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The dark side of leader–member exchange: Observers' reactions when leaders target their teammates for abuse

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Abstract

We draw on deonance theory and social learning theory to propose a framework that explains how individual team members with varying levels of leader–member exchange (LMX) with their team leader have different emotional and behavioral responses upon observing teammate-directed abusive supervision. After employing a social relations paradigm with two-wave round-robin data collected from a sample of 378 engineers on 89 work teams, we did not find that witnessing teammate-targeted abusive supervision increased sympathy for the targeted teammates, but we did find that observers with a higher level of LMX were more likely to legitimize such abuse and less likely to sympathize with its victims. Furthermore, we found that for individuals with a higher level of LMX, perceiving leaders' abusive supervision of teammates was negatively related to providing help to those teammates through the mediating role of sympathy for the teammates.

KEYWORDS
helping, leader–member exchange, sympathy, teammate-directed abusive supervision

1 | INTRODUCTION

Across a variety of organizations, approximately 14% of employees are reported to be victims of abusive supervision (Schat et al., 2006), defined as nonphysical aggression exhibited by supervisors toward subordinates (Tepper, 2000). Abusive supervision is considered a significant social problem because companies lose approximately $24 billion annually from its direct and indirect costs, such as lost productivity, physical and mental health care costs, and damage to corporate property (Tepper, 2007). Indeed, mounting research evidence has shown that targets of abusive supervision experience injury to their well-being (Restubog et al., 2011; Tepper, 2000), self-medicate (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), engage in acts of aggression against their supervisory leaders (Dupré et al., 2006; Inness et al., 2005; Lian et al., 2014), withhold performance contributions that would benefit the organization (Harris et al., 2007; Zellars et al., 2002), and have stronger intentions to quit than their non-abused counterparts (Palanski et al., 2014; Schat et al., 2006).

The consequences of leader abuse also extend beyond the victim–perpetrator dyad. As reported by Workplace Bullying Institute (2007), the number of individuals who report observing abuse at work is three times as high as the number who report having been abused themselves. To respond to this organizational reality, scholars have attempted to understand the third parties' perspective on abusive supervision. A handful of studies have shown that observers of downward abuse tend to respond in prosocial ways to mitigate the threat or repair the damage (e.g., Coyne et al., 2019; Hershcovis et al., 2017; Priesemuth, 2013; Priesemuth & Schminke, 2019). Yet other research suggests some observers may believe that the targets are deserving of the mistreatment (Mitchell et al., 2015) and take the perpetrator's perspective (Fiori et al., 2016) when the abuse is work related (Coyne et al., 2019). Given these mixed results, important questions remain unanswered: What may affect observers' judgment of teammate-targeted leader abuse and their willingness to step in? When will observers take the side of the perpetrator and when will they stand with the victim? Prior research has identified individual

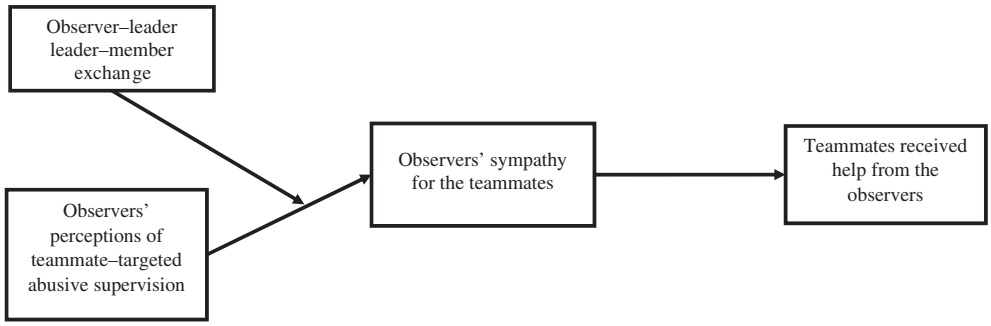

FIGURE 1 Theoretical model

characteristics of observers and their beliefs about the target of the abuse (Mitchell et al., 2015), but what about the role of the perpetrator? These gaps in the research are highly consequential considering that in the workplace, leaders—in this setting, the perpetrators of abuse—play a key role in shaping the behavioral and emotional reactions of their employees, including the observers (Yukl, 2013). Thus, it would be practically and theoretically meaningful for researchers to better understand observers' responses to teammate-targeted abusive supervision, to elucidate the potential role of the interaction between the observer and the perpetrator, and to investigate when observers tend to offer help to mitigate the damage of abusive supervision.

The primary goal of our research is to offer theoretically enriched, research-based answers that capture the influence process of leader abuse and the conditions under which observers help their targeted teammates. We offer a new explanation for this phenomenon and underscore the importance of the relationship that the observer has with the perpetrator in determining when observers decide to provide help. Specifically, we propose that leader–member exchange (LMX)—defined as the differentiated relationships leaders develop with their subordinates, which range from high-quality, mutually trusting socio-emotional relationships to low-quality, transactional relationships limited to the parties' job descriptions (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al., 1997)—acts as a boundary condition that explains how observers respond to teammate-directed abusive supervision. We invoke deonance theory (Folger, 2001) to explain when observers might have sympathetic concerns for the victims and provide help to reduce victims' pain, and we refer to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) to highlight the critical role of the observers' perceptions of and relationships with their leaders. We theorize that an actor's perceptions of abusive supervision of a teammate may evoke positive responses to the teammate that manifest first in sympathy and then in helping behavior, depending on the quality of the observer–leader LMX relationship. We argue that when the LMX is higher, the observers are more likely to side with the leaders and less likely to show sympathy and offer help to the targeted teammates; conversely, when the LMX is lower, the observers are more likely to take the targets' perspective, sympathize with them, and act to reduce their suffering. Figure 1 depicts our overall theoretical model.

Our work makes several contributions to the study of abusive supervision, LMX, and work teams. First, our research links and advances the two streams of scholarship on third parties' perspectives on abusive supervision and LMX in teams by showing how LMX influences whether observers of abusive supervision sympathize with and help their abused teammates. To date, research on observations of abusive supervision has generally neglected the importance of the transgressor and the role that the observer's relationship with the transgressor plays in observer responses. Likewise, only a handful of studies have focused on the downsides of LMX; they suggest that abusive behaviors by leaders evoke generally deviant behaviors among employees (Lian et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2015). However, scant attention has been paid to the team-based contexts in which a strong actor–leader relationship could exacerbate the injurious effects of teammate-directed abusive supervision on the actor–teammate dyad's relationship. Connecting these two bodies of literature broadens our knowledge of the boundary conditions under which observers help teammates who are targets of leader abuse.

