging employees to ignore safety measures to increase outputs despite the organisation's safety priorities. The second manifestation occurs when a leader uses toxic verbal or nonverbal actions towards employees in an attempt to influence them, regardless of goals harmful to the organisation. Bullying employees to make them focus on greater organisational

safety is an illustration of this (Krasikova et al., 2013). These leadership behaviours result in a number of negative outcomes. For example, unfavourable employee attitudes towards their job and the organisation, increased occupational stress (Schyns & Schilling, 2013), increased counterproductive workplace behaviours (Pelletier, 2010), intentional withholding of ideas (Song et al., 2017), increased intentions to quit (Erickson et al., 2015), and psychological effects such as increased anxiety (Schmid et al., 2018).

An emerging topic in destructive leadership research is the concept of abusive supervision – a follower-directed perspective that sees high hostility expressed by a leader (Schmid et al., 2018). Abusive supervision is common – one in seven employees report their current supervisor as abusive and it is expected that approximately 50 percent of employees will experience abusive supervision in their lives (Rogelberg, 2007). Pelletier (2010) found approximately 15 percent of respondents were experiencing abusive supervision by their current supervisor, while over 20 percent were witnessing abusive supervision occurring to others. More recent statistics show 93 percent of medical employees in New Zealand experience at least one abusive behaviour per 6 months; 38.1 percent experience one abusive behaviour per week; 24.9 percent experience two abusive behaviours per week; and 6.7 percent experience at least five abusive behaviours per week. It was reported that the most common abusive behaviours experienced are being given an unmanageable workload and being ordered to do work below the employee's level of competence (Chambers, Frampton, McKee, & Barclay, 2018). Additionally, abusive supervision affects 13.6 percent of US employees, costing US companies $23.8 billion annually through medical expenses for emotional exhaustion, as well as through absences and reduced performance (Tepper, 2007). Given the high prevalence and cost of such behaviours, it is increasingly important to understand this under explored 'dark side' of leadership.

Abusive Supervision

The original, and most widely quoted, definition of abusive supervision is depicted by Tepper (2000). Tepper refers to abusive supervision as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (p. 178). Hostile behaviours include, but are not limited to, belittling, undermining, public derogation (Rogelberg, 2007), aggression, ridiculing (Pelletier, 2010; Rogelberg, 2007), unrealistically high expectations (Bassman & London, 1993), favouritism, coercion and angry tantrums (Pelletier, 2010; Tepper, 2000). For instance, you may find an abusive supervisor threatening to fire an employee for disagreeing with them or find them excluding the employee from information crucial to their job. The supervisor must also display ongoing manifestations of these behaviours, as opposed to discrete episodes. A supervisor having one bad day and yelling at an employee as a result would not be considered abusive – continuous exposure must occur in order to be classed as abusive supervision (Rogelberg, 2007; Tepper, 2007). Additionally, Starratt and Grandy (2010) suggest that abusive supervision may not always be intended. The abusive behaviours exhibited by a supervisor may or may not be conscious actions. However, whether or not the actions are conscious they still have debilitating effects for individual employees, teams and organisations.

Current research argues that abusive supervision fluctuates within a given supervisor. Rather than considering a static perspective of abusive supervision where a leader is either abusive or not, Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, and Christian (2015) suggest these behaviours can fluctuate depending on the day or situation the leader is faced with. On certain days the leader may display high abuse, while other days they display low abuse (and may even engage in more positive leader behaviours). Perhaps this can begin to explain why employees are remaining in their positions despite their abusive leaders. It is also important to distinguish the direction of the abuse. Abusive supervision involves hostility directed downwards in the organisational hierarchy. A supervisor

must be displaying these behaviours towards employees below their hierarchical level, rather than employees on the same hierarchical level (Starratt & Grandy, 2010).

To be classed as abusive supervision, employees must perceive the behaviours to be abusive, which is where context comes into play. An individual can view their supervisor's actions as abusive in one context but not in another. Such behaviours can be considered motivating in certain situations for certain people. For example, a person may perceive yelling as motivating when they are running a race, yet when they are yelled at for making a mistake at work, it is perceived as abusive. In an organisational context, this 'abuse' is likely to be perceived differently in different settings. For example, the military versus educational institutes. Given the different current ways of working in each setting, it is likely one would perceive abuse as normal when in the military, but if they experienced this in a school or university, their viewpoint would change. Furthermore, one individual may view their supervisor's actions as abusive, yet another individual may not (Rogelberg, 2007; Tepper, 2000). This describes a subjective assessment, meaning employee characteristics effect how supervisory behaviours are viewed (Tepper, 2007). This also effects how individuals respond to such treatment – their individual characteristics (e.g. personality traits) drive how the abuse affects them, and the subsequent actions taken as a result of those feelings.

Abusive supervision affects an employee's resources in a number of ways. Firstly, it increases the amount of time and effort needing to be put into how they manage the relationship between their work, their working environment and their abusive supervisor. Their thoughts become pre-occupied due to trying to prevent or minimise the abuse, meaning they are unable to perform to a high standard (Ahmad, Athar, Azam, Hamstra, & Hanif, 2019). Secondly, it reduces the sense of control the employee feels in their work. If an employee's supervisor is withholding important resources or denying them the ability to make decisions in their role, the employee can feel detached from their work. This detachment detracts from their well-being (Ahmad et al., 2019;

Tepper, 2000). Finally, abusive supervision results in many negative outcomes which deplete an employee's ability to engage in their work. These outcomes are discussed in the following section.

Overview of the Context to and Outcomes of Abusive Supervision

A range of characteristics, concepts and outcomes have been found in the abusive supervision literature and, as such, this section provides a review of the context and the associated outcomes that have become evident in this body of research. When it comes to the perception of abusive supervision, employees are more likely to believe abusive supervision is present when they feel trapped in their job (i.e. do not have other alternative employment options) and when they feel they are the only employee being targeted. Because of this, the negative outcomes of abusive supervision and the response to the perceived abuse is heightened. Relatedly, the perception of abusive supervision is higher when the employee believes their supervisor's characteristics (such as incompetence, arrogance) are the cause of the abuse, rather than the organisation (for example, a competitive work environment) (Rogelberg, 2007). Despite this, research has shown that abusive supervision is more likely to occur when an organisation has a hostile, competitive environment (Mawritz, Dust, & Resick, 2014). As such, how the employee responds to the abuse is of importance in regard to determining the outcomes of that abusive supervision. And whether the behaviours are considered abusive or not largely comes down to these outcomes – abusive supervision results in long-term negative outcomes for both the organisation and the employees targeted (Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

Furthermore, a supervisor may engage in abusive supervisory behaviours if they observe workplace deviance and nonconformity by employees. Aggression can be directed at employees to force compliance in relation to under- and over-achieving. Low performers may attract such behaviours due to low output making the supervisor look bad, while high performers pose a threat to the established pecking order. The use of abusive behaviours can act as a way of putting

employees' 'back in their place' and may even be used to compensate for the perceived injustice the supervisor may have felt (Khan, Moss, Quratulain, & Hameed, 2018). Employee performance (whether high or low) works in conjunction with the perceived dissimilarity between the employee and supervisor, eliciting unwanted behaviours (Khan et al., 2018; Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). Additionally, employees deemed weak and vulnerable may be more likely to be targeted as they are perceived frustrating to work with (Khan et al., 2018; Tepper et al., 2011).

Continuing with this line of research, personality driven attitudes and behaviours that are disliked by others can also give rise to abuse. Employees high in neuroticism and/or low in conscientiousness may be more likely to become targets of abusive supervision than those low in neuroticism and/or high in conscientiousness (Wang, Harms, & Mackey, 2015). Individuals high in neuroticism tend to be anxious, irritable and sometimes angry. They can also be sensitive to depression and stress, which may mean they are more at risk for experiencing the negative outcomes of abusive supervision. Colleagues and supervisors may find these behaviours difficult to deal with and perceive these employees as "bad apples", thus leading to abuse. Individuals low in conscientiousness tend to be more laid back and less driven than those high in conscientiousness. This often calls for additional supervision within work, which can lead to supervisor frustration and promote abuse (Wang et al., 2015). Likewise for employees engaging in organisational deviance – those who ignore their supervisor's instructions or put in little effort in their work may draw in negative supervisor attention (Lian, Ferris, Morrison, & Brown, 2014). Therefore, due to the inconvenience the employee may cause for the supervisor, this target may be strategic. As personality is suggested to drive how a supervisor responds to employee behaviours, it can also drive how an employee responds to a supervisor's abusive behaviours. This, in turn, can determine the intensity of the outcomes associated with being the target of abusive behaviours.

A considerable amount of research has also been dedicated to understanding the impact of abusive supervision. This body of research has identified a range of outcomes in relation to the

effects on employees' attitudes, behaviours and health. Such outcomes include poor performance (Aryee et al., 2015), displaced aggression (Hoobler & Brass, 2006), decreased job satisfaction (Leary et al., 2013), reduced creativity (Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012), perceived organisational injustice (Tepper, 2000), decreased knowledge sharing (Choi, Kim, & Yun, 2018) and reduced meaning in work (Rafferty & Restubog, 2011).

This research argues that abusive treatment can signal that an individual holds a lower position within a team, leading to feelings of worthlessness and exclusion. Their self-esteem is impacted (Hobman, Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2009; Pelletier, 2010), which sees feelings of low self-worth and a reduced sense of self-efficacy (Pelletier, 2010). This can see diminished performance and morale (Pelletier, 2010), increased hostility or the adaption of their own behaviours (suppressing disliked characteristics, increasing behaviours linked with group norms) in an attempt to better 'fit in' (Vogel & Mitchell, 2017). While the latter may initially benefit the employee, it can be destructive to their sense of self, negatively impacting their psychological well-being. Rafferty and Restubog (2011) found abused employees felt incapable and unworthy in their work, as well as insignificant to the organisation. Additionally, abusive supervision has been related to decreased physical well-being as it increases somatic health complaints (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002).

On a job-related level, abusive supervision has been shown to lead to decreased job satisfaction, increased stress, increased absenteeism and increased turnover intention (Rogelberg, 2007; Schmid et al., 2018; Tepper, 2000). Relatedly, psychological detachment at work (holding high intentions to quit) manifests as a result of abusive supervision. Employees who psychologically detach from their work become physically uninvolved and emotionally disconnected. While detached employees usually continue with their work, they do not engage in organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs). OCBs are actions that go above the standard job requirements (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002), such as showing initiative and being helpful

(Rogelberg, 2007). Rafferty and Restubog's (2011) findings show the experience of abusive supervision results in employees withholding these OCBs in an attempt to regain a degree of control over the leader-follower relationship. Employees may find an inability to retaliate directly towards their abusive supervisor and so act out their aggression towards the organisation (Lian et al., 2014; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Pan & Lin, 2018). Lian et al. (2014) suggest employees feel the need to 'restore the balance' that has been offset by the abusive supervisor and so do this through organisational deviance. However, an increase in abusive behaviours results in an increase in the employee's level of emotional and cognitive resources needed to process the abuse and, in turn, results in fewer resources to self-regulate impulses (Lian et al., 2014). Consequently, an organisation's competitive advantage may be compromised (Rogelberg, 2007; Zellars et al., 2002). The strong effect on counterproductive work behaviours would also see time and money wasted, in addition to effects on the financial bottom line of the organisation and overall employee morale (Pelletier, 2010; Shaw, Erickson, & Harvey, 2011).

On a team level, the tendency for team members to mirror supervisor behaviours can cause them to treat other team members with hostility. As power differentials limit the ability for retaliation, abused employees may act out this aggression towards other team members, creating tension. This tension ultimately effects how the team operates (e.g. group dynamics, voicing opinions freely) (Farh & Chen, 2014) and their performance levels (Li, Wang, Yang, & Liu, 2016). In fact, even members who are not individually targeted by an abusive supervisor can withdraw contributions to the team. Simply being in the shared context of abuse means non-targeted employees may experience similar outcomes to targeted employees (Farh & Chen, 2014). Farh and Chen's (2014) findings show that the level of abuse experienced by a team moderates the impact of individually experienced abusive supervision. The discussion of the abuse experienced by each team member allows for comparison, reducing the feeling that the individual is alone in the abuse.

Not only is abusive supervision linked with negative work-related outcomes, it is also associated with negative home-related outcomes such as work-to-family conflict (Mackey et al., 2017). Schyns and Schilling (2013) support this idea, explaining that the effects of abusive behaviours extend well beyond working lives into personal lives, with a close relationship between increased stress and negative affectivity. Moreover, the strain caused by abusive supervision is likely to spill over into home-life resulting in increased work-to-family conflict (Wu, Kwong Kwan, Liu & Resick, 2012). Abused employees may become preoccupied with work-related matters, which likely decreases quality time with their family (Tepper, 2000; Wu et al., 2012). The built-up anger from their inability to retaliate towards the abusive supervisor may cause the employee to direct this frustration towards family members. Wu et al. (2012) suggest this can lead to family undermining behaviours and increased work-to-family conflict. These family undermining behaviours are not just projected stress in the home, rather Hoobler and Brass (2006) argue that negative supervisor-employee encounters act as an emotional training ground for negative family encounters. If an employee is disrespected at work, they may feel the need to disrespect their family members as a result. Additionally, when employees experience negative outcomes in response to abusive supervision (such as depression, anxiety or fear), they are more likely to engage in emotion-focused coping behaviours to alleviate the outcomes. These coping behaviours, which involve trying to reduce negative emotional responses to stress, have been found to be redirected away from the supervisor towards family members. This may include expressing anger in a misdirected way or engaging in substance abuse (Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011).

Further studies have linked abusive supervision with decreased employee well-being. This abuse can affect an employee's psychological and physical well-being, as well as an employee's job-related well-being. Abusive supervision has been associated with increased depression, anxiety (Kessler, Spector, Chang, & Parr, 2008; Pelletier, 2010; Tepper, 2000) and emotional exhaustion leading to burnout (Breaux, Perrewé, Hall, Frink, & Hochwarter, 2008; Tepper, 2000).

Qian, Wang, Han, Wang, and Wang (2015) found abusive supervision is positively associated with poor mental health, while Breaux et al. (2008) found abusive supervision is positively related to tension. In line with this, employees who are the target of abusive supervision will likely see a depletion of psychological resources, causing stress and strain. Li et al. (2016) suggest this can lead to psychological distress, which has consequent effects on well-being and life satisfaction.

Work engagement and hypothesis development. As previous research has revealed links between abusive supervision and satisfaction (Bowling & Michel, 2011; Li et al., 2016), it is no surprise that it has also considered one's energy and commitment to their work in the face of abuse. Work engagement describes just this - how employees experience their work. It is characterised by one's vigour, dedication and absorption in job-related activities. *Vigour* explains an employee's high level of energy and mental resilience. Vigorous employees possess a willingness to invest in their work and push through difficulties when they arise. *Dedication* involves a sense of commitment, enthusiasm and challenge. Dedicated employees take pride in their work and generate a sense of significance from work activities. *Absorption* relates to mental engrossment in one's work. Absorbed employees are fully concentrated on job-related tasks and find time passes quickly. They may find difficulty detaching themselves (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). The effort and energy that engaged employees put into their work is not exhausting, rather it is experienced as pleasant due to the positive accomplishment associated with the outcomes (Bakker et al., 2011; Poon, 2011).

