

Temporal leadership, attentiveness, and safety behaviors: The moderating roles of abusive supervision and safety consciousness

Abstract:

Construction safety has drawn increasing attention from both researchers and practitioners. The relationships between safety-specific leadership behaviors and safety behaviors are well-documented. However, less is known about whether and how other leadership behaviors such as temporal leadership, which focuses on managing time-related resources for task achievement, might impact construction workers' safety-specific attitudes and behaviors. In this study, social information processing theory is applied to examine how and when temporal leadership influences individual safety behaviors. Specifically, attentiveness is considered to be a mediator in the relationship between temporal leadership and individual safety behaviors, and the moderating roles of team abusive supervision and individual safety consciousness are examined. Using a sample of 535 workers nested in 120 teams engaged in construction projects in China, the hypothesized moderated mediation model was examined using multilevel modeling analysis and bootstrapping methods. The results identify a positive effect of temporal leadership on safety compliance and safety participation mediated through attentiveness. This indirect effect is weaker when there is more team-level abusive supervision, and stronger when there is a higher individual safety consciousness. This study contributes to emerging research on safety management and temporal management by showing how the affective mechanism of temporal leadership influences individual safety behaviors. Moreover, the boundary

conditions under which temporal leadership influences safety behaviors are also identified.

Keywords: temporal leadership, safety behavior, attentiveness, abusive supervision, safety consciousness

Temporal leadership, attentiveness, and safety behaviors: The moderating roles of abusive supervision and safety consciousness

Junwei Zheng^a, Xueqin Gou^a, Mark A. Griffin^b, Yang Miang Goh^c, Nini Xia^{d*}

^a *Faculty of Civil Engineering and Mechanics, Kunming University of Science and Technology, Kunming 650500, PR China*

^b *Future of Work Institute, Curtin University, Bentley, Perth, WA 6102, Australia*

^c *Department of Building, School of Design and Environment, National University of Singapore, Singapore*

^d *School of Civil Engineering, Southeast University, Nanjing 211189, PR China*

Acknowledgements: This research was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant nos. 71701083, 72002030, and 71761021), and Yunnan Province Basic Research Planning Project (Grant no. 2019FB084).

1 Temporal leadership, attentiveness, and safety behaviors: The moderating roles 2 of abusive supervision and safety consciousness

3 1. Introduction

4 Working on site in construction projects has been identified as a stressful and highly risky
5 occupation (Leung et al., 2012). Developing individual safety behavior and avoiding unsafe
6 behaviors for reducing injuries and accidents have been increasingly emphasized by
7 both scholars and practitioners (Fang et al., 2015). Over the last two decades, leadership has
8 been shown to exert a crucial role in enhancing the safety behaviors of employees and
9 decreasing workplace accidents (Hofmann et al., 2003; Mullen and Kelloway, 2009). Thus,
10 leaders are expected to perform certain acts to enhance safety in a time-pressured setting.
11 Such temporal challenges (e.g., tight schedule and imposed deadlines) might be related to
12 employees' safety behaviors, it is therefore necessary to explore how leaders can orchestrate
13 employees to adapt to high job demands and facilitate safety behaviors in this time-pressured
14 context.

15 A multitude of studies demonstrated the impacts of constructive leadership behaviors on
16 safety behaviors. For example, safety-focused transformational leadership and transactional
17 leadership have been shown to positively impact individual safety compliance and
18 safety participation through safety climate (Barling et al., 2002; Clarke, 2013; Lingard et
19 al., 2019; Martínez-Córcoles and Stephanou, 2017). Morality leadership facilitates safety
20 behaviors through safety motivation (Chen and Chen, 2014), while ethical leadership
21 facilitates safety behaviors via self-efficacy and job autonomy (Chughtai, 2015).
22 Moreover, several studies focused on the effects of destructive supervisory behaviors.
Significantly, passive leadership can influence safety behaviors or injury levels by reducing
the safety climate (Kelloway et al.,

23 2006; Smith et al., 2016). Abusive supervision has been shown to influence safety behaviors
24 through increasing emotional exhaustion (Yuan et al., 2020). The evidence provided in these
25 studies indicates that leaders can either motivate or hinder individuals from engaging in safety
26 activities by affecting the recognition or motivation of employees or by influencing the
27 organizational safety climate.

28 Although the extant literature has documented how constructive or destructive leadership
29 behaviors influence safety, critical questions need to be addressed comprehensively and deeply
30 to better understand how leader practices can affect employees' safety behaviors. First,
31 traditionally studied leadership styles, such as transformational and transactional leadership,
32 are too vague to address this complex and dynamic context (Hughes et al., 2018). Leaders
33 should engage in specific behaviors that align with this complex and dynamic environment
34 (Rosing et al., 2011). Particular leadership styles may have stronger impacts than other well-
35 documented general leadership styles (Hughes et al., 2018). Furthermore, the effectiveness of
36 constructive leadership has not been examined simultaneously and empirically with destructive
37 leadership styles to demonstrate their roles in safety management. Second, distinct mechanisms
38 (cognitive, motivational, and climate enhancement mechanisms) have been identified as core
39 mechanisms explaining the mediating paths from leadership styles to safety behaviors (Barling
40 et al., 2002; Chen and Chen, 2014; Lingard et al., 2019). Nonetheless, further potential
41 mediators (e.g., affective variables) may also explain the mechanism linking leadership styles
42 to employee behaviors (Ashkanasy and Jordan, 2008). Thus, research is needed focusing on
43 more specific and nuanced leadership behaviors and other mediators and mechanisms when
44 examining the impact of leadership on safety behaviors (Yuan et al., 2020).

45 Thus, this study addresses the calls for studying the impacts of specific leadership
46 behaviors on individual safety behaviors by incorporating the interplay between temporal
47 leadership and abusive supervision. Temporal leadership refers to a set of task-oriented
48 behaviors focused on scheduling, synchronizing, and allocating temporal resources, such as
49 establishing milestones, decreasing conflicts by adjusting task flows, and coordinating team
50 members (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). These specific leadership behaviors might be
51 related to employees' in-role behavior in time-pressured settings but remain understudied in
52 the safety management literature. In this context, we suggest that the specific constructive
53 leadership behaviors—temporal leadership that focuses on securing and managing resources
54 (e.g., time) to accomplish tasks (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011) — positively affect safety
55 behaviors. Moreover, abusive supervision might negatively influence safety behaviors.
56 Abusive supervision is defined as the perception of the extent to which leaders present hostile
57 verbal behaviors (Tepper, 2000). Moreover, considering that team-based structures are
58 common in the construction project context, such destructive leadership behaviors may impact
59 the team as a whole. As individuals are more sensitive to destructive leadership behaviors
60 (Schmid et al., 2018), abusive supervision is more likely to affect all team members than
61 temporal leadership (Rousseau and Aubé, 2018). Thus, this study explored the potential effect
62 of the interaction between temporal leadership at the individual level and abusive supervision
63 at the team level on workers' safety behaviors, as well as the underlying mechanism.

64 To understand the mechanism, this paper draws upon social information processing (SIP)
65 theory (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978), as it is particularly helpful for understanding the influences
66 of supervisory practices on employees' behaviors. The core content of this theory is that

67 individuals construct their perceptions and attitudes by processing social cues in the workplace.
68 These perceptions and attitudes then affect their behaviors (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978).
69 Building from SIP theory, temporal leadership and abusive supervision may exert impacts in
70 providing information cues in time-pressured contexts (e.g., construction projects); these cues
71 may influence safety behaviors of individuals. However, the dominant paradigm that explains
72 how information cues influence employees' behaviors focuses on their cognitive process. The
73 emotion-related process can also be activated in SIP, and integrated with cognitive process
74 (Arsenio, 2010). Thus, based on SIP theory, the underlying mechanism through which engaging
75 in temporal leadership and abusive supervisory behavior indirectly impacts individual safety
76 behaviors was examined by introducing attentiveness as an affective mediator. Temporal
77 leadership can urge and maintain an adequate level of attentiveness, which refers to feelings of
78 alertness, concentration, and determination (Watson, 2000), through acts of temporal resource
79 management (e.g., providing reminders about tight deadlines or coordinating scheduled
80 activities). Such positive emotional experiences, in turn, aid safety behaviors.

81 Moreover, regarding the integration of emotional and cognitive processes, a cognitive
82 factor (i.e., safety consciousness as well as personal beliefs about safety issues and hazards
83 (Barling et al., 2002)) is identified that moderates the benefits of attentiveness on safety.
84 Specifically, this study examined whether the emotional response to safety may vary from the
85 beliefs among different individuals (Meng and Chan, 2020) to test the potential to integrate
86 emotional and cognitive variables in SIP for construction safety.

87 Figure 1 summarizes the theoretical model of this study, in which a multi-source survey
88 with samples of construction workers and team leaders or supervisors was employed. This

89 research makes several contributions to the extant literature. First, this study expands
90 the research scope of the factors that influence safety behaviors to a narrower set of
91 leadership behaviors (e.g., temporal leadership), which differ from general broader leadership
92 styles (e.g., transformational leadership). This study extends the idea of temporal
93 leadership styles into safety research based on SIP theory and examines the relationship
94 between temporal leadership and safety behaviors in a time-pressured context (e.g.,
95 construction projects). Second, the affective mechanism between temporal leadership and
96 safety behaviors is identified. The mediating role of attentiveness is explored to expand
97 understanding of the internal mechanism connecting temporal leadership and safety
98 behaviors from an affective lens rather than the cognitive mechanism. Third, this study
99 offers insight into competitive and different boundary conditions under which temporal
100 leadership may encourage or inhibit safety behaviors. By introducing team abusive
101 supervision as a moderator, this study validates the detrimental effects of abusive
102 supervision on safety outcomes (Yuan et al., 2020), broadens the range of abusive
103 supervision to also incorporate the team level, and identifies the potential constructive impact
104 of limited abusive supervision. By incorporating individual safety consciousness as
105 moderator, this study answers the call for exploring the personal conditions that function in
106 the effects of antecedents on individuals' safety behaviors (Meng and Chan, 2020). This
107 study also contributes to SIP theory by verifying the integration of emotional and cognitive
108 processes in SIP when exploring the interaction of attentiveness and safety consciousness.

109 [Insert Figure 1 about here]

110 2. Theoretical background and hypothesis development

2.1. Temporal leadership and attentiveness

111 In a turbulent environment, a leader has to face challenges such as managing multiple
112 timeframes and adapting to different pacing styles (Ancona et al., 2001). To address these
113 temporal challenges, the concept of temporal leadership was coined in the team context, which
114 refers to the task-oriented behaviors of team leaders that emphasize temporality. Examples are
115 reminding people of deadlines and coordinating and managing the pacing of task
116 accomplishment (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). Prior studies have provided evidence that
117 this temporal leadership (e.g., scheduling task activities, allocating time resources to relevant
118 tasks, and monitoring team members' use of time (Aeon and Aguinis, 2017; Mohammed and
119 Nadkarni, 2011)) positively affected team performance (Santos et al., 2016) and organizational
120 performance (Chen and Nadkarni, 2017). Hence, temporal leadership represents recognition of
121 the time significance and helping employees tackle temporal tasks under tight deadlines
122 (Halbesleben et al., 2003; van der Erve, 2004). This might also exert a role in affecting
123 individuals' practices and outcomes. At the individual level, temporal leadership focuses on
124 helping and monitoring employees to complete tasks and achieve goals through effectively
125 allocating, coordinating, and managing employees' time resources in the leader-member
126 exchange process under tight deadlines (Gevers and Demerouti, 2013).

127 In the present study, the relationship between a leader's temporal behaviors and employees'
128 behavioral outcomes are assessed at the individual level. SIP theory (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978)
129 states that individuals apply information from their work context to interpret events, evaluate
130 their work environment, and decide how to respond and behave to certain cues (Piccolo and
131 Colquitt, 2006). Leaders are critical providers of informational cues in the work context, and
132 influence followers' job perceptions, resources, and career development (Griffin et al., 1987;

133 Hu and Shi, 2015). Informational cues from leaders may lead to different perceptions in
134 employees (Griffin, 1981), who tend to act based on the situational desirability of specific
135 leadership behaviors (Lu et al., 2019). This study assesses the relationship between temporal
136 leadership and attentiveness.