Second, our research breaks away from the traditional focus on how individuals' observations of abusive supervision affect their general reactions in teams. In the past, to measure observations of leaders' abuse of coworkers, researchers have typically asked participants either to choose one coworker or to think about leader abuse of coworkers in general (Harris et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2020); they have not addressed how individual team members' observations of leaders' abuse of each individual teammate influenced their interactions with that target. This gap is critical because work teams generally feature frequent interactions among members (J. Mathieu et al., 2017), and each observer's responses to the targeted teammates ultimately influence the overall outcomes achieved by the team (Kenny, 1994; J. E. Mathieu et al., 2008). By taking a social relations approach (Back & Kenny, 2010), our research offers a precise conceptual and empirical account of how a team leader's abusive behavior toward specific team members affects intra-team interactions.

Third, our theorizing and empirical work extend efforts to apply social learning and deonance theories to explain observers' emotional and behavioral responses to observed abusive supervision. Although scholars have often explained responses to abusive supervision by invoking social learning theory (Liu et al., 2012; Mawritz et al., 2012; Tu et al., 2018), those studies have emphasized instances in which observers and targets follow in the footsteps of the abusive supervisors, by adopting their behaviors in their own relationships. They do not account for the other important possibility: that the observers learn *not to* follow the behaviors of negative role models. Integrating social learning theory with deonance theory, we stress the importance

of observer–leader LMX as a boundary condition and of observers' sympathy for the targeted teammates as a key emotional response that translates observing the abuse into helping the victims. In doing so, we offer a richer application of social learning theory and deonance theory that more fully leverages their fundamental tenets.

Finally, from a practical standpoint, we provide valuable insights into why and when observers decide to help relieve their teammates' suffering from leader abuse. Our research highlights the potential dangers of high LMX, allows organizations to understand the wider influences of abusive supervision on interpersonal relationships in teams, and encourages them to design interventions to reduce the negative influences of abusive supervision.

2 | THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 | Sympathy and helping as observers' emotional and behavioral responses to targets of leader abuse

The bulk of the literature on third-party mistreatment has found that observers tend to demonstrate pro-victim responses such as anger, support, or help for the victims (Coyne et al., 2019; Hershcovis et al., 2017; Priesemuth, 2013; Priesemuth & Schminke, 2019). Deonance theory provides a suitable explanation for these responses. The Greek word *deon* can be translated as "obligation or duty." According to deonance theory, observing another person's receipt of abuse generates third parties' sense of obligation to act in accordance with what they believe is right and just (Folger, 2001). Abusive supervision behaviors include public ridicule, inappropriate blame, and rudeness toward followers (Tepper, 2000). Targets of abusive supervision tend to feel emotional distress and to perform counterproductive acts that undermine organization and team functioning (e.g., Mackey et al., 2017; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2001). Abusive supervision is generally seen as a dysfunctional, unjust behavior that harms the targets (Mackey et al., 2017). Thus, observers tend to perceive leaders' abuse of teammates as a breach of justice, which motivates them to reset the scope of justice by helping their targeted teammates (Mitchell et al., 2015; Opotow, 1990).

A key tenet of deonance theory is that observing abuse creates a deontic motivation as third parties experience the emotional suffering of the victims (Folger, 2001). That is, observers' prosocial responses to victims are triggered by their emotional feelings for them. People tend to step out to provide aid when they experience the psychological pain of the targets of leader abuse and have a deontic motive to reduce the stress they feel (Coyne et al., 2019). This other-oriented, emotional feeling is often described as sympathy, "an emotional response stemming from another's emotional state or condition that is not identical to the other's emotion, but consists of feelings of sorrow or concern for another's welfare" (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987, p. 92). We contend that when witnessing other teammates being ridiculed, belittled, and yelled at by their leaders, observers are likely to put themselves in the position of the targets, which then engenders sympathy for them.

Sympathy has often been seen as a key driver of helping actions toward victims, because when people feel sympathy for another's suffering, they are motivated to help the sufferer (Underwood & Moore, 1982). According to deonance theory, when observers perceive certain actions as violations of interpersonal justice, they will react in altruistic ways that are consistent with their feelings for the victims (Folger, 2001; Folger & Skarlicki, 2005; Mitchell et al., 2015). Sympathy allows observers to vicariously feel how leader abuse jeopardizes the victims' well-being and motivates them to prompt action to alleviate victims' pain. This sympathy–helping relationship has been repeatedly supported in the social psychology literature (Batson, 1981, 1983; Carlo et al., 2007; Eisenberg et al., 1989; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987; Hoffman, 1981; Lennon & Eisenberg, 1987; Leung et al., 1993; Toi & Batson, 1982).

Taken together, we argue that observers' sympathy for the targeted teammates can be a bridge between their observations of leader abuse and their helping behavior toward the teammates. To reflect actual helping actions and avoid inflated self-ratings of help, we focus on help *received*, as reported by the targeted teammate (Podsakoff et al., 2013). Specifically, we hypothesize the following:

> **Hypothesis 1.** *Observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision are positively related to teammates' received help from the observers through the observers' sympathy for the teammates.*

2.2 | LMX as a boundary condition of observers' responses to targets of leader abuse

Observers' sympathetic and prosocial responses to observed leader abuse are often assumed to occur because the observers see the abusive supervision as unjust. However, this assumption may not always hold (Tepper et al., 2017). Indeed, evidence suggests that not all observers feel the pain of the victims and are willing to provide help (Harris et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2015; Rand et al., 2012; Skarlicki & Kulik, 2005). Deonance theory has pointed out that observers of abuse may not always respond in altruistic ways; their actual behavior depends on whether the observers perceive others' actions as violations of norms and justice rules (Coyne et al., 2019; Folger, 2001; Folger & Skarlicki, 2005). Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) explicitly accounts for the idea that observers tend to respect and normalize the behavior of credible and trustworthy models and refuse to follow the behavior of less credible and trustworthy models. Thus, observers are likely to help victims when they consider the abusive supervisor to be a negative role model threatening the moral norms of interpersonal conduct, but may feel indifferent toward the victims if they

interpret leaders' actions as normative and legitimate (Bandura, 1977). Research on developmental psychology has shown that after witnessing community violence, children display increased aggression if they perceive negative models as attractive and influential, whereas they help the victims if they believe that the bullying was inappropriate (Bandura, 1978; Cowie & Olafsson, 2000; Guerra et al., 2003; Huesmann & Guerra, 1997).

