OMJ 19,2

60

Received 24 November 2020 Revised 30 May 2021 Accepted 8 July 2021

Enduring exploitative leaders at work: the buffering role of proactive personality on employee job strain

Saleh Bajaba Department of Business Administration, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, and

Abdulah Bajaba and Bryan Fuller Department of Management, Louisiana Tech University, Ruston, Louisiana, USA

Abstract

 $\label{eq:purpose-theorem} \begin{array}{l} \textbf{Purpose} - \textbf{This paper aims to study followers' proactive personality (PP) as a personal resource in moderating the hindering impact of exploitative leadership (EL) on followers' job strain (JS). \end{array}$

Design/methodology/approach – Self-report data on EL, JS and PP were obtained from 113 working students in the USA, and a cross-sectional design was used. The data was analyzed using SPSS 27 through hierarchal multiple regression and the PROCESS macro.

 $\label{eq:Findings} Findings - The findings support the buffering role of PP on the hindering impact of EL on JS, such that followers with higher PP tend to buffer the positive relationship between EL and followers' JS.$

Practical implications – This study recommends practitioners to hire proactive individuals and/or enable existing employees to engage in proactivity in the presence of exploitative leaders to better cope with their self-serving behaviors.

Originality/value – Using the conservation of resources (COR) theory, this study is the first to use PP as a personal resource that protects against and mitigates the negative impact of EL.

Keywords Proactive personality, Conservation of resources theory, Job strain, Destructive leadership, Exploitative leadership

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

One of the most noticeable trends within the leadership literature is the focus on the dark side of leadership and its destructive effects (for a review, see Mackey, Frieder, Brees, & Martinko, 2017; Schyns and Schilling, 2013). Destructive leaders tend to harm their organization and/or their followers by pursuing goals that are in conflict with the organization's interests or employing a leadership style that is harmful to their followers (Krasikova *et al.*, 2013, p. 1310). Sustained exposure to these dark forms of leadership is



Organization Management Journal Vol. 19 No. 2, 2022 pp. 60-71 Emerald Publishing Limited 1541-6518 DOI 10.1108/OMJ-11-2020-1090

[©] Saleh Bajaba, Abdulah Bajaba and Bryan Fuller. Published in *Organization Management Journal*. Published by Emerald Publishing Limited. This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY 4.0) licence. Anyone may reproduce, distribute, translate and create derivative works of this article (for both commercial and non-commercial purposes), subject to full attribution to the original publication and authors. The full terms of this licence maybe seen at http://creativecommons.org/licences/by/4.0/legalcode

associated with adverse outcomes for employees, including lower job and life satisfaction, lower normative and affective commitment, work-balance issues and psychological distress (Diebig & Bormann, 2020; Tepper, 2000).

Despite the evidence linking destructive leadership with negative outcomes for followers, an important part of the conceptual core of destructive leadership is poorly understood – self-interested goal pursuit at others' expense. Schmid and colleagues (2019) recently introduced a distinct new form of dark leadership they call exploitative leadership (EL). It is unique among destructive leadership constructs in that it focuses on "leadership with the primary intention to further the leader's self-interest by exploiting others" (Schmid, Pircher Verdorfer, & Peus, 2019; p. 1426). Although less aggressive and hostile than abusive supervision due to its manipulative nature, preliminary evidence indicates that EL can be more destructive than abusive supervision (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). Accordingly, early indications are that EL's pernicious nature has the potential to offer new insight on destructive leadership.

Because of the harmful effects that destructive leadership has on employee well-being, it is critical to better understand how and when these effects can be alleviated (Skogstad, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2017). Indeed, organizations must reduce or eliminate employee exploitation and its negative effects an initial step (Livne-Ofer, Coyle-Shapiro, & Pearce, 2019). Consequently, in this study, we examine the impact of exploitative leaders on followers' psychological well-being and the means of mitigating this adverse effect; one such means involves the follower's personal characteristics. Research suggests that although negative forms of leadership are presumed to be harmful to all employees, some employees react differently to such behaviors due to their unique character traits (Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013; Martinko, Harvey, Sikora, & Douglas, 2011). In this paper, we use the conservation of resources (COR) theory to examine the role of followers' personal characteristics when associated with destructive leadership by examining the buffering role of followers' proactive personality (PP) in mitigating the impact EL has upon job strain (JS).