137 Attentiveness is a specific kind of positive emotional experience or state, which is defined
138 as feelings of alertness, concentration, and determination (Watson, 2000). Temporal leadership
139 may enable team members to tackle task-related temporal problems, because they receive help
140 with the effective structuring and coordinating of time resources (Mohammed and Alipour,
141 2014; Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). Furthermore, temporal leadership enhances the
142 significance of temporal goals and motivates team members to engage in specific tasks (Gevers
143 and Demerouti, 2013). Hence, temporal leadership behaviors can help ameliorate individual
144 time pressure and balance the challenges imposed by time goals and the application of skills to
145 trigger individual positive experience (i.e., attentiveness).

146 Construction projects are often associated with significant time pressure and work
147 overload (Liu and Low, 2011). As such, time-related leadership behaviors can help workers
148 overcome temporal problems and guide workers to adapt to temporal challenges (J. Zhang et
149 al., 2020). If temporal leadership mitigates these challenges by appropriately allocating
150 temporal resources, team members or workers are likely to be more attentive and committed to
151 task and goal accomplishment (Gevers et al., 2001; Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). Thus,
152 based on social-information-processing theory and the above arguments, it was assumed that
153 temporal leadership offers the opportunity for workers to be attentive at work. The following
154 hypothesis was tested:

155 Hypothesis 1. Temporal leadership by leaders is positively related to team members'
156 attentiveness.

157 *2.3. The mediating role of attentiveness*

158 There are two forms of safety behaviors: safety participation and safety compliance
159 (Griffin and Neal, 2000). Safety participation refers to voluntary participation in safety
160 activities for the development of a supportive safety environment, such as participating in
161 safety meetings and raising safety concerns (Griffin and Hu, 2013; Griffin and Neal, 2000).
162 Safety compliance refers to behaviors associated with the following of safety rules, procedures,
163 and regulations, such as wearing safety equipment (Griffin and Neal, 2000; Neal and Griffin,
164 2006).

165 Previous studies highlighted the possible role of leadership in influencing employees'
166 safety behaviors or performance (Hofmann et al., 2003; Mullen and Kelloway, 2009), and
167 further incorporated cognitive and motivational variables as mediators (Barling et al., 2002;
168 Chen and Chen, 2014; Lingard et al., 2019). However, the affective mechanism underlying the
169 association between leadership and safety behaviors was underexplored. This study
170 incorporates attentiveness as an affective mediator in the relationship between temporal
171 leadership and safety behaviors. Attentiveness captures positive and pleasant feelings as well
172 as engagement (Watson and Tellegen, 1985); as such, it can be considered to activate positive
173 emotional experience (Parker et al., 2010) and can enable proactive behaviors (Bindl and Parker,
174 2011). SIP theory (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978) proposes that leadership plays an important role
175 in providing informational cues that influence employees' responses, attitudes, and behaviors.
176 Under a turbulent and stressful environment, individuals can gather cues from what their

177 leaders or supervisors say and do and apply this information to regulate their behaviors (Peng
178 et al., 2019). Therefore, when interacting with temporal leadership, individuals might gather
179 and process the temporal information provided by their leader. These individuals might also
180 gather cues from their leaders' temporal behaviors in an environment of time pressure and
181 adjust their behaviors accordingly.

182 In this case, the authors propose that attentiveness serves as an affective mediator to
183 translate temporal leadership into employees' safety behaviors. Attentiveness can serve as an
184 activated positive emotional response for translating leadership variables into proactive
185 behaviors by employees. The individual affect can "bridge" workplace cues (i.e., temporal
186 leadership) and individual behavior (i.e., safety behaviors) (Xiao et al., 2020). Specifically,
187 temporal leadership can lower team members' sense of time pressure and alleviate the negative
188 experience imposed by time shortage by effectively managing time resources (Mohammed and
189 Alipour, 2014; Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). This may increase the sense of security and
190 attentiveness at work (Parker et al., 2010; J. Zhang et al., 2020), thus increasing team members'
191 responsibilities with respect to proactive and in-role behaviors (e.g., engaging in safety-related
192 activities and following safety-related rules). Consequently, the following hypotheses are
193 proposed:

194 Hypothesis 2a. Team members' attentiveness mediates the relationship between temporal
195 leadership and team members' safety compliance.

196 Hypothesis 2b. Team members' attentiveness mediates the relationship between temporal
197 leadership and team members' safety participation.

198 *2.3. Moderating role of team-level abusive supervision*

199 Previous studies have mostly focused on the role of positive leadership styles in
200 occupational safety, while few studies in the safety field have focused on the possible effect of
201 destructive supervisory behaviors (Nielsen et al., 2016). However, destructive supervision,
202 especially abusive supervision, has attracted considerable attention in other fields because of
203 its negative impacts in the workplace (Aryee et al., 2007; Martinko et al., 2013; Tepper, 2007).
204 Abusive supervision refers to subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors
205 engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors and physical contact
206 (Tepper, 2000). In a construction project, abusive supervision mostly reflects a set of
207 supervision practices, including aggression, workplace bullying, incivility, and negative
208 mentoring (Gallagher et al., 2015). When leaders are very task and time driven and operate in
209 a high stress and demanding environment (e.g., long work hours, cost cuts, and the need for
210 increased productivity as often the case in construction projects), they may become forceful
211 and engage in over-zealous management practices their team members perceive as abusive
212 (Gallagher et al., 2015). Thus, a high-pressure and risk-associated project environment may
213 support abusive supervision behaviors (Tepper, 2007).

214 In a team context, abusive supervision may be perceived as the experience of a group of
215 team members rather than someone's personal experience (Rousseau and Aubé, 2018).
216 Accordingly, abusive acts of team leaders can directly impact all members in a team as a whole
217 (Priesemuth et al., 2014). Although a leader may abuse a single member or a small group of
218 team members, all team members can be influenced by this abusive leader because other
219 members witness the abuse or interact with the victim in the team (Giacalone and Promislo,
220 2010). Prior research has focused on the impacts of individual abusive supervision in the

221 project setting (Gallagher et al., 2015; Ju et al., 2020). The role of team-level abusive
222 supervision remains underestimated in this field. Accordingly, in the present study, the impacts
223 of abusive supervision were examined at the team level.

224 Abusive supervision provides informational cues related to resource threats or loss,
225 resulting in deleterious outcomes for individuals and organizations. Tepper et al. (2017)
226 demonstrated that working for an abusive leader may deplete employee resources. Abusive
227 supervision may trigger individuals' negative affect and emotional responses (Tepper et al.,
228 2008; Yuan et al., 2020). According to SIP theory, individuals' common interpretation can be
229 developed through cues provided by team-level abusive supervision and interactions with the
230 victims. Considering the common occurrence of exposure to abusive behaviors within a team
231 (Priesemuth et al., 2014; Rousseau and Aubé, 2018), the team member might be affected by
232 such team-level abusive supervision.

233 In the case of team-level abusive supervision, when these shared experiences of abuse are
234 prominent, project members may perceive a high level of abusive supervision as a harmful and
235 negative signal, leading to lower attentiveness levels and exhaustion (Whitman et al., 2014; Xu
236 et al., 2015). Individuals experiencing a high level of abusive supervision may feel uncertain
237 about how to cope with complex tasks or challenges using resources from temporal leadership
238 behaviors (Lian et al., 2012). However, in a challenging project setting, a low level of abusive
239 supervision may also be perceived as stressful events, examples of which are branding a team
240 member as incompetent, identifying their work as unsatisfactory, and imposing high
241 expectations (Zhu and Zhang, 2019). Team members may be stimulated to focus more
242 exclusively on tasks or be attentive to their work to meet the expectations and achieve goals.

243 Hence, when leaders or supervisors exhibit a high level of team abusive supervision, the
244 relationship between temporal leadership and team members' attentiveness may weaken.
245 Nevertheless, this relationship may be strengthened if the team experiences a low level of team
246 abusive supervision. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

247 Hypothesis 3. Team-level abusive supervision moderates the relationship between
248 temporal leadership and team member attentiveness. This relationship is less positive when
249 team-level abusive supervision is high and more positive when team-level abusive supervision
250 is low.

251 Combined with the proposed mediation by attentiveness, temporal leadership is proposed
252 to affect team members' attentiveness, which can influence safety behaviors. Thus, project
253 members experiencing a high level of team abusive supervision from supervisors or managers
254 may deplete their own emotional resources and may provide fewer valuable resources from
255 temporal leadership behaviors compared to members experiencing a low level of team abusive
256 supervision. Resource depletion makes it difficult for project members to be attentive in the
257 workplace, which may decrease their engagement, thus lowering safety behaviors. Following
258 this logic, team abusive supervision is argued to weaken the positive effects of temporal
259 leadership on safety behaviors by decreasing positive affect (i.e., attentiveness). Therefore,
260 possible moderated mediation hypotheses are proposed as follows:

261 Hypothesis 4a. Team abusive supervision moderates the indirect individual positive effect
262 of temporal leadership on team members' safety compliance through team members'
263 attentiveness. This indirect positive relationship is weakened under high levels of abusive
264 supervision.

265 Hypothesis 4b. Team abusive supervision moderates the indirect individual positive effect
266 of temporal leadership on team members' safety participation through team members'
267 attentiveness. This indirect positive relationship is weakened under high levels of abusive
268 supervision.

269 *2.4. Moderating role of safety consciousness*

270 Safety consciousness focuses on individual attitudes, awareness, and beliefs about safety
271 issues and hazards (Barling et al., 2002; Westaby and Lee, 2003). Safety consciousness also
272 focuses on the ability of individuals to effectively address potentially dangerous circumstances
273 (Forcier et al., 2001), reflecting the individual safety cognition in the workplace. Moreover,
274 safety consciousness is assessed chiefly at the individual level (Barling et al., 2002; Westaby
275 and Lee, 2003), focusing on individual safety knowledge and awareness of safety issues.
276 Safety-conscious individuals are resilient when facing unsafe situations and hazards, are more
277 likely to engage in safety behaviors, and are less likely to participate in risky or dangerous
278 behaviors (Forcier et al., 2001). Previous studies found that safety consciousness was
279 significant and critical for enhancing safety behaviors and outcomes in construction workers
280 (Barling et al., 2002; Wong et al., 2020).

281 SIP theory posits that individual cognitions, as a function of information processing, are
282 available (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978). In the mediation hypotheses proposed above
283 (Hypothesis 2a and 2b), both the emotional and non-cognitive function in the informational
284 processing process have been proposed. The emotion-related variable (e.g., attentiveness) is
285 also a type of cue for information processing, and differs from the cognition-related variable
286 (e.g., consciousness) (Lemerise and Arsenio, 2000). Furthermore, it is possible to integrate

287 emotion and cognition in social information processing (Izard, 1984; Lemerise and Arsenio,
288 2000). Therefore, the authors propose that attentive individuals with different levels of safety
289 consciousness may react differently when facing safety-related situations. This leads to the
290 expectation of the moderation of safety consciousness integrated into the emotional response
291 process for construction safety.

292 Given the complex nature of construction projects, safety consciousness is a highly salient
293 feature for reducing accidents and injuries. Construction workers with high safety
294 consciousness may have a higher awareness of safety-related issues. The behaviors of
295 construction workers with high levels of safety consciousness may be oriented around
296 preventing unsafe behaviors or accidents (de Koster et al., 2011; Kelloway et al., 2006). This
297 also facilitates the positive impact attentiveness has on safety behaviors. Accordingly,
298 construction workers with a high level of safety consciousness are more likely to engage in
299 safety-related tasks and activities than workers with a low level of safety consciousness. As
300 such, the emotion-cognition interaction for construction safety is proposed as follows:

301 Hypothesis 5a. Individual safety consciousness moderates the positive relationship
302 between attentiveness and safety compliance. This relationship is stronger under high levels of
303 safety consciousness.

304 Hypothesis 5b. Individual safety consciousness moderates the positive relationship
305 between attentiveness and safety participation. This relationship is stronger under high levels
306 of safety consciousness.

