# 科技部補助專題研究計畫成果報告 期末報告

## 以雙路徑的觀點探討倫理領導的影響歷程

計畫類別:個別型計畫

計 畫 編 號 : MOST 106-2410-H-130-063-SSS 執 行 期 間 : 106年08月01日至107年07月31日

執 行 單 位 : 銘傳大學企業管理學系

計畫主持人: 許境頤

計畫參與人員: 大專生-兼任助理:李柏昇

中華民國 107 年 08 月 16 日

中文摘要:倫理領導可能會正面影響追隨者的積極工作行為,如組織公民行為。但是,倫理領導對所有下屬都有效嗎?這項研究提出了倫理領導的雙路徑模式,以解釋倫理領導對不同追隨者可能產生的影響。本研究從價值激活理論出發,提出高心理資本的工作動機可能與倫理領導者的利己主義工作動機的影響。人格。因此,這項研究表明,倫理領導對利己主義動機的影響。人格者的利己主義工作動機而減弱。關黑人格的利己主義工作動機而減弱。關黑人格的利己主義工作動機可能會削弱倫理領導對利己主義工作動機的負面影響。本研究的發現支持這些假設,並提供倫理領導研究的另一個思想,以豐富對倫理領導的理論認識,使研究人員和組織意識到倫理領導的局限性。

中文關鍵詞: 倫理領導,動機,心理資本,闇黑人格,組織公民行為

英文摘要: Ethical leadership may positively affect follower's positive work behavior, such as organizational citizenship behavior. However, is ethical leadership effective for all subordinates? This research proposes a dual-path model of ethical leadership to explain the possible influence of ethical leadership on different followers. Drawing from value activation theory, this research suggested that high psychological capitals' work motivation may match with ethical leaders' altruistic motivation, which encourage them to have organizational citizenship behaviors. However, this effect may not work for dark triads who tend to have higher levels of egoistic work motivation. Thus, this research suggested that the effect of ethical leadership on egoistic motivation may weaken for dark triads because of their egoistic work motivation. Dark triads' higher levels of egoistic work motivation may weaken the negative effect of ethical leadership on egoistic work motivation. Findings in this research support these hypotheses, and provide another thought in ethical leadership research to enrich the theoretical understanding on ethical leadership to make researchers and organization be aware of the limitations of ethical leadership.

英文關鍵詞: ethical leadership, motivation, psychological capital, dark triad, organizational citizenship behavior

## How does Ethical Leadership Affect Organizational Citizenship Behavior? A Dual-path Model Approach to Examine the Effectiveness of Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership may positively affect follower's positive work behavior, such as organizational citizenship behavior. However, is ethical leadership effective for all subordinates? This research proposes a dual-path model of ethical leadership to explain the possible influence of ethical leadership on different followers. Drawing from value activation theory, this research suggested that high psychological capitals' work motivation may match with ethical leaders' altruistic motivation, which encourage them to have organizational citizenship behaviors. However, this effect may not work for dark triads who tend to have higher levels of egoistic work motivation. Thus, this research suggested that the effect of ethical leadership on egoistic motivation may weaken for dark triads because of their egoistic work motivation. Dark triads' higher levels of egoistic work motivation may weaken the negative effect of ethical leadership on egoistic work motivation. Findings in this research support these hypotheses, and provide another thought in ethical leadership research to enrich the theoretical understanding on ethical leadership to make researchers and organization be aware of the limitations of ethical leadership.

**Keyword:** ethical leadership, motivation, psychological capital, dark triad, organizational citizenship behavior

#### Introduction

Ethical leaders reinforce ethical behavior by the usage of reward and punishment (Lu, 2014) to ensure that ethical behavior is being followed in the organization (Brown and Treviño, 2006) since these leaders are also obligated to moral and legal rules (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008). Drawing from social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), prior research has shown how ethical leadership positively influences employee's motivation, satisfaction, prosocial behavior as well as an organization's performance (Fehr, Yam and Dang, 2015; Kacmar et al., 2013)

However, it is surprising to note that leadership researchers have known much about the outcomes of leadership but less is known about how and why these effects occur (Barling et al., 2010; Avolio et al., 2009). Few studies have examined the mechanisms that link ethical leadership to important individual-level behaviors (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) such as psychological safety (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009), self-efficacy, organizational identification (Walumbwa et al., 2011), and ethical cognition (Resick, Hargis, Shao, & Dust, 2013). Social learning theory suggested that employee may engage in prosocial behavior through observing role model's behavior, such as ethical leader. This study complements the relevant literature by understanding the role of motives through which ethical leadership affect employees' organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Schulz, 2016). Employees' helping behavior could be the result of both self-sacrifice (altruistic) and selfish (egoistic) motifs (Avolio & Locke, 2002). Altruistic motivation means individuals behave in such a way that enhances the welfare of others and sacrifices oneself which they consider as their highest moral duty (such as organizational concern), virtue and value (such as prosocial value). Egoistic motivation refers to the fact that individual must be the beneficiary of their own actions (such as maintaining a positive self-image). Ethical leaders reinforce the ethical conduct they believe, and define and shape the 'reality' where followers work (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006) making ethical leadership a theoretically relevant contextual variable that shapes employee's motives and behavior in the organization.

Dispositional factors (e.g. personality) also play an important role on individual motivation and behavior in organization. Differing personalities are conceived by one's values on doing desirable ways of behaving or desirable end states (Taylor and Pattie, 2014; Feathers, 1990) and activating these values are needed in order to affect person's information processes and behavior (Higgins, 1996). Thus, to understand how personalities interact with ethical leadership affecting motives, two types of personalities are studied, psychological capital (positive form of personality) and dark triad (a negative form of personality).

According to value activation theory, employees show value-congruent behavior such as helpfulness and altruism when these values are evident in ethical leaders which influences their motive in performing OCB in the organization. Values can be activated automatically when values are the primary focus of attention if they are implied by the situation or by the information a person is confronted with (Verplanken & Holland, 2002). Thus, the value is self-activated if a central value makes up part of the self, and put it into action when an appropriate situation occurs thus, instigating value-congruent behavior. This implies that employees high in psychological capital will enhance altruistic motives to perform OCB as values of helpfulness are activated in the central make-up in an individual which are also evident in the values that ethical leaders possess. But employees with dark triad personality are likely to enhance their egoistic motives when performing OCB because of their functional approach nature, as their behavior is aimed to obtain a favorable outlook of their own well-being putting value on themselves than on others.