Typically, an engaged employee feels valued, feels psychologically safe and has the necessary resources (physically and psychologically) to perform (Poon, 2011). Supervisor support, as well as involving employees in decision-making, has been positively related to employee engagement (Donaldson-Feilder, Munir, & Lewis, 2013). Employee engagement is also positively related to a number of organisational variables, including increased performance (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Derks, 2016), increased citizenship behaviours (Scheuer et al., 2016) and

higher financial returns (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). In fact, organisations with higher levels of engagement among employees perform better than organisations with lower levels of engagement among employees (Donaldson-Feilder et al., 2013). Thus, it is a key driver of an organisation's competitive advantage (Kirrane, Kilroy, & O'Connor, 2019).

Good leadership is positively related to engagement, while negative leadership (such as abusive supervision) is negatively related to engagement (Leary et al., 2013; Lyu, Zhu, Zhong, & Hu, 2016). The addition of abusive supervisory behaviours causes a lower level of psychological conditions (vigour, dedication and absorption), meaning the targeted employee is less engaged in their work and so has lower job performance (Poon, 2011). This causes employees to withdraw from work tasks and the organisation, as well as withdrawing from their working relationships (Barnes et al., 2015). Not only does this affect the employee's well-being, it impacts their willingness to perform to meet organisation-related goals, let alone perform above and beyond their job requirements (Scheuer et al., 2016). Lyu et al. (2016) support this notion, explaining that engaged employees are able to perform in their role with less effort. When employees are abused by their supervisor, more energy is required to maintain that level of performance. This can cause employees to disengage and exhibit a reluctance to perform beyond the job requirements (i.e. OCBs). Leary et al. (2013) suggest that abusive actions like yelling and belittling divert employee attention from work tasks towards self-protection, reducing the engagement the employee has in their work. They also suggest that manipulative and argumentative behaviours provoke skepticism, which causes hesitation to act (reduced vigour). Employees may feel threatened and disengage. This disengagement can then lead to an increase in depression and anxiety (Tepper, 2000).

Poon (2011) examined the relationship between abusive supervision and engagement, finding a significant negative relationship between the two variables. Barnes et al. (2015) considered the effect of daily abusive supervision on unit work engagement. Their results suggest

that abusive supervision leads to decreased daily unit work engagement among employees. They also note that this is likely to have a large effect on performance levels, ultimately impacting the outputs produced within the organisation. In line with this, Scheuer et al. (2016) show abusive supervision is directly related to lower levels of engagement among employees. Their results support the argument that abusive supervision is a job demand, suggesting that abusive supervision demotivates employees, which negatively impacts their engagement in work.

It is hypothesised here that the longer an employee sustains abuse, the stronger the outcomes experienced. Although it appears the current research body is lacking in regard to longitudinal data comparing abusive supervision and work engagement, this argument stems from a number of sources. Martinko, Harvey, Brees, and Mackey (2013) note that the majority of abusive supervision research has used single-sourced correlation and cross-sectional research designs. This has potentially created a single-source method bias, which reduces the validity of causal inferences. Thus, adding longitudinal research to the abusive supervision literature can only be positive, creating a wider picture of the effects of abuse on employees.

Liang, Hanig, Evans, Brown, and Lian (2018) showed the detrimental effects abusive supervision has on employees' physical health. A four-month follow up indicated that employees experienced an increase in physical health complaints during supervisor abuse since the initial survey. Tyrannical leadership, another destructive leadership style, was found to predict lower levels of job satisfaction among employees at a six-month follow up (Skogstad et al., 2015). Hughes, Luo, Kwok, and Loyd (2008) illustrated the impact of teacher-student relationship quality on students' classroom engagement. Their longitudinal study showed that classroom engagement decreased when those students had low quality relationships with their teachers. While this study does not consider abusive supervision, these combined results indicate the effect an authority figure can have on employee outcomes, namely decreased engagement overtime. Tepper (2000)

also notes that the outcomes of abusive supervision are stronger the longer the abuse continues. Based on this knowledge, the following hypotheses were formed.

Hypothesis 1a: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be negatively related to vigour at Time 2.

Hypothesis 1b: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be negatively related to dedication at Time 2.

Hypothesis 1c: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be negatively related to absorption at Time 2.

Burnout. On the other end of the continuum is burnout. Leary et al. (2013) argue that burnout is "a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job" (p. 119). It is characterised by emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment (Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Leary et al., 2013; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Essentially, burnout is the erosion of engagement. Vigour turns into exhaustion, dedication turns into depersonalisation and absorption turns into reduced personal accomplishment (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b). *Emotional exhaustion* is the most widely reported aspect of burnout and involves the depletion of emotional and physical resources. It is more than feelings of fatigue, rather it causes an employee to distance themselves from their work in an attempt to cope. It limits an employee's ability to emotionally connect with, and be responsive to, their work. *Depersonalisation* refers to an employee becoming impersonal with their work, developing a cynical attitude through cognitive distancing. They actively ignore qualities of themselves that help them engage with their work. Their job demands (e.g. customers) are seen as more manageable when they are viewed as impersonal objects of their work. *Reduced personal accomplishment,* or inefficacy, is an employee's response to a lack of resources and high job

demands. The inability to manage overwhelming demands impacts an employee's sense of effectiveness. Further, it is difficult for an employee to feel accomplished when they are exhausted or have a sense of depersonalisation (Maslach et al., 2001).

Employees who experience burnout typically find themselves with extreme fatigue, lost vision within their job and a loss of passion (Jiang, Law, & Sun, 2014). They may withdraw from their work (absenteeism, intentions to quit, actual turnover), produce lower or less quality outputs, disrupt work tasks and create personal conflict. The negative effects on anxiety, depression and self-esteem have also been identified (Maslach et al., 2001). With the JD-R model in mind, the presence of job demands and the absence of job resources can predict burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). High levels of job demands can cause emotional exhaustion, while low levels of job resources can cause depersonalisation (Jiang et al., 2014). If an individual is experiencing an imbalance between their supervisor's abusive behaviours and the necessary resources to deal with these behaviours, burnout can occur. Additionally, the higher the perceived level of abuse from a supervisor, the higher the level of burnout employees report (Tepper, 2000).

Aryee et al. (2015), Wu and Hu (2009) and Breaux et al. (2008) results all showed that abusive supervision is positively related to emotional exhaustion. Aryee et al. (2015) suggest that the depletion of energy due to abuse leads to a decrease in job dedication (including performance), leading to burnout among employees. Yagil (2006) had similar findings. Their results indicated that abusive supervision is positively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation; however, no significant relationship was found between abusive supervision and reduced personal accomplishment. In addition to this, Scheuer et al. (2016) results indicate that abusive supervision is directly associated with higher levels of employee burnout. They suggest that abusive treatment is perceived as an obstacle which inhibits an employee's ability to grow and achieve in work. This inability to develop, along with hinderance demands (job demands that elicit fear, anxiety and angry), leads to burnout. Higher levels of supervisor abuse were found to be a predictor of

emotional exhaustion among employees (Wheeler, Halbesleben, & Whitman, 2013). This was then found to translate into co-worker abuse as a form of retaliation, demonstrating the organisation-wide consequences of supervisor abuse.

It is argued here that levels of burnout will continue to increase the longer the abuse from a supervisor continues. Like the longitudinal literature on abusive supervision and engagement, the current research body is also lacking in terms of abusive supervision and burnout longitudinal studies. However, Lizano and Mor Barak (2012) consider the impact of job demands on employee burnout overtime. Their results suggest that job demands predict burnout development overtime, finding that burnout levels were stronger at Time 2 of their study. Similarly, Schaufeli, Bakker, and Van Rhenen (2009) found that as job demands increase and job resources decrease, levels of employee burnout increase. Employees reported significant increases in levels of burnout at a follow-up one year later. As abusive supervision has been discussed as a job demand within the JD-R model, it is hypothesised that it too will lead to higher levels of burnout overtime. With this in mind, the following hypotheses were formed.

Hypothesis 2a: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to emotional exhaustion at Time 2.

Hypothesis 2b: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to depersonalisation at Time 2.

Hypothesis 2c: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to reduced personal accomplishment at Time 2.

Personal Resources

As highlighted earlier, the JD-R model consists of job demands and job resources. When job demands increase and job resources also increase, a motivational process occurs that leads to

employee engagement and positive outcomes (such as high performance and well-being). However, when job demands increase and job resources do not increase to match these demands, a health impairment process occurs that leads to employee burnout and further negative outcomes (such as physical health issues) (Grover, Teo, Pick, & Roche, 2017). Job demands are negative work-related requirements and can include a heavy workload (Grover et al., 2017) and difficult physical environments (Crawford, Lepine, & Rich, 2010). Job resources can be distinguished between organisational resources and personal resources. Organisational resources can include direct maintenance communication tactics (Tepper et al., 2007), team member support (Hobman et al., 2009), organic organisational structures (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007) and human resource management effectiveness (Harris, Lambert, & Harris, 2013), while personal resources are the unique within-person aspects of one's self that control reactions to the environment, such as optimism, resilience and mindfulness (Huang et al., 2016). These personal resources are of particular importance to this study.

Research suggests that when employees have better resources, they respond differently to abusive supervision – showing lower levels of negative outcomes (Ahmad et al., 2019). When these are organisational resources, they may feel better supported, by co-workers or human resource management for example, leading to employees' better able to deal with the abuse. These types of resources are more obvious to employees as they notice when they are lacking or absent; however, personal resources vary from person to person and are therefore less obvious. In fact, personal resources have been highlighted as antecedents of job demands and job resources (Guidetti, Viotti, Badagliacca, Colombo, & Converso, 2019), effecting how employees cope with job demands through the use of organisational resources (Grover et al., 2017). The current body of research has started to focus on how these personal resources can buffer the effects of job demands. As such, it has been suggested that there are a number of personal resources that, when

possessed at high levels, reduce the impact of abusive supervision on the associated negative outcomes.

Employees are motivated to protect their personal resources as they play an instrumental role in achieving work goals. Personal resources determine how effective employees are at obtaining and using job resources. They have been shown to relate to stress resilience, as well as related to positive effects on physical and emotional well-being. Studies have used personal resources as moderators and mediators in the relationship between environmental factors and organisational outcomes (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007), including evidence to support that employees with more personal resources can deal more effectively with job demands (Guidetti et al., 2019). They have also argued that personal resources may determine how employees comprehend and react to their environments (Judge, 1997).

Current research demonstrates the centrality of personal resources, such as aspects of an employee's personality which are considered personal resources as they determine how that individual reacts to certain events in the environment. Specifically, the personality traits conscientiousness (one's motives of achievement and dependability) and agreeableness (one's altruism and trust). Tepper, Duffy, and Shaw (2001) show conscientiousness buffers the relationship between abusive supervision and employee resistant behaviours, while Bamberger and Bacharach (2016) found that for employees high in agreeableness and low in conscientiousness, high levels of abuse were associated with sharp increases in problem-drinking.

Other examples of personal resources include emotional intelligence, which is the ability to regulate emotions, accurately perceiving and expressing emotions to promote emotional growth. Hu (2012) considered emotional intelligence as a personal resource, showing evidence of this as a moderator in the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional labour burden. Additionally, Pierce and Gardner (2004) showed support for the argument that organisation-based self-esteem offsets the impact of job demands (such as organisational changes) on depression,

physical strain and job dissatisfaction. Psychological capital (self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience) has been shown to buffer the relationship between abusive supervision and psychological distress, with the relationship more positive and stronger when employee psychological capital is low (Li et al., 2016). Mäkikangas and Kinnunen (2003) report optimistic employees experience lower levels of mental distress under demanding work conditions (such as poor organisational climate).

Finally, those high in the personal resource mindfulness pay greater attention to the present moment (Brown, Ryan, & Creswell, 2007), which may mean they perceive job demands differently and use organisational resources more effectively. This greater level of attention may also enable employees to notice job resources that they may not have otherwise noticed, or use these resources to their full potential (Kroon, Menting, & van Woerkom, 2015). An acceptance of the present moment may enable mindful employees to be more resilient in work and allow them to accept or adjust to their current level of resources (Kroon et al., 2015). Kroon et al. (2015) also note that mindful employees attend to the present moment in a non-judgemental way, meaning they may be better able to cope with negative feelings associated with increased job demands or decreased job resources. This is expanded on below.

Mindfulness

While the above discussed personal resources are linked to aiding positive outcomes, which equip employees with the ability to capitalise on job resources, trait mindfulness focuses more on how employees use their attentional resources (Grover et al., 2017). Mindfulness is an aspect of consciousness that promotes a range of positive outcomes, such as physical health, psychological well-being and work performance (Brown & Ryan, 2003). This consciousness encompasses two concepts: awareness and attention. *Awareness* refers to the subjective experience of the inner (e.g. emotions) and outer (e.g. sounds) environment, including the five physical senses. It is the idea

that an individual can be fully aware of their emotions and surroundings before deciding a course of action (Brown & Ryan, 2003, 2004; Brown et al., 2007). *Attention* refers to the focusing of this awareness, where the mind "takes notice" of strong stimuli (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Brown et al., 2007). Several definitions of mindfulness have been developed in both academia and Buddhist domains. Brown et al. (2007), from an academic standpoint, define mindfulness as "a receptive attention to and awareness of present events and experiences" (p. 212). From a Buddhist view, Thondup (1998) defines mindfulness as "giving full attention to the present, without worries about the past or future" (p. 48). Kabat-Zinn (2005) notes the importance of this attention and awareness being non-judgmental, taking in one's surroundings without reacting. With these definitions in mind, we can conclude that mindfulness signifies presence of mind or "being present" without judgement (Brown et al., 2007).

The absence of mindfulness – mindlessness – involves "… rigid invariant behavior that occurs with little or no conscious awareness" (Langer, 1992, p. 289), including habit and automatic processing of stimuli. The consequence of mindlessness is the inability to view information from multiple perspectives (Langer, 1992). In a mindless state, stimuli are only in one's attention for a short amount of time before the individual reacts, meaning a distorted picture of reality may be formed as they make a judgement of that stimuli. Mindfulness allows the individual to take on more flexible psychological and behavioural responses due to the removal of discriminative and habitual thoughts brought about from the immediate, attentive connection with stimuli (Brown et al., 2007).

Mindfulness has historically been discussed as an increase of awareness and attention that is practiced in mindfulness meditation (Brown et al., 2007). This describes state mindfulness, where levels of mindfulness are maintained only by intentionally cultivating a mindful state. This involves facilitating a greater awareness of sensations, thoughts and emotions through mindful meditation techniques (Lau et al., 2006). However, it can also be considered a trait, distinct from

personality traits such as openness to experience and neuroticism (Allen & Kiburz, 2012; Hülsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013). This theory depicts mindfulness as having inherent qualities, of which vary between individuals and occurs naturally (Hülsheger et al., 2013). Trait mindfulness refers to dispositional individual differences in daily mindfulness – an individual's baseline or average mindfulness, rather than specific to certain situations. Those with high levels of trait mindfulness have a tendency to more frequently enter mindful states (Allen & Kiburz, 2012; Siegling & Petrides, 2014), thus enabling them to identify emotional triggers and engage in non-reactive coping when faced with stressful situations (Abenavoli, Jennings, Greenberg, Harris, & Katz, 2013). Those higher in mindfulness tend to be more connected with their inner experiences and emotional states. This allows them to attend to and then alter their emotions and behaviours (Brown & Ryan, 2003). With this greater awareness of thoughts and behaviours, individuals are able to react more constructively to situations and deploy self-care practices when they begin to feel a depletion of resources (Abenavoli et al., 2013).

