How and Why Exploitative Leadership Influences Followers' Organizational Commitment: Integrating Social Exchange and Justice Lens

Hanyu GAO[1], Le TAN[2]* and Po HAO[2]

[1] The London School of Economics and Political Science, London, UK; gaohanyu980111@163.com

[2] Northwest University, Xi'an, China; tanle@nwu.edu.cn; haopo88@126.com

* Corresponding author: tanle@nwu.edu.cn

Abstract: Exploitative leadership (EL) is one type of emerging leadership behavior that is destructive in organizations. However, little was known about a more concrete mechanism. Based on social exchange theory and justice theory, we posit that exploitative leadership (EL) may influence followers' organizational commitment (OC) though affecting followers' perceived interactional justice (IJ), while employees' justice sensitivity (JS) being the moderator. With a sample of 172 employees, we found that (1) EL is negatively related to employees' organizational commitment, (2) employees' perceived interactional justice partly mediated the relationship between EL and OC, and (3) JS moderates the relationship between IJ and OC, and when the level of JS is high, employees reacted more intensely to their experienced injustice, showing less OC. Our findings extend the understanding of the relationship between EL and employees' OC with individual difference concerns, specifying how and why EL can influence employees' organizational commitment. Our findings provide significant theoretical contributions, with practical implications and future directions discussed.

Keywords: exploitative leadership; organizational commitment; interactional justice; justice sensitivity

JEL Classification: M19

1. Introduction

Considerable studies have highlighted the variance, complication, and uncertainty that COVID-19 brought to the economy and industrial development (e.g., Papadopoulos et al., 2020; Craven et al., 2020). Within a pressurized and uncertain environment, organizations are facing intensive demands for survival and competition to maintain their development, enhancing the essential role of employees in maintaining organizational effectiveness. Employees' organizational commitment (OC) has long been a key managerial topic, indicating a positive condition for pleasant workplace outcomes, and previous studies indicated the significant relationship between employees' OC and their job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, and turnover intention (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002). The existing conclusions highlighted the importance of OC in the workplace under a changing context.

Leadership is a key component in the workplace, influencing the work experience of subordinates and organizations' effectiveness (Lok & Crawford, 2003). In recent years, leadership research showed a broader scope investigating the detrimental effect of leadership,

regarded as destructive leadership (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Exploitative leadership (EL) is a new form of destructive leadership, referring to leader's actions that shows a primary intention to extend leaders' interest (Schmid et al., 2019), attracting academic attention by its self-interest nature noted as a fundamental motive of human (Montada & Maes, 2016); the abuse of power and leaders' personal goals drives the emergence of EL (Williams, 2014; Julmi, 2021). To achieve personal goals or force others to work for their benefits, EL rely on power which presents legitimate control by coercion and manipulation. When using power to prioritize personal benefits, leaders are perceived exploitative, and more likely to result in destructive consequences (Schmid et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2014).

Previous studies have demonstrated the potential negative effect of EL (e.g., Schmid et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020; Abdulmuhsin et al., 2021). On the one hand, EL can lead to negative consequences including employee burnout, workplace deviance (Schmid et al., 2019), psychological distress (Majeed & Fatima, 2020), and knowledge hiding behaviors (Guo et al., 2020). On the other hand, EL can hinder positive outcomes such as knowledge creation, sharing and utilization (Abdulmuhsin et al., 2021), innovative behaviors (Wang et al., 2020), service performance (Wu et al., 2021), work satisfaction, and affective commitment (Schmid et al., 2019).

Despite the destructive nature of EL predicting negative effects on employees, as indicated by the decreased OC, we are still constrained in understanding the mechanism of EL to such outcome. Self-interest motive is one of the fundamental motives of humans (Montada & Maes, 2016). As for leaders, the self-interest intentions may manifest through their prioritized demands for personal goals; while for employees, the self-interest intentions may manifest via their justice demands and related actions, since people tend to perceive increased justice demands for personal benefits and interests intuitively when they possess a relative deprivation position in exchange relationship (Crosby, 1976). Besides, exploitativeness was argued to violate the reciprocity norm, driven by self-interest motives (Brunell et al., 2013), and conflicting employees' self-interest requirements. However, limited research has discussed the "crash" of leaders' and employees' self-interest manifested through organizational justice issues. With the integrated perspective of justice and the social exchange, present research intended to empirically examine how and when exploitative leadership predicts employees' OC, to address the above gap.