Applying these theoretical logics to our research, we posit that LMX is a key factor shaping observers' judgments. Observers who have high-LMX relationships with team leaders are more likely to accept and legitimize those leaders' teammate-directed abusive supervision and to offer less sympathy and help to the teammates. Conversely, observers with low-LMX relationships are more likely to disapprove of the abuse and to offer help to the teammates through increased sympathy.

2.2.1 | Legitimacy and normalcy of leader abuse

Social learning theory suggests that the attractiveness of models determines whether observers accept their behavior. As Bandura (1977, p. 24) puts it, "Models who possess engaging qualities are sought out, while those lacking pleasing characteristics are generally ignored or rejected." Evidence suggests that individuals in high-LMX relationships have greater affection for and identification with their leaders and are more likely to regard those leaders as role models (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997). High-LMX observers therefore tend to be psychologically close to their leaders and to identify with them (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In turn, this strong identification and acceptance of the leaders' behaviors make those observers more likely to be emotionally indifferent to the injuries suffered by their abused teammates. Contributions to the social psychology literature invoke a similar rationale to explain why some people stand by perpetrators and express little sympathy for their victims (Bar-On, 2001).

These ideas are also consistent with deonance theory's emphasis on the evaluation of certain actions as normative versus norm-violating. Individuals tend to perceive the behavior of well-regarded others as approved by the culture and normatively acceptable (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Reno et al., 1993). When LMX is high, team members trust and respect the team leader's judgment and actions and tend to believe the abuse is the targeted teammate's fault, or even perceive the victims as not suffering (Samnani, 2013). It is conceivable that high-LMX employees might perceive teammate-directed abusive supervision as "tough love" (i.e., justifiable use of hostility with direct reports; Tepper et al., 2017) or as deserved (e.g., the target behaved in ways that warrant hostile responses; Priesemuth & Schminke, 2019). According to research on opinion leadership, people are more likely to be persuaded by and to legitimize the behavior of credible others in their social world (Rogers, 1995). High-LMX observers are therefore more likely to justify leaders' supervisory abuse as morally appropriate and to show low sympathy for the targeted teammates.

2.2.2 | Resources and personal benefits

Social learning theory also posits that the decision to embrace or reject modeled behavior is, to a large extent, driven by the functional value of that behavior (Bandura, 1977). High-LMX relationships can be advantageous for direct reports because they are associated with high levels of influence over decisions (Liden et al., 1997), access to valuable sources of social capital (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005), and career success (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). One way team members can express upward support is by showing antipathy to a leader's victims. We would therefore expect high-LMX team members who receive more tangible and intangible resources from their leaders (Liden et al., 1997) to more strongly support their leaders' behavior and offer less sympathy and help to teammates abused by the leader. Similarly, deonance theory (Folger, 2001) considers observers' egoistic ("me first and only") and altruistic ("you first and only") desires as influences on their responses to a supervisor's abuse of a teammate. Because of the valuable resources gained through high-LMX relationships, observers are more likely to care about their own benefits and side with their leaders to protect their own interests. Conversely, when their LMX level is low, they do not have such extra resources available to them and, therefore, face less personal costs in helping the victims. As a result, their sympathetic concern for the victims is activated.

2.2.3 | Obligation and loyalty

Social learning theory claims that individuals show loyalty and commitment to desirable role models (Bandura, 1977). High-LMX team members eschew attitudes and behaviors that could be construed as "disloyalty" (Liden et al., 1997), and recognize that expressions of sorrow, sympathy, or concern for targets reflect implicit condemnation of the abusive leaders. In consequence, high-LMX team members may feel obligated to withhold expressions of concern for their teammates targeted by abusive supervisors. By comparison, low-LMX team members face fewer impediments to sympathizing with their abused teammates. They are less likely to identify with their leaders' abusive behavior and more likely to appreciate the downsides of that behavior for individual well-being.

Deonance theory also emphasizes the evaluation of the appropriateness of behaving in certain ways as an obligation (Folger, 2001). Observers have a moral obligation to stand by what they believe is fair (Mitchell et al., 2015). In our setting, LMX helps shape observers' sense of obligation in their interpersonal conduct. People with established, high-quality LMX form a clear idea of their obligations for meeting leaders' expectations in regard to their behavior (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). They also know to focus more on high-quality interactions with their leaders than on interactions with their teammates. When witnessing teammate-targeted leader abuse, such observers are less likely to support the "enemies" of a "friend." In essence,

observers who have high-LMX relationships with their team leaders (i.e., perceive the leader as a friend) are be more likely to consider the leaders' actions just and less likely to feel sympathy for the teammates toward whom the leader shows antagonism (the leaders' "enemies"). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

> **Hypothesis 2.** *Observer–leader LMX moderates the relationship between observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision and their sympathy for the teammates, such that the relationship is weaker when observer–leader LMX is higher than when it is lower.*

Integrating the effect of LMX on the relationship between abusive supervision and observer sympathy (Hypothesis 2) with the indirect link between observations of leader abuse and helping through sympathy (Hypothesis 1), we contend that LMX moderates the way abusive supervision is indirectly related to helping the targets of abuse through sympathy. Individuals in high-quality LMX relationships are more inclined to trust, respect, and endorse their leaders' behaviors and to learn from their leaders, including adopting similar attitudes toward targets. Observers will deny their connections with the targets and thus legitimize their leaders' behaviors by showing indifference and unwillingness to help the targets. By contrast, low LMX makes employees perceive their relationships with their leaders as merely transactional and feel less obligated to ingratiate themselves with those leaders (Pearson et al., 2000). They are thus more likely to sympathize with the mistreated target. In agreement with research on sympathy, when individuals see their targeted teammates as unfortunate victims rather than deserving recipients of abuse, they will make efforts to alleviate the victims' plight by helping them (Crossley, 2009; Escalas & Stern, 2003; Wispé, 1986).