A central outcome of (trait) mindfulness is the improved self-regulation of thoughts, emotions, behaviours and physiological reactions. Schirda, Nicholas, and Prakash (2015) note that mindfulness leads to decreases in self-regulation failure as the increased level of attention and awareness enhances emotional regulatory ability. One key mechanism of this is the decoupling of the self from experiences. This describes a process whereby an individual creates distance between themselves and the experience, allowing them to objectively consider the stimuli and emotion involved without creating a connection between the event occurring and their self-worth (Glomb, Duffy, Bono, & Yang, 2011). Mindfulness involves *sustained attention* where, instead of allowing their mind to wander, mindful individuals can maintain awareness of an experience over long periods of time without being distracted by other thoughts. Additionally, it allows the *flexibility of attention*, in which an individual can deliberately shift their attention from one experience to another. As such, if for example they are interrupted by a coworker, a mindful individual can

provide full attention to their coworker then return full attention to their work (Hülsheger, Walkowiak, & Thommes, 2018).

Another key mechanism of mindfulness is the decreased use of automatic mental processes or *non-elaborative processing*. Less mindful individuals tend to process stimuli automatically, quickly processing information and assigning judgement based on prior experiences. This restricts present-moment connectivity and reduces awareness and control. Individuals higher in mindfulness engage in less automatic mental processes, meaning they can disengage from perceptual filtering driven by emotions. They have a greater cognitive flexibility in response to their thoughts, allowing them to think fully before responding (Glomb et al., 2011; Hülsheger et al., 2018).

Mindfulness has been linked with an array of positive outcomes. Bowlin and Baer's (2012) study found that mindfulness is strongly positively correlated with self-control and psychological well-being, as well as negatively correlated with negative psychological symptoms (depression, anxiety, stress). Their findings also suggest that mindfulness may serve as a protective factor as participants high in mindfulness and high in self-control showed lower levels of distress when compared to those low in mindfulness and high in self-control. Mindfulness has also been linked to lower neuroticism, depression, anxiety, unpleasant affect (Brown & Ryan, 2003) and negative affectivity (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kiken & Shook, 2011), as well as reduced physical pain (Shapiro, Oman, Thoresen, Plante, & Flinders, 2008). Moreover, increases in mindfulness can significantly reduce stress and rumination (Shapiro et al., 2008), while increasing positive affectivity, life satisfaction, self-esteem, optimism and vitality (Brown & Ryan, 2003). It can also increase positive judgements about one's self and their environment (Kiken & Shook, 2011).

Trait mindfulness and work. Mindfulness has typically been discussed in the clinical setting; however, an increasing amount of research is being dedicated to the organisational context. As such, a range of positive outcomes have come to light in relation to mindfulness at work. For

example, mindfulness has been linked to enhanced psychological well-being at work (Bowlin & Baer, 2012), performance (Dane & Brummel, 2013), work-family balance (Allen & Kiburz, 2012), job satisfaction (Hülsheger et al., 2013), client rapport building and communication (Beach et al., 2013), as well as reduced absenteeism, turnover (Dane & Brummel, 2013) and rumination (Glomb et al., 2011).

Krishnakumar and Robinson (2015) found that mindfulness was negatively predictive of hostile feelings. Through attention and awareness, mindfulness was found to create opportunities for employees to regulate their feelings of hostility in a manner that non-mindful employees cannot. As a result, mindful employees were shown to engage in less counterproductive work behaviours, of which are typically impulsive in their nature. Those higher in mindfulness tend to be less impulsive due to their ability to regulate emotions, thus performing less of these counterproductive work behaviours (Krishnakumar & Robinson, 2015). Heppner et al. (2008) results suggest that mindfulness is linked to lower levels of aggressiveness and hostility. They explain that mindfulness may lower ego-involvement, promoting secure forms of self-esteem (rather than fragile forms). Employees with secure forms of self-esteem are satisfied within themselves and understand their weaknesses, whereas employees with fragile forms of self-esteem may overreact to perceived threats to their self-worth. These feelings of threat tend to lead to higher levels of anger and hostility (Heppner et al., 2008). In line with this, it is thought that mindful employees use a wider range of coping skills. With their focus on the job at hand, they have better personal resource allocation. This means they can devote their attention to more constructive behaviours and are more likely to recognise negative feelings (e.g. hostility). This then enables them to engage in positive coping strategies, thus facilitating job balance (Heppner et al., 2008).

A study by Dane and Brummel (2013) considered the effects of mindfulness on restaurant servers' turnover. Their investigation looked at dynamic work environments, that is, environments which require employees to make a series of decisions in real time. These types of environments

involve immense amounts of pressure and have been associated with significant levels of stress due to their unpredictable nature. As such, the pressure can become unbearable for employees, leading them towards intentions to quit and eventual turnover. The findings of this study found a negative relationship between mindfulness and turnover intentions, suggesting that employees with higher mindfulness are less likely to report intentions to quit (Dane & Brummel, 2013). Additionally, Allen and Kiburz (2012) note that employees higher in mindfulness are more likely to experience greater levels of satisfaction and effectiveness within their work and life roles due to increased self-regulation which, in turn, translates to enhanced work-family balance.

Further research has found that those higher in mindfulness are better able to cope with stressful situations due to the reduced tendency to engage in rumination. Rumination refers to the "repetitive and passive focus on symptoms, causes and consequences of distress" (Glomb et al., 2011, p. 130). This tendency is lower for individuals higher in mindfulness as they are able to separate themselves from experiences, taking a step back and observing stimuli objectively. Moreover, those higher in mindfulness have a decreased use of automatic mental processing. Their nonjudgmental awareness allows them to disengage from automatic thought patterns and past-driven emotions, meaning they have greater cognitive flexibility in response to thoughts that arise. This allows them to be more aware of their thoughts and reactions, which allows them to cope with stressful or adverse work situations (Glomb et al., 2011). The decreased tendency of rumination can lead to increased mental health and psychological well-being as employees engage in moment-to-moment contact in the present, rather than mulling over their mistakes (Brown et al., 2007). This links to notions of abusive supervision, where employees often function within stressful working environments created by abusive supervisors.

This research shows the positive influence that mindfulness can have on employee outcomes, particularly through the mechanisms of attention and awareness. Following this line of

research, the current study aims to assess the direct relationships between mindfulness and the previously hypothesised outcomes' engagement and burnout overtime.

Trait mindfulness and work engagement. As mentioned previously, work engagement is the extent to which an employee feels invigorated, dedicated and absorbed in their work (Poon, 2011). Mindfulness promotes key outcomes in work as more mindful employees can focus their attention in a way that positively affects work aspects such as decision-making and risk-taking (Kotzé, 2018). It has been shown to enhance energy and effort, which in turn facilitates performance. As such, increasing mindfulness can increase engagement, thus increasing job performance and reducing turnover intention (Dane & Brummel, 2013).

Mindfulness causes employees to be more attentive, as well as enhancing employees' internal awareness (Dane & Brummel, 2013). This means their awareness of their own thoughts, emotions and behaviours are enhanced, which makes for more authentic functioning within work (acting in accordance to their true self) (Leroy, Anseel, Dimitrova, & Sels, 2013). Leroy et al. (2013) suggest that mindfulness encourages an employee's authentic functioning, thereby promoting engagement in work. Their results show that mindfulness is positively related to engagement. This suggests that to become more engaged in work-related activities, employees need to internalise these activities – choosing to engage in them. Because mindful employees are more "fully there" in work-related activities, their experience of the activity is heightened and they can become more engaged (Leroy et al., 2013). In line with this, Kotzé (2018) found that mindfulness has a positive relationship with engagement, particularly exerting a direct and indirect influence on vigour and dedication via psychological capital. Mindfulness may enhance employees' confidence in performing challenging tasks and help them pursue goals. As a result, these employees are likely to show higher levels of engagement and performance (Kotzé, 2018).

Malinowski and Lim (2015) results support a positive relationship between mindfulness and engagement, as well as a positive relationship between mindfulness and well-being. They

argue that mindfulness promotes heightened levels of involvement in work, as well as strengthens other personal resources. This suggests that the ability to be aware of difficult situations, taking a step back and considering appropriate actions before reacting, is an important factor in the positive effects of mindfulness on employees. Similarly, Depenbrock (2014) explains that mindfulness is positively related to engagement as it helps employees use resources effectively, making them more active and involved in their work. Overall, mindfulness creates a cognitive attentive pause. This, in turn, enables an appropriate way of noticing and responding as it facilitates vigour, dedication, absorption.

Hypothesis 3a: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be positively related to vigour at Time 2.

Hypothesis 3b: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be positively related to dedication at Time 2.

Hypothesis 3c: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be positively related to absorption at Time 2.

Trait mindfulness and burnout. Burnout is a state of exhaustion caused by prolonged stress on the job and consists of three main dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment (Leary et al., 2013). It is suggested that employees higher in mindfulness have lower levels of stress perceptions, a key predictor of burnout. More mindful employees have better self-regulation and physiological regulation through awareness. When stressful stimuli increase so does physiological arousal, which can lead to burnout (Siegel, 2010). Mindful employees can better balance this physiological arousal as they are more equipped to respond to stressful stimuli due to the separation of self (Broderick, 2005; Mesmer-Magnus, Manapragada, Viswesvaran, & Allen, 2017).

A study by Abenavoli et al. (2013) considered the effects of mindfulness on educators' burnout levels. Specifically, they looked at whether mindfulness was a protective factor against emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. They found that educators who reported higher levels of mindfulness, reported lower levels of burnout, and vice versa for those who reported lower levels of mindfulness. Their results also suggest that mindfulness is related to lower levels of negative affect, sleep-related impairment and daily physical symptoms, of which partially mediate the relationship between mindfulness and burnout. Interestingly, moderation analyses found high levels of mindfulness were particularly important in high stress situations. This suggests that mindfulness may foster employees' resilience when faced with work-related stress. In line with this, Hülsheger et al. (2013) suggest that mindfulness promotes job satisfaction and helps in preventing burnout from emotional exhaustion. This is said to be especially true in emotionally demanding jobs.

Both Voci, Veneziani, and Metta (2016) and Montero-Marin et al. (2015) found mindfulness to be negatively related to burnout among health care professionals. They explain that mindful employees may be more able to maintain a sense of balance through their ability to regulate their emotions, thus protecting them from burning out. Similarly, Walsh and Arnold's (2018) study showed employees higher in mindfulness reported lower levels of emotional exhaustion, when compared to employees lower in mindfulness. In fact, their results suggest that the positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and negative affect was weaker for employees who reported higher in mindfulness. This demonstrates the importance of the higher self-regulation that mindfulness accounts for.

Hypothesis 4a: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion at Time 2.

Hypothesis 4b: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to depersonalisation at Time 2.

Hypothesis 4c: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to reduced personal accomplishment at Time 2.

Moderating Effects of Mindfulness

As previously discussed, a central outcome of mindfulness is the improved self-regulation of thoughts, emotions, behaviours and physiological reactions (Schirda et al., 2015). Mindfulness can thus help with the control of self-regulation difficulties when experiencing abuse. It can do this through a process of decoupling the employee from the experience, creating distance between them and the abusive situation. As such, the abuse occurring becomes less threatening as it is not perceived as personal to the individual (Glomb et al., 2011). A more mindful employee may be able to decouple themselves from the abuse, perceive it as less threatening and thus reduce the likelihood of them experiencing negative outcomes (such as increased burnout and decreased engagement).

Additionally, the decreased use of automatic mental processes brought on from mindfulness means mindful individuals do not assign judgement based on prior experiences (Glomb et al., 2011). Employees who are higher in mindfulness that are experiencing abusive supervision may be more likely to think fully about the abuse, how they feel about it and how they should respond. This may lead to reduced retaliation behaviours and allow the employee to consider their options in responding before they experience negative outcomes associated with the abuse.

Individuals high in mindfulness have an increased awareness of physiological regulation. Having a present-moment awareness and attention allows one to understand when their physiological response systems are off-balance. Thus, if an individual notices it is off-balance,

they are better able to interpret and respond to messages from the body in order to re-balance (Glomb et al., 2011). An employee who is less mindful may struggle to notice an off-balance, or struggle to connect the off-balance to the abuse, and so the negative outcomes may be experienced more strongly. If a mindful employee is experiencing abusive supervision, they are more likely to understand how the abuse is affecting their physiological systems and adjust accordingly.

Results from Voci et al. (2016) show support for mindfulness as a buffer between stressful events and burnout. Higher levels of mindfulness allow employees to respond to these stressful events in a more balanced and less reactive way, meaning the negative outcomes of those events are not experienced as intensely. As abusive supervision is considered stressful, and abusive behaviours can lead to increases in employee stress, it can be expected that mindfulness buffers the relationship between abusive supervision and burnout. Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2017) show that mindfulness interacts with perceived job stress, reducing burnout. They found that

> "…the beta-weight for perceived stress predicting burnout was reduced when mindfulness was added to the equation, and the inclusion of mindfulness explained an additional 12% of the variance in employee burnout beyond that which could be explained by an employee's perception of work stress alone." (p. 92).

This suggests that mindfulness may buffer the effects of perceived job stress on levels of burnout. Similarly, Grover et al. (2017) results indicate that mindfulness buffers the impact of emotional demands on psychological stress. Their analysis showed that mindfulness buffered this relationship by "reducing perceptions of job demands, moderating the influence of those demands on psychological stress, and directly influencing psychological stress" (p. 432). Zheng and Liu's (2017) study considered mindfulness as a buffer in the relationship between abusive supervision

and employee self-efficacy. Their moderation results suggest this to be true: mindfulness buffered the effect of abusive supervision on employee self-efficacy at work.

While research attests to the moderation effects of mindfulness, longitudinally it has yet to be considered in the abusive supervision context. This research has primarily focused on single-sourced data, considering mindfulness has a moderator at one timepoint only. As other research has shown that abusive supervision leads to negative outcomes overtime, this study aims to consider the effects on engagement and burnout levels overtime. Currently, no research has been dedicated to whether mindfulness buffers the effect of abusive supervision on these outcomes. As such, this study also aims to assess the moderating influence that mindfulness may have on these relationships. Taking longitudinal effects into account, it is thought that mindfulness may be more beneficial at different points in the abusive supervision to outcomes relationship. To date, no research has considered where in this relationship mindfulness may be of more use in the workplace over longitudinal abuse: closer to when the abuse is occurring or closer to when the outcomes are experienced.

When is Mindfulness More Beneficial?