To our knowledge, research has yet to explore the impact of exploitative leadership on follower JS nor investigate the moderating role of PP in such a relationship. Therefore, this paper contributes to the literature by expanding the nomological network of EL and examining the role of follower personality traits in mitigating the negative impact of such destructive leadership style (Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013; Schmid *et al.*, 2019).

Theoretical background

By definition, exploitative leaders intend to further their self-interest and "exploit others by acting egoistically, exerting pressure and manipulating followers, overburdening followers, or, on the other hand, consistently underchallenging followers, allowing no development" (Schmid *et al.*, 2019, p. 1404). To illustrate, exploitative leaders tend to prioritize their goals over others' goals such that they are more likely to see the followers as means to reach their personal gains, which could be reflected in social recognition, compensation and/or power (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). This emphasis on exploitative leaders' self-interested goals might be the result of perceived goal blockage from their perspectives. In other words, leaders are more likely to pursue self-interested goals through exploitative behaviors when they are thwarted by contextual and dispositional factors such as limited resources (e.g. budget, information, time), lack of capabilities and motivation and possession of self-enhancement values (e.g. narcissism, Machiavellianism; Krasikova *et al.*, 2013; Schmid *et al.*, 2019). Such egotistical behaviors can even lead to exploitative leaders taking credit for a project's success to get noticed at work when, for instance, most of the contribution was made by

OMJ 19,2

62

their followers (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). To reach their personal goals, exploitative leaders tend to put exceeding amounts of pressure on the followers or even engage in manipulative tactics to influence the followers to accomplish his/her self-interested aspirations (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, even if the followers are already overloaded, exploitative leaders are more likely to delegate additional tasks to the followers if it brings them one step closer to achieve their self-interested goals regardless of whether they benefit the followers themselves, which can result in underdeveloped followers (Schmid *et al.*, 2019).

EL was found to be negatively associated with job satisfaction and affective commitment, whereas it was found to be positively associated with burnout and workplace deviance due to the exploitative nature of the leader in treating the followers, resulting in a spiral of resource loss without proper compensation (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018; Schmid et al., 2019). Although EL shares some characteristics with other types of destructive leadership, Schmid et al. (2019) suggest that it is a valuable addition to such an area due to its emphasis on fulfilling the leader's self-interested goals. For instance, one of the most commonly cited approaches to destructive leadership is the model of constructive and destructive leadership behavior by Einarsen, Aasland and Skogstad (2007), which states that destructive leadership can be classified based on two dimensions - whether the leader engages in subordinateand/or organization-oriented behaviors or goes against them. Schmid et al. (2019) propose a third dimension involving leader-directed behavior ranging from "genuinely altruistic and self-sacrificing" leader behavior (anti leader) to "genuinely selfinterested" (pro leader; p. 1429). Accordingly, exploitative leaders tend to occupy the pro leader side as a core element regardless of whether his/her personal goals align with those of the organization or the followers, thus, distinguishing itself from other types of destructive leadership, such as supportive-disloval, derailed leadership and tyrannical leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007).

According to the COR theory, individuals tend to obtain and retain resources to overcome experienced stressful challenges. Examples of such resources include material resources (e.g. tools for work), condition resources (e.g. employment), personal resources (e.g. skills, personality traits) and energy resources (e.g. knowledge, money; Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018, p. 105). However, resources are limited, and thus, individuals are motivated to retain and enhance these resources (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Accordingly, the theory argues that resource loss is disproportionately more salient than resource gain. More specifically, resource loss is proposed to be greater in magnitude than resource gain and tends to affect individuals more rapidly at an increasing speed over time. Due our evolutionary nature, even small losses tend to be tied to failure to survive. Therefore, individuals tend to invest in various resources to protect their current resources and recover them in the case of a loss (Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018).