307 When combined with the mediation hypotheses, the authors argue that safety
308 consciousness facilitates the positive effects of temporal leadership on safety behaviors by

309 increasing attentiveness in the workplace. After processing information provided by temporal
310 leadership, individuals with high safety consciousness tend to be more engaged in specific
311 tasks and more likely to be vigilant regarding safety issues. As such, the possible
312 moderated mediation hypotheses are proposed as follows:

313 Hypothesis 6a. Individual safety consciousness moderates the indirect positive effect of
314 temporal leadership on team members' safety compliance through team member attentiveness.
315 This indirect positive relationship is stronger under high levels of safety consciousness.

316 Hypothesis 6b. Individual safety consciousness moderates the indirect positive effect of
317 temporal leadership on team members' safety participation through team member attentiveness.
318 This indirect positive relationship is stronger under high levels of safety consciousness.

319 3. Method

320 3.1. *Participants and procedure*

321 To clarify the research aims, a pilot study was conducted. Preliminary questionnaires
322 were distributed to nine workers and two team leaders at a construction site in Kunming to
323 identify potential confusing items and ensure the readability and accuracy of the
324 questionnaire. According to previous studies concerning construction safety in China
325 (Wang et al., 2020, 2018), the number of sampled practitioners was adequate for a
326 preliminary questionnaire. The final questionnaires were modified and simplified based on
327 the feedback obtained from the pilot study. A formal investigation was conducted to
328 survey construction workers and team leaders in construction projects in South China
329 between October 8, 2019, and December 4, 2019. Specifically, multilevel data were
330 collected from teams working on construction sites. These teams, consisting of 4–6 team
members each, were invited to participate in the survey

331 and participated voluntarily. Within different teams, construction workers performed tasks such
332 as civil construction, installation, or decoration. Within each team, the team leader or the
333 manager responsible for site or safety management was also recruited and was asked to
334 evaluate workers' behaviors.

335 Surveys were distributed to 130 team leaders or managers of work teams and their
336 associated 650 construction workers. Ultimately, 120 team leaders provided ratings for their
337 workers or team members, and 535 construction workers completed self-report surveys and
338 assessed their leaders or managers (response rate = 82.31%). The final construction worker
339 sample included 518 males (96.8%) and 17 females (3.2%). The average age was 33.13 years
340 ($SD = 8.19$) and the average tenure in the current project was 1.18 years ($SD = 0.78$). Worker
341 types included civil construction workers ($N = 160$; 29.9%), installing workers ($N = 180$;
342 33.6%), decorating workers ($N = 158$; 29.5%), and other workers ($N = 37$; 6.9%). The team
343 size was 4–6 people, and the average team size was 4.46.

344 3.2. Measures

345 A back-translation procedure from English to Chinese was conducted using Brislin's
346 method (1980). Five-point measures were used to assess studied constructs. The appendix
347 describes the items for all studied constructs.

348 *Temporal leadership.* Construction workers were asked to assess temporal leadership using
349 a six-item scale developed by Mohammed and Nadkarni (2011), with responses ranging from
350 1 ("not at all") to 5 ("a great deal") regarding the leader's or supervisor's leadership approach.
351 A sample item is: "To what extent does your team leader or direct supervisor remind you of
352 important deadlines?" Cronbach's alpha was 0.86.

353 *Abusive supervision.* Construction workers were also asked to assess abusive supervision
354 using a five-item scale developed by Mitchell and Ambrose (2007), with responses ranging
355 from 1 (“not at all”) to 5 (“a great deal”) regarding the leader’s or supervisor’s leadership
356 approach. A sample item is: “Your team leader or direct supervisor makes negative comments
357 about you to others.” Cronbach’s alpha was 0.93. To obtain information on the team-level
358 abusive supervision, each member’s perceived abusive supervision rating was aggregated, and
359 the group mean was centered to obtain a score of the team-level abusive supervision. To justify
360 the aggregation, $r_{wg(j)}$ was computed using RStudio to evaluate the interrater agreement. The
361 value was 0.86 ($p < 0.05$) across 120 teams, representing a high level of within-team agreement
362 (James et al., 1984). The average deviation indices $AD_{M(j)}$ and $AD_{Md(j)}$ were calculated as 0.48
363 and 0.40, respectively. This evidence indicates that member ratings indicate the existence of
364 team-level abusive supervision.

365 *Attentiveness.* Attentiveness was assessed using a four-item scale developed by Watson et
366 al. (1988), adapted from Rodell and Judge (2009), with responses ranging from 1 (“not at all”) to
367 5 (“a great deal”). A sample item is: “In the past 30 days, to what extent have I been alert?”
368 Cronbach’s alpha was 0.83.

369 *Safety consciousness.* Safety consciousness was assessed using a six-item scale developed
370 by Barling et al. (2002), with responses ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly
371 agree”), using a self-reported approach. A sample item is: “I always wear the protective
372 equipment or clothing required by my job.” Cronbach’s alpha was 0.81.

373 *Safety behavior.* Safety behavior was a two-dimensional construct, including safety
374 compliance and safety participation, which was developed by Griffin et al. (2013; 2000). Safety

375 compliance and safety participation were reported by the team leader or supervisor using three
376 items for each variable. The total Cronbach's alpha was 0.81, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients
377 of the two dimensions safety compliance and safety participation were 0.79 and 0.90,
378 respectively.

379 *Control variables.* Several variables were controlled to consider the potential influence of
380 demographic information. These included: construction workers' gender (0 = female, 1 = male);
381 age (years); educational level (1 = junior high school or below, 2 = senior high school, 3 =
382 college or bachelor degree, 4 = master's degree or above); job type (1 = civil construction
383 workers (including concrete workers, steel fixers, scaffolders, or woodworkers), 2 = assembly
384 workers (including welders, plumber, or electricians), 3 = decorator (including painters or
385 plasterers), and 4 = others). A high correlation was found between age and work experience
386 (Holland et al., 2017; Z. Zhang et al., 2020); therefore, the age variable was used to control for
387 multicollinearity. At the team level, team size was controlled as it may have an impact on
388 individual outcomes (Dong et al., 2017). Team size was calculated from the valid responses in
389 the sample data.

390 *3.3. Analytic strategy*

391 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used first to confirm the discriminant validity and
392 dimensionality of the studied variables. Next, the data contained a hierarchical data structure
393 in which the valid answers of the study variables were nested within teams. Thus, the multilevel
394 data modelling methods of hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) and multilevel structural
395 equation modelling (MSEM) were applied.

396 The direct effects hypothesis (i.e., Hypothesis 1), the cross-level relationship hypothesis

397 (i.e., Hypothesis 3), and the moderation hypotheses at the individual level (i.e., Hypotheses 5a
398 and 5b) were estimated using HLM through RStudio software with the packages of BruceR
399 and lmerTest. The mediation hypotheses (i.e., Hypotheses 2a and 2b) were examined using
400 the Monte Carlo method with 20,000 Bootstrapping and 95% confidence interval (CI)
401 through RStudio software (Preacher et al., 2010). The moderated mediation
402 hypotheses (i.e., Hypotheses 4 and 6) were examined using MSEM with Bootstrapping
403 approach through MPLUS (Edwards and Lambert, 2007; Muthén and Muthén, 2012).
404 The significance examination was also conducted using the Monte Carlo method and 95%
405 CI.

406 4. Results

407 4.1. Preliminary analysis

408 The results of CFA were used to examine the validity of the conceptual six-factor model.
409 Table 1 shows that the hypothesized six-factor model achieved the best fit for the data. This is
410 demonstrated by the increased of χ^2 , root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and
411 standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) values, as well as the decreased comparative
412 fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) values compared to alternative models. The
413 CFA results also indicated that the model had good discriminant validity among the different
414 studied variables, including temporal leadership, abusive supervision, attentiveness, safety
415 consciousness, safety compliance, and participation.

416 [Insert Table 1 about here]

417 Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for the study variables at both individual and
418 team levels, including means, standard deviations, and inter-correlation coefficients.
As expected, temporal leadership and attentiveness were positively related ($r = 0.13, p <$
0.01),

419 and attentiveness was positively related to safety compliance and safety participation ($r = 0.31$,
420 $p < 0.001$; $r = 0.17$, $p < 0.001$).

421 [Insert Table 2 about here]

422 4.2. Hypothesis testing

423 4.2.1. Examining direct, mediation, and moderation effects

424 The results of HLM analysis using the BruceR package are presented in Table 3. Temporal
425 leadership was positively related to workers' attentiveness ($\gamma = 0.06$, $p < 0.01$; Model 1),
426 verifying Hypothesis 1. Workers' attentiveness was positively related to both safety compliance
427 ($\gamma = 0.50$, $p < 0.001$; Model 3) and safety participation ($\gamma = 0.36$, $p < 0.001$; Model 5). These
428 results demonstrate that when team leaders demonstrated temporal leadership, construction
429 workers were more likely to be attentive to their work and perform safety behaviors.

430 [Insert Table 3 about here]

431 Hypotheses 2a and 2b proposed that attentiveness exerts a mediating role between
432 temporal leadership and safety behavior. Mediation effects were assessed using Bootstrap and
433 Monte Carlo methods, and were considered against the established CI. Table 4 showed that the
434 indirect effect of temporal leadership on safety compliance through attentiveness was positive
435 and significant (Effect = 0.03, $p < 0.01$; 95% CI [0.010; 0.057]). The indirect effect of temporal
436 leadership on safety participation through attentiveness was also positive and significant
437 (Effect = 0.02, $p < 0.05$; 95% CI [0.006; 0.046]), thus verifying Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

438 [Insert Table 4 about here]

439 To test Hypothesis 3, Model 2 in Table 3 shows that the interaction of temporal leadership
440 and abusive supervision on worker attentiveness was significant ($\gamma = -0.13$, $p < 0.01$).
The

441 results of Bootstrapping and Monte Carlo with 95% CI in Table 4 show the moderation effect
442 of team-level abusive supervision at different levels. Temporal leadership had a positive effect
443 on attentiveness when team-level abusive supervision was low (Effect = 0.24, $p < 0.001$; 95%
444 CI = [0.123; 0.358]), and a negative effect when team-level abusive supervision was high
445 (Effect = -0.13, $p < 0.05$; 95% CI = [-0.246; -0.009]). The difference was also significant (Effect
446 = -0.37, $p < 0.001$; 95% CI = [-0.578; -0.156]), thus verifying Hypothesis 3. To demonstrate
447 the moderation effect of team-level abusive supervision, Figure 2 was plotted following Cohen
448 et al. (2003). Figure 2 indicates that when abusive supervision was high, the effect of temporal
449 leadership on attentiveness was significant and decreased, and this effect was also significant
450 and increased under a low level of abusive supervision.

451 [Insert Figure 2 about here]

452 To assess the moderating variables in Hypotheses 5a and 5b, the interaction of
453 attentiveness and safety consciousness on safety compliance was assessed and found to be
454 positive and significant ($\gamma = 0.11$, $p < 0.001$; Model 4 in Table 3); the same was found for this
455 interaction on safety participation ($\gamma = 0.09$, $p < 0.01$; Model 6 in Table 3). These results verify
456 Hypotheses 5a and 5b. The interactions were also plotted following Aiken and West (1991) as
457 shown in Figure 3. The results of Bootstrapping and Monte Carlo in Table 4 show that the
458 relationship between attentiveness and safety compliance was stronger when safety
459 consciousness was high (Effect = 0.52, $p < 0.001$; 95% CI [0.306; 0.727]), and the relationship
460 was significant at a low level of safety consciousness (Effect = 0.21, $p < 0.05$; 95% CI [0.001;
461 0.427]). The difference was significant (Effect = 0.31, $p < 0.001$; 95% CI [0.139; 0.468]).
462 Moreover, the relationship between attentiveness and safety participation was stronger when

463 safety consciousness was high (Effect = 0.53, $p < 0.001$; 95% CI [0.306; 0.759]) compared to
464 when it was low (Effect = 0.19, *n.s.*; 95% CI [-0.041; 0.414]). The difference was significant
465 (Effect = 0.34, $p < 0.01$; 95% CI [0.147; 0.545]). These findings indicate that safety
466 consciousness strengthens the relationships between attentiveness and safety compliance or
467 safety participation.