Drawing on clinical research, it is thought here that mindfulness will be more beneficial as a buffer closer to when abuse is occurring. This argument stems from trauma-resilience research which outlines that individuals who are more mindful have increased awareness and acceptance tendencies, making them more aware and accepting of their responses to threatening stimuli. Increased contact with the present moment may reduce the extent to which individuals exposed to trauma develop further trauma-related symptoms. This present-moment awareness facilitates more effective emotional processing of traumatic events, averting the development of negative reactions (Thompson, Arnkoff, & Glass, 2011). Boelen and Lenferink (2018) measured distressing life events and mindfulness at Time 1 and post-traumatic stress symptoms at Time 2. Their findings

suggest that the greater awareness to one's emotional experiences due to higher levels of mindfulness plays a significant role in alleviating distress during negative life events at Time 2. Given that mindfulness has shown positive effects on levels of employee engagement, it is thought that this could have a positive effect when abusive supervision is involved. With Boelen and Lenferink's (2018) results in mind, it is hypothesised that mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the previously discussed relationships.

Hypothesis 5a: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and vigour at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and vigour will be stronger when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 5b: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and dedication at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and dedication will be stronger when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 5c: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and absorption at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and absorption will be stronger when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 6a: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and emotional exhaustion at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 6b: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and depersonalisation at Time 2, such that the relationship

between abusive supervision and depersonalisation will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 6c: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and reduced personal accomplishment at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and reduced personal accomplishment will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Theoretical Models

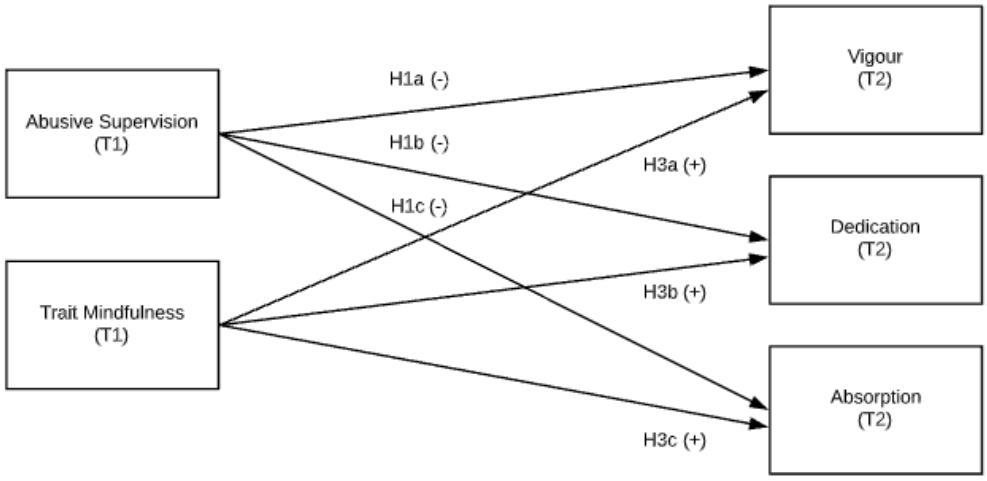

Figure 1. Theoretical framework of the research model with the hypothesised directions of relationships between abusive supervision, mindfulness and engagement dimensions.

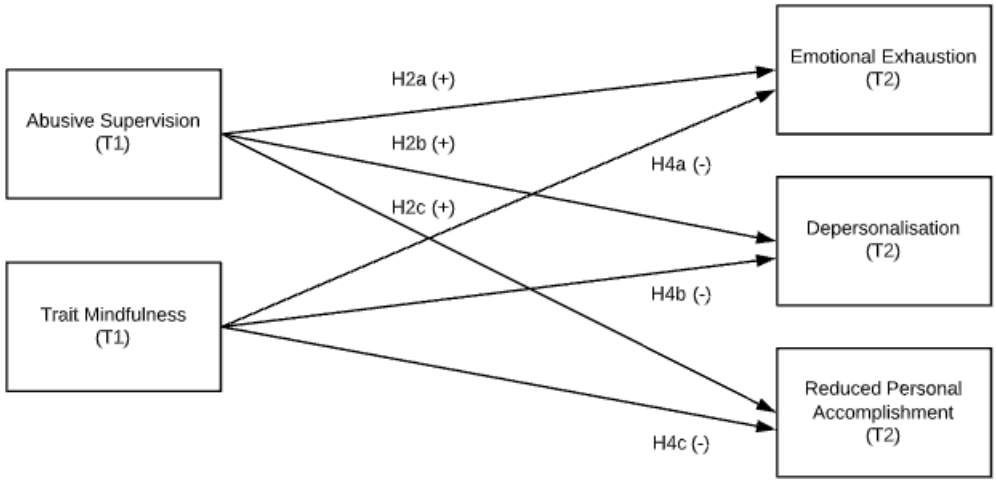

Figure 2. Theoretical framework of the research model with the hypothesised directions of relationships between abusive supervision, mindfulness and burnout dimensions.

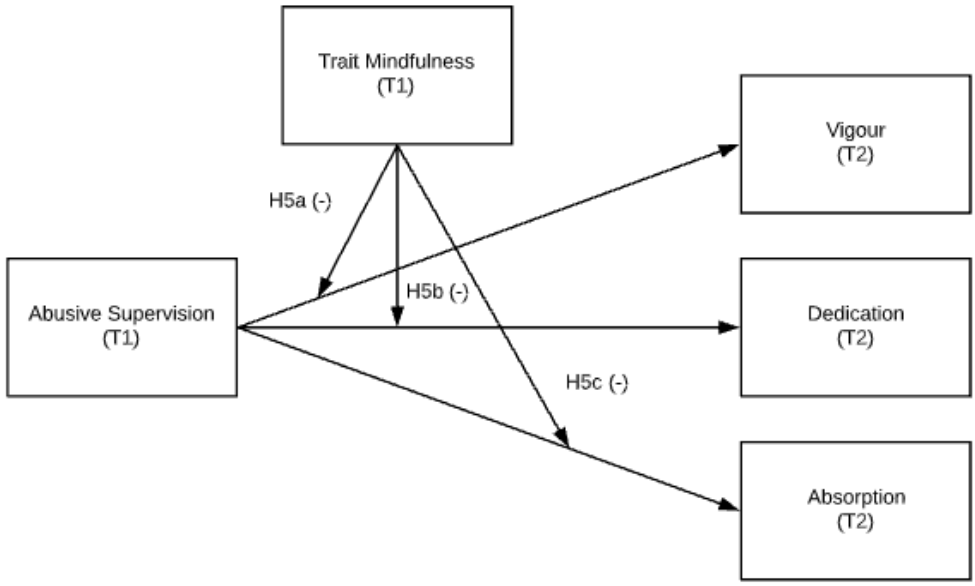

Figure 3. Theoretical framework of the research model with the hypothesised moderating relationships between abusive supervision, mindfulness and engagement dimensions.

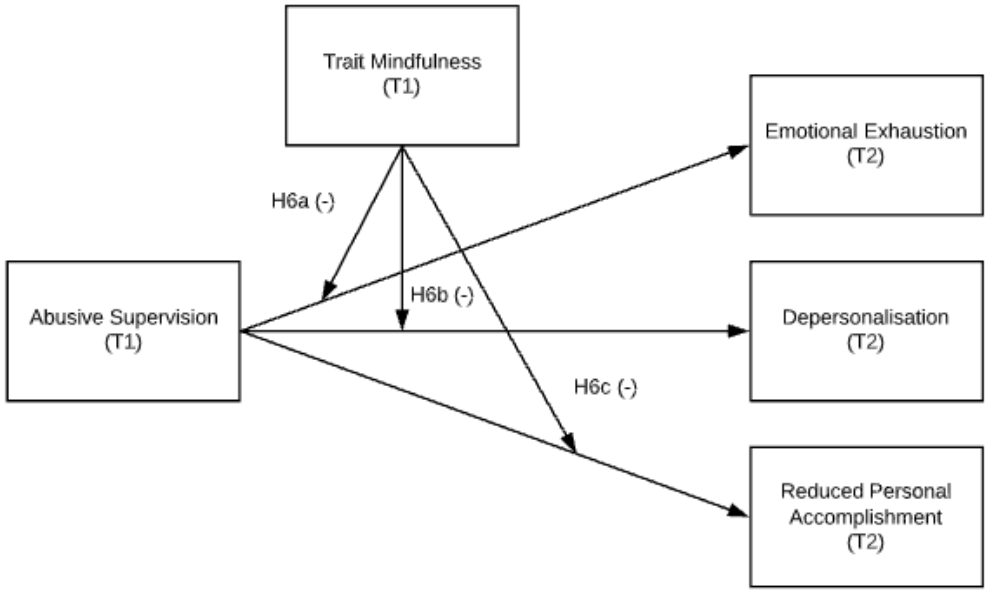

Figure 4. Theoretical framework of the research model with the hypothesised moderating relationships between abusive supervision, mindfulness and burnout dimensions.

Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be negatively related to vigour at Time 2.

Hypothesis 1b: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be negatively related to dedication at Time 2.

Hypothesis 1c: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be negatively related to absorption at Time 2.

Hypothesis 2a: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to emotional exhaustion at Time 2.

Hypothesis 2b: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to depersonalisation at Time 2.

Hypothesis 2c: Abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to reduced personal accomplishment at Time 2.

Hypothesis 3a: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be positively related to vigour at Time 2.

Hypothesis 3b: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be positively related to dedication at Time 2.

Hypothesis 3c: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be positively related to absorption at Time 2.

Hypothesis 4a: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion at Time 2.

Hypothesis 4b: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to depersonalisation at Time 2.

Hypothesis 4c: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to reduced personal accomplishment at Time 2.

Hypothesis 5a: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and vigour at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and vigour will be stronger when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 5b: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and dedication at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and dedication will be stronger when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 5c: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and absorption at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and absorption will be stronger when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 6a: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and emotional exhaustion at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 6b: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and depersonalisation at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and depersonalisation will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Hypothesis 6c: Trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and reduced personal accomplishment at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and reduced personal accomplishment will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness.

Chapter Two: Method

The data for this study was collected as part of a larger study funded by the University of Waikato 2018 Strategic Investment Fund – Research (Medium Grant). The larger study was based on the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) by Patrick (2010), developing and validating short self- and other-report measures for psychopathy in managers. It also considered how psychopathy is related to a range of workplace variables, including engagement and burnout. As such, participants completed a range of questionnaire-scales within the questionnaire that related not only to abusive supervision, mindfulness, engagement and burnout, but also to a number of variables not reported in this study.

Participants

Participants were recruited through the sampling provider Research Now between October and December 2018. They completed an online questionnaire at two timepoints. At the first timepoint (Time 1), 697 employees were recruited. This sample consisted of 52 percent female respondents and 48 percent male respondents. The mean age was 38 years (*SD* = 12.6). Many respondents worked in retail trade and accommodation (15.2 percent) and in health care and social assistance (14.8 percent). The mean time respondents have been in their current job was 5.83 years.

At the second timepoint (Time 2), four weeks following the completion of the first questionnaire, 331 employees were recruited. This represented a 47.5 percent retention rate. Of this sample, 58 percent were female and 42 percent were male. The mean age was 40.48 years (*SD* = 12.5) and had a similar spread of employment industries as at Time 1.

Procedure

This study gained approval from the Psychology Research and Ethics Committee, School of Psychology, University of Waikato. As participants completed an online questionnaire, signed consent was not gained from each individual; however, informed consent was implied due to participation and submission of the questionnaire. No personal information that could be used to identify participants was collected, thus the study was confidential.

An online questionnaire was administered to participants through Research Now at two timepoints, making this a quantitative and longitudinal study. The Time 1 and Time 2 data were matched using personal identification numbers that were generated by the questionnaire software. The questionnaires were identical at Time 1 as at Time 2, with the exclusion of demographics at Time 2.

Measures

Demographics. At Time 1, demographic characteristics were collected including age, gender, tenure in current job, and industry sector (using the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC) 2006 categories).

Abusive supervision. Abusive supervisory behaviours were measured using the Tepper (2000) scale. Tepper's scale uses the wording "boss"; however, this was changed to "manager" in order to keep consistency across scales. The scale consists of 15 statements rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = I cannot remember my manager ever using this behaviour with me, 5 = my manager uses this behaviour with me very often*).* A sample item is "Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid". The reported Cronbach alpha for this scale is .90 (Tepper, 2000).

Trait mindfulness. The Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) (Brown & Ryan, 2003) was used to measure mindfulness. Items are rated on a 1-6 scale (1 = almost always, 6 =

almost never). A sample item is “I find it difficult to stay focused on what’s happening in the present." The reported Alpha for this scale is .87.

Work engagement. Engagement was measured with the short version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b). This short scale is a 9-item measure consisting of the three dimensions of vigour, dedication and absorption. Items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = never; 7 = always (every day)). A sample item is “I get carried away when I’m working” (absorption). The reported alphas for the three scales are .84 (vigour), .89 (dedication) and .79 (absorption) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b).

Burnout. The abbreviated Maslach Burnout scale (McManus, Jonvik, Richards, & Paice, 2011) was used to assess burnout. Internal reliabilities for this scale are not reported, though factor analysis confirmed the expected three factors of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment which is reverse scored (McManus, Winder, & Gordon, 2002). This scale uses the wording “patients”; however, this has been changed to “people” in order to make the scale applicable to the work context. The measure consists of nine items rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = never; 7 = everyday). A sample item is “I feel emotionally drained from my work” (emotional exhaustion).

Data Analysis

The data obtained by Research Now was exported to the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 26), where all data analysis was conducted. The results of this data analysis will be further explained in the following chapter (chapter three).

Missing data and removal of outliers. Responses with more than 10 percent missing values were removed from the data sets. Outliers were removed based on a combination of the Mahalanobis distance, used to identify multivariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), and the respondents’ response time. Mahalanobis distance was calculated for each response case based on

all items and compared to a Chi-square distribution with the same degrees of freedom ($df = 49$). A very conservative probability estimate of $p < .001$ was used to identify potential outliers, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). Additionally, response times faster than 50 percent of the median time (Greszki, Meyer, & Schoen, 2014) were taken as an indication that the respondents may not have given quality responses. Therefore, response cases with both a significant Mahalanobis distance as well as a fast response time were removed from the data sets. This resulted in a final sample of 668 employees at Time 1 and 318 (317 for the burnout scale) employees at Time 2. The paired data with the Time 1 and Time 2 responses matched were used for analysis.

Sample size and power. Friedman (1982) provides guidelines for determining the appropriate number of participants to provide adequate power, that is a true effect is found and Type II errors are avoided. Based on these guidelines, a sample size of 318 (317 for the burnout scale) gives this sample's correlations a power of .80 at the .05 level ($r = .15$), suggesting an 80 percent likelihood of detecting a true relationship.

Exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring as the extraction method and oblique rotation (Direct Oblimin) as the rotation method were conducted on the four scales used in this study (abusive supervision, MAAS, UWES and Maslach Burnout). An eigenvalue greater than 1 is usually considered acceptable for factor retention (Kaiser, 1960), or data above the points of inflexion on a scree plot (Field, 2018). Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) note that factors are reliable regardless of sample size if that factor has four or more loadings greater than .60; with a sample size of over 150, factors with 10 or more loadings greater than .40 are reliable; and with a sample size of over 300, factors with few loadings can be considered reliable. Field (2018) explains that a sample of 300 or more will likely provide a stable factor solution. The current study was well within this sample size adequacy with 318 (317 for burnout scale) respondents completing both Time 1 and Time 2, thus the factor loadings are likely to be considered reliable. Each measure in this study is widely validated in the literature in

terms of how the items factor out, therefore, all EFAs were conducted using a fixed number of factors for extraction (Field, 2018).

Descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted to provide information on means, standard deviations, skew and kurtosis for the data (see table 3). It is recommended to examine the levels of skew and kurtosis before continuing with data analysis to confirm whether the data needs to be transformed. A skew value larger than +/-3 indicates extreme skew, while a kurtosis value larger than +/-8 indicates extreme kurtosis. If data has extreme skew or kurtosis values, it is suggested that the data be transformed (Kline, 2015). The current results did not require any transformation as the data did not show any extreme ranges.

Reliability analysis. The Cronbach's alpha (*a*) for each item and scale were conducted to measure the reliability and internal consistency within this study. Alpha values between .70 and .90 are deemed as reliable, with .70 as acceptable, .80 as good and .90 as excellent (Field, 2018; Gliem & Gliem, 2003).

Correlation analysis. Pearson's product-moment correlations were produced to examine whether there were any significant correlations between the variables, and to determine whether there was support for any of the stated hypotheses. The correlation analysis table (table 4) in the following chapter outlines these correlation values. This table indicates which of these values are deemed significant. Significance was determined by a correlation *p*-value of < .01.

Regression analysis. Linear regression analyses were conducted in order to confirm the relationships and determine whether the independent variables (abusive supervision, trait mindfulness) predicted the outcome variables (work engagement, burnout). Tables 5 and 6 outline the results of these analyses. Significance was determined by a *p*-value of < .01.

Moderated multiple regression analysis. Moderated multiple regression analyses were conducted using Hayes' (2018) PROCESS for SPSS (version 3.4) to determine the influence of a third variable in the theoretical models. To analyse moderation hypotheses, the outcome variables

at Time 2 (work engagement, emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation) were entered into the Y variable section, abusive supervision at Time 1 was entered into the X variable section and mindfulness at Time 1 was entered into the moderation variable W section using model 1. The data for each variable was transformed using grand mean centring during the analysis as the interaction terms of the variables were examined (Field, 2018). Additionally, interactions were set to be probed if $p < .10$, conditioning values were set to mean +/-1 standard deviation and the Johnson-Neyman output was requested. The tables 7, 8 and 9 in the following chapter outline these results.

Chapter Three: Results

This chapter describes the findings from the following analyses: exploratory factor analyses, reliability analyses, descriptive statistics, correlation analyses, regression analyses and moderated multiple regression analyses to test the relationships proposed in the theoretical models.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysese (EFA) using principal axis factoring as the extraction method and oblique rotation (Direct Oblimin) as the rotation method were conducted on the four main scales used in this study (abusive supervision, MAAS, UWES and Maslach burnout). This aimed to determine the underlying factor structure of the variables and to determine the number of latent factors for each. The minimum threshold for significant factor loadings was set at .40, as recommended by Field (2018).

Abusive supervision. EFA was conducted on the 15-items of Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy verified the sampling adequacy for further analysis, KMO = .96 for both the Time 1 sample and the Time 2 sample. All KMO values for the individual items were greater than .90 for both samples, which is well above the accepted limit of .50 (Field, 2018), supporting the inclusion of each item in the EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(105) = 4633.044$, $p < .001$, was significant for the Time 1 sample. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(105) = 4939.582$, $p < .001$, was also significant for the Time 2 sample. There was a single factor within this scale that explained a cumulative variance of 67.58% in the Time 1 sample and 68.64% in the Time 2 sample, with all factor loadings over .76 and .72 respectively. These did not require rotation and were subsequently retained for final analysis.

Mindful Attention and Awareness Scale. EFA was conducted on the 15-items of MAAS. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy verified the sampling adequacy for further analysis, KMO = .90 for the Time 1 sample and KMO = .93 for the Time 2 sample. All KMO values for the individual items were greater than .85 for both samples, which is well above the accepted limit of .50 (Field, 2018), supporting the inclusion of each item in the EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(105) = 2050.823$, $p < .001$, was significant for the Time 1 sample. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(105) = 2289.377$, $p < .001$, was also significant for the Time 2 sample. There was a single factor within this scale that explained a cumulative variance of 39.38% in the Time 1 sample and 43.21% in the Time 2 sample, with all factor loadings over .46 and .48 respectively. These did not require rotation and were subsequently retained for final analysis.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. EFA was conducted on the 9-items of UWES. This scale typically presents three factors; however, this study's data showed inconsistencies in the factor loadings therefore the final EFA was conducted using one fixed factor. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004b) acknowledge that while a three-factor model is superior, a one-factor model is acceptable for the 9-item UWES. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy verified the sampling adequacy for further analysis, KMO = .91 for the Time 1 sample and KMO = .90 for the Time 2 sample. All KMO values for the individual items were greater than .85 for both samples, which is well above the accepted limit of .50 (Field, 2018), supporting the inclusion of each item in the EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(36) = 2501.366$, $p < .001$, was significant for the Time 1 sample. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(36) = 2646.520$, $p < .001$, was also significant for the Time 2 sample. The single factor explained a cumulative variance of 64.10% in the Time 1 sample and 66.27% in the Time 2 sample, with all factor loadings over .62 and .69 respectively. These did not require rotation and were subsequently retained for final analysis.

Maslach Burnout Scale. EFA was conducted on the 9-items of the Maslach Burnout scale. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy verified the sampling adequacy for further analysis,

Table 1

Pattern matrix of burnout for the Time 1 sample.

	Factor		
	1	2	3
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	.82		
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	.94		
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	.49		
I feel I treat some people at work as if they were impersonal objects.		.71	
I've become more callous towards people since I took this job.		.47	
I don't really care what happens to some people at work.		.79	
I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work			.35
I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work			.75
I feel exhilarated after working closely with people at work			.59

Note. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

KMO = .77 for the Time 1 sample and KMO = .76 for the Time 2 sample. All KMO values for the individual items were greater than .61 for both samples, except one at .54 in the Time 2 sample, which is above the accepted limit of .50 (Field, 2018), supporting the inclusion of each item in the EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(36) = 873.370$, $p < .001$, was significant in the Time 1 sample. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(15) = 877.895$, $p < .001$, was also significant in the Time 2 sample. Three factors were extracted that explained a cumulative variance of 51.55% in the Time 1 sample and 51.41% in the Time 2 sample. Tables 1 and 2 show the factor loadings after rotation for each sample. The items that cluster on Factor One show emotional exhaustion, items that cluster on Factor Two show depersonalisation and items that cluster on Factor Three show reduced personal accomplishment. The item "I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work" produced a

Table 2

Pattern matrix of burnout for the Time 2 sample.

	Factor		
	1	2	3
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	.78		
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	.95		
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	.46		
I feel I treat some people at work as if they were impersonal objects.		.69	
I've become more callous towards people since I took this job.		.63	
I don't really care what happens to some people at work.		.80	
I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work			.23
I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work			.69
I feel exhilarated after working closely with people at work			.67

Note. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

factor loading of .35 in the Time 1 sample and .23 in the Time 2 sample, which is below the accepted threshold of .40 (Field, 2018). Because of this, the item was removed from further analysis. All other items were retained.

Reliability Analysis

Reliability analyses were conducted to measure the reliability and internal consistency of the different scales within this study. According to Field (2018), scales that produce a Cronbach's alpha (*a*) of .70 or higher are deemed reliable. For the Time 1 sample, Tepper's abusive supervision scale reported *a* = .97, MAAS reported *a* = .90, UWES reported *a* = .94 and Maslach burnout scale reported an overall *a* = .77 (emotional exhaustion *a* = .82, depersonalisation *a* = .75, reduced

personal accomplishment a = .57). For the Time 2 sample, Tepper's abusive supervision scale reported a = .97, MAAS reported a = .91, UWES reported an overall a = .94 (vigour a = .87, dedication a = .91, absorption a = .86) and Maslach burnout scale reported an overall a = .76 (emotional exhaustion a = .81, depersonalisation a = .78, reduced personal accomplishment a = .52). The reduced personal accomplishment factor within the Maslach burnout scale produced reliabilities below the accepted value of .70 (Field, 2018) in both samples, therefore, it was removed from further analysis. All other scales produced reliabilities over .70 and thus were retained for further analysis.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation, skew and kurtosis for all variables for the Time 1 and Time 2 samples are displayed in table 3. The mean for abusive supervision was measured on a scale of one to five (1 = I cannot remember my manager ever using this behaviour with me, 5 = my manager uses this behaviour with me very often). The mean for mindfulness was measured on a scale of one to six (1 = almost always, 6 = almost never). The mean for engagement was measured on a scale of one to seven (1 = never; 7 = always (every day)), and the mean for burnout was also measured on a scale of one to seven (1 = never; 7 = every day).

The means across the variables in the Time 1 sample ranged between 1.63 and 4.87, as shown in Table 3. On average, for abusive supervision, respondents indicated 'I cannot remember my manager ever using this behaviour with me' or 'my manager very seldom uses this behaviour with me' (M = 1.63, SD = .84). For mindfulness, respondents reported engaging in everyday mindful behaviours 'somewhat frequently' or 'somewhat infrequently' on average (M = 3.91, SD = .83). On average, for engagement, respondents indicated 'sometimes' or 'often' regarding their everyday feelings towards their job (M = 4.87, SD = 1.27). On average, for emotional exhaustion, respondents indicated experiencing feelings 'once a month or less' or 'a few times a month' (M =

Table 3

Descriptive statistics for each sample.

	N	Mean	St. Dev.	Skew	Kurtosis
Time 1					
Abusive Supervision	318	1.63	.84	1.59	1.89
Trait Mindfulness	318	3.91	.83	.093	.12
Work Engagement	318	4.87	1.27	-.42	-.064
Emotional Exhaustion	318	3.81	1.59	.21	-.81
Depersonalisation	318	2.65	1.48	.75	-.23
Time 2					
Abusive Supervision	318	1.64	.85	1.54	1.61
Trait Mindfulness	318	3.85	.87	.139	-.069
Work Engagement	318	4.81	1.30	-.32	-.24
Emotional Exhaustion	317	3.75	1.60	.12	-.87
Depersonalisation	317	2.64	1.52	.73	-.35

3.81, *SD* = 1.59). Finally, for depersonalisation, respondents experienced feelings 'once a month or less' or 'a few times a month' (*M* = 2.65, *SD* = 1.48).

For the Time 2 sample, means ranged between 1.64 and 4.81. For abusive supervision, respondents reported 'I cannot remember my manager ever using this behaviour with me' or 'my manager very seldom uses this behaviour with me' on average (*M* = 1.64, *SD* = .85). For mindfulness, respondents indicated 'somewhat frequently' or 'somewhat infrequently' on average (*M* = 3.85, *SD* = .87). On average, for engagement, respondents reported 'sometimes' or 'often' regarding their everyday feelings towards their job (*M* = 4.81, *SD* = 1.30), while respondents

indicated ‘a few times a month’ or ‘once a week’ on average for emotional exhaustion (M = 3.75, SD = 1.60) and ‘once a month or less’ or ‘a few times a month’ for depersonalisation (M = 2.64, SD = 1.52).

Correlation Analysis

To explore the relationships between the variables in this study and to determine whether there was support for the stated hypotheses, a Pearson’s product-moment correlation analysis was conducted. Table 4 presents the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between all major variables at Time 1 and Time 2. Significance levels of $p < .01$ are identified.

Hypothesis 1a, 1b and 1c*. It was hypothesised that abusive supervision at Time 1 will be negatively related to work engagement at Time 2. The correlation analysis between Time 1 abusive supervision and Time 2 work engagement showed a significant negative relationship (r = -.18, $p < .01$). Therefore, this hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 2a. It was hypothesised that abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to emotional exhaustion at Time 2. The correlation analysis between Time 1 abusive supervision and Time 2 emotional exhaustion showed a significant positive relationship (r = .28, $p < .01$). Thus, hypothesis 2a was supported.

Hypothesis 2b. It was hypothesised that abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to depersonalisation at Time 2. The correlation analysis between Time 1 abusive supervision and Time 2 depersonalisation showed a significant positive relationship (r = .25, $p <$ .01). Thus, hypothesis 2b was supported.

Hypothesis 2c. It was hypothesised that abusive supervision at Time 1 will be positively related to reduced personal accomplishment at Time 2. As the reduced personal accomplishment factor produced low reliabilities, it was removed from further analysis therefore this hypothesis was not tested.

**Hypotheses combined due to EFA results. Refer to page 46.*

Table 4

Person product-moment correlations for all variables for Time 1 and Time 2 samples.

Variable	*M*	*SD*	**Time 1**	1	2	3	4	5	**Time 2**	1	2	3	4	5
Time 1														
1. Abusive Supervision	1.63	.84		-										
2. Trait Mindfulness	3.91	.83		-.065	-									
3. Work Engagement	4.87	1.27		-.29**	.28**	-								
4. Emotional Exhaustion	3.81	1.59		.36**	-.27**	-.49**	-							
5. Depersonalisation	2.65	1.48		.35**	-.22**	-.35**	.53**	-						

Time 2

1. Abusive supervision	1.64	.85	.78**	-.085	-.27**	.33**	.32**	-				
2. Trait Mindfulness	3.85	.87	-.035	.60**	.23**	-.18**	-.16**	-.030	-			
3. Work Engagement	4.81	1.30	-.18**	.26**	.76**	-.43**	-.30**	-.25**	.32**	-		
4. Emotional Exhaustion	3.75	1.60	.28**	-.32**	-.50**	.70**	.39**	.33**	-.31**	-.47**	-	
5. Depersonalisation	2.64	1.52	.25**	-.30**	-.33**	.36**	.66**	.28**	-.21**	-.29**	.51**	-

Note. $N = 318$, 317 for Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation; $^{**}p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 3a, 3b and 3c. It was hypothesised that trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be positively related to work engagement at Time 2. The correlation analysis between Time 1 trait mindfulness and Time 2 work engagement showed a significant positive relationship ($r = .26$, $p < .01$), thus this hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 4a. It was hypothesised that trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion at Time 2. The correlation analysis between Time 1 mindfulness and Time 2 emotional exhaustion showed a significant negative relationship ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis 4a was supported.

Hypothesis 4b. It was hypothesised that trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to depersonalisation at Time 2. The correlation analysis between Time 1 mindfulness and Time 2 depersonalisation showed a significant negative relationship ($r = -.30$, $p < .01$). As such, hypothesis 4b was supported.

Hypothesis 4c. It was hypothesised that trait mindfulness at Time 1 will be negatively related to reduced personal accomplishment at Time 2. As this dimension was removed from analysis, this hypothesis was not tested.

Regression Analysis

Linear regression analyses were used to confirm the relationships between abusive supervision and trait mindfulness towards work engagement and burnout (emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation). Tables 5 and 6 outline the results of these analyses.

Hypothesis 1a, 1b and 1c. The results found that abusive supervision at Time 1 significantly predicted lower levels of engagement at Time 2 ($\beta = -.29$, $p = .001$). The regression indicated that the predictor abusive supervision explained 3.4% of the variance ($R^2 = .034$, $F(1, 316) = 11.06$, $p = .001$, adj. $R^2 = .031$).

Table 5

Linear model of abusive supervision as a predictor.