The present study makes contributions to the study of ethical leadership literatures. First, this research seeks to understand the role of motives (altruistic and egoistic) as an underlying mechanism between ethical leadership and OCB, given ethical leader's exhibiting social responsiveness, care, positive interpersonal behavior and putting other's interest first, which reinforces moral value, they believe this will trigger employee's altruistic motivation to perform OCB but reduces employee's egoistic motivation. Second, we develop and test theoretically grounded predictions concerning the moderating role of employee's positive and negative personality traits which delineate conditions under which ethical leadership matters to a greater or lesser extent, given how topics of personality are still relatively new to the context of workplace research. Third, understanding ethical leadership help organizations seek for leaders who both possess operational knowledge and transformational qualities which are described to be "exceptional people" (Tourish, Craig and Amernic, 2010) since they have the ability to understand organizational values as well as the personalities of their followers.

#### **Review of Related Literature**

#### **Ethical Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Several researchers applied social learning theory (Bandura, 1986) to understand how ethical leadership affects workplace outcomes (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). Specifically, social learning happens through role-modeling process wherein people pay attention to role models, encode their behavior and imitate the behaviors they have observed. (Bandura & Ross, 1961).

In the organization, supervisors are deemed legitimate role models because of the position they hold in the company and the power that comes with the position. These include power to control the reward-punishment system, legitimate power to assign work-related task and power of information that leaders hold about the organization (Brown et al. 2005; Kacmar et al. 2013). Similarly, ethical leaders use rewards and punishments to hold followers accountable to ethical

standards (Fehr, Yam and Dang, 2015). Thus, when followers learn that ethical conduct is rewarded and inappropriate conduct is punished, they will be more likely to act accordingly (Fehr, Yam and Dang, 2015; Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012). For instance, researchers have found that ethical leadership has a close relationship with group and individual organizational behavior (Walumbwa, Morrison, & Christensen, 2012; Eisenbeiss, 2012) prosocial behavior, whistle-blowing, and other desirable outcomes (Brown & Mitchell, 2010, and Brown & Treviño, 2006).

In addition, researchers have emphasized the positive role of ethical leadership in employee OCB (Brown et al., 2005; Kacmar, Andrews, Harris, & Tepper, 2013). According to Organ (1988), organizational citizenship behaviors include actions not typically stated in formal job descriptions, but promoting the efficient and effective functioning of the organization when in an aggregate. As an indicator of organizational outcome, OCB can be used to test the validity of ethical leadership. Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that two facets underlie the construct of OCB: organizationally directed (OCBO), where members contribute to overall organizational productivity and adhere to informal rules designed to maintain organizational order; and individually directed (OCBI), where members indirectly contribute to the organization through their helping behaviors that include information and task sharing.

Thus, when ethical leaders exude desirable behaviors which include acting fairly, promoting and rewarding ethical behavior, showing concern towards their subordinates, demonstrating consistency, and taking responsibility for one's actions (Brown et al. 2005; De Hoogh and Den Hartog 2008; Kalshoven et al. 2011; Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2003), subordinates look up to them as their role models and encourages them to go the extra mile and do the job right (Brown et al., 2005; Mayer et al., 2009). This implies that behaviors displayed by ethical leaders can "trickle down" to employees (Mayer et al., 2012). However, it is important for us to note that the perceptions of a leader's demonstration of ethical leadership can vary from follower to follower depending on the follower's experiences with the leader and the follower's own characteristics (Jordan et al., 2013) via processes derived from social learning theory (Bandura, 1986). So, employees who are led by those they perceived to be ethical leaders were more likely to exert extra effort on the job, to see the leader as effective, and to report problems to these supervisors (Brown, et al., 2005). Based on the social learning theory, ethical leaders give a positive influence on OCB by becoming the model of appropriate behaviors who inspires the employees.

#### The underlying mechanism of motives in ethical leadership and OCB relationship

Recent research has focused on understanding how motives play a role in the occurrence of OCB (Bolino, 1999; Bolino, Harvey, & Bachrach, 2012; Grant & Mayer, 2009; Kim, Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Johnson, 2013) and understanding it as a functional approach of human behavior serves as a foundation in understanding citizenship motives (Rioux and Penner, 2001). Thus, in OCB research, one must consider the underlying purposes that motivate people to engage in certain behaviors (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997).

Values as defined by Graham et al (2013) are abstract, transsituational notions of what is good, right, and desirable, and each moral foundation partly comprises an interrelated set of values (Graham et al., 2013). Value activation theory emphasizes the role leaders can play in conveying the potential relevance of a given set of behaviors for followers' moral self-regard (Verplanken & Holland, 2002) since followers would prefer leaders who are similar with them (Keller, 1999) and prototypical of the group (van Knippenberg, 2011). According to this theory, contextual factors play an important role in strengthening or weakening the impact of one's

values on behavior (Torelli & Kaikati, 2009) wherein individuals are most likely to act in a manner that reflects their values when those are cognitively activated by the context (Higgins, 1996; Kruglanski, 1996). Thus, values are important in guiding one's attention and action that leads them to encourage some behaviors and discouraging others (Verplanken & Holland, 2002).

In the organization, ethical leaders are characterized to have values of honesty, integrity, as well as a paramount value to care and be concerned for others (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Drawing from value activation theory, when these values are evidently shown by ethical leaders, this cognitively activates employee's values of altruism which is considered to be other-oriented motive. Altruism is described as prosocial behaviors that are directed at specific individuals or groups within the organization comprised of organizational concern (OC) motives, a desire for the company to do well and to show pride and commitment to the organization, and prosocial value (PV), a need to be helpful and desire to build positive relationships with others. Both of which translates to altruism (Rioux and Penner, 2001).

In contrast, self-regard is a critical component of individuals' momentary feelings of self-worth (Mazar, Amir, & Ariely, 2008; Monin & Jordan, 2009). Egoism sets one's self as the motivation or goal of one's own action similarly labeled with impression management (IM) concerning one's desire to avoid looking bad to coworkers and supervisors and to obtain rewards. Drawing from value activation theory, such values are not evidently seen by ethical leaders since ethical leaders put employee's best interest first than their own thus failing to activate egoistic employee's motivation to hold their self-interest as the valid end of their actions. (Ellemers, Pagliaro, Barreto, & Leach, 2008).

Therefore, we argue that ethical leaders affects employees' motives that rely with their values of moral foundation (Graham et al., 2013) - altruistic motives which is rooted on generous tendencies and in contrast egoistic motives which puts self-interest as a motive of all conscious action. Thus, leading them to engage in organizational citizenship behavior. It is therefore important to note how leaders occupy a particularly important role in followers' work environments (Grojean, Resick, Dickson, & Smith, 2004). Thus, value activation takes on unique power within the context of ethical leadership because leaders' actions demonstrate how followers need to act to meet their desired states through differing motives. We argue that:

H1: Motives mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB.

H1a: Altruistic motives mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB.

H1b: Egoistic motives mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB.

