

混合領導情境中的員工合作義務感

Employee Felt Obligation to Cooperate in Mixed-Leadership Situations

Motivation and Purpose

Social exchanges between supervisors and subordinates are not always in purely positive or purely negative ways. However, most of extant studies on social exchange either focus on positive social exchanges or negative ones. For example, most of studies associated with the organizational support theory and the LMX theory focus on how employee perceived organizational support and high quality relationship between leaders and members can lead to positive organizational outcomes (see meta-analytic reviews of Kurtessis et al. (2017) and Martin et al. (2016)). In contrast, most of studies on supervisor abuse and destructive leadership explore how these behaviors can result in negative organizational outcomes (see a meta-analytic review of Mackey et al. (2017)). It seems that leaders can only behave either inferiorly or superiorly in researchers' eyes. In fact, there are no perfectly good or totally bad leaders in the real world; most of leaders perform in between. Abusive leaders may have character strength of industry at the same time. Supportive leaders may be lack of ability to make appropriate decisions simultaneously. [The issue, organizational outcomes in mixed-leadership situations, deserves much more research endeavors.](#)

An enduring challenge for organizations is encouraging employee cooperative behavior that benefits organizations but is not easily monitored or formally rewarded (Barnard, 1938; Korsgaard et al., 2010). One of the driving forces that enhance employee willingness to cooperate for organizational interest is their felt obligation to cooperate for the reason of complying with social norms (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Blay et al., 2018). For example, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and organizational spontaneity are related to employee felt obligation to cooperate for organizational interest in response to the norm of reciprocity (Eisenberger et al., 2001). People are willing to sacrifice their own resources for what they think is morally right (Kahneman et al., 1986; Turillo et al., 2002). Organizational altruism and organizational prosocial behavior may derive from employee felt obligation to cooperate for organizational interest for complying the norm of moral virtue (Batson, 1995; Schwartz, 1999; Egorov et al., 2019). [That is, employees' felt obligation to cooperate for complying with social norms plays a critical role in enhancing employee willingness to cooperate for organizational interests.](#)

Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, and Hall (2017) proposed a bi-dimensional model of

reciprocity, as shown in Figure 1. The authors suggested that most social exchange constructs can be treated as members of an oppositional pair. For example, an initial action of high supervisor support (active and desirable) may induce a target response of high OCB (active and desirable); initial action of low abusive supervision (inactive and desirable) may induce target response of low counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (inactive and desirable). The author asserted that only one partner in the pair has been extensively researched. [They called for future investigations to fill up these “missing cells”, such as inactively undesirable response.](#)

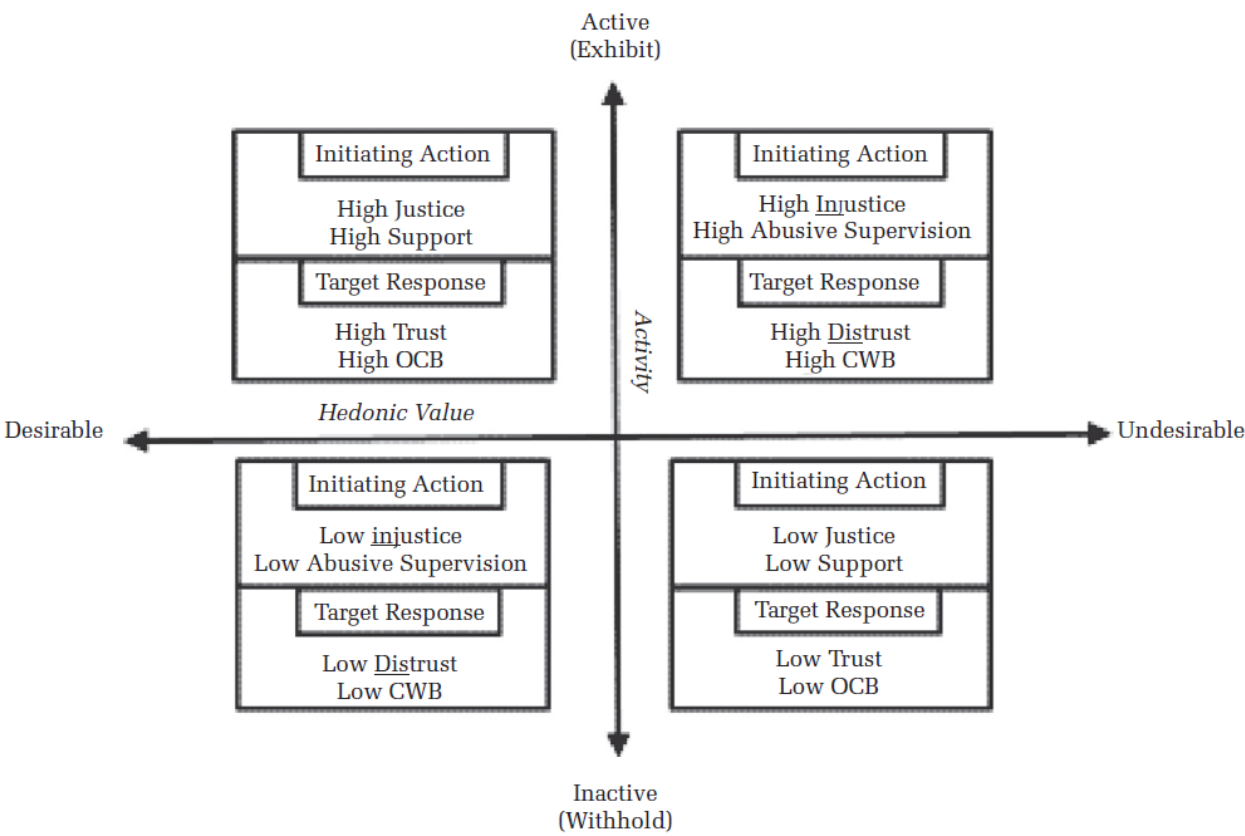


Figure 1 Two dimensions of social exchange.