	B	**SE**	***β***	***t***	***p***
Work Engagement	-.29 [-.46, -.12]	.086	-.18	-3.33	.001
Emotional Exhaustion	.54 [.34, .74]	.10	.28	5.27	<.001
Depersonalisation	.46 [.26, .65]	.01	.25	4.23	<.001

Note. $N = 318$ (work engagement), 317.

Hypothesis 2a. It was found that abusive supervision at Time 1 significantly predicted higher levels of emotional exhaustion at Time 2 ($\beta = .54$, $p < .001$). The results of the regression indicated that the predictor abusive supervision explained 8.1% of the variance ($R^2 = .081$, $F(1, 315) = 27.72$, $p < .001$, adj. $R^2 = .078$).

Hypothesis 2b. The results indicated that abusive supervision at Time 1 significantly predicted higher levels of depersonalisation at Time 2 ($\beta = .46$, $p < .001$). It was found that the predictor abusive supervision explained 6.4% of the variance ($R^2 = .064$, $F(1, 315) = 21.39$, $p < .001$, adj. $R^2 = .061$).

Hypothesis 3a, 3b and 3c. The results found that mindfulness at Time 1 significantly predicted higher levels of engagement at Time 2 ($\beta = .41$, $p < .001$). The regression indicated that the predictor mindfulness explained 6.7% of the variance ($R^2 = .067$, $F(1, 316) = 22.75$, $p < .001$, adj. $R^2 = .064$).

Hypothesis 4a. It was found that mindfulness at Time 1 predicted lower levels of emotional exhaustion at Time 2 ($\beta = -.62$, $p < .001$). The results of the regression indicated that the predictor mindfulness explained 10.5% of the variance ($R^2 = .11$, $F(1, 315) = 36.82$, $p < .001$, adj. $R^2 = .10$).

Table 6

Linear model of trait mindfulness as a predictor.

	B	**SE**	***β***	***t***	***p***
Work Engagement	.41 [.24, .58]	.085	.26	4.77	<.001
Emotional Exhaustion	-.62 [-.82, -.42]	.10	-.32	-6.07	<.001
Depersonalisation	-.55 [-.74, -.35]	.01	.30	-5.57	<.001

Note. $N = 318$ (work engagement), 317.

Hypothesis 4b. The results indicated that mindfulness at Time 1 significantly predicted lower levels of depersonalisation at Time 2 (β = -.55, $p < .001$). It was found that the predictor mindfulness explained 9% of the variance ($R^2 = .090$, $F(1, 315) = 30.99$, $p < .001$, adj. $R^2 = .087$).

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis

To explore whether there were any moderation effects and to determine whether there was support for the stated hypotheses, moderated multiple regression analyses were conducted. In order to calculate the effect, model 1 of Hayes (2018) PROCESS for SPSS (version 3.4) was used. Tables 7, 8 and 9 present the results of these analyses.

Hypothesis 5a, 5b and 5c. It was hypothesised that trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and vigour at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and work engagement will be stronger when employees are high in trait mindfulness. The results indicated that there was no significant moderation effect (β = -.00040, SE = .11, t = -.0037, p = .99), and thus did not support the hypothesis.

Table 7

Linear model of predictors of work engagement.

	B	**SE**	***t***	***p***
Constant	4.8144 [4.68, 4.95]	.070	68.69	<.001
Abusive Supervision	-.26 [-.43, -.95]	.084	-3.091	.0022
Trait Mindfulness	.39 [.22, .56]	.085	4.58	<.001
Abusive Supervision x Trait Mindfulness	-.00040 [-.21, .21]	.11	-.0037	.99

Note. $R^2 = .095$; $N = 318$

Hypothesis 6a. It was hypothesised that trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and emotional exhaustion at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness. This analysis showed there was no significant moderation effect ($\beta = .035$, $SE = .13$, $t = .28$, $p = .78$), therefore, hypothesis 6a was not supported.

Hypothesis 6b. It was hypothesised that trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and depersonalisation at Time 2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and depersonalisation will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness. The results indicated there was no significant moderation effect ($\beta = .064$, $SE = .12$, $t = .53$, $p = .59$). Thus, hypothesis 6b was also not supported.

Hypothesis 6c. It was hypothesised that trait mindfulness at Time 1 will moderate the relationship between abusive supervision at Time 1 and reduced personal accomplishment at Time

Table 8

Linear model of predictors of emotional exhaustion.

	B	**SE**	***t***	***p***
Constant	3.75 [3.60, 3.91]	.082	45.66	<.001
Abusive Supervision	.51 [.31, .70]	.098	5.13	<.001
Trait Mindfulness	-.59 [-.78, -.39]	.099	-5.87	<.001
Abusive Supervision x Trait Mindfulness	.035 [-.21, .28]	.13	.28	.78

Note. $R^2 = .17$; $N = 317$.

2, such that the relationship between abusive supervision and reduced personal accomplishment will be weaker when employees are high in trait mindfulness. As reduced personal accomplishment was removed from analysis, this hypothesis was not tested.

Table 9

Linear model of predictors of depersonalisation.

	B	**SE**	***t***	***p***
Constant	2.64 [2.48, 2.80]	.080	33.20	<.001
Abusive Supervision	.43 [.24, .62]	.10	4.49	<.001
Trait Mindfulness	-.51 [-.70, -.32]	.10	-5.32	<.001
Abusive Supervision x Trait Mindfulness	.064 [-.18, .30]	.12	.53	.59

Note. $R^2 = .14$; $N = 31$

Theoretical Frameworks

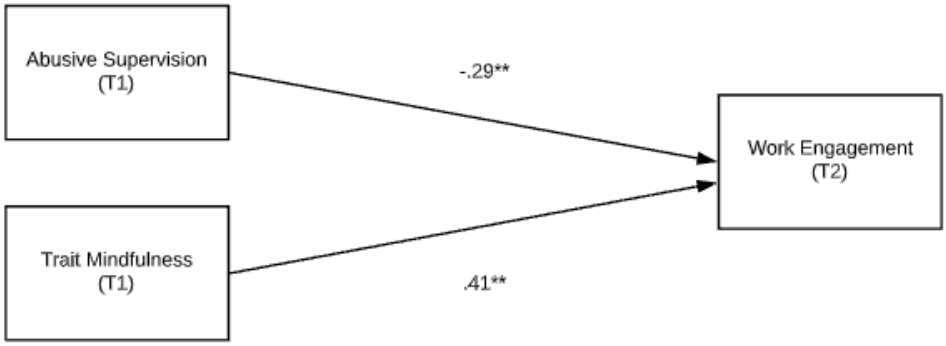

Figure 5. Framework for hypothesised relationships for work engagement with β-value.

Note. **$p < .001$

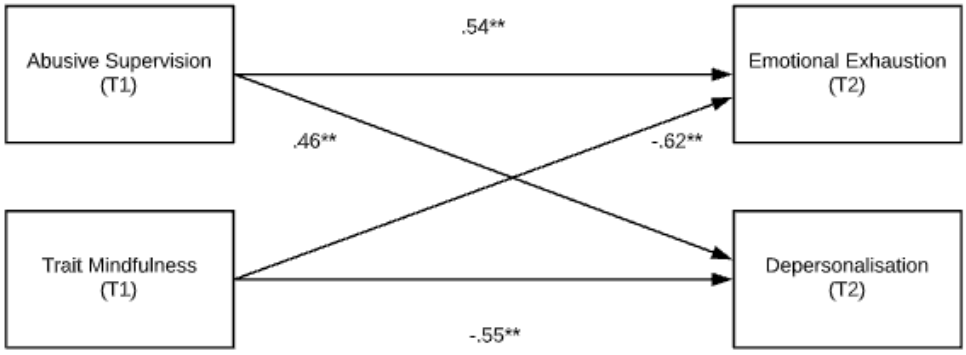

Figure 6. Framework for hypothesised relationships for burnout dimensions with β-value.

Note. **$p < .001$

Figure 7. Framework for hypothesised moderating relationship on work engagement with β-value (p-value).

Note. **$p < .001$

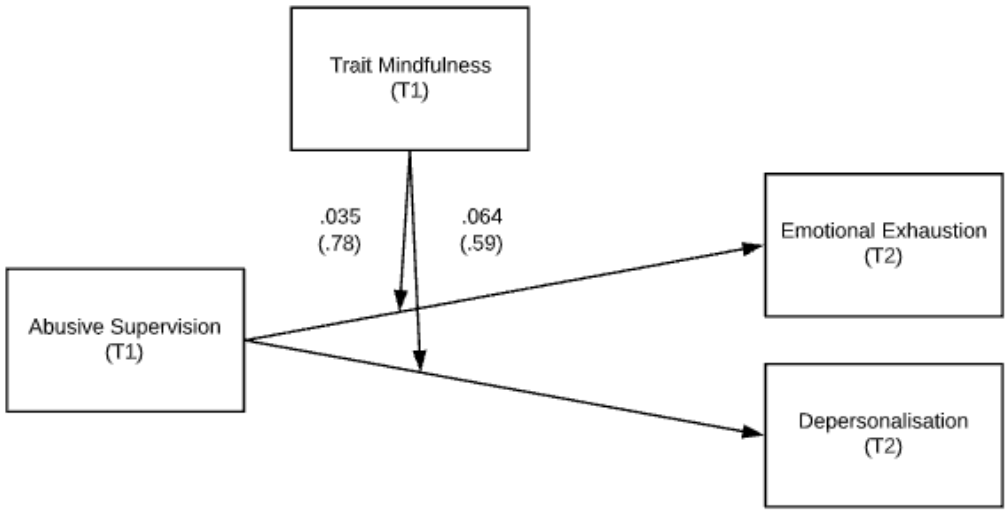

Figure 8. Framework for hypothesised moderating relationship on burnout dimensions with β-value (p-value).

Note. **$p < .001$

Chapter Four: Discussion

The current study aimed to explore abusive supervision and the outcomes of this type of destructive leadership style across two timepoints, and to examine the influence of trait mindfulness on these relationships. In exploring the gaps in the literature, this study was designed to contribute to the current research body in two main ways: Firstly, to understand the detrimental effects of abusive supervision on employees over two timepoints, four weeks apart; and secondly, to assess the influence of mindfulness in this relationship.

The following chapter will discuss the results reported in the previous chapter and is divided into sections as follows: discussion of the direct relationships between abusive supervision, engagement and burnout; discussion of the direct relationships between mindfulness, engagement and burnout; interpretation and discussion of the moderation analysis results; discussion of the practical implications of the results; strengths and limitations of the current study; suggestions for future research; and concluding remarks.

Direct Relationships - Abusive Supervision

Central to the current study's premise is that job demands and job resources work together to predict either a motivation process or a health impairment process, depending on the balance between the demands and resources (Grover et al., 2018). As discussed in the introduction, this is known as the JD-R model. It was suggested that abusive supervision - the sustained hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours (excluding physical contact) - acts as a job demand. This is due to the time and energy needed to combat the abuse, of which depletes employee resources (Aryee et al., 2015). As a result of this demand, negative employee outcomes can occur, such as decreased performance (Aryee et al., 2015) and increased psychological distress (Li et al., 2016). In line with this thinking, the current study hypothesised

that abusive supervision would lead to reduced work engagement (hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c) and increased burnout (hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c).

Abusive supervision and work engagement. The results clearly supported the notion that abusive supervision plays a significant role in employees' decreased levels of engagement in work. Several scholars have revealed similar findings, including Yan, Wang, Su, and Luo (2017), Poon (2011) and Barnes et al. (2015), and so the current study aligns with the research body, showing that abusive supervision leads to significantly lower levels of engagement among employees, but this thesis further extends this overtime.

Engagement in work can be characterised by high levels of energy, a sense of commitment and a mental engrossment in work-related tasks (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b). When abusive supervision is involved, these characteristics are compromised. Employees experience a reduced willingness and motivation to put time and effort into their work, and struggle to see the benefits of pushing through challenges. If the products of an employee's hard work are not being recognised, the employee may not see the benefits of their efforts. Lyu et al. (2016) show a negative relationship between abusive supervision and engagement, supporting the current study's results. While Lyu et al. (2016) argue the effect of low levels of engagement on low customer-oriented OCBs as a result of abusive supervision, their findings acknowledge a link between abusive supervision, reduced energy (an important part of engagement) and organisation-related outcomes. A reduction in engagement due to abusive behaviours may result in decreased levels of energy due to the mental effort needing to be dedicated to processing the abuse. In turn, this may cause employees to try to conserve the remaining energy they have, meaning less effort is put into their work. Thus, less energy is dedicated to positive organisation-related outcomes, including OCBs (Lyu et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the experience of abusive supervision may distract an employee from the ability to become fully engrossed in work-related tasks. Their attention is focused on non-

productive aspects of work, rather than being able to fully immerse themselves. In this light, Leary et al. (2013) suggested that actions such as belittling and yelling from a leader contribute to employees employing self-protection and preservation strategies. This argument may reflect the current finding, where employees' engrossment in work-related tasks and their level of energy are negatively impacted in abusive situations. It is likely that feeling threatened and humiliated by a leader would cause withdrawal and disengagement, which may reflect the significant link between abusive supervision and engagement.

Abusive supervision and burnout. The current study's results support the argument that abusive supervision leads to increased burnout as reflected in emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. Firstly, the analyses showed that abusive supervision leads to significant increases in emotional exhaustion among employees. This aligns with results found by Aryee et al. (2015), Breaux et al. (2008) and Wu and Hu (2009), of whom found significant positive relationships between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion. Secondly, the findings revealed a significant positive relationship between abusive supervision and depersonalisation. This supports results by Yagil (2006) who found that as abusive supervision increases so does depersonalisation. Once again, this thesis highlights the relationships found in previous studies, but expands this to show the effects overtime.

When an employee is subjected to abusive behaviours by a leader, this may lead to emotional and cognitive distancing on the part of the employee. This is an important discovery as it highlights the consequences of resource depletion due to leader behaviours. Aryee et al. (2015) support this sentiment, showing abusive supervision results in a depletion of resources, which leads to emotional exhaustion. This depletion of resources is highly relevant to the JD-R model as the health impairment process acknowledges that when job demands increase, an energy depletion process occurs. As such, employees increase their efforts in order to meet the increased demands, which consequently increases psychological and physiological costs that

drains energy levels. These increases cause stress which leads employees feeling worn out (Crawford et al., 2010). It is likely that employees who are trying to deal with or combat leader abuse are using more mental and physical resources because they are having to dedicate energy to handling the stressor. This causes strain on the employee, leading to feelings of overwhelmingness and exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001), reflecting the current study's findings.

Emotional exhaustion (e.g. Breaux et al., 2008) and burnout as a whole (e.g. Scheuer et al., 2016) have been well researched, however, few studies have examined and discussed depersonalisation as an individual dimension in relation to abusive supervision. Therefore, the positive reltaionships between abusive supervision and depersonalisation found here adds value to the literature in understanding the dimensions of burnout. Depersonalisation involves the interpersonal distancing an employee engages in as a result of an overload of job demands (Aryee et al., 2015). These employees lose the emotional connection they have with their work as a coping strategy (Maslach et al., 2001), creating distance to manage the demands. When employees are abused by their supervisors, their perception of the workplace is altered. Work is no longer associated with pleasant feelings as employees associate the workplace with the negative emotions felt due to the abuse. Employees thus attempt to cope by disconnecting, becoming impersonal with their work and developing a cynical attitude (Maslach et al., 2001).