468 [Insert Figure 3 about here]

469 4.2.2 Integrative moderated mediation effects testing

470 To test the integrative moderated mediation model, MSEM was applied (using MPLUS),
471 which was combined with Monte Carlo bootstrapping analysis (using RStudio). The results of
472 the hypothesized integrative model through MSEM are shown in Figure 4.

473 [Insert Figure 4 about here]

474 Hypotheses 4a and 4b predicted that team-level abusive supervision moderates the indirect
475 effects of temporal leadership on safety compliance and safety participation through
476 attentiveness. The results reported in Table 4 show that the indirect effect of temporal
477 leadership on safety compliance through worker attentiveness was significantly and negatively
478 moderated both by team-level abusive supervision ($\gamma\Delta = -0.14$, $p < 0.001$; 95% CI [-0.256; -
479 0.041]) and by safety participation ($\gamma\Delta = -0.14$, $p < 0.01$; 95% CI [-0.260; -0.038]). These results
480 verify Hypotheses 4a and 4b.

481 Hypotheses 6a and 6b predicted that individual safety consciousness moderates the indirect
482 positive effect of temporal leadership on safety behaviors through attentiveness. The results
483 presented in Table 4 show a significant moderating effect of safety consciousness on the
484 indirect relationships of temporal leadership on worker safety compliance and safety

485 participation through worker attentiveness ($\gamma\Delta = 0.02, p < 0.05, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.002; 0.037]; \gamma\Delta$
486 $0.02, p < 0.01, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.002; 0.043]$). These results verify Hypotheses 6a and 6b.

487 5. Discussion

488 5.1. Findings

489 This study applied SIP theory to explore the positive effect of temporal leadership on the
490 safety behaviors of construction workers. Temporal leadership was found to be
491 positively related to attentiveness, and attentiveness was found to mediate the effect
492 of temporal leadership on safety behaviors. This study further investigated the detrimental
493 effect of team-level abusive supervision on the relationship between temporal leadership and
494 attentiveness of construction workers. The positive relationship between temporal leadership
495 and attentiveness was weaker when workers faced a high level of team-level abusive
496 supervision compared to when they faced a low level. In contrast, at a low level of team-level
497 abusive supervision, the effect of temporal leadership on worker attentiveness was
498 positive and significant (see moderation test results of team-level abusive supervision
499 shown in Table 4, and Figure 2). This result shows that suitable or limited levels of abusive
500 supervision may not be only detrimental. These results are consistent with a previous study
501 showing that in construction projects, abusive supervision can actually improve individual
502 work efficiency (Lindebaum and Fielden, 2011).

503 Combined with the mediating effect of attentiveness, the moderated mediation results
504 indicate that the positive indirect effects of temporal leadership on safety behaviors through
505 attentiveness were significantly diminished in the presence of high team-level
506 abusive supervision. In other words, team-level abusive supervision weakened the positive
indirect effect of temporal leadership on safety compliance and safety participation by
negatively

507 impacting attentiveness. These clear results indicate that a high level of team-level abusive
508 supervision exerts a detrimental role as a negative information cue and workplace event for
509 safety behaviors. Moreover, a limited level of team-level abusive supervision was again
510 demonstrated to be beneficial in the time-pressured construction projects environment. The
511 indirect effects of temporal leadership on safety behaviors via attentiveness were also
512 strengthened or improved under a low level of team abusive supervision.

513 Additionally, this study examined the positive moderating effect of individual safety
514 consciousness on the relationships between attentiveness and safety behaviors in construction
515 workers. The effects of attentiveness on safety compliance and safety participation were
516 strengthened more for workers with high safety consciousness compared to those with low
517 safety consciousness. Whether the positive indirect effect of attentiveness would be
518 strengthened across different levels of safety consciousness was also investigated. The
519 moderated mediation results showed that for workers with a high level of consciousness
520 towards safety, the positive indirect effects of temporal leadership on safety behaviors through
521 attentiveness were significant and stronger than the insignificant conditional indirect effect for
522 workers with a low level of safety consciousness.

523 *5.2. Theoretical implications*

524 This study has several theoretical contributions. First, this study extends the existing
525 research scope about the factors influencing individual safety behaviors and the potential
526 impact of temporal leadership in the construction project context. Previous studies focused on
527 the impacts of general leadership variables, such as transformational leadership (Barling et al.,
528 2002; Conchie, 2013), transactional leadership (Clarke, 2013), and safety leadership (Lu and

529 Yang, 2010; Wu et al., 2017). However, more specific and nuanced leader behaviors have not
530 been assessed to date. This study fills this gap by incorporating temporal leadership, i.e.,
531 leadership related to managing time resources to complete tasks (Claessens et al., 2007;
532 Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011), from an information-processing perspective. Temporal
533 leadership has received attention for its role in facilitating innovative outcomes (e.g.,
534 innovative performance (J. Zhang et al., 2020) and innovative behavior (Xiao et al., 2020)) and
535 team performance (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011; Santos et al., 2016). The present study
536 highlights the critical role temporal leadership plays in influencing employee safety behaviors,
537 which is understudied in this field. Thus, the theoretical model of temporal leadership (Ancona
538 et al., 2001; Mohammed and Alipour, 2014) is extended by highlighting its positive effect in
539 promoting safety compliance and safety participation in the construction project domain. This
540 study validated the positive impacts of temporal leadership behaviors in the complex
541 environment of construction projects, where leaders or supervisors face temporal challenges
542 because of strict and inflexible schedule constraints. This study sheds new light on how
543 temporal leadership can facilitate safety behaviors in team members. Specifically, this study
544 demonstrated that temporal leadership behaviors (e.g., managing and coordinating different
545 tasks simultaneously (Miterev et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2020)) can help team members better
546 adapt to the time-pressured setting and job demands, and effectively meet project goals (e.g.,
547 safety).

548 Second, this study introduced attentiveness as mediator to explore the affective mechanism
549 between temporal leadership and safety behaviors. On the one hand, limited attention has been
550 directed to the mediation process in temporal leadership (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011;

551 Sonnentag, 2012; Xiao et al., 2020). By focusing on the positive emotional experience of
552 construction workers (i.e., attentiveness), this study provided a new perspective on the affective
553 mechanism of temporal leadership. The mediating effect of attentiveness identified in this study
554 provides empirical support for the temporal reminders-absorption linkage reported by Gevers
555 et al. (2013) and the temporal leadership-vigor linkage reported by Zhang et al. (2020). The
556 presented finding on the mediation of attentiveness complements previous studies (e.g.,
557 leadership-proactive behavior linkage) demonstrate that attentiveness is significantly
558 influenced by the linkage between temporal leadership and other proactive behaviors (i.e.,
559 safety behaviors).

560 On the other hand, this study also contributes to the safety behavior literature by extending
561 prior theoretical frameworks for exploring the mediating mechanism underlying the linkage
562 between leadership and safety behaviors. Previous studies examining the relationships between
563 leadership behaviors and employees' safety behaviors primarily focused on cognitive
564 mechanisms, such as self-efficacy (Chen and Chen, 2014) and safety climate (Wu et al., 2008).
565 The affective mechanism remains understudied in explanations of the relationship between
566 leadership and safety behaviors. Drawing on SIP theory (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978), this paper
567 complements the extant literature by exploring how temporal leadership motivates individuals
568 to perform safety behaviors via the mediation role of affective factor (i.e., attentiveness). Being
569 attentive to one's work has been argued to play a crucial role in translating informational cues
570 from temporal leaders into own safety behaviors. It might be worthwhile to further investigate
571 other mechanisms underlying the linkage between leadership and safety behaviors in addition
572 to cognitive and affective mechanisms.

573 Third, this study also contributes to the abusive supervision literature by considering the
574 impacts of team-level abusive behaviors. Few prior studies have investigated the detrimental
575 effects of abusive supervision in organizations, by focusing on the potential impact on
576 occupational safety in the workplace (Yuan et al., 2020) and occupational health in construction
577 projects (Ju et al., 2020). These findings verified the harmful impacts perceived abusive
578 supervision exerts on workers' safety behaviors, as well as psychological outcomes at the
579 individual level (Ju et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2020). Construction work always requires team
580 efforts (Odusami et al., 2003). Hence, this study extends the range of abusive supervision from
581 the individual level to the team level. Investigating the effects of team-level abusive supervision
582 can yield a more comprehensive understanding of leadership behavior. Applying multi-level
583 methods, this study identified the significant moderation effects of team-level abusive
584 supervision on the relationship between other specific leadership types (i.e., temporal
585 leadership) and individuals' affective response and behaviors. The results verify that team-level
586 abusive supervision generates a negative team environment, where workers react with
587 weakening positive emotions, possibly leading to unsafe behavioral tendencies. These findings
588 are consistent with other studies conducted at the individual level corroborating the detrimental
589 effects of abusive supervision (e.g., Ju et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2020). However, potential
590 positive effects induced by abusive supervision cannot be ignored (Zhu and Zhang, 2019), as
591 low levels of team abusive behaviors may benefit workers (e.g., by facilitating attentiveness)
592 in a time-pressured work context. Hence, the degree and appropriateness of abusive supervision
593 practices in construction projects should be further explored.

594 Furthermore, this study makes another critical contribution by enriching the function of

595 safety consciousness. Previous studies mainly focused on the mediation role of safety
596 consciousness (Barling et al., 2002; de Koster et al., 2011; Westaby and Lee, 2003), which
597 translates the impacts of leadership behaviors into safety outcomes. However, the present study
598 showed that individual safety consciousness had a moderating effect towards workplace safety,
599 indicating that attentive construction workers implement safety behaviors depending on their
600 own safety consciousness level. Specifically, this study shows that individual safety
601 consciousness, which reflects an awareness of safety issues, strengthens the relationship
602 between temporal leadership and safety behaviors by facilitating attentiveness. This highlights
603 the importance of individual knowledge, understanding, and cognition towards safety, thus
604 strengthening the argument that safety consciousness plays a significant role in facilitating
605 safety in construction workers (Meng and Chan, 2020). These findings answer the question of
606 whether the effect of contextual factors (e.g., leadership) on employees' behaviors (e.g., safety
607 behaviors) varies from person to person (Yuan et al., 2020). Moreover, this study also
608 contributes to the SIP theory literature, by confirming the integration of emotional and
609 cognitive processes in SIP (Arsenio, 2010; Lemerise and Arsenio, 2000). The effects of the
610 interaction of safety consciousness and attentiveness on safety behaviors demonstrate that
611 emotional and cognitive processes can be integrated when processing cues from leaders.

612 *5.3. Practical implications*

613 The results presented in this study have several implications for managing leaders,
614 supervisors, and workers. First, the results emphasize the potential and positive value of
615 temporal leadership for safety management. Temporal leadership behaviors can help workers
616 improve their ability to efficiently use time, make schedules, allocate time resources, and

617 coordinate teams (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). Furthermore, temporal leadership can
618 positively impact and create favorable conditions for individuals to be attentive at work, which
619 may, in turn, encourage safety behaviors. Organizations should consider developing leadership
620 training programs to enhance temporal leadership behaviors (Xiao et al., 2020) and identify
621 time-related behaviors when selecting managers (J. Zhang et al., 2020).

622 Second, the results of this study indicate that team-level abusive supervision negatively
623 impacts both the emotions and safety behaviors of construction workers. In labor-intensive
624 industries or environments (e.g., construction projects), such abusive supervision may be
625 common (Gallagher et al., 2015; Ju et al., 2020). Therefore, these findings have important
626 implications for organizations or firms wanting to discourage abusive behaviors by team
627 leaders or supervisors. For example, organizations could implement a zero-tolerance policy to
628 prevent abusive behaviors (Ju et al., 2020; Wheeler et al., 2013), and detect such behavioral
629 tendencies already at the personnel selection stage but also at the promotion stage (Kiazad et
630 al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2020).