This article has two major research goals. First, although previous research has illustrated the detrimental influence of EL in organization, few studies have examined the mechanisms particularly under a changing and uncertain environment in the current era. A critical question is how and why EL are detrimental to employees' OC. Justice can be an essential mechanism since COVID-19 has inevitably created more threats and uncertainty to organizations and employees, intuitively raising people's self-interest motives to protect personal benefits in exchanges, motivating exploitation and justice restorage. Interactional justice (IJ) is an essential and representative element supporting long-term exchange relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) due to its prevalence in the work environment (Le Roy et al., 2012). Therefore, denoting leadership as a source of justice experience (Tepper, 2000), we propose employees' perceived IJ as a mediator between EL and OC.

Second, since researchers tend to ignore the individual difference in facing and responding to workplace injustice, our second purpose was to examine the effect of justice-related personal factors in affecting employees' reactions. Justice sensitivity (JS) indicates how much an individual concerned about justice, predicting a more significant reaction of justice-sensitive individuals towards injustice threats compared to less justice-sensitive people (Baumert & Schmitt, 2016), implying the innate strength of employees' self-interest motive combatting injustice experiences. We thus propose that employees' JS may moderate the effect of individuals' justice perception on OC, that the relationship will be stronger when employees are more justice-sensitive than less justice-sensitive.

In conclusion, with a sample of 172 employees in China, we empirically examine: (a) the relationship between EL and employees' OC; (b) the mediating effect of perceived IJ in linking EL with employees' OC; (c) the moderating effect of justice sensitivity on the relationship between IJ and OC. Figure 1 shows the overall proposed model and hypotheses.
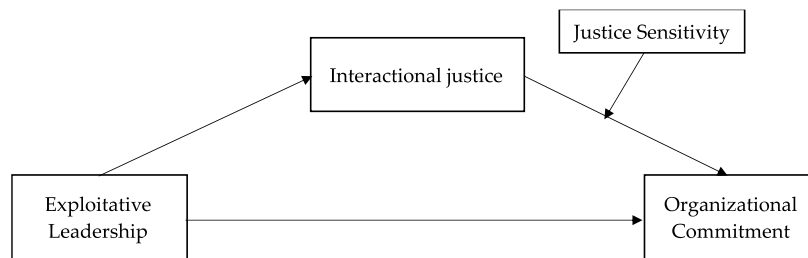

Figure 1. The proposed model

1.1. EL and OC

EL refers to the leadership behaviors that intentionally extend leaders' self-interest, capturing the intentionality and the 'exploitativeness' in their leadership behaviors (Williams, 2014; Schmid et al., 2019). Exploitative leaders mainly exploit others by (1) acting egoistically, (2) pressurizing and manipulating followers, (3) making followers overburdened, or, on the contrast, (4) unchallenged and undeveloped. Leaders' formal power to enforce their will over others comes from their position (French & Raven, 1959; Sturm & Antonakis, 2015), which EL abused to serve their benefits (Sankowsky, 1995), distorting the exchange relationship between leader and employees.

OC is an important attitudinal response in the workplace indicating the affective ties between employees and their organization (i.e., affective commitment, Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees with stronger OC express more desire to stay in their current organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991), predicting OCBs, well-being, and performance (Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002). Previous research identified leaders as essential agents of the organization, explaining how leaders' actions influence employees' attitudes toward their organization by the "spill over" effect (Levinson, 1965; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Katz & Kahn, 1978), we thus indicate EL as a potential influencer to followers' OC.

OC served as a favorable resource by the organization in general exchanges with employees. As a destructive leadership, EL is argued to undermine the social exchange relationship with employees. According to the reciprocity norm, employees evaluate leaders'

contributions in exchanges and decide their returns (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Employees are encouraged to invest favorable resources to prolong positive exchange relationships when they are perceived to benefit from the exchanges (Eisenberger et al., 1986), and OC is one of the forms. On the contrast, they will reduce investment or behave destructively to reciprocate the adverse relationship with leaders (Perugini et al., 2003; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Schilling, 2009). For example, exploitative leaders were aimed to take without returns, such as stealing team achievement for personal use and prioritize prioritizing self-interest over collective goals, realizing with more negative treatments to followers, harming followers' trust in leaders and loyalty to their exchange relationships (Schmid et al., 2019). In sum, we predict a negative relationship between EL and OC:

Hypothesis 1: EL will negatively influence OC.