Longitudinal effects. While studies have also found significant relationships between abusive supervision, work engagement and burnout, they lack the important consideration of how abusive supervision affects employees overtime (Martinko et al., 2013). The current study adds value to the existing literature by showing that abusive supervision has long-lasting impacts on engagement and burnout levels. Not only has abuse by a leader been shown to have immediate effects on employee engagement (e.g. Leary et al., 2013) and burnout (e.g. Aryee et al., 2015), it has the ability to continually influence employees as time progresses. Rather

than creating a disturbance for a short amount of time (e.g. immediately feeling upset after experiencing an abusive behaviour that eventually dissipates), abusive supervision clearly causes discomfort and injury that lingers. The implication of this is that employees might hold onto the experience in an unhealthy way, which may consequently influence the standard of work performed overtime and their own well-being. In fact, given the emotional consequences that abusive supervision has been shown to cause, overtime this leadership style may eventually lead to more severe and debilitating psychological and physiological effects such as depression and anxiety disorders. Not only does this have detrimental outcomes for the employee in terms of their mental and physical well-being, it also has serious implications for organisations. This includes absenteeism, turnover and reduced productivity, all of which generate major costs for organisations and thus provides motivation to target such abusive behaviours.

Examining these two outcomes of abusive supervision has made clear the detrimental effects these negative leadership behaviours have on employees. It is important to note that respondents of this study reported relatively low levels of abusive supervision. More extreme abuse from a leader would likely see increased effects on employee engagement and burnout levels. Despite this, the current study highlights the reality that even low levels of abuse can result in serious implications for employees.

Direct Relationships - Trait Mindfulness

The JD-R model outlines the use of personal resources in the ability for employees to balance job demands. Given the centrality of this model in the current study, the notion of trait mindfulness - "a receptive attention to and awareness of present events and experience" (Brown et al., 2007, p. 212) - was explored as a personal resource. Relationships between trait mindfulness and work-related outcomes are becoming well documented in the literature. Such

research has linked trait mindfulness with increases in psychological well-being at work (Bowlin & Baer, 2012), performance (Dane & Brummel, 2013) and work-family balance (Allen & Kiburz, 2012). In following this past research, it was hypothesised that trait mindfulness would lead to enhanced work engagement (hypotheses 3a, 3b and 3c) and reduced burnout (hypotheses 4a, 4b and 4c).

Trait mindfulness and work engagement. The results of the current study suggest that mindfulness appears to significantly lead to enhanced levels of employee engagement, such that those employees who have higher mindfulness exhibit higher levels of engagement. These findings are in line with results from scholars such as Leroy et al. (2013) and Malinowski and Lim (2015) who also found that mindfulness is positively related to engagement in work.

As mentioned in the introduction chapter, mindfulness leads to an increase in awareness and attention (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Brown et al., 2007). Those who have higher levels of mindfulness have a receptive awareness and attention, meaning they are highly attuned to present-moment experiences. Malinowski and Lim (2015) explain that individuals high in mindfulness have a tendency to be in the present moment and so their attention is more focused, and they can become fully absorbed in tasks. They discuss engagement and mindfulness in relation to broaden-and-build processes, which depict that positive psychological resources have a broadening effect that allow individuals to build additional psychological and physical resources (Fredrickson, 2004). Like mindfulness, positive psychological resources open individuals up to more creative and new ways of thinking. As such, Malinowski and Lim (2015) argue that increases in mindfulness actives broaden-and-build processes, leading to higher levels of work engagement. While these authors have provided evidence for mindfulness in broaden-and-build processes, it can also be discussed in relation to the JD-R model. Mindfulness is a personal resource that can determine how effective employees are at obtaining and using job resources, as well as responding to job demands. It equips individuals

with the ability to be more creative, as Malinowski and Lim (2015) have acknowledged, but also allows them to use their resources and demands in more effective ways. This suggestion may reflect the current finding as employees high in mindfulness are more "fully present" in work-related tasks, where their experience of the task is heightened (Leroy et al., 2013). It is likely that those who are able to focus their attention in this way are more engaged in work activities, which may reflect the significant relationship between mindfulness and engagement; where these employees have the ability to participate in focused attention on the task at hand, and be less distracted, thus leading to greater engagement.

Through further exploring this relationship between mindfulness and engagement, it has become clear that mindfulness leads to enhanced levels of dedication and effort in work-related activities. Given that a key component of mindfulness is the openness to new ways of thinking, Kotzé (2018) illustrates the increased level of confidence that highly mindful individuals have. Through the openness to new information and the enhanced awareness of multiple perspectives, more mindful individuals have greater confidence in their decision making and problem-solving capabilities. This greater confidence elicits more enthusiasm and dedication to work tasks, thus leading to increased effort. As these constructs are typical of an engaged employee, Kotzé (2018) supports the current study's findings. In line with this, Glomb et al. (2011) argue that increases in mindfulness leads to increased self-determination and persistence. More mindful individuals are said to better understand their goals and values and, as such, are better able to act in accordance with these. This increased self-determination and persistence allows mindful individuals to become absorbed in their goals, exerting more effort and maintaining a cognitive focus (Glomb et al., 2011).

Trait mindfulness and burnout. Current research that explores mindfulness suggests that mindfulness is negatively related to burnout (Abenavoli et al., 2013; Montero-Marin et al., 2015; Voci et al., 2016). The results of the current study support prior research, indicating that

mindfulness leads to decreased levels of employee burnout as reflected in emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. As mindfulness can be considered a personal resource, highly mindful employees are more likely able to manage their job demands and resources more effectively due to the cognitive appraisals placed on these (Guidetti et al., 2019). Rather than a health impairment process occurring due to high job demands leading to strain, mindful individuals engage in a more motivational process whereby demands and resources are interpreted positively. Less mindful individuals are more likely to assign negative appraisals to demands, such as seeing them as threats, which can path a way to energy depletion. More mindful individuals are likely to see demands as challenges, generating more meaningful work and thus deterring from burning out (Guidetti et al., 2019).

An important consequence of mindfulness is the higher self-regulation that it accounts for. More mindful individuals have a greater awareness of their response tendencies (Allen & Kiburz, 2012; Broderick, 2005; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2017) and can more easily identify their emotional triggers (Abenavoli et al., 2013). This means they can engage in non-reactive coping mechanisms when faced with stressful situations. In this light, individuals who are high in mindfulness "... observe their thoughts and feelings without reacting to them in maladaptive ways and therefore are better able to behave constructively even when unpleasant thoughts and feelings are present" (Bowlin & Baer, 2012, p. 411). Aligning with the current study's results, employees high in mindfulness may be more likely to regulate their emotions, reducing the likelihood of burning out. Focusing particularly on emotional exhaustion, Walsh and Arnold (2018) found that individuals high in mindfulness were less likely to experience emotional exhaustion, explained by the self-regulatory capabilities of mindfulness. This notion may reflect the current results, where employees are better able to balance their responses and act in constructive manners, rather than responding to stress in emotionally exhaustive ways (e.g. feeling overwhelmed, fatigued). Individuals high in mindfulness may experience less

emotional exhaustion as a direct result of being able to engage in effective self-regulation, through being more mindful.

Furthermore, a key mechanism of mindfulness, as discussed in earlier chapters, is the ability for mindful individuals to decouple themselves from events or experiences. Shapiro, Carlson, Astin, and Freedman (2006) explain that individuals high in mindfulness have an increased capacity for objectivity, where they "…are able to observe the contents of consciousness… to dis-identify from thoughts, emotions, and body sensations as they arise" (p. 378). Through this mechanism, individuals are able to stand back and observe experiences encountered. As such, when faced with stressful situations, they do not become embedded in the experience of stress. The thoughts, emotions and bodily sensations that arise are noticed and acknowledged, however, meaning is not assigned to them. Instead, distance between themselves and the sensation is created (Glomb et al., 2011), where an understanding that the sensation will eventually pass lies (Shapiro et al., 2006). With depersonalisation, individuals also detach from experiences; however, this detachment is distancing with a lack of interest. With mindfulness, greater clarity is engendered through this distancing without disconnection. Rather than creating indifference, mindfulness allows one to immerse themselves in rich moments without clinging to the experience (Shapiro et al., 2006). Given that this decoupling is an influential mechanism of mindfulness, both Shapiro et al. (2006) and Glomb et al. (2011) arguments support that current study's findings. Those individuals who have high levels of mindfulness may be better able to decouple themselves from situations that would typically result in emotional exhaustion and/or depersonalisation.

Moderation Analyses

Empirical research demonstrates mindfulness as a moderator in relationships such as abusive supervision and self-efficacy (Zheng & Liu, 2017), stress and burnout (Mesmer-

Magnus et al., 2017; Voci et al., 2016), and emotional demands and psychological stress (Grover et al., 2017); however, the current study's results have not shown such a moderation relationship on abusive supervision and the outcomes of work engagement (hypotheses 5a, 5b and 5c) and burnout (hypotheses 6a, 6b and 6c). While the direct effects of these relationships were found to be significant, the interaction effects between abusive supervision and mindfulness on both engagement and burnout were non-significant. This suggests that levels of mindfulness did not influence the relationship between abusive supervision and engagement and burnout. Although this was the case, the results are nonetheless informative regarding mindfulness as a construct.

Rationale for these results could stem from a number of explanations. Firstly, the introduction chapter briefly discussed a phenomenon known as 'bad is stronger than good', which suggests that negative experiences have a stronger influence on individuals compared to positive experiences (Schmid et al., 2018). This is particularly true for leadership interactions – research has shown that destructive leader behaviours have a larger impact on employees than constructive leader behaviours (Fors Brandebo et al., 2019). This is due to negative events being processed more thoroughly, having greater emotional and motivational significance (Schmid et al., 2018). The current study hypothesised that mindfulness at Time 1 would buffer the effect of abusive supervision on engagement and burnout as mindfulness allows individuals to take a step back and observe events in a non-judgmental way, decoupling themselves and creating a deeper connection to the present moment. The greater cognitive flexibility that those high in mindfulness have been shown to possess was thought to allow them to respond to events in a more balanced and less reactive way (Voci et al., 2016). However, perhaps mindfulness is not strong enough to combat the 'bad' employees experience from abusive leader behaviours. As abusive supervision is considered a relatively serious form of destructive leadership, the mechanisms that mindfulness involves may not equip employees with enough of the 'good' in

order to effectively deal with and respond to abuse. Mindfulness may be more beneficial in situations where there are more positive leader behaviours involved (e.g. work engagement may be heightened when an employee is high in mindfulness and experiencing positive leader behaviours), when the mistreatment is less personal and less directed towards the employee (e.g. the leader may just be a bad leader, rather than directly abusing employees), or when the behaviours are not repeated (e.g. one-off occurrences), or overtime. Perhaps there are limits to mindfulness effectiveness in light of ongoing abuse and perhaps there are certain environmental conditions that effect whether or not it is beneficial individually.

A second explanation could surround the key mindfulness mechanism of the ability to regulate attention to become fully engaged in work-related activities. This regulation involves sustained attention, flexibility of attention and non-elaborative processing, meaning mindful individuals maintain awareness of an experience for long periods of time, shift their attention deliberately between experiences and process sensations as they arise. Energetic resources are necessary for this regulation of attention (Hülsheger et al., 2018). Job demands are the aspects of a job that require sustained physical and psychological efforts or skills, which causes individuals to use energetic resources in order to balance the demands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). To demonstrate this, prior research has found that work overload depletes energetic resources (Hülsheger et al., 2018). When individuals have a high workload, more energetic resources are needed, which may lead to a loss of self-regulatory capabilities (Ilies, Huth, Ryan, & Dimotakis, 2015). It is suggested that destructive leadership, including abusive supervision, is also a demand that depletes energetic resources of employees. If an employee is subjected to this type of demand, especially overtime, no matter how mindful they actually are, their ability to respond in mindful ways may be jeopardised due to this depletion. The more energetic resources that an employee loses, the more difficult it is for them to exert effort (Hülsheger et

al., 2018). Their willingness to invest further resources towards self-regulatory activities is compromised due to the fatigue felt in response to leadership experiences.

As such, while it is argued that mindfulness leads to a resource gain (Good et al., 2015) which was used to build the original hypothesis, the mental energy needed in order to regulate attention means that resources must be invested in order to gain benefit. Thus, if an individual has fewer resources due to abusive supervision creating a depleting environment, they are less able to invest resources into being mindful (Hülsheger et al., 2018). This may begin to explain the non-significant findings of the current study as an abused employee may be less likely to be mindful in their work due to the abuse depleting cognitive resources. They are then unable to experience the benefits of being mindful while subjected to abusive supervision.

In line with this, organisational constraints may be a contributing factor to whether an employee can engage mindfully in their work. Organisational constraints include task routineness, lack of resources and job ambiguity. These constraints lead to more experiences of stress, where more mental energy is needed in order to perform and so less resources are available to be mindful (Reb, Narayanan, & Ho, 2015). Reb et al. (2015) revealed that organisational constraints are negatively related to awareness. This may mean that when an employee is constrained by organisational variables, they do not have the resources necessary to be mindful. These employees may become preoccupied with dealing with constraints and cannot behave in accordance to their level of mindfulness.

Lastly, the current study examined mindfulness at Time 1, hypothesising that an employee's level of mindfulness would be more beneficial closer to when the abuse was occurring. As this was not the case, it could be suggested that mindfulness may be more beneficial closer to when the employee is experiencing the outcomes of abuse (i.e. at Time 2). Rather than the increased attention and awareness mindfulness brings being key immediately when experiencing abuse, this attention and awareness could provide benefit when beginning

to feel the outcomes of abuse. A more mindful individual may be able to better notice the off-balance in their physical or mental health and adjust accordingly (Glomb et al., 2011). For example, an abused employee with high mindfulness might notice they are becoming emotionally exhausted as they are better able to recognise changes in themselves (e.g. the development of a cynical attitude or extreme fatigue). They may have the ability to more easily link the off-balance to the abuse and engage in strategies to reduce those feelings of exhaustion. Additionally, mindfulness may assist in the recovery from these negative outcomes of abuse. More mindful individuals have increased acceptance tendencies toward internal experiences (Keng, Smoski, & Robins, 2011). Therefore, when beginning to feel negative outcomes of abusive supervision, these mindful individuals may be more likely to accept arising feelings and allow them to pass without further reactivity (Lindsay & Creswell, 2017).

Understanding the nature of mindfulness, and factors that inhibit its effectiveness, could be key to understanding how to improve engagement levels and reduce burnout levels among employees, for those experiencing abusive supervision and for those not experiencing abusive supervision. This warrants the need for future research examining this, including the testing of the above explanations. Particularly important to note is that mindfulness as a personal resource is not 'equal' to the depletion caused by abusive supervision, as such this is a major finding.