Source: Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. (2017). Social exchange theory: A critical review with theoretical remedies. *Academy of Management Annals*, 11(1), 479-516.

Character strength refers to positive traits reflected in thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Park, Peterson, & Seligman, 2004, p. 603). Wright and Huang (2008) asserted that while the psychological well-being of a leader is found to be associated with effective leadership, and that leader well-being may have a “contagion effect” on the well-being of the subordinates and subordinates’ well-being influences efficiency and organizational effectiveness in turn, a number of character strengths are potentially correlated to various measures of organizational effectiveness. [This study intends to examine the effects of leader character strengths on employee felt obligation](#)

to cooperate for organizational interests.

There has been increasing interest by researchers in exploring the nature of ineffective, destructive, or negative leadership. The term “destructive leadership” has gradually been used as an overarching expression for a variety of “bad” leader behaviors believed to be associated with negative consequences for followers and/or organizations (Thoroughgood, Sawyer, Padilla, & Lunsford, 2018). This study aims at examining the effects of destructive leadership on employee felt obligation to cooperate for organizational interests.

In summary, the purposes of this study are to examine the mixed effects of destructive leadership and leader character strength on employee felt obligation to cooperate for organizational interests (EFOC). This study selected two common destructive leaderships and one essential leader character strengths in organizations to examine the mixed effects of positive and negative leadership on inactively desirable type of employee felt obligation to cooperate.

Theoretical Background

This study intends to investigate the mixed effects of destructive leadership and leader character strength on employee felt obligation to cooperate for organizational interests (EFOC). The following literature review involves destructive leadership and character strength.

Destructive Leadership

Definition and Type of Destructive Leadership

Although constructive or effective leadership occupy most of leadership studies, there has been increased interest by leadership scholars in exploring the nature of ineffective, destructive, or negative leadership. The term “destructive leadership” has increasingly been used as an overarching expression for a variety of “bad” leader behaviors believed to be associated with negative consequences for followers and/or the organization (Thoroughgood, Sawyer, Padilla, & Lunsford, 2018).

Several researchers have defined destructive leadership, which shares the concepts including systematic and repeated behavior and undermining the welfare of organizations and/or subordinates. For example, Einarsen et al. (2007) and Aasland et al. (2010) defined destructive leadership as the systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor, or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, wellbeing, or job satisfaction of subordinates. Krasikova et al. (2013) defined destructive leadership as “volitional behavior by a leader that can harm or intends to harm a leader’s organization and/or followers by (a) encouraging followers to pursue goals that contravene the legitimate interests of the organization and/or (b) employing a

leadership style that involves the use of harmful methods of influence with followers, regardless of justifications for such behavior.” Schyns and Schilling (2013) defined destructive leadership as “a process in which over a longer period of time the activities, experiences and/or relationships of an individual or the members of a group are repeatedly influenced by their supervisor in a way that is perceived as hostile and/or obtrusive.” Thoroughgood, Sawyer, Padilla, & Lunsford (2018, p. 633) define destructive leadership as “a complex process of influence between flawed, toxic, or ineffective leaders, susceptible followers, and conducive environments, which unfolds over time and, on balance, culminates in destructive group or organizational outcomes that compromise the quality of life for internal and external constituents and detract from their group-focused goals or purposes.”

Ashforth (1994; 1997) proposed “petty tyrants” to describe behavior that involves the oppressive, capricious, and vindictive use of formal authority, which reveals the arbitrariness and small-mindedness of the leader. Tepper and his colleagues (e.g., Tepper, 2000, 2007) summarized various concepts, such as undermining, bullying, and abuse in the construct of “abusive supervision”. It refers to “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000: 178). The common ground of petty tyrants and abusive supervision is socially unacceptable and morally condemnable behaviors of leaders with formal authority (Schilling, 2009).

Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007) described three destructive leadership styles. The authors state the three types of destructive leaderships as follows. *Tyrannical* leaders develop an authoritarian rule over their followers using every kind of measure to achieve obedience and submission to achieve their goals. Tyrannical behaviors undermine the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates. *Derailed leadership* behavior involves anti-subordinate behaviors like bullying, manipulation, or deception, while simultaneously performing anti-organizational behaviors like absenteeism, shirking, or fraud. Derailed leaders not only harm the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness, but also undermine the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates. *Supportive–disloyal leaders* show consideration for the welfare of subordinates while violating the organizational interest by undermining task and goal attainment. They may grant their employees more benefits than they are obliged to at the cost of the organization.

Schilling (2009) proposed eight types of negative leaderships. For example, *insincere leadership* refers to those leadership behaviors achieving personal goals at the expense of others without direct confrontation but rather in the form of clandestine and deceitful tactics and strategies. *Despotic leaders* addresses an authoritarian, status-oriented rule ensuring authority over followers and establishing relationships with high power-distance. *Restrictive leadership*, where leaders focus on behaviors making sure that their followers work according to their convictions, rules, and

decisions, such as not discussing ideas and demands. *Failed leadership* implies very active intervention into the daily business of the followers while ignores or is not able to fulfil strategic or management tasks.