Exploitative leadership and job strain

Due to our tendency to magnify resource loss and get affected by it much more than resource gain, when our resources are exhausted or stretched beyond their limits, we tend to enter a defensive state to preserve the self and what is left of our resources (Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018). In other words, individuals are more likely to experience JS due to the resource loss resulting from constant stress/demands depleting their resources; one such cause of stress or excessive demands can be attributed to leaders at work. Previous literature argued for the role leaders play in employee outcomes, including their psychological well-being (Schyns and Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2000). In the case of exploitative leaders, they tend to take credit for the follower's efforts, hence, possibly stealing any job or personal resources they could

have been rewarded with; overdelegate mundane, tedious tasks that consume their job and personal resources without compensation; design self-interested goals that benefit only the leader him/herself; lastly, overload the follower with job demands that outweigh their job or personal resources (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). Such exploitative behaviors do lead to not only resource loss in general but also resource loss spirals (Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018). Simply put, when followers experience resource loss, they are more likely to have fewer resources to meet upcoming stressful challenges and work demands, rendering them more vulnerable to more resource loss, and hence, more strain. Therefore, we argue that EL tends to increase followers' JS due to the increased number of imposed, hindering, leader-centric demands that strip followers of their resources through either excessiveness and/or lack of compensation, resulting in limited available resources for followers working under such leaders. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H1. Exploitative leadership will be positively related to job strain.

The buffering role of proactive personality

Although resource loss is more salient than resource gain overall, resource gain becomes increasingly more salient in the context of resource loss (Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018), namely, resource gain becomes more valuable as a means to counteract the incurred resource loss. Furthermore, such resource gain can lead to resource gain spirals due to the increased motivation. Consequently, individuals who possess resources are considered less vulnerable to resource loss or even prevent it from the start (Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018). We argue that one such personal resource takes the form of PP, which refers to the individuals' disposition toward engaging in active role orientation, such as initiating change and influencing their environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Proactive people start changes, take action and persevere until meaningful change occurs in achieving their goals, which is in contrast to passive people who are shaped by their undesirable circumstances (Crant, 2000).

Proactive individuals are more likely to be less vulnerable toward the high job demands in the workplace due to their positive beliefs (e.g. optimism and self-efficacy) and capabilities to handle unforeseen circumstances. Those individuals with proactive personalities tend to have coping resources that mitigate stressful events (Parker & Sprigg, 1999). For instance, individuals with high PP actively work to manipulate their environment and seek new ideas (Ng & Feldman, 2013), new information, and practices to improve their performance (Bateman & Crant, 1993). They tend to experience satisfaction resulting from the tendency to create conditions more conducive to their personal success at work (Li *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, they are more inclined to change their circumstances by individual means rather than let themselves be shaped by their environment (Bakker *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, we argue that proactive individuals are more likely to engage in behaviors that reduce the impact of their leaders' self-serving behaviors on their JS, whether by engaging in voice behavior or developing high tolerance capability. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H2. Proactive personality will moderate the relationship between exploitative leadership and job strain, such that when proactive personality is high, the relationship becomes weaker.

OMJ	Methods			
19.2	Sample			

64

Surveys have been distributed among working students at a university in the southern part of the USA and an initial total sample size of 142 was collected. The final sample size was 113 after all the invalid observations were removed using the listwise deletion method. This method was used because the data have sufficient statistical power, and we expect the missing data to be missing completely at random (Newman, 2014). The sample size adheres to the recommended ratio of 15 observations per variable and the preferred minimum sample size of 105 observations to run the analysis in this study, as suggested by Hair *et al.* (2018). The participants were 44% female, had a mean age of 23 (youngest was 18; oldest was 43), and had a mean work experience of 59 weeks (lowest was 4 weeks; highest was 468 weeks).

Measures

Exploitative leadership was measured with the 15-item EL scale of Schmid *et al.* (2019). The participants were asked to rate their immediate supervisor (1 = not at all to 5 = frequently, if not always) based on a number of criteria (e.g. "my supervisor values the achievement of his or her own goals over the needs of the employees"). *Proactive personality* was measured with the six-item short version of the PP scale of Bateman and Crant (1993). The participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they disagree or agree (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) with a set of statements about themselves (e.g. "I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life"). *Job strain* was measured with the four-item scale developed by Warr (1990). The participants were asked about how much of the time during the past few weeks (1 = never to 6 = all of the time) has their job made them feel a certain way (e.g. tense, depressed). Gender, age and work experience were used as control variables as previous meta-analytic findings found that burnout, a form of strain (Bliese *et al.*, 2017; Maslach *et al.*, 2001), is significantly related to all of them (Purvanova & Muros, 2010).