1.2. The Mediating Role of IJ

Organizational justice is defined as employees' perceived fairness at the organizational level (Greenberg, 1987). Researchers focused on employees' justice judgments in the workplace and how these justice perceptions further predict attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (e.g., Colquitt, 2008). For humans, justice requirement reflects a concern of personal interest, as people are motivated to protect justice so that they will be fairly treated (Montada & Maes, 2016); for organizations, justice is identified as a basic element for work effectiveness and performance (Greenberg, 1990; Bakhshi et al., 2009). Organizational justice was claimed to include three dimensions: (1) distributive justice, refers to the fairness perception on the work results; (2) procedural justice, refers to fairness perceptions on work processes, including the perceived 'process control' and 'decision control' in decision-making; (3) Interactional justice, referring to the justice perceptions on interactional treatments received by individuals (Colquitt, 2008). In the present research, we focus on the role of interactional justice due to its prevalence in work experience and high frequency in employees' justice evaluation.

Individuals tend to experience IJ when the treatments they receive did not embrace respect, honesty, propriety, and sensitivity rules (Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg & Cropanzano, 1993). EL can negatively influence employees' IJ with its disrespect on employees' effort, such as stealing group achievements for personal use (e.g., promotion and rewards). In addition, EL may perform hidden aggressive behaviors like manipulation and lying to use employees, masking their real self-interested intentions (Schmid et al., 2019; Watson & Morris, 1991), violating the respect and honesty rules. As demonstrated, the unfriendliness of leaders will negatively influence employees' IJ experience and perception (Tepper, 2000), we then argued that exploitative leaders will be negatively related to employees' IJ experiences:

Hypothesis 2a: EL will negatively influence employees' perceived IJ.

Perceived IJ can affect employees' attitudes towards the organization. According to social exchange theory, people tend to reciprocate in exchanges when receiving benefits and tend to be committed to positive and beneficial social exchange relations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). IJ was perceived as an essential condition, encouraging willingness of employees to tie closely with the organization for the support they perceived (Masterson et al., 2000),

representing a form of the benefit provided by leaders or organizations for the exchanges, satisfying employees' expectation (Colquitt, 2008), forming positive reciprocal relation. Therefore, a positive relationship between employees' IJ and OC is proposed, that when employees perceived more IJ, they show higher OC. Contrarily, when employees perceived less IJ, they perceive less benefited from the social exchanges, thus reduce their investment and involvement in such relationships, leading to lower OC. Accordingly, we argue a positive relationship between IJ and OC:

Hypothesis 2b: Employees' perceived IJ is positively related to OC.

Based on the social exchange theory, people tend to reciprocate accordingly based on the rewards of the benefits people received from exchanges (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Since EL is argued to harm employees' IJ perceptions and generates a sense of reduced benefits, it is reasonable to expect a reduction in employees' job satisfaction, making employees unwilling to maintain and involve in such exchange relationship and then undermining their affective tie with the organization (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002). Thus, we propose that exploitative leadership can negatively influence OC by undermining employees' IJ experience and perceptions. Combing the above arguments, we propose the mediating hypothesis to specify the indirect relationship between EL and OC:

Hypothesis 2c: Employees' IJ will mediate the influence of EL on employees' OC.

1.3. The Moderating Role of JS

Justice sensitivity (JS) is a justice-related disposition indicating people's concern for justice, capturing the stability and consistency of people's perception and strength of reactions to injustice (Schmitt et al., 2010). Researchers identified JS as a key feature in understanding the difference of people in injustice experience and the strength of reaction and restoration for the injustice (Baumert et al., 2010). To some extent, it indicated individuals' self-interest motives by showing a protective intention and reaction of personal benefits. People who are more justice-sensitive will have more attitudinal and behavioral responses to perceived injustice (Schmitt & Dörfel, 1999).