Finally, Shaw, Erickson, and Harvey (2011) developed a measure of destructive leadership in organizations based on follower perceptions, namely Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ). The authors collected 127 questionnaire items from previous studies on, e.g., leader bullying, narcissistic leadership, toxic leadership, and destructive leadership. For 104 behavior focused items, the authors extracted 22 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 accounting for 64.3% of total variance. The 22 destructive leaderships include, e.g., not making expectations clear to subordinates, inability to develop and motivate subordinates, micro-managing and over-controlling, lying and other unethical behavior, and acting in a brutal bullying manner. [This study selected two destructive leaderships from DLQ for testing, because DLQ has been developed comprehensively embracing many types of destructive leaderships.](#)

Consequence of Destructive Leadership

Extant research demonstrated that subordinates who perceive supervisory abuse show lower levels of engagement (O'Donoghue, Conway, Bosak, 2016) and task performance (e.g., Xu, Huang, Lam, & Miao, 2012), are rated more poorly on formal performance appraisals (e.g., Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007), and engage in fewer OCB (e.g., Zhang, Liu, Xu, Yang, & Bednall, 2019). Employees' perceptions of abusive supervision are associated with increased strain (Wheeler, Halbesleben, & Whitman, 2013; O'Donoghue, Conway, Bosak, 2016), a reduction in affective well-being (Kernan, Watson, Chen, & Kim, 2011), and low-quality interpersonal exchanges (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012). Moreover, perceptions of abusive supervision have been found to be positively associated with subordinates' tendencies to engage in dysfunctional behaviors at work (e.g., Zhang, Liu, Xu, Yang, & Bednall, 2019). Evidently, employee perceptions of abusive supervision are associated with a wide array of negative organizational outcomes.

There is preliminary evidence that tyrannical and derailed leaderships are related to low employee job satisfaction, low quality of leader-member exchange, and an elevated level of psychosomatic complaints (Aasland et al., 2003). Schilling (2009) found that negative leaderships lead to a variety of negative outcomes. For example, followers experience dissatisfaction with their work, insecurity and fear (as the leader acts unpredictably and unfairly) and a lowered self-esteem (as their performance is not recognized or is even harshly criticized). These feelings are accompanied by negative attitudes, like de-motivation and a lack of trust in the leader. Followers under such circumstances show no commitment, avoid contact with their leader, show no personal responsibility, and even engage in destructive social behavior like bullying.

Finally, a meta-analysis by Schyns and Schilling (2013) indicated that destructive leadership

is negatively related to positive leader-related concepts, e.g., trust and liking, and positively related to negative leader-related concepts, e.g., aggression and supervisor-directed deviance. Second, destructive leadership has negative relationships with positive organization-related concepts, e.g., pay fairness and procedural justice, and positive relationships with negative organization-related concepts, e.g., intention to turnover and counter-productive behavior at work. Third, destructive leadership has negative relationships with positive individual follower-related concepts, e.g., positive affectivity, self-esteem, core self-evaluation, self-efficacy, life-satisfaction, physical well-being, OCB, performance, and work effort, and positive relationships with negative individual follower-related concepts, e.g., negative affectivity, exhaustion, and depression. [This study expects destructive leadership entails negative impacts on employee felt obligation to cooperate for organizational interests.](#)

Strengths of Character

Wright and Goodstein (2007, p. 932) defined character as “those interpenetrable and habitual qualities within individuals, and applicable to organizations that both constrain and lead them to desire and pursue personal and societal good.” Peterson and Seligman (2004) proposed 24 character strengths and developed Values in Action Inventory of Strengths (VIA-IS) questionnaire. Included among these are positive habits (traits) such as bravery, integrity, self-regulation, and persistence. Using s best practice procedure for scale development, reliability analysis, and validity analysis, Wright et al. (2017) developed and psychometrically analyzed a new character strength inventory (character strength inventory, CSI) for organizational research, on the basis of VIA-IS. [This study selected character strengths from CSI.](#)

Character strength is worthy of studying because of its role in interpersonal relationships, high value in business and society, and potential influences on leadership processes, outcomes, or moderating influences on leadership (Hausler, Strecker, Huber, & Brenner, 2017). Prior studies have identified many positive outcomes associated with character-based leadership including ethicality and organizational citizenship behavior (Wang & Hackett 2016), improved managerial performance (Gentry et al. 2013; Sosik et al. 2012), stress management, well-being (Krause & Hayward 2015; Hausler, Strecker, Huber, & Brenner, 2017), and in-role performance (Sosik, Chun, Ete, Arenas, & Scherer, 2019). Tepper (2007) asserted that characteristics and behavior of supervisor is a possible moderator in the relationship between abusive supervision and organizational outcomes. [This study expects that character strengths have positive impacts on EFOC and moderate the relationship between destructive leadership and EFOC.](#)

Hypothesis

In this study, I examined the effects of two types of destructive leaderships, i.e., [active aggression of supervisor abuse \(AASA\)](#) (Tepper, 2007) and [playing favourites and divisive](#)

behaviour (PFDB) (Shaw, Erickson, & Harvey, 2011), on employee felt obligation to cooperate for organizational interests (EFOC). In addition, a leader character strength, i.e., [industry](#), was combined with the two destructive leaderships to examine the effect of mixed leadership on EFOC.

Supervisor AASA may lessen EFOC. Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and organizational spontaneity are related to EFOC in response to the norm of reciprocity (Eisenberger et al., 2001). A number of prior studies have showed that supervisor abuse is associated with decreased OCBs (e.g., Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002; Zhang, Liu, Xu, Yang, & Bednall, 2019). Therefore, it is predicted that AASA is likely to deteriorate EFOC.

[H1. Supervisor AASA is likely to deteriorate EFOC.](#)

Supervisor PFDB may lessen EFOC. Playing favourites and divisive behaviour is a type of political behaviour in organizations (Ferris, Fedor, Chachere, & Pondy, 1989). Previous researchers have argued that a highly political environment is associated with a variety of such adverse effects in the workplace as high stress, low worker satisfaction, weak commitment, detrimental organizational citizenship behaviour, and low productivity (Chang, Rosen, Siemienieć, & Johnson, 2012). Accordingly, it is predicted that supervisor PFDB is likely to lessen EFOC.