631 Third, the results identify the effect of individual safety consciousness on safety behaviors
632 and the enhancing effects on the relationships between attentiveness and safety behaviors (e.g.,
633 safety compliance and safety participation). Therefore, assigning workers with a high safety
634 consciousness in a setting that prioritizes safety (e.g., construction projects) may help to
635 strengthen the positive impacts of temporal leadership and attentiveness on workplace safety.
636 Organizations can develop safety-related cognition training to strengthen workers' sensitivity
637 and awareness of safety-specific issues and situations (Yuan et al., 2020).

638 *5.4. Limitations and future directions*

639 The limitations of this study and directions for future research are presented in the
640 following. First, temporal leadership represents a specific set of task-oriented leadership
641 behaviors that can aid construction workers in facilitating safety behaviors; however, this study
642 is only a first step in the exploration of the impact of temporal leadership in safety management.
643 There are different types of temporal leadership, such as relationship-oriented temporal
644 leadership (Myer and Mohammed, 2012). Moreover, other contemporary leadership variables,
645 such as authentic leadership (Cavazotte et al., 2021), can also improve employee safety
646 outcomes. Future research could therefore compare the effects of different leadership variables
647 with temporal leadership on safety outcomes, such as broader leadership variables (e.g.,
648 transformational leadership) and narrower leadership constructs (e.g., authentic leadership and
649 safety leadership).

650 Second, this study tested limited constructs, by exploring the affective mechanism
651 underlying the linkage between temporal leadership and safety behaviors from an information-
652 processing perspective. However, other potential mechanisms may also link leadership factors
653 to safety behaviors. These may include a cognitive mechanism, such as temporal cognition
654 (Mohammed and Alipour, 2014; Santos et al., 2016), and a motivational mechanism, such as
655 intrinsic motivation (Conchie, 2013). Furthermore, other potential moderators could be
656 incorporated to test the effect of temporal leadership on safety behaviors. Examples of these
657 include contextual variables such as power distance (Tear et al., 2020), organizational support
658 (Cheung and Zhang, 2020), and project characteristics (Müller et al., 2012), as well as
659 individual differences, such as time urgency and pacing style (Mohammed and Alipour, 2014;
660 Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011), trait self-control (Yuan et al., 2020), and preferences (Xiao

661 et al., 2020). Thus, future studies can integrate further variables to develop a
662 more comprehensive framework for leadership behaviors and safety behaviors according to
663 different theoretical perspectives.

664 Third, this study has certain methodological limitations. While data were collected from
665 different sources and at different levels, causality cannot be fully inferred using cross-
666 sectional data. Future studies could apply longitudinal data or experimental approaches to
667 obtain more robust results and increase the ability to detect causality (J. Zhang et al., 2020).
668 Moreover, the external validity of the results might be limited. On the one hand, data were
669 collected from only one country (i.e., China). The constructs and impacts of this study
670 should be validated across different cultural backgrounds (e.g., western culture), and
671 cultural differences in the results should be further explored.

672 On the other hand, the sample in the construction project context may not be
673 representative of other settings. Specifically, in this sample of construction workers, the
674 proportion of men was above 90%. Although this proportion is an underrepresentation for
675 good external validity, this sample is still beneficial for an enhanced internal validity of
676 this study to explore the affective mechanism and behavioral outcomes of individuals
677 working at the construction site. Future research could focus on other settings (e.g., gender-
678 balanced industries or industries with predominantly women) to examine the replicability of
679 the findings of this study.

680 This study applied SIP theory to establish a theoretical framework and provide empirical
681 data for the link between temporal leadership and safety behaviors. Temporal leadership
682 facilitates safety behaviors of construction workers through attentiveness. Team-level abusive

683 supervision and individual safety consciousness played significant moderating effects at
684 different stages. Specifically, team-level abusive supervision attenuated the positive
685 relationship between temporal leadership and attentiveness and buffered the positive indirect
686 effects of temporal leadership on safety compliance and safety participation. The relationship
687 between attentiveness and safety behaviors, and the effect of temporal leadership on safety
688 behaviors, were stronger among workers with high safety consciousness. Better understanding
689 the affective and moderated mediation mechanisms can elucidate the relationship between
690 constructive and destructive leadership and safety behaviors. These findings help project team
691 leaders and supervisors to implement measures aimed at boosting the impacts of temporal
692 leadership on workplace safety. These may include facilitating positive emotions and safety
693 consciousness and reducing the application of abusive supervision.

694 **Appendix. The scale items applied in the current study**

695 **Temporal leadership**

696 *(To what extent does/is your team leader or direct supervisor...)*

- 697 1. remind you of important deadlines?
- 698 2. prioritize tasks and allocate time to each task?
- 699 3. prepare and build in time for contingencies, problems, and emerging issues?
- 700 4. pace the team so that work is finished on time?
- 701 5. urge us to finish subtasks on time?
- 702 6. set milestones to measure progress on the project?
- 703 7. effective in coordinating the team to meet client deadlines?

704 **Abusive supervision**

705 *(Your team leader or direct supervisor would ... in the workplace.)*

706 1. tells you your thoughts or feelings are stupid.

707 2. puts you down in front of others.

708 3. makes negative comments about you to others.

709 4. tells you you're incompetent.

710 5. is rude to you.

711 **Attentiveness**

712 *(In the past 30 days of work, to what extent have I been...)*

713 1. Alert

714 2. Attentive

715 3. Strong

716 4. Determined

717 **Safety consciousness**

718 1. I always wear the protective equipment or clothing required by my job.

719 2. I am well aware of the safety risks involved in my job.

720 3. I do not use equipment that I feel is unsafe.

721 4. I inform management of any potential hazards I notice on the job.

722 5. I know where the fire extinguishers are located in my workplace.

723 6. I would know what to do if an emergency occurred on my shift (e.g., fire).

724 **Safety behavior**

725 *Safety compliance*

726 1. He/she uses all the necessary safety equipment to do his/her job.

727 2. He/she uses the correct safety procedures for carrying out his/her job.

728 3. He/she ensures the highest level of safety when he/she carry out his/her job.

729 *Safety participation*

730 1. He/she puts in extra effort to improve the safety of the workplace.

731 2. He/she helps the co-workers when they are working under risky or hazardous conditions.

732 3. He/she voluntarily carries out tasks or activities that help improve workplace safety.

733

734 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

735 All procedures conducted in this study were in accordance with the ethical standards of
736 the institutional research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki Declaration. Informed consent
737 was gained from all respondents who participated in this study.

738

739 **References**

740 Aeon, B., Aguinis, H., 2017. It's about time: New perspectives and insights on time
741 management. *Acad. Manag. Perspect.* 31, 309–330.

742 <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2016.0166>

743 Aiken, L.S., West, S.G., 1991. *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions.*

744 Sage, Newbury Park, CA.

745 Ancona, D.G., Goodman, P.S., Lawrence, B.S., Tushman, M.L., 2001. Time: A new research
746 lens. *Acad. Manag. Rev.* 26, 645–663. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2001.5393903>

747 Arsenio, W.F., 2010. Social information processing, emotions, and aggression: Conceptual

748 and methodological contributions of the special section articles. *J. Abnorm. Child*

749 Psychol. 38, 627–632. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-010-9408-z>

750 Aryee, S., Chen, Z.X., Sun, L.-Y., Debrah, Y.A., 2007. Antecedents and outcomes of abusive
751 supervision: Test of a trickle-down model. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 92, 191–201.
752 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.191>

753 Ashkanasy, N.M., Jordan, P.J., 2008. A multilevel view of leadership and emotion, in:
754 Humphrey, R.H., Neider, L.L., Schriesheim, C.A. (Eds.), *Affect and Emotion: New
755 Directions in Management Theory and Research*. Information Age Publishing, Charlotte,
756 NC, pp. 19–41.

757 Barling, J., Loughlin, C., Kelloway, E.K., 2002. Development and test of a model linking
758 safety-specific transformational leadership and occupational safety. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 87,
759 488–496. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.488>

760 Bindl, U.K., Parker, S.K., 2011. Proactive work behavior: Forward-thinking and change-
761 oriented action in organizations, in: Zedeck, S. (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and
762 Organizational Psychology*. American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, pp.
763 567–598.

764 Bluedorn, A.C., Jaussi, K.S., 2008. Leader, followers, and time. *Leadersh. Q.* 19, 654–668.
765 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.09.006>

766 Brislin, R.W., 1980. Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials, in:
767 Triandis, H.C., Berry, J.W. (Eds.), *Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology:
768 Methodology*. Allyn & Bacon, Boston, MA, USA, pp. 389–444.

769 Cavazotte, F., Mansur, J., Moreno, V., 2021. Authentic leadership and sustainable operations:
770 How leader morality and selflessness can foster frontline safety performance. *J. Clean.*

771 Prod. 313, 127819. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.127819>

772 Chen, C.-F., Chen, S.-C., 2014. Measuring the effects of Safety Management System
773 practices, morality leadership and self-efficacy on pilots' safety behaviors: Safety
774 motivation as a mediator. *Saf. Sci.* 62, 376–385.
775 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2013.09.013>

776 Chen, J., Nadkarni, S., 2017. It's about time! CEOs' temporal dispositions, temporal
777 leadership, and corporate entrepreneurship. *Adm. Sci. Q.* 62, 31–66.
778 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0001839216663504>

779 Cheung, C.M., Zhang, R.P., 2020. How organizational support can cultivate a multilevel
780 safety climate in the construction industry. *J. Manag. ...* 36, 04020014.
781 [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)ME.1943-5479.0000758](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)ME.1943-5479.0000758)

782 Chughtai, A.A., 2015. Creating safer workplaces: The role of ethical leadership. *Saf. Sci.* 73,
783 92–98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2014.11.016>

784 Claessens, B.J.C., van Eerde, W., Rutte, C.G., Roe, R.A., 2007. A review of the time
785 management literature. *Pers. Rev.* 36, 255–276.
786 <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480710726136>

787 Clarke, S., 2013. Safety leadership: A meta-analytic review of transformational and
788 transactional leadership styles as antecedents of safety behaviours. *J. Occup. Organ.*
789 *Psychol.* 86, 22–49. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.2012.02064.x>

790 Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S.G., Aiken, L.S., 2003. Applied multiple regression/correlation
791 analysis for the behavioral sciences, 3rd ed. ed. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah,
792 NJ.

793 Conchie, S.M., 2013. Transformational leadership, intrinsic motivation, and trust: A
794 moderated-mediated model of workplace safety. *J. Occup. Health Psychol.* 18, 198–210.
795 <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031805>

796 de Koster, R.B.M., Stam, D., Balk, B.M., 2011. Accidents happen: The influence of safety-
797 specific transformational leadership, safety consciousness, and hazard reducing systems
798 on warehouse accidents. *J. Oper. Manag.* 29, 753–765.
799 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2011.06.005>

800 Dong, Y., Bartol, K.M., Zhang, Z., Li, C., 2017. Enhancing employee creativity via
801 individual skill development and team knowledge sharing: Influences of dual-focused
802 transformational leadership. *J. Organ. Behav.* 38, 439–458.