#### Personality as a Moderator on the Relationship between Ethical leadership and Motives.

Despite proposing how ethical leadership affect employees' motives in performing OCB, we believe it is unlikely that all followers will respond to ethical leadership to the same extent. Rather, we suggest individual differences in employee's personality will influence (i.e., moderate) their responses to ethical leadership (Taylor and Pattie; 2014). This research investigates two types of personalities (negative vs. positive) to investigate its impact on employee's motives.

#### **Psychological Capital**

Psychological capital (PsyCap) can be defined as "an individual's positive psychological state of development and is characterized by: (1) having self-efficacy (confidence) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when

necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success" (Luthans et al, 2007). Luthans (2008) found that psychological capital was related to attitudes and behaviors which includes job satisfaction, motivation, intrinsic motivation, humor, self-determination and organizational justice (Martin 2005, Quinn 2005, Peterson et al. 2008, Sin & Lyubomirsky, 2009). This suggests that psychological capital reinforces appraisal of situations positively, opportunistically, adaptively which enhances one's well-being (Ayey et al., 2010). As Luthan, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007) points that those employees who embody high levels of psychological capital exudes strong performance brought about by positive psychological constructs manifested through one's cognitions, motivation and behavior.

Drawing from value activation theory, employees high in psychological capital translate well with ethical leaders who values pride and commitment to the organization (OC) and helpfulness in building positive relationships with others (PV) (Rioux and Penner, 2001). Specifically, individuals high in PsyCap are characterized as hopeful, optimistic, resilient and confident and these positive capacities intrinsically motivate them to achieve high performance and are more likely satisfied with their job and leaders (Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang and Wu, 2014). The four components of PsyCap (hope, optimism, self-efficacy, resilience) represents their positive psychological resources that positively impacts their attitude, behavior and performance (Avey, Reichard, Luthans and Mhatre, 2011) which serves as one's motivational propensity to accomplish tasks and goals (Wang et al., 2014). Because of this, employees high in PsyCap are more capable to help the organization and their co-workers in pursuing goals that relate with their positive well-being and self-esteem and to actualize their potentials (Coon & Mitterer, 2010).

In contrast, low PsyCap employees depend on the positive feedback given by ethical leaders in order to gain performance benefits since it is difficult for them to persevere in adverse situation, to maintain a positive outcome outlook and to be driven for success. As a result, low PsyCap employees are more likely to be more receptive to seek benefits and favors from ethical leaders in order to help them cope with uncertain situations and protect their self-image leading them to be egoistic in their motives. Therefore, we posit that:

H2: Psychological capital moderates the relationship between ethical leadership and motives

H2a: The relationship between ethical leadership and altruistic motives is stronger among followers with high rather than low levels of PsyCap.

H2b: The relationship between ethical leadership and egoistic motives is stronger among followers with low rather than high levels of PsyCap.

#### **Dark Triad**

There are traits of personality which influence motivation negatively by leading individuals to derail in their daily lives (both personal and work) and that are likely to emerge under periods of stress when individuals lack the cognitive resources to inhibit their impulses and motives in order to adhere to social norms and expectations (Hogan & Hogan, 2001). The characteristics also include motivation to elevate the self and harm others (Paulhus & Williams, 2002) which is called dark triad. The Dark Triad is a term used to describe this socially undesirable personality traits: narcissism, psychopathy, and Machiavellianism (Paulhus & Williams, 2002).

Specifically, narcissistic people are described to be self-centered individuals who hold a grandiose preoccupation with their own self-importance (Grijalva, Harms, 2014). Furthermore,

Kernberg (1975) wrote that narcissists are "clearly exploitative and sometimes parasitic. It is as if they feel they have the right to control and possess others and to exploit them without guilt feelings—and, behind a surface which very often is charming and engaging, one senses coldness and ruthlessness." (pp. 227–228). Thus, narcissistic people are indifferent towards interpersonal relationship except however, if it is for the avenue of their own self-enhancement (Grijalva, Harms, 2014). Similarly, Psychopathic people have the impression that they are decisive, ruthless, and unemotional, without room for self-doubt and are most likely display empathy-triggered procrastination (Perry, 2015). In the organization, psychopaths are described to be quick in decision-making without seeking other's consultation and little concern for other's reactions to their decision or action. Lastly, Machiavellian people use manipulation, deceit and flattery to exploit others, believing that interpersonal manipulation is the key for life success' (Furnham, 2010).

These three traits that make up the dark triad personality are considered to be related personality traits wherein the three concepts share a conceptual resemblance and their common measures overlap empirically. Drawing from value activation theory, employee's values can guide their subsequent behavior wherein their attitudes are developed based on the assessment of other's beliefs and values (Verplanken et al., 2008). Dark trait employees' crucial aspect of value lies in alleviating themselves and their self-image while ethical leaders hold primary concern for the interest of others by displaying virtuous interpersonal behavior. This implies that employees with dark triad personality who are under the supervision of ethical leaders are confronted with a value system which is different from theirs. Thus, the values that dark triad employees uphold are not activated since the situation they are confronted with do not coincide with their value system and the crucial aspect of value activation is the activation of a motivation that leads to doing goal-directed behavioral processes (Bargh, 1990). Therefore, dark triad personality will weaken the positive relationship between ethical leaders and altruism since this is not congruent with their value system. However, dark triad personality strengthens the negative relationship between ethical leadership and egoism

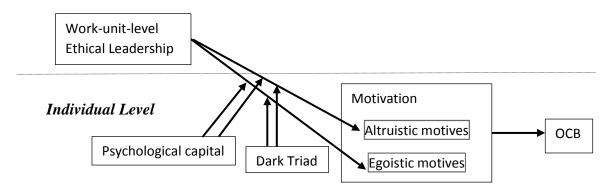
Based on this, we hypothesize that:

H3: Dark triad personality moderates the relationship between ethical leadership and motives

H3a: Dark triad personality weakens the positive relationship between ethical leadership and altruistic motives

H3b: Dark triad personality strengthens the negative relationship between ethical leadership and egoistic motives.

#### Work-unit



**Figure 1: The conceptual model of this research.** The dashed line separates work-unit-level constructs and individual-level constructs. Arrows crossing the dashed line represent cross-level relationships with the outcome variables.

#### Method

#### **Participants and Procedures**

Participants of the current study were employees and their direct supervisor from a variety of industries in Taiwan. All questionnaires were hand-distributed and collected directly by these individuals and then returned to the researcher. Data were collected during working hours and employees were provided informed consent regarding voluntary and confidential nature of their research participation. Due to all these measured variables are taken from the self-reported questionnaire, common method variance (CMV) may occur, so the dependent variables of this study, that is, organizational citizenship behavior was rated by the immediate supervisor. The part for subordinates to answer were separated for a month or more to avoid the memory effect. Independent variable (ethical leadership) and moderator (psychological capital and dark triad) were delivered in phase 1, and then control variable (social expectation scale) and mediation variable (motives) were delivered in phase 2.