Based on the social exchange approach in justice, employees are argued to reciprocate fair treatment with positive attitudes and behaviors in works (Scott & Colquitt, 2007). For employees who are more sensitive to injustice, memories about injustice experience can be more easily retrieved, leading to unpleasant information-processing and stronger attitudinal and behavioral reactions (Baumert et al., 2010; Baumert & Schmitt, 2016). We further propose that high justice-sensitive employees are more likely to reduce affective investment when perceiving reduced justice in an unfair exchange relationship with leaders. Therefore, we propose:

Hypothesis 3: JS moderates the relationship between perceived IJ and OC, that is, when JS is higher, the above positive relationship will be stronger.

2. Methodology

2.1. Sample and Data Collection

We collected 203 questionnaires for employees from May to August 2021 in China, and finally obtained 172 valid responses, yielding a response rate of 84.7%. We conducted the surveys with the help of corporate HRs, and the questionnaires were distributed to general employees via an online platform. Participants were guaranteed that their survey results would be confidential and anonymous, collected for scientific research use only. The valid samples were all regular employees in 8 Chinese companies from various industries (finance, IT, and education). The average age of the participants was 28.9, 76.2% of the respondents were male, and all respondents had an undergraduate and higher degree.

2.2. Measures and Analysis

We applied established scales to measure all variables. Respondents provided their answers on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (= strongly disagree) to 5 (= strongly agree) for EL, OJ, and OC, while a 6-point Likert scale ranged from 0 (= not at all) to 6 (= Exactly) for JC. El was measured with a 15-item scale developed by Schmid et al. (2019), Cronbach α for this scale was 0.935. OC was measured with a 6-item scale developed by Bentein et al. (2005), Cronbach α for this scale was 0.799. IJ was measured with a 9-item scale indicating how justice an individual experiences in interaction, revealing one's IJ judgment for both sides (justice vs. injustice, see a similar method in Schmitt & Dörfel, 1999), Cronbach α for this scale was 0.890. JS was measured with 10-item scales developed by Schmitt et al. (2010), Cronbach α for this scale was 0.885. In addition, employees' age, gender, education, and organizational tenure were the control variables in this research. The full questionnaire includes 44 questions in total. To analyze the proposed model and examine the main effect hypothesis (H1), mediation hypothesis (H2), and moderation hypothesis (H3), we applied SPSS 25.0 with PROCESS Macro (Hayes et al., 2018), and Mplus 8.0.

3. Results

3.1. Common Method Variance Control

The present study applied self-reported survey, and the data was collected from a single source, implying a potential common method bias (Friedrich et al., 2009). Therefore, we applied both procedure control and statistical control to eliminate the common method bias (Zhou & Long, 2004). For example, we collected the data twice in 3 months, explicitly claimed the research objective before releasing the questionnaires, guaranteed anonymity, etc. In addition, we use Harman's single-factor test to detect CMV, the results indicated an acceptable common method bias with the first unrotated factor can explain the variance by 48.36% (<50%), CMV (Hair et al., 1998).

3.2. Descriptive Statistics Results

We firstly conducted descriptive statistics and correlation analysis with SPSS. The results showed that exploitative leadership was negatively related to organizational commitment (r=-

0.916, p<.01) and perceived interactional justice (r=-0.922, p<.01), and perceived interactional justice was positively related to organizational commitment (r=0.890, p<.01). The results were presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Age	28.93	4.24	1	-0.039	0.004	0.698**	-0.022	0.062	0.075	-0.039
2 Gender	1.24	0.43	----	1	-0.007	-0.055	0.167*	-0.124	-0.179*	0.225**
3 Education	3.47	0.58	----	----	1	-0.066	0.123	-0.154*	-0.155*	0.144
4 Tenure	2.77	1.17	----	----	----	1	-0.018	0.063	0.042	-0.026
5 EL	2.28	0.81	----	----	----	----	1	-0.916**	-0.922**	0.936**
6 OC	3.74	0.76	----	----	----	----	----	1	0.890**	-0.885**
7 IJ	3.80	0.80	----	----	----	----	----	----	1	-0.900**
8 JS	2.83	0.96	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	1

Note: Two-tailed test; EL: Exploitative leadership; OC: Organizational commitment; IJ: Interactional justice; JS: Justice sensitivity; *** p < .001, ** p < .01, *p < .05; N = 172

3.3. Hypotheses Testing Results

We use Mplus 8.0 to conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the discriminant validities of EL, IJ, JS, and OC. The result shows that the hypothesized four-factor model yielded a better fit (χ^2/df=1.646<3, RMSEA=0.061<0.08, CFI=0.973>0.095, TLI=0.968>0.095, SRMR=0.028<0.08), Above results showed an acceptable level of discriminant validity of four variables in our study.