Analytical tools

The present study used SmartPLS 3 (Ringle *et al.*, 2015) to assess the measurement model. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 27. Furthermore, a test was conducted via the PROCESS macro (v3.4) with the bootstrap sampling method (sample size = 5,000) to assess the interaction effect; in addition, we generated asymmetric 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the interaction effect as proposed by Hayes (2013). The simple slopes of EL and JS at one standard deviation below and above the mean of PP were plotted, and the statistical significance of each slope was analyzed (Aiken & West, 1991).

Results

This study used a self-report survey, which might raise concerns relating to common method variance (CMV). Therefore, the correlations among the variables were examined to detect if they were inflated (Spector, 2006). The correlations among the observable variables were within the acceptable range. Second, Harman's single factor test was conducted to assess any CMV, and the results indicate no dominant factor emerging from the factor analysis (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). This empirical evidence, together with the present findings' consistency, theoretical argument and previous research, should alleviate any concerns related to CMV.

The measurement model was validated by evaluating the standard criteria in Hair *et al.* (2018), including the factor loadings, internal consistency reliability and convergent and

discriminant validity. EL item loadings ranged from 0.66 to 0.87, PP item loadings ranged from 0.56 to 0.77, and JS item loadings ranged from 0.66 to 0.90. Table 1 provides the means, standard deviations, correlations, reliabilities and validity estimates of the study variables. All the variables' internal consistency reliabilities were acceptable for research purposes (above 0.70; Hair *et al.*, 2018). Likewise, the composite reliabilities were above the minimum threshold value of \geq 0.70, indicating convergent validity of all latent constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2018). As for discriminant validity, the results of the latent variables showed that the square root of each AVE was higher than its correlation with the other variables indicating that there was discriminant validity among the latent variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The heterotrait-monotrait ratios, above the diagonal, were within the acceptable range (Hair *et al.*, 2018). Regarding the goodness of fit indices produced by the three-factor model, the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) had a value of 0.075, indicating no discrepancy between the implied and observed models (Hair *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, the correlation analysis between the study variables shows that EL was positively correlated with IS (r = 0.44, p < 0.01), providing initial support for H1.

Hypothesis testing

Table 2 summarizes the regression results for all the hypotheses. All of the models were not susceptible to multicollinearity as they had tolerance values well above 0.2 and variance inflation factors (VIF) well below 5 (Bowerman and O'Connell, 1990). *H1* was supported such that EL positively predicted JS in Model 2 (b = 0.43, p < 0.01, $R^2 = 0.21$).



Figure 1. Plot of the interaction between exploitative leadership and proactive personality on job strain

Variables	Μ	SD	CA	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Exploitative leadership 2. Proactive personality	1.95 3.86	0.99 0.58	0.96 0.78	0.96 0.82	$0.62 \\ 0.43$	0.79 0.17	0.22 0.66	0.48 0.18	0.12 0.17	0.09 0.08	0.07
3. Job strain 4. Gender	1.94 0.56	0.98 0.50	0.86	0.91	0.71	0.44^{**} 0.11	$-0.11 \\ -0.11$	0.84 0.12	0.13 1	0.14 0.09	0.09 0.02
5. Age 6. Work experience	22.87 58.63	4.65 78.15	_	_	_	$-0.07 \\ -0.05$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.02\\ 0.01 \end{array}$	0.06 0.08	0.09 0.02	$1 \\ 0.55^{**}$	0.55 1

Notes: N = 113. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; CA = Cronbach's alpha; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted. Boldfaced diagonal elements are the square roots of the AVE statistics for discriminant validity by Fornell–Larcker criterion; Below the diagonal elements are the correlations between the constructs. Above the diagonal elements are the heterotrait-monotrait ratios; Gender: Male = 1, Female = 0; Age (in years); Work Experience (in weeks). *p < 0.05 (two-tailed); **p < 0.01 (two-tailed)

Table 1.