[H2. Supervisor PFDB is likely to deteriorate EFOC.](#)

Supervisor industry is likely to enhance EFOC. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), how closely leaders act in accordance with their espoused values is an environmental influence that makes norms of appropriate behavior salient. Supervisor industry is thus likely to influence the norms of appropriate behavior among employees, which in turn may be associated with employee felt obligation to cooperate for organizational interest. Moreover, Park, Peterson, and Seligman (2004) have found that many of character strengths are associated with life satisfaction. Wright et al. (2017) found that industry is positive associated with job satisfaction. Leader perceived well-being have long been recognized as potential correlates of effective leadership, because leader well-being may have a “contagion effect” on the well-being of subordinate (Wright & Huang, 2012). Extant studies have identified many positive outcomes associated with character-based leadership including ethicality and organizational citizenship behavior (Wang & Hackett 2016), improved managerial performance (Gentry et al. 2013; Sosik et al. 2012), stress management, well-being (Gavin et al. 2003; Krause & Hayward 2015; Hausler, Strecker, Huber, & Brenner, 2017), and in-role performance (Sosik, Chun, Ete, Arenas, & Scherer, 2019). Therefore, it is predicted that supervisor industry is likely to enhance EFOC.

[H3. Supervisor industry is likely to enhance EFOC.](#)

In general, leader character strengths may mitigate the negative effect of destructive leadership on EFOC. The results of specific behaviours may depend on who performs the

behaviour. For example, Lau et al. (2014) posited that the effect of felt trustworthiness might depend on who are the trustors. If subordinates feel trusted by a supervisor who is known to be unethical, the positive effects of felt trustworthiness might decline. In contrast, if the trustor is regarded as respectable, the positive effects of felt trustworthiness might increase. Lau et al. (2008) found that the higher the organizational rank of trustors, the stronger the effect of their trust. In the same vein, the negative responses for any type of destructive leadership may depends on who is the supervisor. Supervisor character strengths may mitigate the negative effects of destructive leadership on EFOC.

H4. Supervisor industry is likely to lessen the negative effects of AASA on EFOC.

Supervisor industry may mitigate the negative effect of PFDB on EFOC. Extant research demonstrated that perceived organizational politics influence organizational outcomes moderated by trust in co-worker (Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995). Supervisors with industry manifest their work performance and thus may lead to the increased perceptions of leader trustworthiness. Although supervisor industry cannot lead to the increased subordinates' trust in supervisor by supervisor benevolence and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995), it may enhance trust elicited by supervisor ability. Therefore, it is predicted that supervisor industry is likely to lessen the negative effects of PFDB on EFOC.

H5. Supervisor industry is likely to lessen the negative effects of PFDB on EFOC.

Method

The purposes of this study is to examine the relevance of determinants to the increase or decrease of EFOC. This involves the problem of how people cognitively integrate multiple determinants. The cognitive process comprises three steps: (1) giving information a value; (2) attaching importance weight to the information attributes; and (3) integrating value and weight with a type of rule into a judgment (Anderson, 1981; Edwards & Newman, 1986; Hammond, Stewart, Brehmer, & Steinmann, 1975; Mellers & Cooke, 1994). One of the popular models to probe how individuals integrate multiple and sometimes conflicting attributes is the information integration theory (IIT, Anderson, 1981, 1982, 1996, 2008).

IIT has been widely used as a method for multi-attribute analysis and as a theoretical basis for studies associated with attitude formation and heuristics to average for a sum (e.g., Adaval, 2003; Kahneman, 2003; Levin & Gaeth, 1988; Tourangeau & Rasinski, 1988). A significant contribution of IIT is the discovery that human information integration obeys several simple rules, such as adding, averaging, and multiplying, which can be validated by appropriate methodology. Another main contribution of IIT is the measurement in multi-attribute analysis. Multi-attribute analysis rests on valid measurement of values and weights. Unless these measures reflect the

decision maker's true values and weights, the analysis may put a less-preferred alternative in the first place. IIT provide solid theory and methodology to recognize integration rule, estimate weight on ratio scales with a common unit, and estimate values on linear scales with a common zero and a common unit, which solves the potential problem of disordinality (Anderson & Zalinski, 1988; Zhu & Anderson, 1991).

In a response of whether to fulfill obligation to cooperate, for example, the two attributes are supervisor integrity (b) and supervisor abuse (m). According to IIT, certain levels of supervisor abuse and supervisor integrity are first transformed into values of ψ_b and ψ_m . ψ_b and ψ_m are subsequently combined with their corresponding weights, ω_b and ω_m , into a judgment R that is the intensity of felt obligation to cooperate for a certain scenario. The response to a certain scenario may be a combination of both attributes by an adding rule, as shown in Equation 1, or by an averaging rule, as shown in Equation 2. The value, weight, and integration rule can be determined simultaneously via IIT methodology with a suitable design.

$$R = (\omega_b \times \psi_b + \omega_m \times \psi_m) \quad (1)$$

$$R = (\omega_b \times \psi_b + \omega_m \times \psi_m) / (\omega_b + \omega_m) \quad (2)$$

This study employed IIT as the methodology to measure the degree of felt obligation to cooperate and calibrate the relative importance of leadership. The IIT methodology includes three steps to determine the importance weights of attributes in judgments: (1) designing a hypothetical judgment task, (2) collecting participant responses in various scenario, (3) testing the information integration rule, and (4) estimating importance weights (Anderson, 1981, 1982).