As described earlier, because the leader has the most social power in the observer–leader–victim triad, observers will place more value on their relationships with the leader than on their relationships with or perceptions of the victim. Thus, even when they have good relationships with targeted teammates or see them as valuable task contributors, observers with high-LMX relationships will stand with their leaders, offering little sympathy or help to the victimized teammates. By contrast, low-LMX observers are less likely to perceive team leaders as role models, and more likely to feel their abuse is morally inappropriate and to develop a deontic motivation to sympathize with the targeted teammates and help relieve their pain. We state this formally as follows:

> **Hypothesis 3.** *Observer–leader LMX moderates the indirect relationship of observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision and teammates' received help from the observers through the observers' sympathy, such that the relationship is weaker when observer–leader LMX is higher than when it is lower.*

3 | METHOD

3.1 | Sample and procedure

Our sample consisted of full-time technicians and engineers who work in teams for a large Sino-German joint venture that produces prefabricated substations in northern China. The teamwork itself ranges from electric product manufacturing to metal processing to quality control, and team members work interdependently in a common physical environment, supervised by a common team leader. Our data were collected at two time points a month apart.

At Time 1, all 622 members of the organization's 122 teams were invited to participate in the study. The Time 1 survey asked them to provide demographic information (age, gender, tenure with the organization and with the team), to report their LMX relationship with the team leader, and to complete several measures of abusive supervision. Consistent with the social relations paradigm, we assessed abusive supervision using a round-robin design (Joshi & Knight, 2015; Kenny, 1994) in which each participant reported their leaders' abusive supervision of themselves and of each of their teammates. Within each team, all members were provided with a roster of their teammates and then rated their observations of each teammate (cf. Joshi & Knight, 2015). This design allowed us to model the precise dyadic relationships among team members nested in different teams and thus to truly examine the observer effects regarding abusive supervision. Completed Time 1 surveys were received from 472 employees representing 93 teams. At Time 2, one month later, we again used a round-robin design to assess the proposed mediator (sympathy for the individual teammate) and distal outcome (teammate-directed helping behavior). Time 2 surveys were completed by 411 individuals from 89 teams. We obtained 1451 dyadic-level complete observations for all variables included in the model. The final sample consisted of 378 observers (who participated in the surveys) and 400 targets (rated by the participants) from 89 teams, with a total of 1451 social relations ratings. Team sizes ranged from 2 to 13, with an average of 6.5 members. Seventy-five percent of the employees were men, the participants' average age was about 26 years, tenure with the organization averaged 20.39 months, and tenure with the team averaged 10.35 months. The sample was highly educated: 99% of the participants had earned at least an associate's degree.

3.2 | Measures

Because the original scales were all developed in English, all scales underwent a translation/back-translation process, as suggested by Brislin (1986).

3.2.1 | Observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision

At Time 1, team members reported their observations of abusive supervision directed at each teammate. We adapted Mitchell and

Ambrose's (2007) five-item measure of abusive supervision to capture the team leader's behavior toward each participant's teammates. Participants were asked to think about how often their team leader engaged in each of the listed behaviors against a teammate based on their daily observations in their work teams. An example item is "Our team leader puts this teammate down in front of others." The response scale ranged from 1 = "The team leader never treats this teammate like this" to 5 = "Our team leader treats this teammate like this very frequently" ($\alpha = 0.95$).

3.2.2 | Observer–leader LMX

Also at Time 1, each team member reported their LMX with the team leader using Scandura and Graen's (1984) seven-item scale. An example item is "My working relationship with my immediate supervisor/leader is very effective" (1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree"; $\alpha = 0.85$).

3.2.3 | Observers' sympathy for the teammates

At Time 2, team members provided ratings of the extent to which they had sympathy toward each of their teammates using three items adapted from Goldberg's (1999) sympathy measure. The items were "I am deeply moved by this teammate's misfortunes"; "I am concerned about this teammate"; and "I feel sympathy for this teammate" (1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"; $\alpha = 0.93$).

3.2.4 | Teammates' received help from the observers

At Time 2, team members reported the extent to which they received help from each of their teammates with the three items with the highest factor loadings from Settoon and Mossholder's (2002) scale of person-focused interpersonal citizenship behavior. The items were "This teammate takes time to listen to my problems and worries"; "This teammate listens to me when I have to get something off my chest"; and "This teammate takes a personal interest in me" (1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"; $\alpha = 0.92$).

3.2.5 | Control variables

We controlled for the effects of several theoretically relevant variables. First, we controlled for individual members' own abusive supervision, as it may directly how individual members perceive and behave toward their coworkers (Tepper, 2007). Employees' own abusive supervision was measured with Tepper's (2000) 15-item scale (e.g., "My supervisor tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid"; $\alpha = 0.91$). Employee gender was also treated as a control variable, as prior research has shown that women tend to be more empathetic than men (Toussaint & Webb, 2005). We controlled for age and education due to prior evidence suggesting that individuals' sympathy levels might vary by age (Eysenck et al., 1985) or education (Kataoka et al., 2009). In addition, we controlled for tenure with the organization and with their leader, as these factors have been associated with abusive supervision in prior studies (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

Because evidence has shown that how individuals perceive their targeted teammates may influence their responses to teammates' received abuse from leaders (Mitchell et al., 2012), we controlled for individuals' friendship ties with their teammates and their perceptions of the task contributions made by their teammates. Each participant rated their friendship ties with each teammate ("To what extent do you consider this person to be a friend with whom you are willing to spend time socially outside work?") and each teammate's task contributions ("To what extent does this person makes valuable work-related contributions to your team?"). Both items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "almost never" to 5 = "almost always").

3.3 | Analysis

Our study design was multilevel in nature, consisting of round-robin data nested within teams. To analyze the data, we used the social relations model (Kenny, 1994), an analytical framework designed to study how people in teams perceive and react to every other team member (Kenny et al., 2006). Application of this model involves decomposing the variances of each round-robin construct into its component parts (Snijders & Kenny, 1999). In our study, these variances may be attributed to the team, the observer, the teammate/partner, and the dyad. Although our model was tested at the dyadic level, using the social relations model allowed us to separate the variance components into individual (observer and partner), dyadic (relationship), and team levels. Team variance refers to the tendency of members in one team to rate one another in a more similar way than they rate members of other teams. Observer variance captures the tendency for an observer to rate all other teammates in a similar fashion (e.g., some observers may be generally more empathetic toward other teammates). Teammate/partner variance reflects a team member's tendency to receive similar ratings from all other observers (e.g., some team members may generally receive more help than other team members). Dyadic variance refers to the idiosyncratic relationship between particular observers and particular teammates (e.g., an observer may perceive and behave differently depending on the teammate with whom he/she interacts).