Means, standard deviations, correlations, reliabilities and validity estimates

exploitative leaders at work

Enduring



OMJ
19,2Regarding the moderating role of PP, the interaction term of EL and PP significantly
predicted JS (b = -0.31, p < 0.05, $R^2 = 0.27$; $\Delta R^2 = 0.03$, p < 0.05) in Model 4. The additional
3% of the variance for JS accounted for by the interaction term falls around the 1–3%
interaction effect of most field studies (Champoux & Peters, 1987; Chaplin, 1991; McClelland
& Judd, 1993). Moreover, two simple slopes were tested and the positive relationship
between EL and JS was stronger when PP was low (simple slope = 0.71, SE = 0.14, CI [0.43,
0.98], p < 0.001) than when it was high (simple slope = 0.36, SE = 0.10, CI [0.16, 0.55], p <66

Discussion

This study found that exploitative leaders tend to increase followers' JS in the workplace. This finding expands on the current literature on destructive leadership (Mackey *et al.*, 2017) by highlighting the negative outcomes of a new destructive leadership type where leaders' self-serving behaviors negatively influence their followers' psychological well-being. For instance, a meta-analysis by Schyns and Schilling (2013) found significant negative correlations between abusive supervision (and other forms of destructive leadership) and followers' stress and well-being. This study also found that followers' PP acts as a personal resource that moderates the impact of EL on JS. More specifically, the relationship between EL and JS was weakened when followers had high levels of PP, and the relationship was strengthened when they had lower levels of PP. This finding supports the buffering role of proactive personality in stress-related relationships as discussed previously in the literature (Tiwari, 2021; Zhu *et al.*, 2017). In sum, the findings in this study highlight that followers with PP are more likely to better cope with the hindering behaviors of the exploitative leaders.

Theoretical implications

The present research has several theoretical implications. First, this study adds to the psychological well-being literature by examining the COR theory through a new type of destructive leadership: EL (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). The findings indicate that exploitative leaders act as a resource loss source for the followers, thus increasing their JS. More specifically, exploitative leaders tend to engage in self-serving behaviors resulting in undercompensating their followers through underchallenging, tediouss and unrewarding tasks (Schmid *et al.*, 2019); furthermore, such resource loss can lead to resource loss spirals,

	Job strain						
Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4			
Intercept	1.69**	0.74	1.87**	1.65*			
Gender	0.24	0.14	0.09	0.11			
Age	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01			
Work experience	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01			
Exploitative leadership		0.43**	0.47^{**}	0.53*			
Proactive personality			-0.31^{*}	-0.27			
Exploitative leadership*Proactive personality				-0.31^{*}			
R^{2}	0.02	0.21^{**}	0.24^{*}	0.27^{**}			
ΔR^2	0.02	0.19^{**}	0.03^{*}	0.03^{*}			
df	109	108	107	106			

Table 2.

hierarchical regression results (unstandardized coefficients)

Summary of the

which can make an impact even more detrimental on the well-being of the followers (Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018). Although exploitative leaders might believe in the personal benefits associated with their self-serving behaviors, a point of discussion can include whether such behaviors can benefit them in the long run when their employees' well-being and performance are hindered. This finding supports the existing trend in the literature associated with the negative effects of the destructive forms of leadership (Mackey *et al.*, 2017; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Schmid *et al.*, 2019) through a new lens; self-interest.

Second, this paper also contributes to the literature on stress coping by extending the already established benefits of PP (Bajaba, Alajhar, et al., 2021; Bajaba, Fuller, et al., 2021; Fuller & Marler, 2009; Spitzmuller et al., 2015) through illustrating it a personal resource that tends to buffer the relationship between EL and IS (Howell et al., 1986). Based on the COR theory premise that individuals tend to use available resources to protect against and recover from resource loss (Hobfoll et al., 2018), proactive individuals are expected to use their positive beliefs and capabilities to better cope with the exploitative nature of their leaders. Future research can investigate potential mediators or explanatory mechanisms through which PP tends to buffer exploitative leadership's negative impact on IS. For instance, previous literature found that PP tends to be positively correlated with quantity and quality of voice behaviors (Detert & Burris, 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010). Accordingly, proactive individuals may engage in voice behaviors that limit the exploitative leaders' selfserving behaviors, thus limiting resource loss. Second, proactive individuals are more likely to possess high levels of self-efficacy (Fuller & Marler, 2009), making them more likely to believe in their capacity to execute behaviors necessary to produce specific performance attainments (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Therefore, voice behaviors and self-efficacy might be two potential mediators through which the buffering role of PP can be explained.