803 Edwards, J.R., Lambert, L.S., 2007. Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A
804 general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychol. Methods* 12, 1–
805 22. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.12.1.1>

806 Fang, D., Wu, C., Wu, H., 2015. Impact of the supervisor on worker safety behavior in
807 construction projects. *J. Manag. Eng.* 31, 4015001.
808 [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)ME.1943-5479.0000355](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)ME.1943-5479.0000355)

809 Forcier, B.H., Walters, A.E., Brasher, E.E., Jones, J.W., 2001. Creating a safer working
810 environment through psychological assessment: A review of a measure of safety
811 consciousness. *J. Prev. Interv. Community* 22, 53–65.
812 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10852350109511211>

813 Gallagher, E.C., Mazur, A.K., Ashkanasy, N.M., 2015. Rallying the troops or beating the
814 horses? How project-related demands can lead to either high performance or abusive

815 supervision. *Proj. Manag. J.* 46, 10–24. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pmj.21500>

816 Gevers, J.M.P., Demerouti, E., 2013. How supervisors' reminders relate to subordinates'
817 absorption and creativity. *J. Manag. Psychol.* 28, 677–698. [https://doi.org/10.1108/JPM-](https://doi.org/10.1108/JPM-09-2011-0055)
818 09-2011-0055

819 Gevers, J.M.P., Eerde, W. van, Rutte, C.G., 2001. Time pressure, potency, and progress in
820 project groups. *Eur. J. Work Organ. Psychol.* 10, 205–221.
821 <https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320143000636>

822 Giacalone, R.A., Promislo, M.D., 2010. Unethical and unwell: Decrements in well-being and
823 unethical activity at work. *J. Bus. Ethics* 91, 275–297. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-009-0083-3)
824 009-0083-3

825 Griffin, M.A., Hu, X., 2013. How leaders differentially motivate safety compliance and
826 safety participation: The role of monitoring, inspiring, and learning. *Saf. Sci.* 60, 196–
827 202. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2013.07.019>

828 Griffin, M.A., Neal, A., 2000. Perceptions of safety at work: A framework for linking safety
829 climate to safety performance, knowledge, and motivation. *J. Occupational Heal.*
830 *Psychol.* 5, 347–358. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.5.3.347>

831 Griffin, R.W., 1981. Supervisory behaviour as a source of perceived task scope. *J. Occup.*
832 *Psychol.* 54, 175–182. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1981.tb00057.x>

833 Griffin, R.W., Bateman, T.S., Wayne, S.J., Head, T.C., 1987. Objective and social factors as
834 determinants of task perceptions and responses: An integrated perspective and empirical
835 investigation. *Acad. Manag. J.* 30, 501–523. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256011>

836 Halbesleben, J.R.B., Novicevic, M.M., Harvey, M.G., Buckley, M.R., 2003. Awareness of

837 temporal complexity in leadership of creativity and innovation: A competency-based
838 model. *Leadersh. Q.* 14, 433–454. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(03\)00046-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(03)00046-8)

839 Hofmann, D.A., Morgeson, F.P., Gerras, S.J., 2003. Climate as a moderator of the
840 relationship between leader-member exchange and content specific citizenship: Safety
841 climate as an exemplar. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 88, 170–178. [https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-](https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.1.170)
842 9010.88.1.170

843 Holland, P., Cooper, B., Sheehan, C., 2017. Employee voice, supervisor support, and
844 engagement: The mediating role of trust. *Hum. Resour. Manage.* 56, 915–929.
845 <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.218009>

846 Hu, X., Shi, J., 2015. Employees' surface acting in interactions with leaders and peers. *J.*
847 *Organ. Behav.* 36, 1132–1152. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2015>

848 Hughes, D.J., Lee, A., Tian, A.W., Newman, A., Legood, A., 2018. Leadership, creativity,
849 and innovation: A critical review and practical recommendations. *Leadersh. Q.* 29, 549–
850 569. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2018.03.001>

851 Izard, C.E., 1984. Emotion-cognition relationships and human development, in: Izard, C.E.,
852 Kagan, J., Zajonc, R.B. (Eds.), *Emotions, Cognition, and Behavior*. Cambridge
853 University Press, Cambridge, pp. 17–37.

854 James, L.R., Demaree, R.G., Wolf, G., 1984. Estimating within-group interrater reliability
855 with and without response bias. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 69, 85–98.
856 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.1.85>

857 Ju, L., Zhao, W., Wu, C., Li, H., Ning, X., 2020. Abusive supervisors and employee work-to-
858 family conflict in Chinese construction projects: how does family support help? *Constr.*

859 Manag. Econ. 38, 1158–1178. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01446193.2020.1817962>

860 Kelloway, E.K., Mullen, J., Francis, L., 2006. Divergent effects of transformational and
861 passive leadership on employee safety. *J. Occup. Health Psychol.* 11, 76–86.
862 <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.11.1.76>

863 Kiazad, K., Restubog, S.L.D., Zagenczyk, T.J., Kiewitz, C., Tang, R.L., 2010. In pursuit of
864 power: The role of authoritarian leadership in the relationship between supervisors’
865 Machiavellianism and subordinates’ perceptions of abusive supervisory behavior. *J. Res.*
866 *Pers.* 44, 512–519. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2010.06.004>

867 Lemerise, E.A., Arsenio, W.F., 2000. An integrated model of emotion processes and
868 cognition in social information processing. *Child Dev.* 71, 107–118.
869 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00124>

870 Leung, M., Chan, I.Y.S., Yu, J., 2012. Preventing construction worker injury incidents
871 through the management of personal stress and organizational stressors. *Accid. Anal.*
872 *Prev.* 48, 156–166. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2011.03.017>

873 Lian, H., Ferris, D.L., Brown, D.J., 2012. Does taking the good with the bad make things
874 worse? How abusive supervision and leader-member exchange interact to impact need
875 satisfaction and organizational deviance. *Organ. Behav. Hum. Decis. Process.* 117, 41–
876 52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2011.10.003>

877 Lindebaum, D., Fielden, S., 2011. ‘It’s good to be angry’: Enacting anger in construction
878 project management to achieve perceived leader effectiveness. *Hum. Relations* 64, 437–
879 458.

880 Lingard, H., Zhang, R.P., Oswald, D., 2019. Effect of leadership and communication

881 practices on the safety climate and behaviour of construction workgroups. *Eng. Constr.*
882 *Archit. Manag.* 26, 886–906. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ECAM-01-2018-0015>

883 Liu, J.Y., Low, S.P., 2011. Work-family conflicts experienced by project managers in the
884 Chinese construction industry. *Int. J. Proj. Manag.* 29, 117–128.
885 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2010.01.012>

886 Lu, C.-S., Yang, C.-S., 2010. Safety leadership and safety behavior in container terminal
887 operations. *Saf. Sci.* 48, 123–134. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2009.05.003>

888 Lu, J., Zhang, Z., Jia, M., 2019. Does servant leadership affect employees' emotional labor?
889 A social information-processing perspective. *J. Bus. Ethics* 159, 507–518.
890 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3816-3>

891 Martínez-Córcoles, M., Stephanou, K., 2017. Linking active transactional leadership and
892 safety performance in military operations. *Saf. Sci.* 96, 93–101.
893 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2017.03.013>

894 Martinko, M.J., Harvey, P., Brees, J.R., Mackey, J., 2013. A review of abusive supervision
895 research. *J. Organ. Behav.* 34, S120–S137. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1888>

896 Meng, X., Chan, A.H.S., 2020. Demographic influences on safety consciousness and safety
897 citizenship behavior of construction workers. *Saf. Sci.* 129, 104835.
898 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2020.104835>

899 Mitchell, M.S., Ambrose, M.L., 2007. Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the
900 moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 92, 1159–1168.
901 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1159>

902 Miterev, M., Engwall, M., Jerbrant, A., 2016. Exploring program management competences

903 for various program types. *Int. J. Proj. Manag.* 34, 545–557.
904 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2015.07.006>

905 Mohammed, S., Alipour, K.K., 2014. It'm time for temporal leadership: Individual, dyadic,
906 team, and organizational effects. *Ind. Organ. Psychol.* 7, 178–182.
907 <https://doi.org/10.1111/iops.12128>

908 Mohammed, S., Nadkarni, S., 2011. Temporal diversity and team performance: The
909 moderating role of team temporal leadership. *Acad. Manag. J.* 54, 459–508.
910 <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.61967991>

911 Mullen, J.E., Kelloway, E.K., 2009. Safety leadership: A longitudinal study of the effects of
912 transformational leadership on safety outcomes. *J. Occup. Organ. Psychol.* 82, 253–272.
913 <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317908X325313>

914 Müller, R., Geraldi, J., Turner, J.R., 2012. Relationships between leadership and success in
915 different types of project complexities. *IEEE Trans. Eng. Manag.* 59, 77–90.
916 <https://doi.org/10.1109/TEM.2011.2114350>

917 Muthén, L.K., Muthén, B.O., 2012. *Mplus User's Guide*. Muthén & Muthén, Los Angeles,
918 CA.

919 Myer, A.T., Mohammed, S., 2012. Team temporal leadership: Construct development and
920 validation, in: *27th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational*
921 *Psychology*. San Diego, CA.

922 Neal, A., Griffin, M.A., 2006. A study of the lagged relationships among safety climate,
923 safety motivation, safety behavior, and accidents at the individual and group levels. *J.*
924 *Appl. Psychol.* 91, 946–953. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.4.946>

925 Nielsen, M.B., Skogstad, A., Matthiesen, S.B., Einarsen, S., 2016. The importance of a
926 multidimensional and temporal design in research on leadership and workplace safety.
927 *Leadersh. Q.* 27, 142–155. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.08.003>

928 Odusami, K.T., Iyagba, R.R.O., Omirin, M.M., 2003. The relationship between project
929 leadership, team composition and construction project performance in Nigeria. *Int. J.*
930 *Proj. Manag.* 21, 519–527. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0263-7863\(02\)00059-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0263-7863(02)00059-5)

931 Parker, S.K., Bindl, U.K., Strauss, K., 2010. Mkaing things happen: A model of proactive
932 motivation. *J. Manage.* 36, 827–856. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310363732>

933 Peng, J., Wang, Z., Chen, X., 2019. Does self-serving leadership hinder team creativity? A
934 moderated dual-path model. *J. Bus. Ethics* 159, 419–433.
935 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3799-0>

936 Piccolo, R.F., Colquitt, J.A., 2006. Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The
937 mediating role of core job characteristics. *Acad. Manag. J.* 49, 327–340.
938 <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2006.20786079>

939 Preacher, K.J., Zyphur, M.J., Zhang, Z., 2010. A general multilevel SEM framework for
940 assessing multilevel mediation. *Psychol Methods* 15, 209–233.

941 Priesemuth, M., Schminke, M., Ambrose, M.L., Folger, R., 2014. Abusive supervision
942 climate: A multiple-mediation model of its impact on group outcomes. *Acad. Manag. J.*
943 57, 1513–1534. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0237>

944 Rodell, J.B., Judge, T.A., 2009. Can “good” stressors spark “bad” behaviors? The mediating
945 role of emotions in links of challenge and hindrance stressors with citizenship and
946 counterproductive behaviors. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 94, 1438–1451.

947 <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016752>

948 Rosing, K., Frese, M., Bausch, A., 2011. Explaining the heterogeneity of the leadership-
949 innovation relationship: Ambidextrous leadership. *Leadersh. Q.* 22, 956–974.
950 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.07.014>

951 Rousseau, V., Aubé, C., 2018. When leaders stifle innovation in work teams: The role of
952 abusive supervision. *J. Bus. Ethics* 151, 651–664. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3258-8)
953 [3258-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3258-8)

954 Salancik, G.J., Pfeffer, J., 1978. A social information processing approach to job attitudes and
955 task design. *Adm. Sci. Q.* 23, 224–253.

956 Santos, C.M., Passos, A.M., Uitdewilligen, S., Nübold, A., 2016. Shared temporal cognitions
957 as substitute for temporal leadership: An analysis of their effects on temporal conflict
958 and team performance. *Leadersh. Q.* 27, 574–587.
959 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.12.002>

960 Schmid, E.A., Verdorfer, A.P., Peus, C. V., 2018. Different shades—different effects?
961 Consequences of different types of destructive leadership. *Front. Psychol.* 9, 1289.
962 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01289>

963 Smith, T.D., Eldridge, F., Dejoy, D.M., 2016. Safety-specific transformational and passive
964 leadership influences on firefighter safety climate perceptions and safety behavior
965 outcomes. *Saf. Sci.* 86, 92–97.

