

Cross-Level Influences of Empowering Leadership on Citizenship Behavior: Organizational Support Climate as a Double-Edged Sword

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Using a cross-level design and relying on a contingency approach to understanding empowering leadership, we investigate the mediating role of individual-level psychological empowerment in the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and two complementary forms of individual-level citizenship: affiliative organizational citizenship behavior and taking charge. We also investigate the moderating role of organizational support climate in the relationship between empowering leader behavior and these two forms of citizenship. Using data collected from 98 work teams in one large organization in China, in addition to support for the mediating role of psychological empowerment, we found a “double-edged” moderating effect for organizational support climate. For affiliative organizational citizenship behavior, and consistent with reciprocation perspectives posited by social exchange theory, results showed that the highest levels occurred when both empowering leadership behavior and organizational support climate were high. In contrast, for taking charge, and consistent with control theory, results showed that the highest levels occurred when empowering leadership behavior was high but when organizational support climate was low. Our findings highlight the counterintuitive notion that organizational support climate may not always have uniformly

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positive effects and also reinforce the importance of including both individual and work context factors when attempting to understand cross-level empowering leadership effects.

Keywords: *organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs); taking charge; empowering leadership; organizational support; cross-level model; team climate; multilevel analysis*

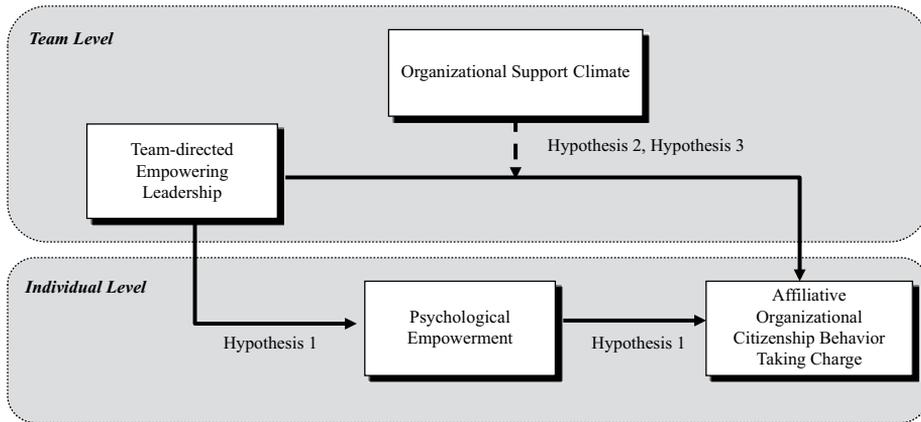
Changes in workforce expectations, the accelerating pace and uncertainty of organizational activity, collaboration, and innovation compel organizations to rely on flatter structures and flexible job designs (Bindl & Parker, 2010; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). On the basis of similar needs for flexibility, organizations are at an advantage if employees engage in behaviors that are not formally required (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors, or OCBs; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). In addition, because today's organizations and teams need the dual processes of maintaining stability and initiating change to survive, highly desirable employee citizenship behaviors should include both (a) affiliative (i.e., pro-social acts directed toward increasing smooth organization functioning) and (b) proactive (i.e., actions directed at changing the current order of things, such as taking charge; Morrison & Phelps, 1999) behaviors.¹

One key to unlocking these types of citizenship behaviors is empowering leadership (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999)—sharing power to enhance employee motivation and generate agentic states (e.g., adaptability, self-efficacy, psychological empowerment). In a recent meta-analysis, Seibert, Wang, and Courtright (2011) demonstrated that positive leadership (which included empowering leadership, among other types) has significant positive influence on individual and team outcomes, including individual empowerment and both task performance and citizenship. Despite this general finding that positive leadership behaviors matter for individual-level empowerment and employee outcomes, much less is known about contingencies influencing *how* and *when* empowering leaders may be most successful in eliciting employee citizenship.