Another recommendation for future research includes investigating other moderators that can further limit the hindering effects of exploitative leaders. For instance, adaptive personality might be a different personal resource that can help individuals cope with workplace strain. Although both proactive and adaptive individuals welcome and promote constructive change, adaptive individuals differ from proactive individuals in that they tend to demonstrate secondary control rather than primary control, meaning that they are more likely to adapt to the environment rather than proactively changing it (Fuller et al., 2018). As a result, adaptive individuals might use different strategies to cope with exploitative leaders that rely less on changing the exploitative environment and more on self-adaptation strategies (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Zhu et al., 2014). Whether these different strategies yield better coping potential or not is an interesting question for future research to pursue. Furthermore, other factors beyond the individual-level can also be explored to mitigate the impact of EL on IS. For instance, future research can examine the mitigating role of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006) through factors such as job security, training, high autonomy, and reward expectations. Such factors may not only mitigate the impact directly, but can also enhance the followers' perceptions of fairness, inclusion and recognition, thereby reducing JS (Kim et al., 2015).

Practical implications

This paper also provides practical implications that provide a new basis for the selection process in today's business world and training goals. This study recommends that practitioners should look for and hire proactive individuals in the presence of exploitative leaders to better cope with their self-serving behavior, especially when it is hard to let go of such leaders due to their influence or expertise. On the other hand, existing employees working under exploitative supervision would benefit from training programs that enable them to engage in more proactive tendencies at work (e.g. taking charge, voice, problem prevention,

OMJ strategic scanning, issue selling, job change negotiation, feedback inquiry; Fuller & Marler, 2009; Parker & Collins, 2010). That being said, it would be best if exploitative leaders are replaced with ones that are not, thereby removing one potential source of JS for the employees. Furthermore, it would be worthy of being on the lookout for undesirable qualities such as excessive self-interest when selecting leaders to prevent the possibility of followers being exploited (Judge & LePine, 2007). For instance, Chief Human Resources managers and employees working in the Human Resources department can include behavioral indicators of exploitative leadership in the structured interviews, reference checks, situational judgment and/ or 360-degree feedback sessions (Peus *et al.*, 2013; Taylor *et al.*, 2004).

Study limitations

This study has a couple of limitations. First, the sample data was collected from university working students (i.e. convenient sample). However, this does not necessarily invalidate this study's findings, as scholars argue that convenient samples are considered efficient, homogenous, generalizable and adequate (Highhouse & Gillespie, 2009). Furthermore, this study's sample had a mean work experience of 59 weeks and a minimum of 4 weeks, suggesting a generalizable context for the theory under which the hypothesized relationships are examined. Future studies may replicate the study using full-time workers to further assess the examined relationships as the longer work experience can provide other means or opportunities to lessen, prevent or avoid the hindering demands of exploitative leaders. Another potential variable of interest to examine in future studies is the interaction frequency with the supervisor as it may influence the followers' IS levels by examining the amount of resource loss exposure created by exploitative leaders (Shi et al., 2013). Another potential limitation of this study involves its crosssectional design as the data was collected at a specific point in time, which neglects the temporal precedence in the hypothesized relationships (Bowen & Wiersema, 1999). That being said, the outcome of the study, JS, is defined as a state, indicating its malleability (i.e. short time span) and the need for it to be measured simultaneously with its antecedents.

References

Aiken, L. S. & West, S. (1991). Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions, Sage.

- Bajaba, S., Alajhar, N., & Bajaba, A. (2021). The bottom-up impact of proactive personality on employee job crafting: a serial mediation model. *The Journal of Psychology*, 155(6). Retrieved from: https:// doi.org/10.1080/00223980.2021.1921679
- Bajaba, S., Fuller, B., Marler, L., & Bajaba, A. (2021). Does mindfulness enhance the beneficial outcomes that accrue to employees with proactive personalities? *Current Psychology*, 40(2), 475-484. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-018-9995-3
- Bakker, A. B., Tims, M., & Derks, D. (2012). Proactive personality and job performance: the role of job crafting and work engagement. *Human Relations*, 65(10), 1359-1378. https://doi.org/10.1177/ 0018726712453471
- Bandura, A. (1986). Fearful expectations and avoidant actions as coeffects of perceived self-inefficacy. American Psychologist, 41(12), 1389-1391. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.41.12.1389
- Bandura, A., et al. (1997). Self-efficacy and health behaviour. A. Baum, S. Newman, J. Weinman. (Eds), *Cambridge handbook of psychology, health and medicine*, pp. 160-162. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. In
- Bateman, T. S. & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behavior: a measure and correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(2), 103-118. Retrieved from: https://doi. org/10.1002/job.4030140202

Bliese, P. D., Edwards, J. R., & Sonnentag, S. (2017). Stress and well-being at work: a century of empirical trends reflecting theoretical and societal influences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(3), 389-402. Retrieved from: https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/ap10000109

Bowerman, B. L. & O'Connell, R. T. (1990). Linear statistical models: an applied approach, Brooks/Cole.