966 Sonnentag, S., 2012. Time in organizational research: Catching up on a long neglected topic
967 in order to improve theory. *Organ. Psychol. Rev.* 2, 361–368.
968 <https://doi.org/10.1177/2041386612442079>

969 Tear, M.J., Reader, T.W., Shorrocks, S., Kirwan, B., 2020. Safety culture and power:
970 Interactions between perceptions of safety culture, organisational hierarchy, and national
971 culture. *Saf. Sci.* 121, 550–561. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2018.10.014>

972 Tepper, B.J., 2007. Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and
973 research agenda. *J. Manage.* 33, 261–289. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300812>

974 Tepper, B.J., 2000. Consequences of abusive supervision. *Acad. Manag. J.* 43, 178–190.
975 <https://doi.org/10.5465/1556375>

976 Tepper, B.J., Henle, C.A., Lambert, L.S., Giacalone, R.A., Duffy, M.K., 2008. Abusive
977 supervision and subordinates' organization deviance. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 93, 721–732.
978 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.4.721>

979 Tepper, B.J., Simon, L., Park, H.M., 2017. Abusive supervision. *Annu. Rev. Organ. Psychol.*
980 *Organ. Behav.* 4, 123–152. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-041015-062539>

981 van der Erve, M., 2004. Temporal leadership. *Eur. Bus. Rev.* 16, 605–617.
982 <https://doi.org/10.1108/09555340410565422>

983 Wang, D., Wang, X., Griffin, M.A., Wang, Z., 2020. Safety stressors, safety-specific trust,
984 and safety citizenship behavior: A contingency perspective. *Accid. Anal. Prev.* 142,
985 105572. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2020.105572>

986 Wang, D., Wang, X., Xia, N., 2018. How safety-related stress affects workers' safety
987 behavior: The moderating role of psychological capital. *Saf. Sci.* 103, 247–259.
988 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2017.11.020>

989 Watson, D., 2000. *Mood and temperament*. Guilford Press, New York.

990 Watson, D., Clark, L.A., Tellegen, A., 1988. Development and validation of brief measures

991 of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* 54, 1063–1070.
992 <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.54.6.1063>

993 Watson, D., Tellegen, A., 1985. Toward a consensual structure of mood. *Psychol. Bull.* 98,
994 219–235. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.98.2.219>

995 Westaby, J.D., Lee, B.C., 2003. Antecedents of injury among youth in agricultural settings: A
996 longitudinal examination of safety consciousness, dangerous risk taking, and safety
997 knowledge. *J. Safety Res.* 34, 227–240. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4375\(03\)00030-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4375(03)00030-6)

998 Wheeler, A.R., Halbesleben, J.R.B., Whitman, M. V., 2013. The interactive effects of abusive
999 supervision and entitlement on emotional exhaustion and co-worker abuse. *J. Occup.*
1000 *Organ. Psychol.* 86, 477–496. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12034>

1001 Whitman, M. V., Halbesleben, J.R.B., Holmas, I.O., 2014. Abusive supervision and feedback
1002 avoidance: The mediating role of emotional exhaustion. *J. Organ. Behav.* 35, 38–53.
1003 <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1852>

1004 Wong, T.K.M., Man, S.S., Chan, A.H.S., 2020. Critical factors for the use or non-use of
1005 personal protective equipment amongst construction workers. *Saf. Sci.* 126, 104663.
1006 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2020.104663>

1007 Wu, C., Li, N., Fang, D., 2017. Leadership improvement and its impact on workplace safety
1008 in construction projects: A conceptual model and action research. *Int. J. Proj. Manag.*
1009 35, 1495–1511. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.08.013>

1010 Wu, T.-C., Chen, C.-H., Li, C.-C., 2008. A correlation among safety leadership, safety
1011 climate and safety performance. *J. Loss Prev. Process Ind.* 21, 307–318.
1012 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jlp.2007.11.001>

1013 Xiao, H., Zhang, Z., Zhang, L., 2020. Is temporal leadership always beneficial? The role of
1014 job passion and synchrony preference. *Pers. Rev.* [https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-02-2020-](https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-02-2020-0078)
1015 0078

1016 Xu, A.J., Loi, R., Lam, L.W., 2015. The bad boss takes it all: How abusive supervision and
1017 leader-member exchange interact to influence employee silence. *Leadersh. Q.* 26, 763–
1018 774. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.03.002>

1019 Yuan, X., Xu, Y., Li, Y., 2020. Resource depletion perspective on the link between abusive
1020 supervision and safety behaviors. *J. Bus. Ethics* 162, 213–228.
1021 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3983-2>

1022 Zhang, J., van Eerde, W., Gevers, J.M.P., Zhu, W., 2020. How temporal leadership boosts
1023 employee innovative job performance. *Eur. J. Innov. Manag.* 24, 23–42.
1024 <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJIM-05-2019-0112>

1025 Zhang, Z., Zhang, L., Wang, H., Zheng, J., 2020. Linking supervisor developmental feedback
1026 to in-role performance: The role of job control and perceived rapport with supervisors. *J.*
1027 *Manag. Organ.* 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2020.5>

1028 Zheng, J., Wen, Q., Qiang, M., 2020. Understanding demand for project manager
1029 competences in the construction industry: Data mining approach. *J. Constr. Eng. Manag.*
1030 146, 04020083. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)CO.1943-7862.0001865](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)CO.1943-7862.0001865)

1031 Zhu, J., Zhang, B., 2019. The double-edged sword effect of abusive supervision on
1032 subordinates' innovative behavior. *Front. Psychol.* 10, 66.
1033 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00066>

Figures

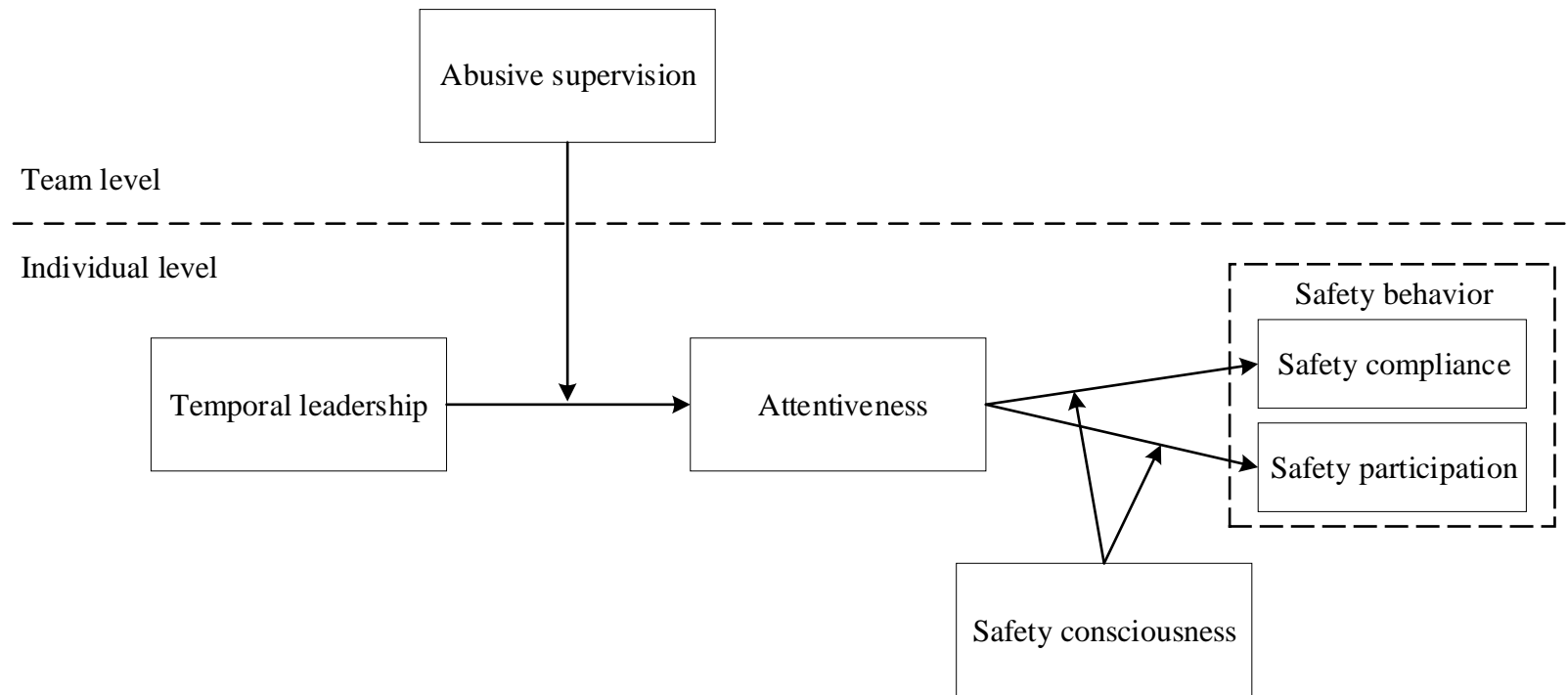


Figure 1. Conceptual model.

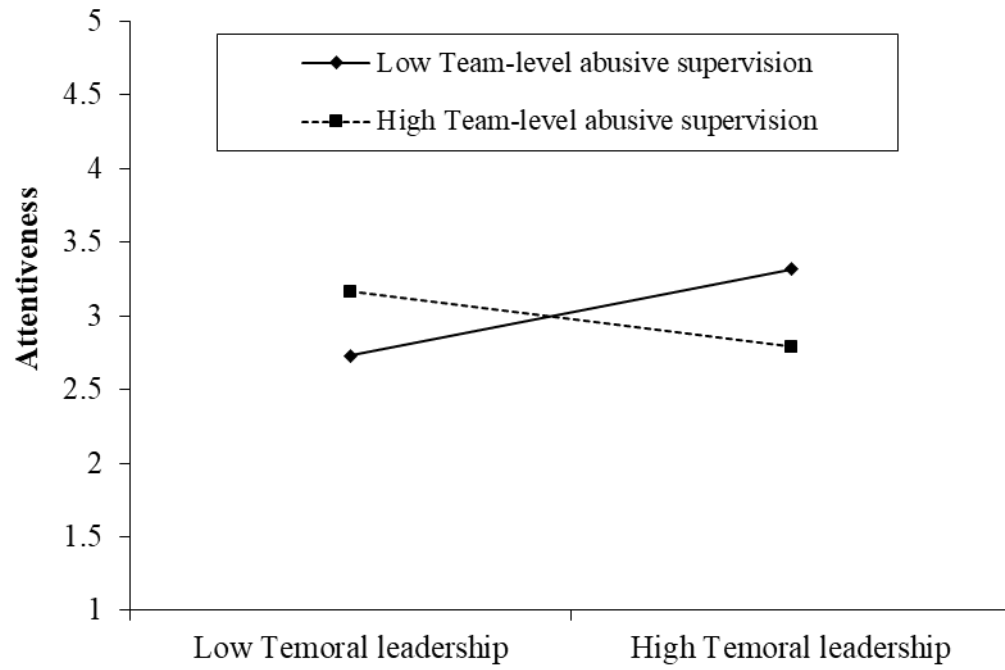


Figure 2. The moderation of team-level abusive supervision.