A total of 80 sets of questionnaires (1 set = 1 supervisor with 3-8 subordinates) were distributed to the organizations directly. 65 sets of valid questionnaires were collected including 310 subordinates and 65 supervisors (return rate=81%). Data from subordinates showed that (N=310), 51% of them are female; the average subordinate's age is 27.96 (SD=5.71). The average tenure of subordinate's work in current organization is 3.41 years (SD=4.57), in current position 2.69 years (SD=2.65), and tenure working with current supervisor is 2.30 years (SD=2.47). Supervisor's data showed that (N=65), 50.8% of the supervisors were female; the average supervisor's age is 33.54 (SD=7.58). The average tenure of supervisor's work in current organization is 6.66 years (SD=6.38), with 1 year and 40 years for minimum and maximum work tenure in organization respectively. Moreover, the average tenure of supervisor work in current positions is 3.62 years (SD=4.82) with minimum and maximum tenure of 1 year and 40 years respectively.

#### Measures

Ethical Leadership (EL). The Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ) was measured with 15 items developed by Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan, Prussia (2011). Subordinates was requested to answer items such as "My supervisor shows a strong concern for ethical and moral values". ELQ comprises several aspects of ethical leadership, including honesty, integrity, fairness, altruism, consistency of behaviors with espoused values, communication of ethical values, and providing ethical guidance. Subordinates were asked to rate on a 6-point Likert-style scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The higher the score means that subordinates rated their supervisors as ethical leader. Cronbach's alpha for this variable is  $\alpha$ =.96. This variable has normal distribution with skewness =-1.15 and kurtosis =.85.

*Work-unit-level Ethical Leadership.* To assess the overall pattern of the leadership behaviors displayed to the work-unit as a whole, we averaged across work-unit employees' evaluations of the supervisor's ethical leadership to form the work-unit-level ethical leadership score.

*Motivation*. Participant motives for engaging in OCB was measured using the modified version of Rioux and Penner's (2001) Citizenship Motives Scale (CMS). This original CMS consisted of 30 items and measured three types of motives for engaging in OCB: (1) Prosocial Values (PV), (2) Organizational Concern (OC), and (3) Impression Management (IM). In order to reduce participants' burden on answering a huge amount of questions, we chose 4 items with highest factor loading from each motive base on the factor loading reported by Rioux and Penner's (2001). Subordinates were asked to rate on a 6-point Likert-style scale ranging from "not at all important" to "extremely important" how influential each item was in their decision to engage in OCB. Furthermore, OC (example item as "Because I want to understand how the organization works") and PV (example item as "Because I want to help my co-workers in any way I can") were grouped as altruistic motives. Cronbach's alpha for altruistic motives is  $\alpha$ =.89 with skewness =-.63 and kurtosis =.29. IM was renamed as egoistic motives (example item as "To look better than my co-workers"). Cronbach's alpha for egoistic motive is  $\alpha$ =.87 with skewness =-.22 and kurtosis =-.54.

Dark Triad. To measure dark triad traits, the researcher use the concise measure proposed by Jonason and Webster (2010) which consist of 3 personality with 12-item questions. Only subordinates fill this part, and are required to rate the statements on a 6-point Likert-style scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Sample statement for Machiavellianism is "I have used deceit or lied to get my way", for Narcissism is "I tend to want others to admire me", and for Psychopathy is "I tend to lack remorse". Cronbach's alpha for dark triad is  $\alpha$ =.89 with skewness =.42 and kurtosis =-.08.

Psychological Capital (PC). The short version of Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) developed by Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio (2007) was used to measure PC. PCQ comprises 12 items with four subscales, self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism. Subordinates were requested to rate the statements on a 6-point Likert scale (from 1=strongly disagree to 6= strongly agree). Sample statement for self-efficacy is "I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution, for hope is "I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals", for optimism is "I approach this job as if every cloud has a silver lining", and for resilience is "I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work". Cronbach's alpha for this variable is  $\alpha$ =.90 with skewness =-.57 and kurtosis =-.10.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). OCB was measured by the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Questionnaire developed by Chen (2007). It consisted of 4 types of OCB, OCB towards Co-worker (OCBC), OCB towards Supervisor (OCBS), OCB towards Job (OCBJ) and OCB towards Organization (OCBO) with 2 statements for each type. Supervisor was required to rate the statements on a 6-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree) to measure their degree of agreement to statements such as "Fulfills more responsibilities than specified in job description". Cronbach's alpha for this variable is  $\alpha = .86$ . This variable has normal distribution with skewness =-.75 and kurtosis = .88.

Control Variable. We regard social desirability as our control variable and was assessed using a 5-item Social Desirability Scale (Hays, Hayashi, & Stewart, 1989). Subordinates were requested to rate the statements on a 4-point Likert scale range from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Sample statement includes "There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone". Cronbach's alpha for this variable is  $\alpha$ =.74 with skewness =.92 and kurtosis =1.26.

#### Analysis Strategy

Our theoretical model is multilevel in nature, consisting of constructs spanning both the individual-employee level and work-unit level of analysis. In addition, the data are hierarchical, with the employees nested in different work-unit. Therefore, we conducted hierarchical linear

modeling (HLM) analyses to test the hypotheses. HLM explicitly accounts for the nested nature of the data and can simultaneously estimate the impact of factors at different levels on individual-level outcomes while maintaining appropriate levels of analysis for the predictors (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). We grand-mean centered the Level 1 predictors. This centering approach facilitates the interpretation of the HLM results, ensures that the Level 1 effects are controlled for during testing of the incremental effects of the Level 2 variables, and lessens multicollinearity in Level 2 estimation by reducing the correlation between the Level 2 intercept and slope estimates (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; Raudenbush, 1989).

#### **Results**

The descriptive statistics, internal consistency reliabilities, and inter-correlations of all study variables are presented in Table 1.

#### Confirmatory Factor Analysis

We put the major constructs involved in this study in a confirmatory factor analysis to verify construct validity. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) finds that all relevant questionnaire items loaded significantly on their intended constructs (p < .01) and that the data fit the proposed six-factor model well (GFI=.88>.80, AGFI=.84>.80, RMSEA=.07<0.1, NFI=.89, CFI=.93 >.90). We also compare alternative models with all other possible combinations and find that the six factor model attained the best fit with our data. As MacCallum and Hong (1997) indicate that GFI and AGFI values greater than 0.8 represent good model fit, the above results suggest that our data exhibit reasonably good fit.