Importantly, researchers have called for moving away from a “one-size-fits-all empowerment” model because empowering leadership operates in different settings (Forrester, 2000: 69). Even though in their meta-analysis Seibert and colleagues examined some moderators (i.e., industry, occupation, and geographic region), they acknowledge that “there is evidence that additional moderators may operate for virtually all of the relationships observed in our study” (2011: 996). Thus, our purpose is to examine team shared cognitions in the form of organizational support climate (i.e., the extent to which a work team's members agree that the organization is “on their side”; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) as an important moderator influencing empowering leadership effects on both affiliative OCB and taking charge. As shown in Figure 1, we incorporate two levels of analysis to examine the differential impact of organizational support climate (at the team level) on the relationships between empowering leadership (also at the team level) and both affiliative OCB and taking charge via psychological empowerment (all at the individual level). In doing so, we make three contributions to the literature.

First, even though there is some evidence as to how empowering leadership at the individual level influences employee outcomes such as task performance or creativity through

Figure 1
Overall Research Model



psychological empowerment (X. M. Zhang & Bartol, 2010), much less is known about how the *cross-level* effects of team-directed empowering leadership influence individual-level outcomes, particularly citizenship behavior. Thus, knowledge about how team-directed empowering leadership is most likely to produce positive individual citizenship behaviors in organizations is still incomplete. Indeed, as Seibert et al. state, "Only more recently have leadership researchers begun to regard psychological empowerment as an integral part of their models . . . [and] closer integration of leadership and psychological empowerment theories appears to be an important development meriting further investigation" (2011: 998). Regarding *how* these effects occur, we move beyond previous research demonstrating mediation effects of empowerment between leadership and outcomes at either the individual *or* team levels (Chen et al., 2007; X. M. Zhang & Bartol) by demonstrating important cross-level effects of team-directed empowering leadership on individual psychological empowerment and, ultimately, citizenship. Such cross-level effects would demonstrate "spillover" effects of empowering leadership directed at teams *down to* individual-level empowerment and citizenship behavior.

Second, and perhaps more importantly, we recognize the importance of social exchange (through reciprocation) in organizational support theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) by including organizational support climate as a contingency factor in the relationships between team-directed empowering leadership and citizenship. This perspective extends empowerment research by acknowledging the role of social influence in the relationships driving employee behavior in addition to focusing on individual-focused motivation (i.e., psychological empowerment). Regarding *when* these effects occur, researchers have pointed out that it is of "critical interest whether or not a mediation effect remains constant across different contexts" (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007: 186). Specifically, we examine conditional

indirect effects (i.e., the mediation of psychological empowerment at low and high levels of organizational support climate). Past research has demonstrated the powerful role of conditional mediation in theory building (e.g., team processes; Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010), and we extend this line of work in an empowerment context. These advances, obtained by shifting the focus toward multiple levels (i.e., individual and team) and incorporating team shared cognitions, can provide theoretical clarification and practical advantages (e.g., in managerial decisions of when, or when not, to empower).

Finally, the “double-edged” sword model points to the need to account for the complementary nature of different forms of citizenship (affiliative OCB vs. taking charge). The prediction of these outcomes can be advanced—and improved upon—by a simultaneous consideration of both convergent (i.e., empowered and supported) and divergent (i.e., empowered but not supported) forms of shared perceptions in teams. Specifically, we reason that in empowered teams, varying levels of support climate entail unique social cues to entice team members’ reactions. On one hand, a supportive climate signals a satisfactory environment and will be associated with maintaining the status quo; on the other hand, an unsupportive climate will be associated with a greater likelihood of changing the status quo. As a result, when leaders empower their teams, members’ responses will depend on the extent to which receiving autonomy and power is congruent with their other shared perceptions. Given the complementary nature of affiliative OCB and taking charge (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011), we propose a “double-edged” function for organizational support climate. Such perspectives extend and challenge the conventional views of empowerment and support as universally desirable in work contexts (Forrester, 2000).

Literature Review and Hypotheses

From Empowering Leadership to Citizenship

Organizations need stability and change, smooth functioning and discontinuity. To capture these contrasting behaviors, we focus on affiliative OCB and taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Organ et al., 2006; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Affiliative OCB is “promotive behavior that emphasizes small acts of consideration,” “it is directly and obviously affiliative,” and “it builds and preserves relationships” (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998: 109). To distinguish them from task performance, Organ notes that such behaviors represent “contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance” (1997: 91). Conversely, taking charge behaviors (“voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed”; Morrison & Phelps, 1999: 403) are about improving current procedures. To distinguish them from task performance, researchers note the higher likelihood for taking charge behaviors to be “extra-role” (Morrison & Phelps, 1999: 403) and discretionary (“a discretionary attempt to initiate and enact positive change”; Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, & Takeuchi, 2008: 84).