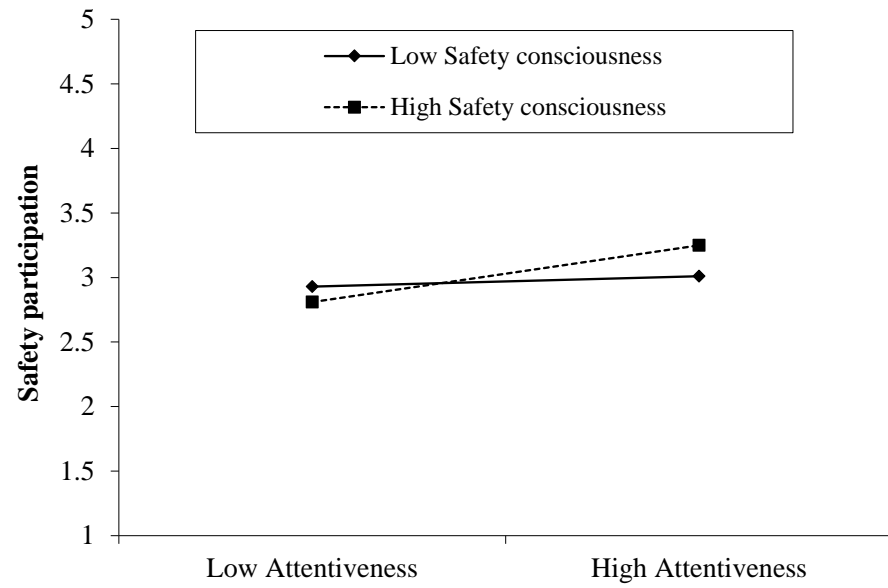
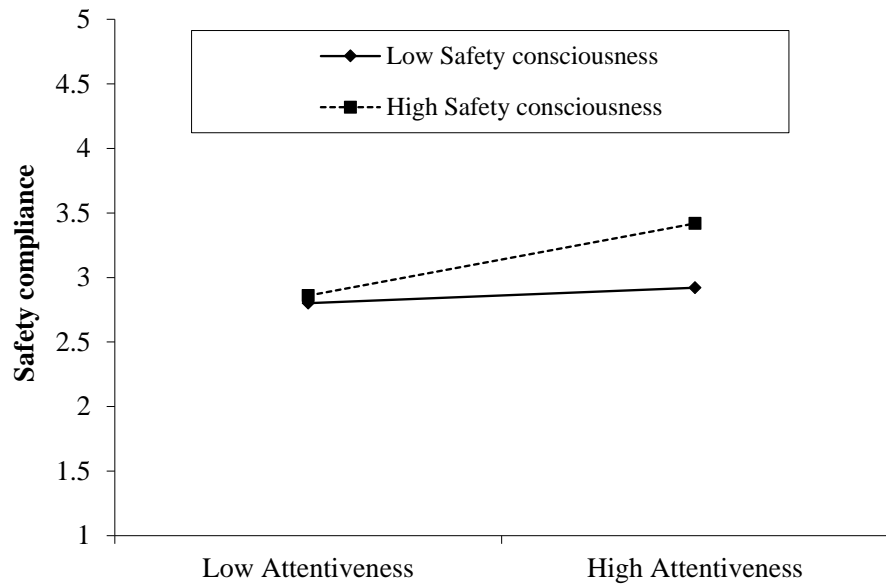


Figure 3. The moderation of safety consciousness.

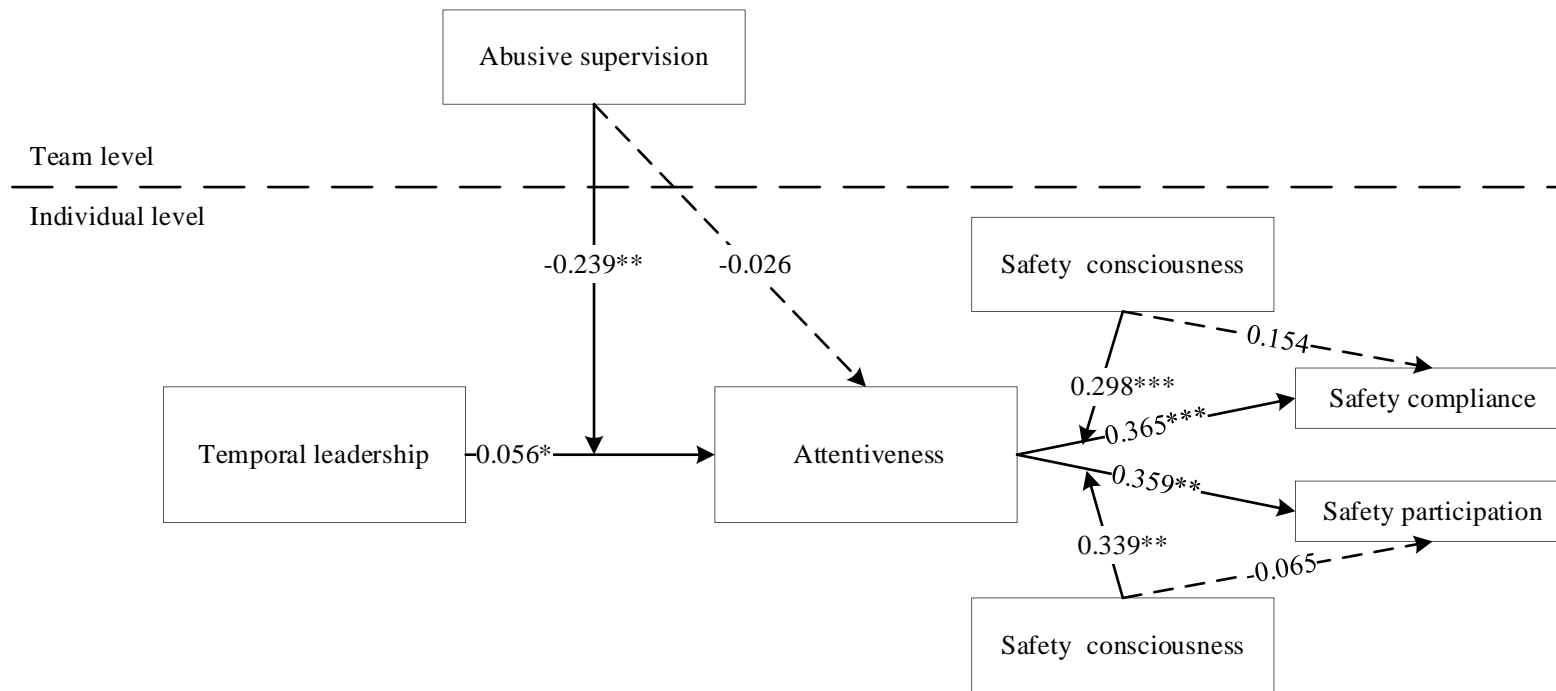


Figure 4. The results of hypothesized model using MSEM.

Tables

Table 1. Results of confirmed factor analysis

Model	Factor	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	RMSEA [95% CI]	SRMR	CFI	TLI
Six-Factor Model	TL, AS, ATT, SC, SP, SCO	1051.163	309	3.40	0.07 [0.06; 0.07]	0.05	0.91	0.90
Five-Factor Model	TL+AS, ATT, SC, SP, SCO	2166.760	314	6.90	0.11 [0.10; 0.11]	0.10	0.78	0.75
Four-Factor Model	TL+AS+ATT, SC, SP, SCO	3432.588	318	10.79	0.14 [0.13; 0.14]	0.17	0.62	0.58
Three-Factor Model	TL+AS+ATT+SCO, SC, SP	4305.334	321	13.41	0.15 [0.15; 0.16]	0.19	0.52	0.47
Single-Factor Model	TL+AS+ATT+SC+SP+SCO	6030.498	324	18.61	0.18 [0.18; 0.19]	0.21	0.31	0.25

Note: TL = Temporal leadership; AS = Abusive supervision; ATT = Attentiveness; SC = Safety compliance; SP = Safety participation; SCO = Safety consciousness. CI = Confidence interval.

Table 2. Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among variables.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Level 1 (N=535)												
1. Gender	0.97	0.18	-									
2. Age	33.13	8.19	-0.08	-								
3. Education	1.92	0.66	-0.01	0.02	-							
4. Type	2.13	0.92	-0.11**	-0.03	0.31***	-						
5. Temporal leadership	2.99	1.18	-0.01	-0.07	-0.12**	0.03	(0.86)					
6. Abusive supervision	2.07	0.77	-0.04	0.01	0.01	0.03	-0.29***	(0.93)				
7. Attentiveness	2.00	0.60	0.07	-0.03	-0.02	-0.01	0.13**	-0.02	(0.83)			
8. Safety compliance	2.25	0.99	0.07	-0.05	-0.07	0.02	0.07	-0.16***	0.31***	(0.79)		
9. Safety participation	2.26	1.28	0.05	-0.03	-0.04	0.03	0.03	-0.13**	0.17***	0.31***	(0.90)	
10. Safety consciousness	1.92	0.51	0.06	-0.04	-0.01	-0.02	0.14**	-0.06	0.77***	0.31***	0.15***	(0.81)
Level 2 (N = 120)												
1. Team size	4.46	0.62	-									
2. Team-level abusive supervision	-	-	0.01	-								

Note: SD = standard deviation. Values in the parenthesis are Cronbach's alpha coefficient. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 3. Direct and moderation effects testing using R.

Variable	Attentiveness		Safety compliance		Safety participation	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Mode 6
<i>Level-1 and level 2 control</i>						
Gender	0.26(0.15)	0.06(0.04)	0.02(0.04)	0.06(0.04)	0.31(0.32)	0.04(0.04)
Age	-0.00(0.00)	-0.02(0.04)	-0.01(0.01)	-0.04(0.04)	-0.00(0.01)	-0.02(0.04)
Education	0.00(0.04)	0.01(0.05)	-0.10(0.07)	-0.08(0.04)	-0.10(0.09)	-0.06(0.05)
Type	-0.01(0.03)	-0.01(0.05)	0.05(0.05)	0.05(0.04)	0.07(0.06)	0.06(0.05)
Team size	-0.01(0.04)	-0.00(0.05)	-0.08(0.07)	-0.05(0.04)	-0.03(0.09)	-0.02(0.04)
<i>Level-1 independent and interaction effects</i>						
Temporal leadership	0.06** (0.02)	0.12** (0.04)	0.02(0.04)	0.01(0.04)	-0.00(0.05)	-0.01(0.04)
Attentiveness			0.50*** (0.07)	0.17** (0.06)	0.36*** (0.09)	0.13(0.07)
Safety consciousness				0.14* (0.06)		0.03(0.07)
Attentiveness × Safety consciousness				0.11*** (0.03)		0.09** (0.03)
<i>Level-2 independent and cross-level effects</i>						
Abusive supervision		-0.02(0.05)				
Temporal leadership × Abusive supervision		-0.13** (0.04)				
Marginal R^2	0.02	0.04	0.11	0.15	0.04	0.05
Conditional R^2	0.06	0.10	0.18	0.17	0.04	0.05

Note: $N = 535$ at the individual level, $N = 120$ at the team level. Pseudo R^2 is calculated based on the formulas from Snijders and Bosker (1999). * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 4. The test of mediation, and moderated mediation through MSEM and Bootstrap with Monte Carlo method.

Variables/Path	Estimate	SE	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Mediation of attentiveness				
Temporal leadership→Attentiveness→Safety compliance	0.03**	0.01	0.010	0.057
Temporal leadership→Attentiveness→Safety participation	0.02**	0.01	0.006	0.046
Moderation of team-level abusive supervision				
Path: Temporal leadership→Attentiveness				
Low (1-SD)	0.24***	0.06	0.123	0.358
High (1+SD)	-0.13*	0.06	-0.246	-0.009
Difference	-0.37***	0.11	-0.578	-0.156
Moderated mediation of team-level abusive supervision				
Path: Temporal leadership→Attentiveness→Safety compliance				
Low (1-SD)	0.09***	0.03	0.032	0.161
High (1+SD)	-0.05*	0.03	-0.105	-0.003
Difference	-0.14***	0.06	-0.256	-0.041
Path: Temporal leadership→Attentiveness→Safety participation				
Low (1-SD)	0.09**	0.03	0.029	0.161
High (1+SD)	-0.05*	0.03	-0.104	-0.003
Difference	-0.14**	0.06	-0.260	-0.038
Moderation of individual-level safety consciousness				
Path: Attentiveness→Safety compliance				
Low (1-SD)	0.21*	0.11	0.001	0.427
High (1+SD)	0.52***	0.11	0.306	0.727
Difference	0.31***	0.08	0.139	0.468
Path: Attentiveness→Safety participation				
Low (1-SD)	0.19	0.12	-0.041	0.414
High (1+SD)	0.53***	0.12	0.306	0.759
Difference	0.34**	0.10	0.147	0.545
Moderated mediation of individual-level safety consciousness				

Path: Temporal leadership→Attentiveness→ Safety compliance

Low (1-SD)	0.01	0.01	-0.001	0.032
High (1+SD)	0.03 [*]	0.01	0.003	0.060
Difference	0.02 [*]	0.01	0.002	0.037

Path: Temporal leadership→Attentiveness→Safety participation

Low (1-SD)	0.01	0.01	-0.003	0.031
High (1+SD)	0.03 [*]	0.02	0.003	0.063
Difference	0.02 ^{**}	0.01	0.002	0.043

Note: Bootstrap =20,000. *SE* = Standard error, LLCI = Lower-level confidence interval, ULCI = Upper-level confidence interval. ⁺ $p < 0.01$; ^{*} $p < 0.05$; ^{**} $p < 0.01$; ^{***} $p < 0.001$.