Useful measurement for establishing reliability is Composite Reliability (CR). Threshold for CR value is suggested to be more than .7 (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010). As shown in table 1, the CR values of all factors in this research are greater than .7 which means all measurements have significant reliability. In addition, we used Cronbach's coefficient alpha which should be greater than .7 to examine the reliability of all factors. In this study Cronbach's coefficient alpha of factors ranges from .75 to .96 which means all measurements have significant reliability. When doing a Confirmatory Factor analysis (CFA), it is absolutely necessary to establish convergent and discriminant validity to define the construct validity as well as reliability. Convergent validity is measured by Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of factors and threshold for this value is suggested to be at least more than 0.5 and less than CR of each factor (Hair et al., 2010). As shown in table 1, the AVE of all factors in this research are greater than .5 and less than CR of each factor which means all measurements have significant convergent validity. Moreover, we used Discriminant validity test to concerns the degree to which measures of conceptually distinct constructs differ. According to Hair et al. (2010) and Hancock and Mueller (2001), a well Discriminant Validity is measured by Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) and the Maximal Reliability (Max (H)). Threshold for MSV is suggested to be less than AVE of each factor and Max (H) is at least more than .80. As shown in table 1, the MSV of all factors in this research are less than AVE and Max (H) are all greater than .80 which means all measurements have high Discriminant Validity.

Table 1

Descriptives, Individual-Level Inter correlations, and Internal Consistency Reliability

Variable	Mean	SD	CR	AVE	MSV	Max (H)	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.EL (work-unit level)	4.63	0.67										
2.EL (individual level)	4.66	0.74	0.93	0.81	0.21	0.99	(0.96)					
3.ALT	4.63	0.69	0.90	0.75	0.37	0.98	-0.38**	(0.89)				
4.EGO	3.66	1.02	0.87	0.58	0.30	0.99	-0.10	-0.19**	(0.87)			
5.OCB	4.67	0.69	0.84	0.56	0.34	0.99	0.41**	0.45**	-0.08	(0.86)		
7.PSYCAP	4.41	0.68	0.84	0.57	0.37	0.98	0.38**	0.59**	0.03	0.51**	(0.90)	
6.DARK	2.48	0.84	0.74	0.49	0.30	0.99	-0.14*	-0.40**	0.43**	-0.15*	-0.13*	(0.89)

Note:

#### Aggregation Statistics

We checked the viability of the constructs formed via aggregation: work-unit -level EL. Following James, Demaree, and Wolf (1984) and Kozlowski and Hults (1987), we assessed interrater agreement by computing James et al.'s  $rwg_{(j)}$ , which adjusted for a slight negative skew in the expected variance. The results showed that the average of  $r_{wg}$  was .83 with individual  $r_{wg(j)}$  ranging from .47 to .98 suggesting a high degree of inter-rater agreement for EL within the work units. We then conducted one-way analyses of variance and found significant between-groups variance for EL (F[64,312]=5.68, p<0.01). We further obtained the following intraclass correlation (ICC1) and reliability of group mean (ICC2) values, the results showed that ICC (1) =0.45>0.12 and ICC (2) = 0.82>0.7. Results from  $r_{wg}$ , ICC1 and ICC2 suggested that we can proceeded with aggregation on EL to be work-unit level EL.

#### **HLM** Results

Table 2 presents the HLM results testing the multilevel effects of EL on employee OCB. Hypothesis 1 proposes that employee motives partially mediate the relationship between workunit-level EL and employee OCB. We followed Mathieu and Taylor (2007), who drew heavily on Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures, and we controlled for individual-level social desirability to verify the mediation effect. The results in Model 1 reveal that work-unit-level EL significantly predicted employee OCB ( $\gamma = .40$ , p < .01). Second, we found that work-unitlevel EL was significantly related to altruistic motives ( $\gamma = .35$ , p<.01, M2) and egoistic motives  $(\gamma = -.19, p < .10, M5)$ , fulfilling the second requirement of the procedures, that work-unit-level EL needs to be related to the mediators. In testing Step 3 and 4, we included both work-unitlevel EL and the mediators in the regression. The results indicate that altruistic motives was significantly related to OCB ( $\gamma = 0.41$ , p<.01, M8), while the relationship between egoistic motive and OCB was not significant ( $\gamma = .03$ , ns., M9), and that the effect of work-unit-level EL to OCB remained significant but was reduced in magnitude ( $\gamma = .28$ , p<.01, M10) compared with the effect in Step 1. Therefore altruistic motives partially mediated the work-unit-level effect of EL on OCB, providing partial support to Hypothesis H1a, but Hypothesis 1b is not supported.

<sup>(1)</sup> Pearson correlation (r)\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

<sup>(2)</sup> Cronbach's alpha is shown in the parenthesis

<sup>(3)</sup>Social Desirability (SD); Ethical Leadership (EL); Altruistic motive (ALT); Egoistic motive (EGO); Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB); Dark Trait (DARK); Psychological Capital (PSYCAP)

Hypothesis 2 proposes the level 1 psychological capital moderate the relationship between work-unit-level EL and employee motives. The relationship of work-unit-level EL and employee motives was found significant in Model 2 and 5. In Model 3, 4, 6 and 7, we regressed the slope estimates for work-unit-level EL obtained from Level 2, psychological capital and motives at Level1, and controlled individual-level social desirability to test the moderating effect (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). The results revealed that psychological capital strengthens the positive relationship between work-unit-level EL and altruistic motives ( $\gamma = 0.19$ , p<.01, M4), but it weakens the negative relation between work-unit-level EL and egotistic motives ( $\gamma = -0.21$ , p<.01, M7). Detail of this interaction is showed in Figure 1 a and b, supporting Hypothesis 2a and 2b.

Hypothesis 3 proposes the level 1 dark triad personality moderate the relationship between work-unit-level EL and employee motives. The relationship between work-unit-level EL and employee motives was found significant in Model 2 and 5. Followed the same steps on testing Hypothesis 2, the results in Model 3, 4, 6 and 7 revealed that dark triad personality weakens the positive relationship between work-unit-level EL and altruistic motives ( $\gamma = -0.10$ , p<.05, M4), but it strengthened the negative relation between work-unit-level EL and egotistic motives ( $\gamma = 0.26$ , p<.01, M7). Detail of this interaction is showed in Figure 2 a and b, supporting Hypothesis 3a and 3b. Employees who reported higher level of dark triad personality is less likely to be affected by work-unit-level EL, their altruistic motive is lower than the low dark triads but their egoistic motives is higher than dark triads.