We use SPSS PROCESS to examine the main effect and mediation effect. We examine Hypothesis 1 predicting the negative relationship between EL and OC. As shown in Table 2, EL had a negative effect on OC (γ=-0.863 p<0.001, see Model 1 in Table 2), providing support for H1. Then we tested mediating effect of IJ on OC for H2a, H2b, and H2c. The results indicate that EL is significantly and negatively related to IJ (γ=-0.901, p<0.001), and IJ is significantly related to OC (γ=0.288, p<0.001) (See Model 2 and Model 3 in Table 2). Moreover, according to the mediation test, both direct effect and indirect of EL on OC shown to be significant (total effect=-0.863, [LLCI=-0.922, ULCI=-0.805]; direct effect=-0.604, [LLCI=-0.747, ULCI=-0.461]; indirect effect=-0.259, [LLCI=-0.405, ULCI=-0.115]), supporting H2a, H2b, and H2c. The results further show the partial mediation.

We use SPSS PROCESS to examine the moderation effect of JS. Regarding moderation model results, the interaction effect of JS and IJ in predicting OC is positive (γ=0.176, p< 0.001, Model 4 in Table 2). When JS is at a low level, the effect of IJ on OC does not exist (Effect=0.131, [LLCI=-0.091, ULCI=0.353]); when JS is at a standard level, the effect of IJ on OC is significant (effect=0.301, [LLCI=0.143, ULCI=0.460]); when JS is at a high level, the effect of IJ on OC is significant (effect=0.471, [LLCI=0.338, ULCI=0.604]). That is, when JS is in a higher level, the less (more) IJ employees perceived, the less (more) committed they are. To better comprehend the moderation of JS, we plotted the effect in Figure 2, and the results supported H3. Additionally, the results also indicated that JS also moderated the mediating effect of IJ between EL and OC (γ=0.102, p<0.05, see model 5 in Table 2). When JS is at a low level, the mediation effect does

not exist (effect=0.090, [LLCI=-0.122, ULCI=0.302]), while when JS is at a high level, the mediation effect become significant (effect=0.288, [LLCI=0.135, ULCI=0.440]).

Table 2. Results of model tests

	Model 1: OC	Model 2: IJ	Model 3: OC	Model 4: OC	Model 5: OC
Intercept	5.647***	5.778***	3.984***	5.251***	5.360***
Control variables					
Age	0.004(0.008)	0.015(0.008)	-0.001(0.008)	-0.002(0.008)	0.001(0.007)
Gender	0.055(0.056)	-0.050(0.056)	0.070(0.054)	0.119*(0.056)	0.092(0.054)
Education	-0.052(0.041)	-0.065(0.042)	-0.033(0.040)	-0.024(0.041)	-0.034(0.039)
Tenure	0.020(0.028)	-0.023(0.028)	0.027(0.027)	0.024(0.028)	0.023(0.027)
Hypothesised variables					
EL	-0.863***(0.030)	-0.901**(0.030)	-0.604***(0.073)		-0.419***(0.099)
IJ			0.288***(0.074)	-0.198(0.192)	-0.101(0.184)
JS				-0.926***(0.162)	-0.492**(0.185)
Interaction variables					
JS*IJ				0.176***(0.048)	0.102*(0.049)

Note: Two-tailed test; EL: Exploitative leadership; IJ: Interactional justice; JS: Justice sensitivity; OC: Organizational commitment; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, *$p < .05$; N = 172
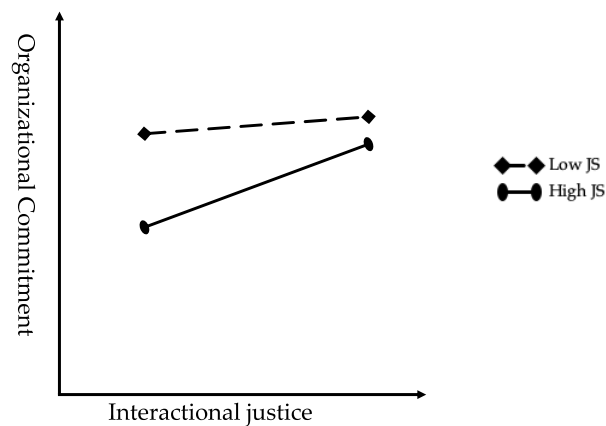