In prior research, Kenny (1994) used two different types of reciprocity to reflect the nature of the interpersonal process in teams (cf. Joshi & Knight, 2015). First, generalized reciprocity refers to the extent to which observers who show sympathy or offer help to others also tend to receive sympathy or help from others (Joshi & Knight, 2015; Kenny, 1994). This measure captures the general tendency that when A, as an observer, shows sympathy to other targets (e.g., B, C, D, and E), A may receive sympathy from other targets, too. Second, dyadic reciprocity captures the extent to which reciprocal

sympathy or help occurs within a given dyad of teammates (Kenny, 1994). For example, if A uniquely sends sympathy to B, dyadic reciprocity will capture the extent to which A receives sympathy uniquely from B, and not from C, D, or E. These concepts, in conjunction with the social relations model, are useful and appropriate in our context because they allow us to examine our hypotheses free from the effects of variance that are irrelevant to our analysis.

We estimated the social relations model (SRM) model using hierarchical linear modeling with the R nlme package (Joshi & Knight, 2015; Pinheiro et al., 2018; Snijders & Kenny, 1999; Tse et al., 2013) and codes provided by Knight and Humphrey (2019). The multilevel SRM approach has several advantages over the ANOVA-based SRM approach, owing to its better accommodations for missing data and the inclusion of covariates (Snijders & Kenny, 1999). More specifically, the multilevel model gives a more holistic test of SRM by simultaneously specifying random effects for the team, the actor/observer, the partner/teammate, the dyad, generalized reciprocity, and dyadic reciprocity, as well as fixed effects for the substantive predictors (Knight & Humphrey, 2019). In our analyses, Hypotheses 2 and 3 constituted the first-stage moderation models (Edwards & Lambert, 2007), in which observer LMX with the team leader moderates the links between abusive supervision and sympathy and, in turn, predicts help. Because conditional indirect effects are not normally distributed, we used Selig and Preacher's (2008) Monte Carlo bootstrapping method to estimate Monte Carlo confidence intervals for the indirect effects.

4 | RESULTS

4.1 | Variance decomposition

Prior to testing the hypotheses, we first examined the variance components (i.e., actor/observer, partner/teammate, dyad; Snijders & Kenny, 1999) for sympathy and helping behaviors. Table 1 shows the results of the variance decomposition. The dyad-level component was quite sizable for both sympathy (10.22%) and helping behavior (26.47%). The individual-level component also explained a significant amount of variance in sympathy (observer = 58.60%, teammate = 2.15%) and helping behavior (observer = 4.50%, teammate = 55.05%).

4.2 | Hypothesis testing

Table 2 summarizes the descriptive statistics and correlations among the study variables. Hypothesis 1 suggests that observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision are positively related to teammates' received help from the observers through the observers' sympathy for the teammates. In our data, as shown in Model 1 in Table 3, the effect of observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision on observers' sympathy for the teammates was not significant ($B = -0.04$, SE = 0.04, $t = -1.21$, $p = 0.23$). In contrast, the effect of observers' sympathy for the teammates on teammates' received help from the observers was significantly positive ($B = 0.11$, SE = 0.03, $t = 4.12$, $p < 0.01$). We also calculated the Monte Carlo bootstrapped confidence interval for the mediation effect. The indirect effect was negative but not significant ($B = -0.00$, 95% Monte Carlo CI: [−0.014, 0.003], including zero). Therefore, we failed to find support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 proposes that observer–leader LMX moderates the relationship between observers' perceptions of abusive supervision toward teammates and observers' sympathy for those teammates.[1] As shown in Model 2 in Table 3, after controlling for abusive supervision toward the observer; the observer's gender, age, organizational tenure, dyadic tenure, perception of the teammate's task contributions, and friendship with the teammate; and the main effects of observed abusive supervision and LMX, the interaction of observer-perceived leader abusive supervision and LMX was significantly and positively related to observer sympathy for the teammate ($B = -0.09$, SE = 0.04, $t = -2.64$, $p < 0.05$).

To determine whether the form of the interactive effects was consistent with our predictions, we calculated and plotted simple slopes representing the relationship between observer-perceived abusive supervision toward the teammate and observer sympathy for the teammate at high (+1 SD) and low (−1 SD) levels of LMX. As shown in Figure 2, the relationship between observer-perceived abusive supervision toward the teammate and observer sympathy for the teammate was significantly negative when LMX was higher ($B = -0.16$, $p < 0.05$) and was positive but insignificant when LMX was lower ($B = 0.02$, $p = 0.71$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 3 proposes that observer–leader LMX moderates the indirect relationship between observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision and teammates' received help from the observers through the observers' sympathy. As reported earlier, the first-stage interaction between LMX and observer-perceived abusive supervision toward a teammate was significantly related to observer sympathy. The bootstrap results showed that the indirect relationships between an observer's perception of abusive supervision toward a teammate and helping of that teammate through sympathy toward the teammate was significantly negative when LMX was higher ($B = -0.02$, 95% Monte Carlo CI: [−0.031, −0.005], excluding zero) and was positive but not significant when LMX was lower ($B = 0.00$, 95% Monte Carlo CI: [−0.008, 0.012], including zero). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.[2]

In summary, we failed to find support for the mediation effect in which observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision are positively related to teammates' received help from the observers through the observers' sympathy for the teammates. However, our results endorsed the moderating role of LMX in observer-perceived abusive supervision toward a teammate and observer behavioral responses to the teammate. Specifically, we found that only when the observer had a high-quality LMX relationship with a team leader, observer-perceived leader abuse toward a teammate was

TABLE 1 Social relations model variance decomposition results

	Observers' sympathy for the teammates		Teammates received help from the observers	
Source of variance	Variance/covariance	Percent/correlation	Variance/covariance	Percent/correlation
Team	0.32	29.03	0.17	14.00
Observer	0.65	58.60	0.05	4.50
Teammate	0.02	2.15	0.66	55.05
Dyad	0.11	10.22	0.32	26.47
Generalized reciprocity	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.11
Dyadic reciprocity	0.01	0.09	0.07	0.21

Note: $N = 1451$ ratings, 378 individuals, 89 groups. Team variance refers to the tendency that members in one team to rate each other in a more similar way than members in other teams. Observer variance captures the tendency for an observer to rate all other teammates in a similar fashion (e.g., some observers may be generally more empathetic toward other teammates). Teammate/Partner variance reflects a team member's tendency to receive similar ratings from all other observers (e.g., some team members may generally receive more help than other team members). Dyadic variance refers to the idiosyncratic relationship between particular observers and particular teammates (e.g., an observer may perceive and behave differently depending on the teammate with whom he/she interacts). Generalize reciprocity refers to the extent to which observers who show sympathy or offer help to others also tend receive sympathy or help from others (Joshi & Knight, 2015; Kenny, 1994). Dyadic reciprocity captures the extent to which a reciprocal sympathy or help occurs within a given dyad of team members (Kenny, 1994).