Table 2

Multilevel Estimates for Models Predicting Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Level and variable	OCB (M1)	ALT (M2)	ALT (M3)	ALT (M4)	EGO (M5)	EGO (M6)	EGO (M7)	OCB (M8)	OCB (M9)	OCB (M10)
Intercept	2.795**	2.99**	4.63**	3.62**	4.54**	3.66**	5.17**	4.67**	4.66**	3.36**
Level 1										
SD	-0.21**	-0.42**	-0.24**	-0.27**	0.54**	0.14	0.15	-0.07	-0.27**	-0.09
ALT								0.41**		0.36**
EGO									0.03	0.05
PSYCAP			0.54**	-0.36†		0.13†	1.14**			
DARK			-0.17**	0.31		0.48**	-0.78†			
Level 2										
EL(work-unit level)	0.40**	0.35**		0.21**	-0.19†		-0.31**			0.28**
Cross-level										
EL x PSYCAP				0.19**			-0.21**			
EL x DARK				-0.10*			0.26**			
model deviance <sup>a</sup>	578.16	557.47		422.08	855.54		809.36	553.00	605.53	536.79

*Note*: n (individual-level) = 310; n (work - unit-level) = 65. In all models, level 1 variables were grand-mean centered. Entries corresponding variables are estimations of the fix effects.  $\gamma$ s with robust standard errors.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Deviance is a measure of model fit; the smaller the deviance is, the better the model fits. Deviance = -2 x log-likelihood of the full maximum-likelihood estimate.

<sup>†</sup>p<.10. \*p<.05. \*\*p<.01. .

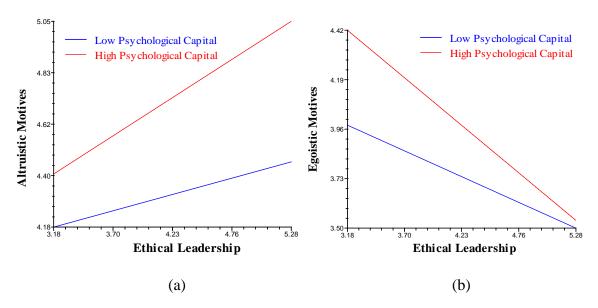


FIGURE 1: Interaction between work-unit level ethical leadership and individual level motives with psychological capital

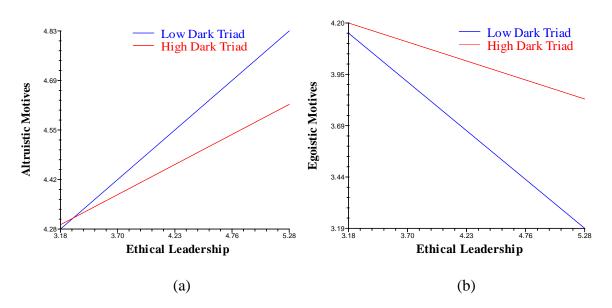


FIGURE 2: Interaction between work-unit level ethical leadership and individual level motives with dark triad personality

#### **Discussion**

Recent research focused on the importance of examining the relationship between leadership and employee's in-role job performance (Bouckenooghe, Zafar, Raja, 2015; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). The result of this research, confirms the relationship between ethical leaders with OCB of their direct employees. Previous studies have proven that ethical leadership will improve subordinate behavior, such as OCB. Ofori (2009) agreed that ethical leadership is more likely to bring about leader's effectiveness, willingness of employees to put in extra efforts, employees' job satisfaction, and an atmosphere for ethical

leadership to flourish; which shown lead to positive outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Mayer et al., 2009). In this study, the assessment used in this study of OCB was rated by the supervisors and confirm a positive relation between ethical leadership of the supervisor towards OCB. Therefore, the higher ethical leadership perceived by the employees, the higher the perceived OCB by the supervisor.

However, despite numerous research confirming the positive relationship between ethical leadership and employee's in-role job performance, little attention has been given in examining the mechanisms through which ethical leaders affect employee outcomes. This study directly compared the effect of ethical leadership on people with positive personality (psychological capital) and negative personality (dark triad personality) on OCB motives and OCB. Our results demonstrate that the effect of work-unit-level EL on employee's OCB is mediated by employee's altruistic motive, but not egoistic motive. This study showed that altruism - a prosocial behavior that is directed at specific individuals or groups within the organization (Rioux and Penner, 2001) managed to mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB. Altruism as a mediator supports the study done by Rioux and Penner (2001), which showed that altruistic motives have significant and positive correlation between certain aspects of OCB and the ways of motives attributed to OCB. This confirms the value activation theory (Verplanken and Holland, 2002) which suggested that values could be activated automatically when values are the primary focus of attention and implied by the situation or information a person is confronted with. The focus of attention of ethical leaders is to do ethical actions which then influence the employees' behavior. Thus, if an employee has altruism, with the presence of ethical leadership, we could predict the OCB outcome but when employees are inclined to do things based on their self-interest, it does not correspond to leader's value of altruism thus, does not predict OCB outcome.

The results also showed that employee's personality moderate the effect of work-unitlevel EL on employee's OCB motives. As suggested by value activation theory, employees show value-congruent behavior when these values are evident in ethical leaders who influences their motive in performing OCB in the organization (Verplanken & Holland, 2002). This result supports findings of previous research that emphasized how congruency of values shared by the leader and staff can lead to effective organizations (Burnes & By, 2012; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2012; Detert et al., 2000). Furthermore, this research holds a critical distinction from other studies which only primarily looked at the relationship between leaders and followers as an instrument in shaping employee's job performance (Schaubroeck et al., 2012). Our findings showed that the effect of ethical leadership is at its optimum when employee's values are congruent with those of their leaders by fostering employee's positive personality (psychological capital) which enhances employee's altruistic motivation in performing OCB. This finding contributes to the growing attention towards positive relationship between value alignment, leadership behavior, employee commitment and goal achievement (Bouckenooghe, Zafar & Raja, 2015; Cohen & Keren, 2008). Thus, leaders are now considered as motivators through the establishment of emotional links through the power of values and their personality and not the power of their position in the organization (Hughes et al., 2009; Stacey, 2007). In contrast, results revealed that dark triad personality moderates the relationship between workunit-level ethical leadership and employee motives. Employees who reported higher level of dark triad personality is less likely to be affected by work-unit-level ethical leadership wherein their altruistic motive is lower than the low dark triads but their egoistic motives is higher than dark triads. Based on value activation theory, altruism is an essential character of ethical leaders (Kanungo & Mendoca, 1996) and they use their power in a socially responsible manner (Eisenbeiß & Brodbeck, 2014). This implies that employees with dark triad personality whose values are concentrated on the self, do not coincide well with the altruistic values of ethical leaders which affects their motivation in performing in-role job performances. Thus, an important intervening mechanism in the ethical leadership-performance relationship is the value congruence between the supervisor and the employees. By including follower's personality and its effect on the mediating mechanism, our study represents an important attempt in integrating psychological processes in explaining the impact of OCB motives between ethical leadership and OCB.