- Bowen, H. P. & Wiersema, M. F. (1999). Matching method to paradigm in strategy research: limitations of cross-sectional analysis and some methodological alternatives. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(7), 625-636. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-0266(199907)20: 7<625::AID-SMJ45>3.0.CO;2-V
- Champoux, J. E. & Peters, W. S. (1987). Form, effect size and power in moderated regression analysis. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 60(3), 243-255. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1111/ j.2044-8325.1987.tb00257.x
- Chaplin, W. F. (1991). The next generation of moderator research in personality psychology. *Journal of Personality*, 59(2), 143-178. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1991.tb00772.x
- Crant, J. M. (2000). Proactive behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 435-462. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600304
- Detert, J. R. & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice: is the door really open? Academy of Management Journal, 50(4), 869-884. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.5465/ amj.2007.26279183
- Diebig, M. & Bormann, K. C. (2020). The dynamic relationship between laissez-faire leadership and day-level stress: a role theory perspective. *German Journal of Human Resource Management: Zeitschrift Für Personalforschung*, 34(3) available at: https://doi.org/10.1177/2397002219900177
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M. S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behaviour: a definition and conceptual model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), 207-216. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.002
- Eisenberger, R. & Stinglhamber, F. (2011). Perceived organizational support: Fostering enthusiastic and productive employees, Washington, DC:, American Psychological Association.
- Fornell, C. & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50. Retrieved from: https://doi. org/10.2307/3151312
- Fuller, B. & Marler, L. E. (2009). Change driven by nature: a Meta-analytic review of the proactive personality literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75(3), 329-345. Retrieved from: https://doi. org/10.1016/j.jvb.2009.05.008
- Fuller, B., Marler, L. E., Bajaba, S., & Lovett, D. M. (2018). Deconstructing the proactive personality construct: Exploring a change-control circumplex model. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2018(1), 13504 July), doi: 10.5465/AMBPP.2018.13504abstract.
- Greenhaus, J. H. & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. Academy of Management Review, 31(1), 72-92. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/ 10.5465/amr.2006.19379625
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2018). *Multivariate data analysis*, upper saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: a regression-based approach, Guilford Press.
- Highhouse, S. & Gillespie, J. Z. (2009). Do samples really matter that. C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg, (Eds), Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends: Doctrine, verity and fable in the organizational and social sciences, pp. 247-265. Mahwah, NJ:, Erlbaum. much? In
- Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J. P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of resources in the organizational context: the reality of resources and their consequences. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 5(1), 103-128. Retrieved from: https:// doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640