Method

Dependent Variable

Employee felt obligation to cooperate (EFOC). The degree of EFOC was measured by participants' judgments. Participants made their judgments about "On a deontic basis, to what extent to which X *should* intentionally *decline* the request for help?" on a 20-point scale as that suggested by Anderson (1981), 1 standing for "very little" and 20 for "very much." "Should intentionally decline the request for help" represents **inactively undesirable responses** because it is a low norm-based OCB; and **the greater the rating, the less the EFOC**. Participants made judgments two times because individuals' judgment is not always stable. The responses of the two replications were averaged for further analysis of importance weights.

Independent Variable

Active aggression of supervisor abuse (AASA). The measurement of AASA adapted from Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) which is the results of exploratory factor analysis for Tepper's (2000)

abusive supervision measure. There were two levels of AASA. The high level of AASA was “*Very frequently*, my supervisor ridicules me, tells me I’m incompetent, and makes negative comments about me to others.” The low level of AASA was “*Very infrequently*, my supervisor ridicules me, tells me I’m incompetent, and makes negative comments about me to others.”

Playing favourites and divisive behaviour (PFDB). The measurement of PFDB adapted from Destructive Leadership Questionnaire (DLQ) (Shaw, Erickson, & Harvey, 2011). There were two levels of PFDB. The high level was “*Very frequently*, my supervisor has personal favorites, tends to show excessive favoritism, and act in ways that divide employees against one another.” The low level was “*Very infrequently*, my supervisor has personal favorites, tends to show excessive favoritism, and act in ways that divide employees against one another.”

Supervisor industry (SI). The measurement of supervisor industry adapted from Wright et al.’s (2017) character strength inventory (CSI). There will be two levels of supervisor industry. The high level was “*Often the case*, my supervisor is industrious, works hard to accomplish his/her assigned tasks, and never quit a task until he/she is satisfied with the result.” The low level was “*Seldom the case*, my supervisor is industrious, works hard to accomplish his/her assigned tasks, and never quit a task until he/she is satisfied with the result.”

Judgement Task

Vignettes can be used to elicit cultural norms derived from respondents’ attitudes to a specific scenario regardless of whether participants have had any direct experience of a scenario (Finch, 1987). Although vignettes commonly describe a fictitious situation, they are effective when the scenarios appear real and conceivable to participants (Poulou, 2001). Participants can be asked about what they think the character in the vignette should do and what they would do. “Should” questions focus participants’ attention on the normative dimension of situations and “would” questions focus on the pragmatic dimension (Braun, & Clarke, 2013). The purpose of this study is to probe the general belief of felt obligation to help others; therefore, participants were asked “should” questions. An example scenario of the judgment task is as follows.

Y Company has just started to fulfil orders for a new product. However, the yield of the new product has not met the standard. The supervisor of the yield improvement section is under considerable pressure. X is one of the three members of the section. The supervisor considers all three members to be busy with their own work. It is not easy to assign a person to attack the new challenge. Therefore, the supervisor hopes someone will volunteer to solve the new problem. The person who undertakes this task needs to study difficult technical materials after work, and he/she needs to work harder in order to free up time to solve the problem as soon as possible. X is now thinking about whether he/she should take the task. X thinks: “*Very frequently*, my supervisor ridicules me, tells me I’m incompetent, and makes negative comments about me to others; *very frequently*, my supervisor has personal favorites, tends to show

excessive favoritism, and act in ways that divide employees against one another; *often the case*, my supervisor is industrious, works hard to accomplish his/her assigned tasks, and never quit a task until he/she is satisfied with the result.” *On a deontic basis*, in your opinion, to what extent to which X *should* intentionally decline the request for help?

Data Collection Procedure

The standard procedure of IIT study involves: participants reading the instruction, taking practice judgments, and making formal judgments. The computer program designed by this study presented judgment scenarios in a different random order for each participant and each replication. The practice session required participants to consider their judgments for at least 60 seconds to lead them to calibrate their rating scale. In order to lead participants to be thoughtful about their judgments, the computer screen showed each sentence of scenario with a three-second interval. There was a two-second delay before rating after a scenario is displayed completely. The time intervals between judgment and between replication were two seconds and 1 minute, respectively. The delicate computerized questionnaire warrants the quality of collected data without personal supervision. It has been successfully used in my previous studies (e.g., Yang, 2019).

Participants

The participants were recruited by advertising the study on social media networks. A total of 258 Taiwanese participants joined the study, which is comprised of 179 women (69.4%) and 79 men (30.6%), aged between 18 and 58 years old ($M = 23.1$, $SD = 6.4$), who had full-time or part-time work of at least one year, and had a job tenure of between 1 and 41 years ($M = 3.1$, $SD = 5.0$).

Results

First of all, the three factors were all significantly influence EFOC. A mixed ANOVA was performed with AASA, PFDB, SI as within-subject factors; gender and age was used as covariates; FOTR was used as a dependent variable. ANOVA results indicated that the main effects of AASA, PFDB, SI on FOTR were all significant, $F(1, 255) = 98.29$, $p < .001$, $\eta p^2 = .28$, $F(1, 255) = 72.80$, $p < .001$, $\eta p^2 = .22$, $F(1, 255) = 32.35$, $p < .001$, $\eta p^2 = .11$, respectively. As showed in Table 1 and Figure 1, the more the AASA and PFDB, the less the EFOC. In contrast, the more the SI, the greater the EFOC Therefore, all of H1, H2, and H3 that the three factors influence EFOC were supported.

Table 1. The main effects of the three factors on EFOC.

	AASA		PFDB		SI	
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Mean	13.95	8.83	13.39	9.39	9.97	12.80
Standard Error	.19	.15	.17	.15	.16	.16

Note: The more participants rated EFOC, the less they felt obligated to cooperate. n = 258.