In addition, it is important to note that a difference between our study and existing research is the source from which the outcome measures were obtained. In the present study, the criterion variable (OCB) was assessed by the immediate supervisors unlike their peers (Brown & Trevin~o, 2006). In keeping with the literature on "360 degree feedback," it is possible that different raters capture unique aspects of performance (Hoffman, Lance, Bynum, & Gentry, 2010); for example, peers may provide particularly accurate ratings of interpersonal job behaviors (Hoffman & Woehr, 2009). However, managers are a conduit of the organization for which they work, it is likely that immediate supervisors (such as those used in this study) prefer that employees focus its energy on working toward organizational values (Shamir et al., 1993; Weber, 1947). Although we believe that our focus on a broader and arguably closer approximation of the ultimate leadership criterion (Kaiser et al., 2008) represents an important contribution of this study, future research replicating our findings using alternative criteria variables such as group dynamics or individual- level outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment) will further elucidate the motivational mechanisms of ethical leadership.

Finally, conceptualizing the moderating effect of PsyCap and Dark Triad on ethical leadership and OCB motives proves to be novel and conceptually appealing because it integrates the ethical dimension of leadership with the psychological factors of personality and motivational propensity OCB motives. The results of this study documented how the role of personality characteristics of employees influences their performance at work and also assess the consequences of it at different levels.

### Managerial Implications

For supervisor who wants to increase the performance by higher rate of OCB, being an ethical leader is one way to achieve it. Ethical leaders are the people who have the characteristics of honest, caring and principled individuals who make fair and balanced decisions (Treviño et al., 2003). As the finding of this study suggest, ethical leaders plays a very important role as it foster OCB of their direct employees, which in turn can lead to higher performance.

As suggested by value activation theory, supervisor should also aware the impact of employees' personality on their OCB motives, the effect of ethical leadership works when the employees' hold the same value system as leader, but this research show that leader's altruistic value may reduce the employees' egoistic motive.

To boost OCB, the organization needs to have more ethical leaders. Moreover, to create policies and environment to foster ethical leaders and their subordinates to have OCB which suit the motives for each subordinates. For the egoistic employees who do OCB as only for the rewards, the organization need to understand what rewards or achievement to increase their likeliness to do OCB. For example, if a subordinate has an interest to increase the salary, the organization needs to give a clear description and what they expect when the subordinates can get the higher salary. This action is substantial for the in managing and evaluating current employees with egoism as their motive for actions.

### **Research Limitations and Suggestions**

As always, these insights must be discussed in light of our study's limitations. First, to collect the data for this study, the research was done using quantitative approach by sending out paired questionnaires to subordinates and their current supervisors. For the subordinates, the questions in the questionnaire involved sensitive issues regarding their supervisor. Therefore, they were more reluctant to tell the truth while filling the questions. Although the researcher managed this by using Socially Desirable Measure to reduce the bias, it is still suggested to find ways to ease the reluctance.

These data were cross-sectional, precluding causal inference. It is possible that followers with similar values are initially attracted to a leader (Schneider et al., 1995) and that because of the degree of value similarity, these followers view their leaders as more ethical. However, the lab study by Brown et al. (2005) supported the causal direction proposed in the present study, as do prior theoretical suggestions. Brown et al. (2005) found ethical leadership to be associated with satisfaction with the leader and with job dedication.

Although we found that through evoking subordinates' altruistic motivation, ethical leader could improve subordinates' OCB, but we think this effect may differ depending on the level of leader involved. This research only focused on the impact of direct supervisor because we believe they are more likely to be ethical role models who can influence employee attitudes and behavior (prosocial, antisocial) more directly. This idea was supported by Brown & Trevino (2006) and Dirks & Ferrin's (2002), they believed that executive ethical leadership will have the strongest influence on organizational outcomes (especially those related to ethics), while direct supervisory ethical leadership will be more influential on group and individual level outcomes. But this concept is not tested by any research, future research can investigate the impact of different level of management to clarify their effects on subordinate.

#### References

- 1. Ashkanasy, N. M., Windsor, C. A., and Treviño, L. K. (2006). Bad apples in bad barrels revisited: Cognitive moral development, just world beliefs, rewards, and ethical decision-making. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 16(04), 449-473.
- 2. Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. NJ:Prentive Hall.
- 3. Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.* Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- 4. Baron, R. M., and Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1173.
- 5. Blau, P. M. (1964). Justice in social exchange. Sociological Inquiry, 34(2), 193-206.
- 6. Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., and Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 97(2), 117-134.
- 7. Brown, M. E., and Treviño, L. K. (2006). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *The leadership quarterly*, 17(6), 595-616.
- 8. Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management Review*, 24(1), 82-98.
- 9. Churchill, G. A., Jr. (1979). A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16(1), 64-73.
- 10. Eastman, K. K. (1994). In the eyes of the beholder: An attributional approach to ingratiation and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(5), 1379-1391.
- 11. Feather, J. (1990). National and international policies for preservation. *International library review*, 22(4), 315-327.
- 12. Fehr, R., Yam, K. C. S., and Dang, C. (2015). Moralized leadership: The construction and consequences of ethical leader perceptions. *Academy of Management Review*, 40(2), 182-209.
- 13. Finkelstein, M. A., and Penner, L. A. (2004). Predicting organizational citizenship behavior: Integrating the functional and role identity approaches. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 32(4), 383-398.
- 14. Hancock, G. R. and Mueller, R. O. (2001). Rethinking construct reliability within latent variable systems, in R. Cudeck, S.du Toit, & D. Sorbom (Eds.), *Structural Equation Modeling: Present and Future*. (pp. 195-216). Chicago: Scientific Software International.
  - Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., and Tatham, R. L. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7th ed.), NJ: Pearson/Prentice Hall.
- 15. Hambrick, D. C. (2007). Upper echelons theory: An update. *Academy of management review*, 32(2), 334-343.
- 16. Higgins, E. T. (1996). *Knowledge Activation: Accessibility, Applicability, and Salience*. V in E. Tory Higgins and Arie W. Kruglanski, eds.
- 17. Jordan, J., Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., and Finkelstein, S. (2013). Someone to look up to executive–follower ethical reasoning and perceptions of ethical leadership. *Journal of Management*, 39(3), 660-683.