TABLE 2 Summary of descriptive statistics and Intercorrelations among study variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender												
2. Age	0.15**											
3. Education	0.29**	0.05										
4. Dyadic tenure	−0.07**	0.28**	−0.11**									
5. Organization tenure	0.12**	0.41**	−0.04	0.55**								
6. Observer own AS (T1)	−0.19**	0.03	−0.19**	0.11**	−0.02	*0.91*						
7. Observer friendship tie with a teammate (T1)	0.06*	−0.04	0.15**	−0.06*	0.06*	−0.15**						
8. Observer perceived TC of a teammate (T1)	0.07**	0.02	0.11**	−0.08**	0.02	−0.17**	0.37**					
9. Observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted AS (T1)	−0.08**	0.04	−0.24**	0.01	−0.10**	0.47**	−0.10**	−0.18**	*0.95*			
10. Observer–leader LMX (T1)	−0.01	0.09**	−0.02	0.05*	0.14**	−0.47**	0.23**	0.32**	−0.27**	0.85		
11. Observers' sympathy for the teammates (T2)	0.19**	0.17**	0.21**	−0.01	0.07*	−0.20**	0.29**	0.26**	−0.14**	0.15**	0.93	
12. Teammates received help from the observers (T2)	0.16**	0.05*	0.18**	0.01	0.10**	−0.12**	0.22**	0.15**	−0.07**	0.09**	0.23**	0.92
Mean	1.22	25.35	2.46	10.32	19.44	1.51	3.67	4.03	1.39	5.18	4.01	3.5
SD	0.42	6.35	0.52	9.12	19.78	0.60	1.22	0.97	0.71	0.95	0.91	1.1

Note: $N = 1451$ ratings, 378 individuals, 89 groups. *M* and SD are used to represent mean and SD, respectively. Scale reliabilities are provided on the diagonals in italics. Gender was measured as 1 = male and 2 = female. Age was measured in years. Education was measured as 1 = high school or below; 2 = bachelor's degree; 3 = graduate degrees. Dyadic tenure and organization tenure were both measured in months.
Abbreviations: AS, abusive supervision; TC, task contribution; LMX, leader–member exchange.
*p <.05, **p <.01.

significantly and negatively related to observer sympathy toward the teammate. In addition, the indirect relationship between observer-perceived abusive supervision toward a teammate and observer offered help toward the teammate through observer sympathy was significantly negative when observer–leader LMX was higher. However, this indirect relationship was not significant when observer–leader LMX was lower.

5 | DISCUSSION

In this study, we developed and tested a theoretical social relations model that describes the psychological and social interactions of observers dealing with teammates who are targets of abusive supervision in terms of the influence of LMX relationships. Specifically, we conducted a round-robin field study involving 1451 dyadic ratings

TABLE 3 Summary of the multiple regression results

	Observers' sympathy for the teammates				Teammates received help from the observers			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Fixed effects	***B***	**SE**	***B***	**SE**	***B***	**SE**	***B***	**SE**
Intercept	2.02**	0.31	2.01**	0.31	2.75**	0.26	2.75**	0.26
Age	0.02**	0.01	0.02**	0.01	−0.00	0.00	−0.00	0.00
Gender	0.12	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.06
Education	0.30*	0.08	0.30**	0.08	0.12	0.07	0.11	0.07
Dyadic tenure	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Organizational tenure	−0.00	0.00	−0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Observer own AS experience	−0.16	0.08	−0.17**	0.09	−0.01	0.05	−0.01	0.05
Observer friendship tie with a teammate	0.11**	0.01	0.12**	0.01	0.11**	0.02	0.11**	0.02
Observer perceived task contribution of a teammate	0.09**	0.02	0.09**	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02
Observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted AS	−0.04	0.04	−0.07	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.04
Observer–leader LMX	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.05	−0.03	0.03	−0.03	0.03
Observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted AS * Observer–leader LMX			−0.09**	0.04			−0.01	0.03
Observers' sympathy for the teammates					0.11**	0.03	0.11**	0.03
	Variance/ covariance	Percent/ correlation	Variance/ covariance	Percent/ correlation	Variance/ covariance	Percent/ correlation	Variance/ covariance	Percent/ correlation
Group	0.00	0.01	0.01	1.52	0.10	8.98	0.10	8.96
Actor	0.58	81.82	0.59	81.36	0.06	5.23	0.06	5.24
Partner	0.01	1.97	0.01	1.57	0.65	58.60	0.65	58.60
Dyad	0.11	16.20	0.11	15.543	0.30	27.19	0.30	27.21
Generalized reciprocity	0.02	0.22	0.02	0.22	−0.03	−0.14	−0.03	−0.14
Dyadic reciprocity	0.00	0.03	−0.01	−0.08	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02
LogLikelihood	−1107.06		−1105.99		−1730.17		−1732.62	
AIC	2248.11		2247.99		3496.33		3503.24	
BIC	2337.75		2342.88		3591.22		3603.39	

Note: $N = 1451$ ratings, 378 individuals, 89 groups.

Abbreviations: AIC, akaike information criterion; AS, abusive supervision; B, Beta; BIC, Bayesian information criterion; LMX, leader–member exchange.

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$.