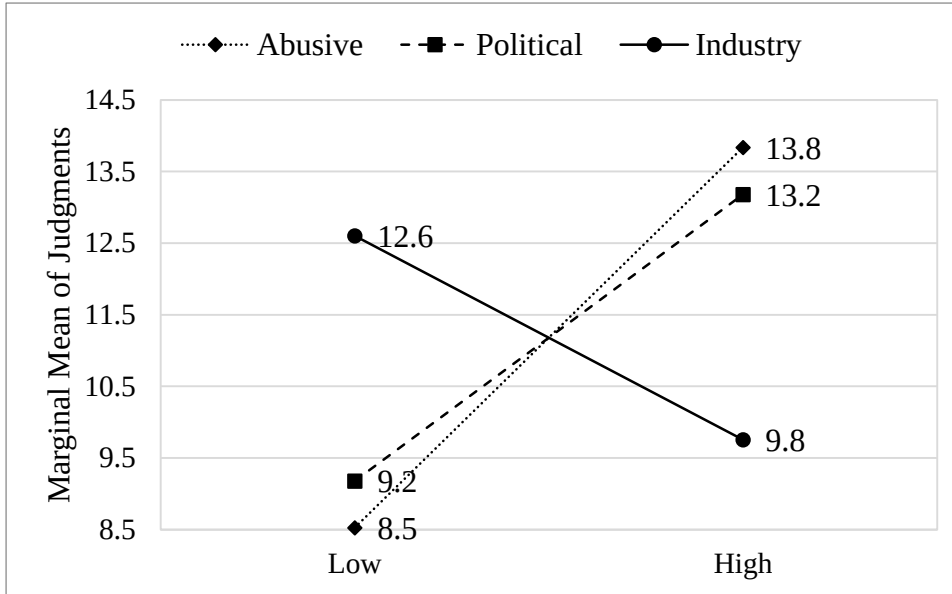


Figure 1. Participants' judgments as a function of AASA, PFDB, and SI.

Table 2. The weights of AASA, PFDB, and SI.

	Mean	SD
Weight_ AASA _high	0.70	0.34
Weight_ AASA _low	0.43	0.35
Weight_ AASA _average	0.57	0.18
Value_ AASA _high	17.53	4.36
Value _ AASA _low	6.02	5.92
Value _ AASA _average	11.77	3.41
Weight_ PFDB _high	0.64	0.33
Weight_ PFDB _low	0.35	0.32
Weight_ PFDB _average	0.50	0.17
Value_ PFDB _high	16.70	4.41
Value _ PFDB _low	6.37	6.01
Value _ PFDB _average	11.53	3.35
Weight_ SI _high	0.38	0.32
Weight_ SI _low	0.37	0.30
Weight_ SI _average	0.37	0.18
Value_ SI _high	14.92	5.79
Value _ SI _low	4.85	6.22
Value _ SI _average	9.88	3.99

In terms of the effects of mixed leadership, the interactions between AASA and SI was not significant, $F(1, 255) = 0.98, p > .3, \eta p^2 = .00$. As shown in Figure 1, although [active aggression of supervisor abuse \(AASA\)](#) combined with high supervisor industry (SI) has lower intentions of declining the request of help than combined with low supervisor industry, the slopes were identical statistically. The results implied that supervisor industry cannot decrease the negative effects of AASA, which did not support H4.

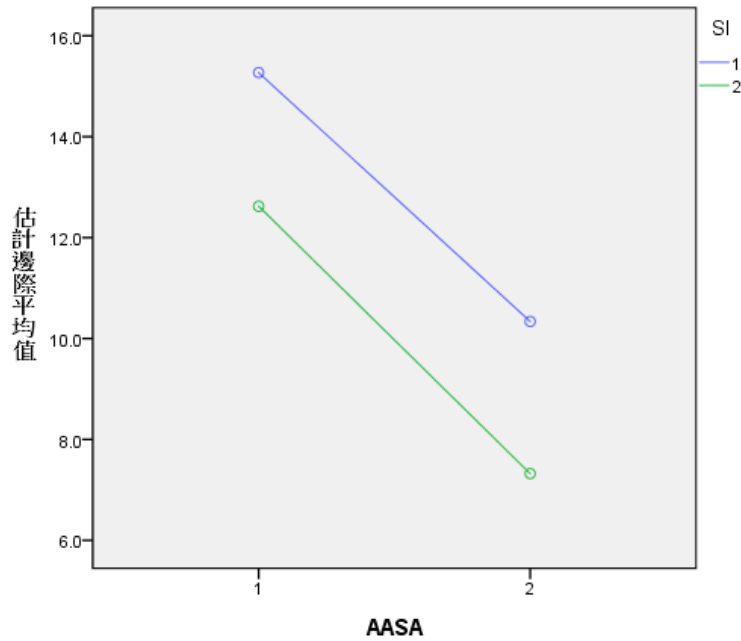


Figure 2. The interaction effect between received benefit and gratitude on FOTR.

Note: For AASA, 1 = high level, 2 = low level; For SI, 1 = low level, 2 = high level.

The interactions between PFDB and SI was marginally significant, $F(1, 255) = 3.31, p < .1, \eta p^2 = .01$. As shown in Figure 2, although [playing favourites and divisive behaviour \(PFDB\)](#) combined with high supervisor industry (SI) has lower intentions of declining the request of help than that combined with low supervisor industry, the slope for high SI was greater than that of low SI. The results implied that supervisor industry reinforced the negative effects of PFDB, which was contrary to H5.