OMJ 19 2	Howell, J. P., Dorfman, P. W., & Kerr, S. (1986). Moderator variables in leadership research. Academy of Management Review, 11(1), 88-102. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1986.4282632
13,2	Judge, T. A. & LePine, J. A. (2007). The bright and dark sides of personality: Implications for personnel selection in individual and team contexts. J. Langan-Fox, C. Cooper, & R. Klimoski, (Eds), <i>Research companion to the dysfunctional workplace: Management challenges and symptoms</i> , pp. 332-355. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar. In
70	Kim, S. L., Kim, M., & Yun, S. (2015). Knowledge sharing, abusive supervision, and support: a social exchange perspective. <i>Group & Organization Management</i> , 40(5), 599-624. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601115577514
	Krasikova, D. V., Green, S. G., & LeBreton, J. M. (2013). Destructive leadership: a theoretical review, integration, and future research agenda. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 39(5), 1308-1338. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312471388
	Livne-Ofer, E., Coyle-Shapiro, J. A., & Pearce, J. L. (2019). Eyes wide open: Perceived exploitation and its consequences. Academy of Management Journal, 62(6), 1989-2018. Retrieved from: https://doi. org/10.5465/amj.2017.1421
	Mackey, J. D., Frieder, R. E., Brees, J. R., & Martinko, M. J. (2017). Abusive supervision: a meta-analysis and empirical review. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 43(6), 1940-1965. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/ 10.1177/0149206315573997
	Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., Sikora, D., & Douglas, S. C. (2011). Perceptions of abusive supervision: the role of subordinates' attribution styles. <i>The Leadership Quarterly</i> , 22(4), 751-764. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.05.013
	Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. <i>Annual Review of Psychology</i> , 52(1), 397-422. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397
	McClelland, G. H. & Judd, C. M. (1993). Statistical difficulties of detecting interactions and moderator effects. <i>Psychological Bulletin</i> , 114(2), 376-390. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.114.2.376
	Newman, D. A. (2014). Missing data: Five practical guidelines. <i>Organizational Research Methods</i> , 17(4), 372-411. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114548590
	Ng, T. W. & Feldman, D. C. (2013). Age and innovation-related behavior: the joint moderating effects of supervisor undermining and proactive personality. <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i> , 34(5), 583-606. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1802
	Parker, S. K. & Collins, C. G. (2010). Taking stock: Integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviors. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 36(3), 633-662. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1177/ 0149206308321554
	Parker, S. K. & Sprigg, C. A. (1999). Minimizing strain and maximizing learning: The role of job demands, job control, and proactive personality. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 84(6), 925available at: https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.84.6.925
	Peus, C., Braun, S., & Frey, D. (2013). Situation-based measurement of the full range of leadership model: Development and validation of a situational judgment test. <i>The Leadership Quarterly</i> , 24(5), 777-795. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.07.006
	Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. <i>Journal of</i> <i>Applied Psychology</i> , 88(5), 879-903. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
	Purvanova, R. K. & Muros, J. P. (2010). Gender differences in burnout: a Meta-analysis. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i> , 77(2), 168-185. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.04.006
	Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Becker, J. M. (2015). <i>SmartPLS 3</i> , Bönningstedt: SmartPLS GmbH. available at: www.smartpls.com.
	Savickas, M. L. & Porfeli, E. J. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i> , 80(3), 661-673. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.011

- 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. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206317707810
- 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. Retrieved from: https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001
- Shanock, L. R. & Eisenberger, R. (2006). When supervisors feel supported: Relationships with subordinates' perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 689-695. Retrieved from: https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/ 10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.689
- Shi, J., Johnson, R. E., Liu, Y., & Wang, M. (2013). Linking subordinate political skill to supervisor dependence and reward recommendations: a moderated mediation model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(2), 374available at: https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031129
- Skogstad, A., Nielsen, M. B., & Einarsen, S. (2017). Destructive forms of leadership and their relationships with employee well-being. E. K. Kelloway, K. Nielsen, & J. K. Dimoff, (Eds), *Leading to occupational health and safety: How leadership behaviours impact organizational safety and well-being*, John Wiley & Sons. In
- Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: truth or urban legend? Organizational Research Methods, 9(2), 221-232. doi: 10.1177/1094428105284955.
- Spitzmuller, M., Sin, H. P., Howe, M., & Fatimah, S. (2015). Investigating the uniqueness and usefulness of proactive personality in organizational research: A meta-analytic review. *Human Performance*, 28(4), 351-379. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1080/08959285.2015.1021041
- Taylor, P. J., Pajo, K., Cheung, G. W., & Stringfield, P. (2004). Dimensionality and validity of a structured telephone reference check procedure. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(3), 745-772. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2004.00006.x
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. Academy of Management Journal, 43(2), 178-190. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.5465/1556375
- Tiwari, V. (2021). Countering effects of technostress on productivity: Moderating role of proactive personality. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 28(2), 636-651. Retrieved from: https://doi. org/10.1108/BIJ-06-2020-0313
- Warr, P. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(3), 193-210. Retrieved from: https://oi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990. tb00521.x
- Zhu, Y., He, W., & Wang, Y. (2017). Challenge–hindrance stress and academic achievement: Proactive personality as moderator. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 45(3), 441-452. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.5855
- Zhu, J. L., Frese, M., & Li, W. D. (2014). Proactivity and adaptability. nD. Chan, (Individual adaptability to changes at work: New directions in research, pp. 36-51. Routledge. IEd).

Corresponding author

Saleh Bajaba can be contacted at: sbajaba@kau.edu.sa