Figure 2. Interaction between JS and IJ on OC

4. Discussion

Using multi-point data collection method, the present study revealed three major findings with an integrated social exchange and justice lens: (1) EL negatively related to employees' OC; (2) employees' IJ partly mediated the relationship between EL and OC; and (3) JS moderate the relationship between IJ and OC, that when employees are higher in JS, the relationship between perceived interactional justice and OC will be stronger.

4.1. Theoretical Implications

Our research at least makes three contributions as proposed. First, our research has tested the relationship between EL and OC, showing a consistent result with previous studies, which further strengthens an important conclusion of EL research or even destructive leaderships field (Schmid et al., 2019). Moreover, based on the integrated lens, the study has provided a theoretical explanation for the effect of EL on employees' outcomes. Negative reciprocity,

indicating 'cost' exchanges in which people respond to bad with bad, or reduction of goodness (Peruguni et al., 2003; Gouldner, 1960), is worth noting (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

On the other hand, exploitative leadership implied a violation of the reciprocity norm, by intentionally benefiting themselves and ignoring their obligations to return, showing a strong self-motive and injustice nature which fundamentally triggered followers' justice restorage actions (Brunell et al., 2013; Montada & Maes, 2016). For employees, the reduced emotional attachment could be a form of retortion to the injustice exchange relationship. Considering the complexity and uncertainty of the business environment, more studies pay attention to the appeared destructive leadership forms and their influence. The current study started with EL and its negative effects in the workplace, revealing the potential human motives and related behaviors in the current context.

Second, current research initially examined the influence of EL on employees' justice perceptions, enriching current literature by indicating the mechanism of how EL undermined employees' OC. With the integrated lens, our research results supported that EL can harm IJ and thus lead to lower OC. Our results also respond to Schmid et al.'s prediction (2018) about the relationship between EL with organizational justice by suggesting the violation of IJ rules. Past research has identified organizational justice as a mediator of the effects of leadership or behaviors on employee outcomes (e.g., Tepper, 2000; Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Kiersch & Byrne, 2015), we contributed by identifying a new form of leadership (i.e., exploitative leadership) and supporting its effect on employees' justice perceptions, especially referring to current insecure context.

Third, we contributed to the justice field by examining the extend of individual difference in justice motive affecting their behaviors (Schmitt et al., 2010). We found the more justice-sensitive employees are, the more reactive they are to justice distortion, driving them to recreate the balance and eliminate injustice, like reducing 'pay' (i.e., decreased emotional tie) to match the reduced 'gain' (i.e., experienced exploitation). Limited research has revealed the role of JS, which tends to be stable and hidden, shaping ones' justice-related information processing (Baumert et al., 2010). Our study has revealed the role of JS in the relationship between employees' perceived IJ and OC, extending the research to the hidden motives of employees' outcomes in the workplace and in the current context.

4.2. Practical Implications

Our findings have important practical implications. The present study indicated exploitative leaders can ruin the employees' interactional justice experience and then reduce their OC as self-interest protection. Therefore, it is important for top management to find effective ways to protect employees from interpersonal exploitation, identify destructive leaders, and make policies like building a valid complaint system and voice channels to support the construction of a justice environment. In addition, under unstable and complex contexts, it is also important to understand employees' primary requirements and stressors in the workplace, implied by their personalities and traits, such as their boundaries about injustice. Therefore, organizations should be sensitive about employees' benefits and demands, including justice requirements, which may help encourage OC.

4.3. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Limitations also exist in this study, indicating improvement suggestions and future directions. First, the present study was limited in exploring dynamic processes with limited surveys. Longitudinal research can better capture the changes, and qualitative research can work more effectively in exploring causal relations and hidden mechanisms of dynamics, like employees' interpretation of leaders' behaviors and emotional responses. Second, the present study perceived reduced OC as employees' effort on justice restorage and negative reciprocity. Future studies may examine other forms of employees' behaviors combatting leaders' exploitation, like whistleblowing and alienation. Third, since the emergence of EL is driven by leaders' self-interests, supported by the abuse of power, further studies may find contextual factors constraining the emergence and effect of EL.