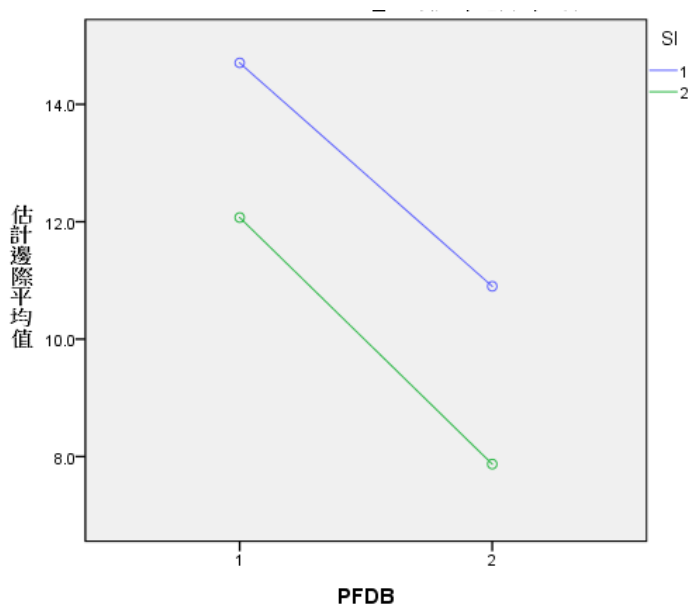


Figure 3. The interaction effect between PFDB and SI on EFOC.

Note: For PFDB, 1 = high level, 2 = low level; For SI, 1 = low level, 2 = high level.

Finally, the interactions between AASA and PFDB was significant, $F(1, 255) = 15.60$, $p < .001$, $\eta p^2 = .06$. As shown in Figure 3, although high AASA combined with high PFDB has higher intentions of declining the request for help than combined with low PFDB, the slope for low PFDB was greater than that of high one. The results implied that supervisor PFDB mitigated the negative effects of AASA.

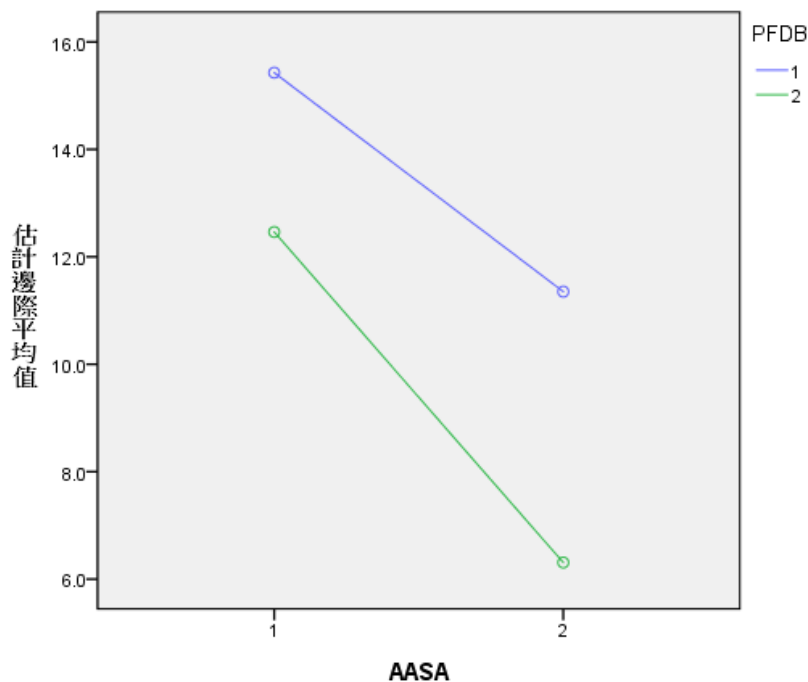


Figure 4. The interaction effect between PFDB and SI on EFOC.

Note: 1 = high level, 2 = low level.

Discussion

Main Findings

The current results showed that AASA and PFDB increases the intention of declining supervisor's request of help. In other words, both AASA and PFDB deteriorates employee felt obligation to cooperate. In contrast, supervisor industry enhances EFOC. Moreover, AASA combined with higher SI led to lower intention of declining supervisor's request of help. PFDB combined with higher SI led to lower intention of declining supervisor's request of help. AASA combined with higher PFDB led to greater intention of declining supervisor's request of help. Surprisingly, supervisor industry did not mitigate the negative effect of AASA on EFOC; supervisor

industry reinforced the negative effects of PFDB; and supervisor PFDB mitigated the negative effects of AASA.

Theoretical Implications

Social exchanges between supervisors and subordinates are not always in purely positive or purely negative ways. However, most of extant studies related to social exchange either focus on positive social exchanges or negative ones. In fact, there are no perfect good or perfect bad leaders in the real world, most of leaders perform in between. Abusive leaders may have character strength of industry at the same time. Supportive leaders may be lack of ability to make appropriate decisions simultaneously. The issue, organizational outcomes in mixed-leadership situations, deserves much more research endeavors.

This study shows some counterintuitive results. Although mixed with SI, AASA induced lower intention of declining supervisor's request of help than that without it, the negative effects of abusive supervision on EFOC was not mitigated by SI. Moreover, although mixed with SI, PFDB induced lower intention of declining supervisor's request of help than that without it, the negative effects of PFDB on EFOC was reinforced by SI. Finally, when AASA was combined with PFDB, the intention of declining supervisor's request of help resulted from AASA increased, however, the negative effects of AASA was mitigated by PFDB.

According to previous studies, leader positive traits may reinforce the positive effects of leadership. For example, Lau et al. (2014) posited that the effect of felt trustworthiness might depend on who are the trustors. Yang (2018) found that leader behavioral integrity reinforces the effects of employee felt trust on OCB. Lau et al. (2008) found that the higher the organizational rank of trustors, the stronger the effect of their trust. In the same vein, supervisor character strengths may mitigate the negative effects of destructive leadership on EFOC. However, this study shows that supervisor industry does not lessen the negative effect of supervisor abusiveness on EFOC. Even more, supervisor industry reinforces the negative effects of PFDB. It seems leader character strengths can only reinforce positive effects of constructive leadership behaviour but they do not mitigate or even reinforce the negative effects of destructive ones.