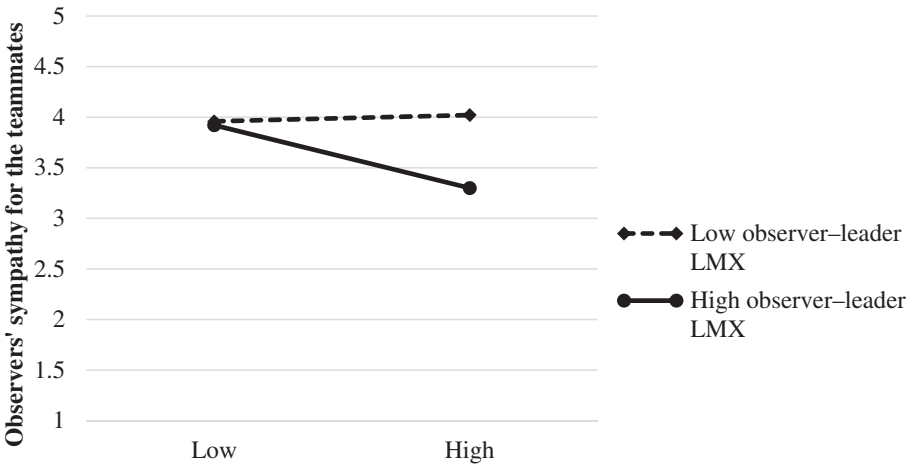

FIGURE 2 The moderating effect of observer–leader leader–member exchange (LMX) in the relationship between observers' perceptions of teammate-targeted abusive supervision and observers' sympathy for the teammates

from 378 observers and 400 targets in 89 teams. We did not find that observers of leader abuse showed sympathy for the targeted teammates, but we did find that individuals who had good LMX relationships with an abusive team leader tended not to offer sympathy or help. Our research is among the first to use the social relations paradigm to assess our framework and strengthen the validity of our conclusions. Our findings contribute to the literature on LMX, abusive supervision, and interpersonal relationships among team leaders and their followers.

5.1 | Theoretical contributions

Our primary contribution lies in the identification of LMX, which captures the observer–perpetrator relationship, as an important boundary condition on when observers respond altruistically to teammates targeted by leader abuse. Hundreds of studies have been conducted on the consequences of abusive supervision for the targeted employees (Tepper et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019). In keeping with epidemiological evidence that more people observe abusive supervision than are targets of it (Workplace Bullying Institute, 2007), our work adds to a small body of research on the reactions of observers to abusive supervision of their teammates. In developing our theoretical framework, we integrated deonance and social learning theories to show that observers' responses to the targeted teammates depend on the extent to which they legitimize and normalize their leaders' abusive behaviors.

We did not find support for a mediation relationship between observation of leader abuse and observers' helping through sympathy. A closer look at this issue indicates that the lack of support for the mediation hypothesis was mainly due to the first part of the mediation, which suggests that observers do not generally feel sympathy for victims. A possible reason for this finding might be that our study relied on a sample of engineers, who usually have a problem-focused mindset and may see abusive supervision as a sign of performance shortcomings (Tepper et al., 2017). It is also likely that observing leader abuse might inspire other feelings toward the victims, such as anger, contentment (Mitchell et al., 2015), or ambivalence (Coyne et al., 2019), which in turn drive observers' reactions. Having said that, our results do not indicate that sympathy is not an important emotional outcome of observed leader abuse. In fact, we found support for the positive influence of sympathy on observers' helping behaviors toward targeted teammates. Sympathy can be weakened by knowing whether the abuse is acceptable or justifiable (Coyne et al., 2019; Harth et al., 2008; Lerner, 1980; Leung et al., 1993). Our finding that LMX quality determines observers' judgments of leader abuse and levels of sympathy toward its victims lends credence to this perspective and provides new insights into the conditions under which individuals experience sympathy.

Building on abusive supervision research that takes observers' perspectives into account (Mitchell et al., 2015), we rigorously analyzed LMX for its influences on how observers react, emotionally and behaviorally, to the targets of leader abuse. We considered several alternative explanations, including the observers' relationships with and perceptions of the targets. We showed that beyond observers' relationships with, attributions to, and perceptions of targeted teammates, a higher level of LMX most strongly causes observers to accept and normalize leader abuse. Taken as a whole, our findings suggest that observers of teammate-directed abusive supervision do not always "pile on." Under some circumstances—specifically, when LMX with the team leader is lower—observers assume a more benign posture, declining to comply with the abusive team leader. That is, there is a positive but not significant relationship between observation of leader abuse and offers of sympathy and help for the abused teammate. More broadly, however, our findings reinforce the general takeaway of virtually all research into abusive supervision—namely, that it does not always lead to negative outcomes, but it rarely has positive outcomes (Tepper et al., 2017). Indeed, our research offers an addendum to that perspective: In the team context, an additional negative consequence of abusive supervision is inspiring animus toward the abused teammates.

The evidence of moderating effects from our study should also be considered in light of prior studies of the role that LMX plays in the way abusive supervision affects targeted employees. Scholars have found that LMX (Lian et al., 2012), and supportive leadership behaviors in general (Duffy et al., 2002), exacerbate the injurious effects of abusive supervision. These findings have been interpreted to mean that leaders who toggle between hostility and supportiveness evoke greater uncertainty and exhaustion in their direct reports than do abusive leaders who offer no supportive behavior. In other words, inconsistency on the part of abusive leaders is more damaging than is consistent abusiveness.

It is also important to note that these studies stand in contrast to the hegemonic position that outcomes generally become better as LMX increases (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Our findings augment this body of work by identifying an additional downside of high LMX: Individuals who have high-LMX relationships with team leaders will find abuse directed at their teammates to be more normatively appropriate, and will be more likely to accept that behavior without complaint. High LMX not only exacerbates the injurious effects of abusive supervision on the targeted employee, but also intensifies the injurious effects of teammate-directed abusive supervision. Our results suggest that LMX is the most important factor in the observers' emotional responses to and social interactions with the targets. Thus, our findings provide new insights into the dangers of high LMX for within-team social relationships.

Interestingly, we found that when LMX was higher, observations of abusive supervision of teammates were significantly and negatively related to helping those teammates, through low sympathy. In contrast, when LMX was lower, it was slightly (not significantly) positively related to the observer helping the teammates through sympathy. This implies that even observers with low LMX intend to oppose their leaders' abuse by helping their teammates, though they may feel reluctant to do so. One possible explanation is that despite the low LMX, the authority of the formal supervisory position remains a concern for individual members trying to reduce their teammates' suffering (e.g., Pelletier, 2012). It would be interesting to investigate whether a formal leadership position has an effect strong enough to suppress an observer's sympathy and prosocial behaviors toward victims.