- 18. Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral science*, 9(2), 131-146.
- 19. Katz, D., and Kahn, R. L. (1966). *The psychology of organizations*. New York: HR Folks International.
- 20. Keller, T. (1999). Images of the familiar: Individual differences and implicit leadership theories. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10: 589–607
- 21. Kruglanski, A. W. (1996). Motivated social cognition: Principles of the interface. In E. T. Higgins and A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), Social psychology: *Handbook of basic principles*, 493–520. New York: Guilford Press
- 22. Leary, M. R., and Kowalski, R. M. (1990). Impression management: A literature review and two-component model. *Psychological bulletin*, 107(1), 34.
- 23. Mayer, D. M., Kuenzi, M., Greenbaum, R., Bardes, M., and Salvador, R. B. (2009). How low does ethical leadership flow? Test of a trickle-down model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108(1), 1-13.
- 24. Miller, D. T., and Effron, D. A. (2010). Chapter three-psychological license: When it is needed and how it functions. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, 43, 115-155.
- 25. Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric Theory* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- 26. Ofori, G. (2009). Ethical leadership: Examining the relationships with full range leadership model, employee outcomes, and organizational culture. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 90(4), 533-547.
- 27. Organ, D. W. (1988). Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome. *Lexington Books/DC Heath and Com*.
- 28. Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human performance*, 10(2), 85-97.
- 29. Penner, L. A., Midili, A. R., and Kegelmeyer, J. (1997). Beyond job attitudes: A personality and social psychology perspective on the causes of organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 111-131.
- 30. Preacher, K. J., and Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior research methods, instruments, and computers*, 36(4), 717-731.
- 31. Rioux, S. M., and Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: a motivational analysis. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 86(6), 1306.
- 32. Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., and Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of applied psychology*, 68(4), 653.
- 33. Sobel, M. E. (1982). Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models. *Sociological methodology*, 13(1982), 290-312.
- 34. Tenbrunsel, A. E., Smith-Crowe, K., and Umphress, E. E. (2003). Building houses on rocks: The role of the ethical infrastructure in organizations. *Social Justice Research*, 16(3), 285-307.
- 35. Treviño, L. K., Brown, M., and Hartman, L. P. (2003). A qualitative investigation of perceived executive ethical leadership: Perceptions from inside and outside the executive suite. *Human relations*, 56(1), 5-37.

- 36. Treviño, L. K., Butterfield, K. D., and McCabe, D. L. (1998). The ethical context in organizations: Influences on employee attitudes and behaviors. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 8(03), 447-476.
- 37. Treviño, L. K., Hartman, L. P., and Brown, M. (2000). Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California management review*, 42(4), 128-142.
- 38. Treviño, L. K., and Youngblood, S. A. (1990). Bad apples in bad barrels: A causal analysis of ethical decision-making behavior. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 75(4), 378.
- 39. Treviño, L. K., Weaver, G. R., Gibson, D. G., and Toffler, B. L. (1999). Managing ethics and legal compliance: What works and what hurts. *California management review*, 41(2), 131-151.
- 40. Verplanken, B., and Holland, R. W. (2002). Motivated decision making: effects of activation and self-centrality of values on choices and behavior. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 82(3), 434.
- 41. Victor, B., and Cullen, J. B. (1988). The organizational bases of ethical work climates. *Administrative science quarterly*, 101-125.
- 42. Vroom, V. H. (1964). Work and motivation. NY: John Wiley &sons.
- 43. Weiner, B. (1995). *Judgments of responsibility*. New York: Guilford.
- 44. Yukl, G., Mahsud, R., Hassan, S., and Prussia, G. E. (2013). An improved measure of ethical leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 20(1), 38-48.
- 45. Zaccaro, S. J., Rittman, A. L., and Marks, M. A. (2002). Team leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12(4), 451-483.

## 106年度專題研究計畫成果彙整表

計畫主持人: 許境頤 計畫編號:106-2410-H-130-063-SSS 計畫名稱:以雙路徑的觀點探討倫理領導的影響歷程 質化 (說明:各成果項目請附佐證資料或細 單位 成果項目 量化 項說明,如期刊名稱、年份、卷期、起 訖頁數、證號...等) 期刊論文 篇 0 研討會論文 0 專書 本 學術性論文 專書論文 0 章 0 技術報告 篇 0 其他 篇 申請中 0 發明專利 0 專利權 已獲得 或 0 新型/設計專利 內 0 商標權 智慧財產權 0 營業秘密 件 及成果 0 積體電路電路布局權 0 著作權 0 品種權 0 其他 0 件數 件 技術移轉 0 千元 收入 投稿 International Journal of 期刊論文 Manpower, 審查中 篇 0 研討會論文 學術性論文專書 0 本 0 專書論文 章 0 技術報告 篇 0 篇 其他 申請中 0 或 發明專利 外 專利權 已獲得 0 0 新型/設計專利 0 商標權 智慧財產權 件 0 及成果 營業秘密 0 積體電路電路布局權 0 著作權 0 品種權

		H , ,	0		
		其他	0		
	技術移轉	件數	0	件	
		收入	0	千元	
	本國籍	大專生	1		協助計畫執行過程中的行政相關事宜。
		碩士生	0		
١.		博士生	0		
參與		博士後研究員	0		
計		專任助理	0		
畫	非本國籍	大專生	0	人次	
人 力		碩士生	0		
		博士生	0		
		博士後研究員	0		
		專任助理	0		
際	獲得獎項、 影響力及其作	其他成果 表達之成果如辦理學術活動 重要國際合作、研究成果國 也協助產業技術發展之具體 請以文字敘述填列。)			

# 科技部補助專題研究計畫成果自評表

請就研究內容與原計畫相符程度、達成預期目標情況、研究成果之學術或應用價值(簡要敘述成果所代表之意義、價值、影響或進一步發展之可能性)、是否適合在學術期刊發表或申請專利、主要發現(簡要敘述成果是否具有政策應用參考價值及具影響公共利益之重大發現)或其他有關價值等,作一綜合評估。

1.	請就研究內容與原計畫相符程度、達成預期目標情況作一綜合評估 ■達成目標 □未達成目標(請說明,以100字為限) □實驗失敗 □因故實驗中斷 □其他原因 說明:
2.	研究成果在學術期刊發表或申請專利等情形(請於其他欄註明專利及技轉之證號、合約、申請及洽談等詳細資訊) 論文:□已發表 ■未發表之文稿 □撰寫中 □無專利:□已獲得 □申請中 ■無 技轉:□已技轉 □洽談中 ■無 其他:(以200字為限)
3.	請依學術成就、技術創新、社會影響等方面,評估研究成果之學術或應用價值 (簡要敘述成果所代表之意義、價值、影響或進一步發展之可能性,以500字 為限) This research found the work motivation of employees with high psychological capital was activated by ethical leaders' altruistic motivations, which encourage these employees to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors. However, this effect was weaker for dark-triad-personality employees with higher levels of egoistic work motivation. These results suggested that leader should alter their leadership style to match with employees' personality to achieve higher level of leadership effectivenes
4.	主要發現本研究具有政策應用參考價值:■否 □是,建議提供機關(勾選「是」者,請列舉建議可提供施政參考之業務主管機關)本研究具影響公共利益之重大發現:□否 □是 說明:(以150字為限)