One possible explanation is from the mechanism of the effects of AASA and PFDB. The mechanism that active aggression of supervisor abuse results in negative organizational outcomes involving its effects on low quality of leader-member relationship, low employee perceptions of justice, and negative emotions (Tepper, 2007). An industrious person is one who persists in a course of action despite setbacks and takes pride in completing tasks (Wright et al., 2017). It seems that supervisor industry is not associated with the mechanism above. Supervisor PFDB, playing favourites and divisive behaviour, is a type of political behaviour in organizations (Ferris, Fedor,

Chachere, & Pondy, 1989). PFDB leads to a highly political environment which may result in the perceptions of low supervisor support and high stress which leads to low worker satisfaction, weak commitment, detrimental organizational citizenship behaviour, and low productivity (Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C., Perrewe, P. L., & Johnson, D. (2003); Chang, Rosen, Siemienieć, & Johnson, 2012). However, supervisor industry cannot mitigate the perceptions of low supervisor support and high stress.

Nevertheless, this explanation cannot explain why supervisor industry reinforced the negative effects of PFDB and why supervisor PFDB mitigated the negative effects of AASA. Based on information integration theory, I propose the other possibility. IIT researchers found the positive context effect where each single trait (component) of a target person shifts in value toward the person's other traits (context) (Anderson, 1981). As shown in equation (1), the positive context effect is determined by the weighted value of the context trait. Therefore, the effect of PFDB on EFOC in the situation of high supervisor industry and low supervisor industry depend on the value of high and low supervisor industry. It is consistent with the results showed in Figure 2, 3 and 4, where AASA combined with higher SI leads to lower intention of declining supervisor's request of help and PFDB combined with higher SI leads to lower intention of declining supervisor's request of help. Also, AASA combined with higher PFDB leads to greater intention of declining supervisor's request of help.

$$s^* = wc + (1 - w) * I \quad (1)$$

Where s^* is the in-context rating of the component, s is context-free value, w is the relative weight, and I is the overall impression. Given the component has two levels, $c1$ and $c2$; the context has two levels, $I1$ and $I2$, then:

$$s^*(c1, I1) = (1-w(I1)) * s(c1) + w(I1) * s(I1) \quad (2)$$

$$s^*(c2, I1) = (1-w(I1)) * s(c2) + w(I1) * s(I1) \quad (3)$$

The slope of the component in the context of $I1$ equals to:

$$s^*(c2, I1) - s^*(c1, I1) = (1-w(I1)) * (s(c2) - s(c1)) \quad (4)$$

According to equation (4), the slope of the component in any context depends on $w(I)$ where the smaller the $w(I)$ is, the greater the slope is. This is the case showed in Figure 3 and 4. The estimated weight of high PFDB is 0.64; the low one is 0.35, as showed in Table 2. The estimated weight of high SI is 0.37; the low one is 0.38. In summary, the positive context effect can explain why the slope of AASA is greater in low PFDB than that in high PFDB; and the slope of PFDB is greater in high SI than in low SI.

Based on the aforementioned arguments, I propose eight propositions as conclusion, as

shown in Table 3. When a leader positive trait, e.g., industry, serves as a component for forming followers' desirable outcome, the high-level positive trait will contribute high value to desirable outcome and attain a low weight. Therefore, when a leader positive trait serves as a context, the high-level positive trait will attain a low weight which leads to a steeper slope of the component. This means that a high-level positive trait will reinforce the effect of the other leader trait on desirable outcomes. Similarly, a high-level positive trait will reinforce the effect of the other leader trait on undesirable outcomes.

When a leader negative trait, e.g., abusiveness, serves as a component for forming followers' desirable outcomes, the high-level negative trait will contribute low value to desirable outcomes and attain a high weight. Therefore, when a leader negative trait serves as a context, the low level negative trait will attain a low weight which leads to a steeper slope of the component. This means that a low-level negative trait will reinforce the effect of the other leader trait on desirable outcomes. In contrast, a low-level negative trait will reinforce the effect of the other leader trait on undesirable outcomes. This study has verified Proposition 3, 4, 7, 8. Future studies are expected to examine the remaining propositions.

Table 3. Propositions for the effects of mixed leadership.

		Desirable outcome (e.g., OCB)	Undesirable outcome (e.g., CWB)
Positive leader trait	As component	High level, high value, low weight (P1)	High level, low value, low weight (P3)
	As context	High level, low weight, high slope, reinforcing (P2)	High level, low weight, high slope, reinforcing (P4)
Negative leader trait	As component	High level, low value, high weight (P5)	High level, high value, high weight (P7)
	As context	Low level, low weight, high slope, reinforcing (P6)	Low level, low weight, high slope, reinforcing (P8)

Managerial Implications

The current results showed that AASA and PFDB increase the intention of declining supervisor's request of help. Therefore, managers should lessen AASA and PFDB in order to increase EFOC. In contrast, supervisor industry enhances EFOC, which means managers who own this character strength will be worth it.

Moreover, AASA combined with higher SI leads to lower intention of declining supervisor's request of help, which means abusive managers who are with certain character strength get lower negative employee outcomes. Also, if managers with PFDB can cultivate certain character strength, the negative employee responses will be lessened. However, abusive managers who are with PFDB

will receive more negative responses from employees than who are not.

Finally, supervisor industry reinforced the negative effects of PFDB reminds us that it is worse when good managers do bad things than bad managers do bad things. Supervisor with low PFDB reinforces the negative effects of AASA implies that once managers who are perceived as not a bad person do abusiveness to subordinates, the negative effect of abusiveness is more serious than those perceived as a bad one.

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