5.2 | Practical implications

Our study provides a unique perspective on practical efforts to leverage the benefits of high-LMX relationships. It is fair to say that the preponderance of LMX research lauds the advantages of direct reports having high-LMX relationships with team leaders, and vice versa. It is on the basis of this literature, which has linked LMX with a panoply of desirable outcomes (e.g., performance, morale, adaptability, and well-being; Dulebohn et al., 2012), that scholars generally encourage team leaders to cultivate high-LMX relationships with as many direct reports as possible. Consider the following practical recommendations from contributors to the LMX literature: "Organizations should encourage supervisors to build high-quality social exchange relationships with their subordinates" (Liao et al., 2010, p. 1105), "Organizations can maximize the innovation capability of distributed teams by providing LMX training for team leaders" (Gajendran & Joshi, 2012, p. 7), and "Managers may opt to develop high quality LMX relationships with most of their employees" (Nishii & Mayer, 2009, p. 1422). Our research, which suggests that as LMX increases, individuals are more likely to go along with abusive leaders and lack sympathy for targets of their abuse, gives us reason to question the assumption that higher LMX is always better. Organizations that rely on teamwork would benefit from embedding in their leadership development programs a richer understanding of the many upsides of high-LMX relationships as well as the perhaps rarer, but nevertheless injurious consequence that high-LMX employees often model the behavior of their team leaders even when that behavior is destructive.

Furthermore, our research shows that abusive supervision is detrimental not just to employee performance, but also to within-team relationships. When leaders humiliate and abuse teammates, such events are particularly salient in teams characterized by frequent member interactions. Effective interpersonal relationships are essential for overall team effectiveness (Hackman, 1987; J. E. Mathieu et al., 2008), but observers of leader abuse may feel unsympathetic and have a cold reaction, cognitively and behaviorally, to its victims. We found that observers who have high LMX with leaders show less sympathy and offer less help to the targets of leader abuse. We encourage organizations to ensure that their leaders are aware of the calamitous impacts of abusive actions. Even when managers act abusively toward only a few members of their teams, the organization's decision makers should not ignore the consequences for the rest. Several management interventions may be useful for reducing and eliminating abusive supervision, such as educating and training managers to set respectful behavioral norms for their teams, warning those who abuse team members about its harmful influence on observers and within-team relationships, creating open-door policies or confidential, anonymous systems to collect information from targets and observers, and screening managers for abusive acts in the recruitment process.

Previous research has also provided evidence that leaders sometimes regret their abusive actions and try to repair damaged relationships with their victims (Haggard & Park, 2018). However, our findings suggest that those leaders may overlook the wider-scale consequences of their wrongdoings, such as creating a hostile environment for the observers. Therefore in addition to directly repairing relationships with the victims, managers should consider the effects of their behaviors on the group dynamics. For example, rather than privately showing remorse, leaders could admit their faults openly to change observers' negative views of the victims.

Finally, when forming new teams and selecting leaders for them, organizations may find it helpful to educate candidates clearly on the contagious influence of their actions, both positive and negative, and strive to build effective relationships among team members. It is critical for new leaders to model positive behaviors to build healthier team cultures and civilized within-team relationships.

5.3 | Limitations and future directions

Our research has several limitations that set the stage for promising future studies. One such limitation has to do with the scope of the inquiry. Our study provides persuasive evidence that observers' altruistic reactions to abusive supervision vary with the observer–team leader LMX relationship. In future research, scholars can build on this foundation by exploring important practical questions about the reactions of those who observe teammate-directed abusive supervision. For example, do the abusers lash out at observers who provide help to the victims, as would be predicted by similarity theory and research? Prior research adopting deonance theory to explain third-party mistreatment has examined both retributive (e.g., prosocial behavior; Priesemuth, 2013) and retaliatory (e.g., supervisor-directed deviance; Mitchell et al., 2015) actions. In contrast, our research focused on helping the victims as an outcome. Interesting questions remain for future research: Might observers generate other feelings toward the victims (e.g., anger or ambivalence) and exhibit other, more overt acts of repudiation, such as calling out the perpetrators—and would this response disincline team leaders to engage in further acts of abuse? What factors might prompt observers to accept the personal costs of doing so? In addition, our model and study did not consider leaders' reactions after committing abusive behaviors. Future research on third parties' view of leader abuse would benefit from exploring other questions related to this topic—for example, might some abusers double down on their misbehavior, becoming even more hostile when they are called out?

A second limitation of our research involves the confidence we can put in the causal conclusions we have drawn from our study. Our use of a round-robin, two-wave research design allowed us to isolate the sources of variance that were the focus of our theorizing. And as we pointed out earlier, our study is the first to employ the social relations paradigm to model reactions to abusive supervision. That said, we cannot rule out the possibility that our results reflect reverse causation or the influence of other variables. In studies aimed at addressing these limitations, we encourage the use of experimental and longitudinal field designs. We also encourage researchers to use the social relations approach to incorporate different measures of different dyadic teammate–teammate relationships to replicate our findings.

A third limitation is the external validity of our results. Although LMX has been studied in both Western and Asian cultures (Rockstuhl et al., 2012), some evidence indicates that its influence on follower citizenship behaviors is stronger in the Western contexts (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Thus, cultural factors might have caused the relationships we observed in our Chinese sample to be weaker than they might be in a Western sample. Other evidence in the abusive-supervision literature implies that this phenomenon's injurious effects are more pronounced among Western employees (specifically, in Australia and the United States) than among Eastern employees (Singapore and China) because Confucianist Asian culture legitimizes team leaders' expressions of hostility to team members (Vogel et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang & Liao, 2015). In other words, the notion that team leaders are role models even if they are abusive may be more embedded in Eastern social norms. It is therefore conceivable that endorsement of abusive team leaders is more common in Asia, and that disapproval is more common in the West (Martinko et al., 2013). Of course, examining a thesis of that sort will require data collection from multiple countries and cultures.

6 | CONCLUSION

In this research, we drew on social learning theory and deonance theory to examine the responses of team members to teammate-directed abusive supervision. Our study sheds light on how and when observers see leader abuse as acceptable and legitimate behavior to model, develop sympathy for targeted teammates, and act to help them. Employing a social relations paradigm, our research enriches our understanding of the effects of abusive supervision in team contexts and provides a basis for more nuanced practical recommendations on leadership development.

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ENDNOTES

[1] As suggested by an anonymous reviewer, we tested LMX differentiation at the team level as a potential moderator. The results showed that this variable did not moderate the relationship between observation of abusive supervision toward a teammate and observer sympathy for the teammate (i.e., the interaction effect was $\beta = 0.002$, $p > 0.10$).

[2] When we performed all of the analyses without controls, the results are consistent with those for the models with controls.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data available on request from the authors.

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