Practical Implications

The current study explored the impact of abusive supervision on employees' levels of work engagement and burnout overtime. The results indicated that abusive supervision plays a significant role in both work engagement and burnout levels, suggesting that employees who are subjected to abusive supervision are more likely to experience decreased work engagement and increased burnout, and this persists over time. These relationships, in a longitudinal context, highlights the long-lasting effects that abusive supervision has on employees. This

finding recognises the significance of negative leadership in employee outcomes and highlights the importance of addressing abusive behaviours exhibited by a leader. These results can help organisations understand the impact that abuse leads to and the importance of addressing such behaviours, as well as help them make organisational decisions that target abusive supervision. Reducing burnout and increasing engagement not only matters for the individual but organisations should see beneficial outcomes over the long run.

With regard to addressing abusive supervision, the current study highlights the need for intervention methods for both abusive supervisors and abused employees. Organisations need to be vigilant in recognising destructive leader behaviours as employees' tendency to speak up is low (Erickson et al., 2015). Once recognised, interventions should be put in place immediately given the detrimental effects that continue to occur overtime. However, scholars have suggested that addressing these behaviours lies in organisational processes, including zero-tolerance policies (Tepper et al., 2009), policies that counteract aggressive social norms (Mawritz et al., 2014) or trait profiling in manager selection processes (Liang et al., 2018). Organisations should keep the current study's findings in mind when considering such methods. Additionally, given the effect of such behaviours, organisation-based interventions to assist abused employees (e.g. employee assistance programmes) could be put in place in order to support these employees. It is important that the abuse is tackled from both sides to ensure abusive behaviours are not repeated and employees do not regress. A full picture of what is causing the abuse should be formed and targeted.

This research also explored whether mindfulness as a personal resource influenced the abusive supervision-to-outcomes relationship. While no statistically significant findings were revealed, it highlights the potential limitations of personal or psychological resources that employees hold in the face of abuse. While employees have been shown to be mindful, it appears that this is not strong enough to combat reduced engagement and increased burnout

when experiencing abusive supervision overtime. This shifts the focus from the resources that employees can use to mitigate bad leadership towards a clear focus on the importance of leader-appropriate behaviours. This is a significant implication for understanding what contributes to employee outcomes, as well as understanding the best ways to address abusive supervision.

Finally, the discussion has noted that emerging research examines the environments and situations in which employees are unable to be mindful and the findings here support this, as it does not serve as a buffer of abusive supervision. However, given how popular mindfulness is becoming and the significance of the direct relationships in this study, organisations may still wish to look into mindfulness-based programmes and interventions if they are hoping to increase engagement and directly reduce burnout in the workplace. If this is the case, it is suggested that organisations also consider creating work environments that can facilitate the experience of mindfulness. Beyond leadership, this could include keeping workloads to a manageable degree, encouraging breaks so employees can replenish their energetic resources and having quiet workspaces (Hülsheger et al., 2018).

Strengths of the Current Study

The sample size at both Time 1 and Time 2 adds strength to the current study. This, along with the repetition of measures, gives the study more statistical power, leading to more reliable results (Field, 2018). The sample contained a relatively even spread of males and females and covered an array of occupations across New Zealand, meaning the data collected was not necessarily from a concentrated demographic. This allows for the results to be generalised to a wider population and thus gives validity and strength to the study. Additionally, all measures used have been widely validated in the research body, adding further validity to the current study's results.

Moreover, as the responses were collected at two timepoints, the current study bridges a gap in the abusive supervision literature in respect to single-source method bias. As single-source methods reduce the validity of causal inferences (Martinko et al., 2013), the longitudinal nature of this study provides more robust findings.

It also adds to the lacking literature on the boundary conditions of mindfulness, providing evidence that there may be situations in which employees are unable to be mindful. Empirical research is needed to test this.

Limitations of the Current Study

The current study is not without its limitations. Self-report measures were used in order to obtain data, meaning the responses may have been influenced by common method bias. As such, respondents might have provided responses based on social desirability (e.g. not wanting to be too critical or portraying themselves more positively) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). While it was encouraged that respondents were honest given that they were to remain anonymous, they may not have answered in complete honesty which may have led to misleading results. Therefore, when interpreting the results, this limitation should be kept in mind. It should also be noted that self-report data is most appropriate for capturing internal psychological states and perceptual constructs (Chan, 2009) and so the use of multiple-source data collection in this study helps to alleviate this limitation.

A strength of this study is that data were collected at two timepoints, however, the time lag between the two points was only four weeks. While this lag is sufficient enough to discuss abusive supervision overtime, it may not provide a full picture of the effects that occur over larger timeframes. Further research should investigate these effects over a longer time lag, perhaps collecting data in more than two instances (although, this poses its own limitations

such as retention rates). Care should thus be taken when interpreting the results in regard to time effects.

Finally, it is noted that the daily fluctuations of abusive supervision were not considered in this study. It has been suggested that leaders abusive behaviours can fluctuate depending on factors such as sleep quality (Barnes et al., 2015), which might influence days where they may be more abusive. Respondents may have been influenced in answering depending on when they last experienced abuse by a supervisor. Future research should consider the impact of daily fluctuations on responses.

Future Research

This study has highlighted three crucial research areas that should be explored in order to improve employee outcomes at work. Firstly, it has become apparent that research has started to focus on how employees can use resources to combat abuse, however, the current findings reveal that personal resources may not be the best ammunition for this due to the depletion of cognitive energetic resources when experiencing abuse. As such, research needs to take a leader-focused approach to addressing abusive supervision, rather than placing responsibility on employees' personal resources for their reactions to abuse. An emphasis should be placed on generating resources to help mitigate 'bad' leaders and enable them to be more effective in their roles, equipping them with strategies to deal with challenges such as difficult employees or motivation tactics. Additionally, leaders' own personal resources in light of their reactions may be considered. While the current literature has mentioned training for abusive leaders (Gonzalez-Morales, Kernan, Becker, & Eisenberger, 2018), the majority of research considers bullying within organisations as a whole (i.e. not leadership focused) (Sinclair, Kernohan, Begley, Luyben, & Gillen, 2017). This calls for more research that is aimed at eliminating abusive supervision. Additionally, little research has empirically tested

the outcomes of this training in actual organisations or which factors affect the relevant outcomes (e.g. actual implementation of the training, environment to combat abuse). Future research may thus wish to consider how effective these training interventions are. As an example, researchers may wish to explore what interventions have been produced to target abusive supervision, what aspects of abuse they cover (e.g. providing support for low performers) and whether the implementation leads to lasting change within organisations.

Secondly, while literature is becoming well acquainted with mindfulness, it is seemingly lacking in regard to the boundary conditions of mindfulness. No research currently exists in examining the boundary conditions during abuse. The results of this study highlight that mindfulness may not be effective in combating abuse and as such, future research may wish to consider why this is the case. It is suggested that 'bad is stronger than good' and so one area of research can examine when mindfulness may be effective in combating abuse (e.g. is it effective when coupled with other personal or organisational resources?). Another area may wish to explore the environmental or organisational factors that allow individuals to be mindful and whether this has any impact on the ability to combat abusive supervision.

Finally, this study considered mindfulness as a buffer closer to the abuse occurring (i.e. at Time 1). Future research may wish to explore whether it has a buffering effect closer to when the outcomes of abuse are experienced (i.e. at Time 2). While there was no support for mindfulness as a moderator during the immediate experience of abuse, the increased acceptance tendencies and ability of mindful individuals to notice off-balances within themselves may mean that mindfulness could buffer the effects of abuse closer to the experience of abuse outcomes. When closer to the experience of outcomes, mindful individuals may reperceive work and abuse and orientate towards engaging at work.

Concluding Remarks

In conclusion, the current study investigated the relationship between abusive supervision, trait mindfulness, work engagement and burnout, across two timepoints. The research demonstrates that abusive supervision has a significant impact on employee outcomes, leading to decreased work engagement and increased burnout among employees. Trait mindfulness was also found to play a significantly influential role in employee outcomes, increasing levels of work engagement and decreasing levels of burnout. However, moderation analyses found that trait mindfulness does not appear to buffer employee outcomes; opening further research into understanding the boundary conditions of mindfulness in the face of abusive supervision.

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Appendix A: Information Sheet and Consent Form

Information Sheet

Research Project: How bad is bad leadership?

Thank you for showing interest in being a part of this research study, your contribution is much appreciated.

Different leadership approaches can have a large effect on employees' performance and well-being and this research project aims to identify some of these effects for both the employees and the leaders themselves. The study is being conducted by Dr Maree Roche (maree.roche@waikato.ac.nz) and Dr Anna Sutton (anna.sutton@waikato.ac.nz) in the School of Psychology at the University of Waikato, New Zealand.

This research project has been approved by the School of Psychology Research and Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Waikato. Any questions about the ethical conduct of this research may be sent to the convenor of the Research and Ethics Committee (e-mail ethics@waikato.ac.nz).

What is involved?

Should you choose to continue, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your experience of, as well as thoughts and feelings about your work. The questionnaire will take about 20-30 minutes.

This is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers: we are interested in discovering your true views, feelings and encounters in the workplace. Please be as honest as you can.

Confidentiality/ Anonymity

The data we collect does not contain any personal information about you. You do not need to provide your name. All your responses go directly to the researcher via a licensed software survey platform provided by the University of Waikato, and will not go through your organisation. Therefore, you can be assured that your responses cannot be traced back to an individual for any appraisal or other human resource decisions. Results collected are solely for research purposes.

The researchers will keep all study records, and no one else will have access to the records. At the conclusion of this study, the researcher will publish the findings in an aggregated form and your data will not be personally identifiable.

Potential risks and questions

There may be potential but minimum psychological discomfort if you recall an uncomfortable incident that happened at work. You are welcome to discontinue the study at any point, simply by closing your browser.

If you have any questions about the study either before, during or after completing this questionnaire, please contact one of the researchers, we are happy to help. (For any technical help with completing the survey, please contact Qualtrics direct). If you would like to receive a report on the study's findings, please contact either of the project leaders using their email addresses.

Summary

By proceeding with the online survey, you are agreeing that:

(1) you have read and understood this information

(2) questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily

(3) you are aware of the potential risks

(4) you are taking part in this research study voluntarily

(5) anonymised data may be shared in public research repositories.

Consent Form

School of Psychology

THE UNIVERSITY OF WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

CONSENT FORM

Research Project: How bad is bad leadership?

Please complete the following checklist. Tick (✓) the appropriate box for each point.	**YES**	**NO**
1. I have read the Participant Information Sheet and I understand it.		
2. I have been given sufficient time to consider whether or not to participate in this study		
3. I am satisfied with the answers I have been given regarding the study and I have a copy of this consent form and information sheet		
4. I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary (my choice) and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty		
5. I have the right to decline to participate in any part of the research activity		
6. I know who to contact if I have any questions about the study in general.		
7. I understand that the information supplied by me could be used in future academic publications.		

Declaration by participant:
By clicking "next", I agree to participate in this research project and I understand that I may withdraw at any time. If I have any concerns about this project, I may contact the convenor of the Psychology Research and Ethics Committee (Dr Colin McLeay, Tel: 07 837-9174, email: c.mcleay@waikato.ac.nz)

Appendix B: Questionnaire

(Note: titles of the questionnaires and references were not shown on the online questionnaire.)

Demographics

	Item	**Responses**
1	What is your age (years)?	
2	Which gender do you most identify with?	1 = Male 2 = Female 3 = Other (Please specify) 4 = Prefer not to say
3	How many direct reports do you have?	
4	Tenure in current job (years)	
5	Which industry sector are you in?	1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing 2. Mining 3. Manufacturing 4. Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services 5. Construction 6. Wholesale Trade 7. Retail Trade and Accommodation 8. Transport, Postal and Warehousing 9. Information Media and Telecommunications 10. Financial and Insurance Services 11. Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services 12. Progessional, Scientific, Technical, Administrative and Support Services 13. Public Administrative and Safety 14. Education and Training 15. Health Care and Social Assistance

		16. Arts, Recreation and Other Services
6	Have you ever undertaken any formal leadership training?	1 = Undergraduate university qualification (e.g. BA Management) 2 = Postgraduate university qualification (e.g. MBA) 3 = In-house training 4 = Formal mentorship programme 5 = Other (please specify)

Abusive Supervision

Tepper, B.J. (2000) Consequences of Abusive Supervision. AoMJ, 43(2), 178-190

Please respond to the following statements using this rating scale:

1 = I cannot remember my manager ever using this behaviour with me

2 = My manager very seldom uses this behaviour with me

3 = Occasionally uses this behaviour with me

4 = Uses this behaviour with me moderately often

5 = Uses this behaviour with me very often

My manager…

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

Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS)

Brown, K., Ryan, R., & Dovidio, John F. (2003). The Benefits of Being Present: Mindfulness and Its Role in Psychological Well-Being. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84(4), 822-848.

Please respond to the following statements using this rating scale:

1 = Almost always

2 = Very frequently

3 = Somewhat frequently

4 = Somewhat infrequently

5 = Very infrequently

6 = Almost never

1. I could be experiencing some emotion and not be conscious of it until some time later.

2. I break or spill things because of carelessness, not paying attention, or thinking of something else.

3. I find it difficult to stay focused on what's happening in the present.

4. I tend to walk quickly to get where I'm going without paying attention to what I experience along the way.

5. I tend not to notice feelings of physical tension or discomfort until they really grab my attention.

6. I forget a person's name almost as soon as I've been told it for the first time.

7. It seems I am "running on automatic," without much awareness of what I'm doing.

8. I rush through activities without being really attentive to them.

9. I get so focused on the goal I want to achieve that I lose touch with what I'm doing right now to get there.

10. I do jobs or tasks automatically, without being aware of what I'm doing.

11. I find myself listening to someone with one ear, doing something else at the same time.

12. I drive places on ‘automatic pilot’ and then wonder why I went there.

13. I find myself preoccupied with the future or the past.

14. I find myself doing things without paying attention.

15. I snack without being aware that I’m eating.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Schaufeli, W., & Bakker, A. (2003). Utrecht work engagement scale: Preliminary manual. Utrecht: Occupational Health Psychology Unit, Utrecht University.

The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, choose the "1" (one). If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by choosing the number (from 2 to 7) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

1 = Never

2 = Almost never (A few times a year or less)

3 = Rarely (Once a month or less)

4 = Sometimes (A few times a month)

5 = Often (Once a week)

6 = Very often (A few times a week)

7 = Always (Every day)

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
3. I am enthusiastic about my job
4. My job inspires me
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely
7. I am proud of the work that I do
8. I am immersed in my work
9. I get carried away when I'm working

Burnout: Abbreviated Maslach Burnout Scale

Adapted from: McManus, I. C., Jonvik, H., Richards, P., & Paice, E. (2011). Vocation and avocation: Leisure activities correlate with professional engagement, but not burnout, in a cross-sectional survey of UK doctors. BMC Medicine, 9(1), 100. https://doi.org/10.1186/1741-7015-9-100.

The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, choose the "1" (one). If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by choosing the number (from 2 to 7) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

1 = Never

2 = A few times a year

3 = Once a month or less

4 = A few times a month

5 = Once a week

6 = A few times a week

7 = Everyday

1. I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work
2. I feel I treat some people as if they were impersonal objects
3. I feel emotionally drained from my work
4. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job
5. I've become more callous towards people since I took this job
6. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work
7. Working with people all day is really a strain for me
8. I don't really care what happens to some people at work
9. I feel exhilarated after working closely with people at work