5. Conclusions

A complex environment may foster destructive leaders. The current study is empirical research aiming to explore the effect of EL on OC through employees' perceived IJ. We proposed directions for future research for a more comprehensive understanding of exploitative leadership such as its consequences and influence mechanisms and suggested research in boundary conditions and preventive factors for its effects.

Conflict of interest: none

References

Abdulmuhsin, A. A., Zaker, R. A., & Asad, M. M. (2021). How exploitative leadership influences on knowledge management processes: the moderating role of organisational citizenship behaviour. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *29*(3), 529-561. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-09-2020-2424

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *23*(3), 267-285. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.138

Bakhshi, A., Kumar, K., & Rani, E. (2009). Organizational justice perceptions as predictor of job satisfaction and organization commitment. *International journal of Business and Management*, *4*(9), 145-154. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v4n9p145

Baumert, A., & Schmitt, M. (2016). Justice sensitivity. In C. Sabbagh and M. Schmitt (Eds.), *Handbook of social justice theory and research* (pp. 161-180). Springer, New York, NY.

Baumert, A., Gollwitzer, M., Staubach, M., & Schmitt, M. (2010). Justice sensitivity and the processing of justice-related information. *European Journal of Personality*, *25*(5), 386–397. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.800

Bentein, K., Vandenberghe, C., Vandenberg, R., & Stinglhamber, F. (2005). The role of change in the relationship between commitment and turnover: a latent growth modeling approach. *Journal of applied psychology*, *90*(3), 468. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.3.468

Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria for fairness. In B. Sheppard (Ed.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 1, pp. 43-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Cho, J., & Dansereau, F. (2010). Are transformational leaders fair? A multi-level study of transformational leadership, justice perceptions, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The leadership quarterly*, *21*(3), 409-421. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.006

Colquitt, J. A. (2008). Two decades of organizational justice: Findings, controversies, and future directions. In J. Barling (Ed.), *The Sage handbook of organizational behavior* (Vol. 1, pp. 73-88). SAGE Publications Ltd, London.

Craven, M., Liu, L., Mysore, M., & Wilson, M. (2020). COVID-19: Implications for business. *McKinsey & Company*, 8.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of management*, *31*(6), 874-900. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602

Crosby, F. A. (1976). A model of egoistical relative deprivation. *Psychological Review*, *83*(2), 85–131. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.83.2.85

Diekmann, K. A., Samuels, S. M., Ross, L., & Bazerman, M. H. (1997). Self-interest and fairness in problems of resource allocation: Allocators versus recipients. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *72*(5), 1061–1074. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.72.5.1061

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of applied psychology*, *86*(1), 42. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.1.42

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S. & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 500-507. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500

French, J. R., Raven, B., & Cartwright, D. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in social power* (pp. 150–167). Univer. Michigan.

Friedrich, T. L., Byrne, C. L., & Mumford, M. D. (2009). Methodological and theoretical considerations in survey research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*(2), 57-60. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.01.001

Greenberg, J. (1987) A taxonomy of organizational justice theories, *Academy of Management Review*, *12*(1), 9–22. https://doi.org/10.2307/257990

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice- Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of management*, *16*(2), 399-432. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639001600208

Greenberg, J., & Cropanzano, R. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79–103). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Guo, L., Cheng, K., & Luo, J. (2020). The effect of exploitative leadership on knowledge hiding: a conservation of resources perspective. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *42*(1), 83-98. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-03-2020-0085

Hair Jr., J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Julmi, C. (2021). Crazy, stupid, disobedience: The dark side of paradoxical leadership. *Leadership*, *17*(6), 631-653. https://doi.org/10.1177/17427150211040693

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.

Kiersch, C. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2015). Is being authentic being fair? Multilevel examination of authentic leadership, justice, and employee outcomes. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *22*(3), 292-303. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051815570035

Le Roy, J., Bastounis, M., & Poussard, J. M. (2012). Interactional justice and counterproductive work behaviors: The mediating role of negative emotions. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *40*(8), 1341-1355. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2012.40.8.1341

Leventhal, G. S., & Anderson, D. (1970). Self-interest and the maintenance of equity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 15(1), 57–62. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0029173

Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *9*(4), 370-390. https://doi.org/10.2307/2391032

Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (2003). The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A cross national comparison. *Journal of Management Development*, *23*(4), 321–328. https://doi.org/10.1108/02621710410529785

Majeed, M., & Fatima, T. (2020). Impact of exploitative leadership on psychological distress: A study of nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *28*(7), 1713-1724. https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.13127

Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*(4), 738–748. https://doi.org/10.5465/1556364

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human resource management review*, *1*(1), 61-89. https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-z

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. London: Sage publications.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *61*(1), 20-52. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1842

Montada, L., & Maes, J. (2016). Justice and self-interest. In Sabbagh, C., Schmitt, M. (Eds), *Handbook of social justice theory and research* (pp. 109-125). Springer, New York, NY.

Papadopoulos, T., Baltas, K. N., & Balta, M. E. (2020). The use of digital technologies by small and medium enterprises during COVID-19: Implications for theory and practice. *International Journal of Information Management*, *55*, 102192. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2020.102192

Perugini, M., Gallucci, M., Presaghi, F., & Ercolani, A. P. (2003). The personal norm of reciprocity. *European Journal of Personality*, *17*(4), 251-283. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.474

Riketta, M. (2002). Attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *23*(3), 257-266. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.141

Sankowsky D (1995) The charismatic leader as narcissist: understanding the abuse of power. *Organizational Dynamics*, *23*(4), 57–71. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(95)90017-9

Schilling, J. (2009). From ineffectiveness to destruction: A qualitative study on the meaning of negative leadership. *Leadership*, *5*(1), 102-128. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715008098312

Schmid, E. A., Pircher Verdorfer, A., & Peus, C. (2019). Shedding light on leaders' self-interest: theory and measurement of exploitative leadership. *Journal of Management*, *45*(4), 1401-1433. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206317707810

Schmid, E. A., Pircher Verdorfer, A., & Peus, C. V. (2018). Different shades—different effects? Consequences of different types of destructive leadership. *Frontiers in psychology*, *9*, 1289. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01289

Schmitt, M., & Dörfel, M. (1999). Procedural injustice at work, justice sensitivity, job satisfaction and psychosomatic well-being. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *29*(4), 443–453. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-0992(199906)29:4<443::AID-EJSP935>3.0.CO;2-C

Schmitt, M., Baumert, A., Gollwitzer, M., & Maes, J. (2010). The Justice Sensitivity Inventory: Factorial validity, location in the personality facet space, demographic pattern, and normative data. *Social Justice Research*, *23*(2), 211-238. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11211-010-0115-2

Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *24*(1), 138-158. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001

Scott, B. A., & Colquitt, J. A. (2007). Are organizational justice effects bounded by individual differences? An examination of equity sensitivity, exchange ideology, and the Big Five. *Group & Organization Management*, *32*(3), 290-325. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601106286877

Sturm, R. E., & Antonakis, J. (2015). Interpersonal power: A review, critique, and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *41*(1), 136-163. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314555769

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of management journal*, *43*(2), 178-190. https://doi.org/10.5465/1556375

Wang, Z., Sun, C., & Cai, S. (2020). How exploitative leadership influences employee innovative behavior: the mediating role of relational attachment and moderating role of high-performance work systems. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *42*(2), 233-248. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-05-2020-0203

Watson, P. J., & Morris, R. J. (1991). Narcissism, empathy and social desirability. *Personality and Individual differences*, *12*(6), 575-579. https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(91)90253-8

Williams, M. J. (2014). Serving the self from the seat of power: Goals and threats predict leaders' self-interested behavior. *Journal of Management*, *40*(5), 1365-1395. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314525203

Wu, L.-Z., Sun, Z., Ye, Y., Kwan, H. K., & Yang, M. (2021). The impact of exploitative leadership on frontline hospitality employees' service performance: A social exchange perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *96*, 102954. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.102954

Zhou, H., & Long, Y. R. (2004). Statistical Remedies for Common Method Biases. *Advances in Psychological Science*, *12*(6), 942-950. https://journal.psych.ac.cn/adps/EN/Y2004/V12/I06/942