From a behavioral perspective, progress on citizenship research supports distinctions between these complementary forms of citizenship (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007). Problematically, employee extrarole or citizenship behavior predictions are traditionally made from only one theoretical standpoint. While

helping behaviors are usually examined through a social exchange or reciprocation lens (e.g., Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), proactive behaviors, such as taking charge, are often better understood through sociocognitive or expectancy-based approaches (e.g., Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). Using a single theoretical perspective becomes less tenable when predicting complementary behaviors such as affiliative OCB and taking charge because they are often driven by distinct mechanisms (McAllister et al.; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008).

We contend, on the basis of existing arguments, that affiliative citizenship behaviors are congruent with maintaining (i.e., "It's okay") and taking charge with changing (i.e., "It could be better"; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995: 253) the status quo. Similar to prior studies (e.g., McAllister et al., 2007; Parker et al., 2006), our outcomes can also be seen as illustrative (rather than representative) of broader contrasting behaviors variously labeled as affiliative versus change oriented (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) or nonproactive versus proactive (Parker et al.). In addition, previous research suggests alternative categorizations (Griffin et al., 2007; Williams & Anderson, 1991). For example, traditional OCB research distinguished between individual- and organization-directed behavior (Williams & Anderson), and recent work suggests a more complex and nuanced range of behaviors targeted at individuals, groups, and organizations (Griffin et al.). Similar to other research in which the purpose was to theorize and substantiate an existing contrast (e.g., nonproactive vs. proactive; Parker et al.), we narrowed our effort to examining affiliative OCB and taking charge. Yet, if supported, our findings have implications for a broader array of contrasting behaviors, a point to which we return in our Discussion section.

Extending research on leadership and empowerment (Chen et al., 2007; Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004; X. M. Zhang & Bartol, 2010), we establish psychological empowerment as a mediator in the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and individual employee citizenship behavior. Then, we discuss the "double-edged" moderating role of organizational support climate.

Psychological Empowerment as a Mediator of the Cross-Level Relationships Between Team-Directed Empowering Leadership and Individual Citizenship

Empowering leadership directed at teams should increase team members' perceptions of how empowered they feel (i.e., psychological empowerment), which, in turn, should enhance their citizenship. Specifically, empowering leaders delegate more power, provide autonomy and opportunities to team members, and thereby bolster member self-determination, meaning, competence, and impact (Chen et al., 2007). Because empowering leadership is directed toward the entire team, these patterns will be reinforced within the team through team members' proximity and interactions, generating information and attitude contagion (Ashforth, 1985; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). As a result, affiliative OCB will be increased when team members feel psychologically empowered (i.e., through meaningfulness, participation, autonomy; Organ et al., 2006). Empowering leadership directed at teams can also remove a number of organizational and job constraints, thus increasing team member self-determination (Spreitzer, 1995). As a result, team members can help fellow members without fearing the negative consequences of straying from established tasks. Further, empowered team members' feelings of meaningfulness are enhanced, which increases their satisfaction (Aryee & Chen, 2006), loyalty (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000), and, ultimately, their willingness to help.

Team-directed empowering leadership can also influence taking charge through enhancing team members' psychological empowerment. Empowered team members will see themselves as autonomous performers and feel less constrained by rigid rules. Autonomy, coupled with a perception of competence in day-to-day tasks, will result in spearheading constructive changes (Spreitzer, 1995). Empowering leadership can also generate subordinates' perceptions of meaningfulness and impact—two components of psychological empowerment—thereby increasing employees' confidence that it is worthwhile to change ineffective procedures. Finally, team-directed empowering leadership can foster self-determination (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), and such perceptions can stimulate team members' taking charge. Thus, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Employee psychological empowerment mediates the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and individual-level affiliative OCB.

Hypothesis 1b: Employee psychological empowerment mediates the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and individual-level taking charge.

The “Double-Edged” Moderating Role of Organizational Support Climate

In addition to the consistent effects of team-directed empowering leadership on team member work behaviors, we emphasize the importance of contingencies in modifying the influence of team-directed empowering leadership. Specifically, on the basis of cues from the work context, team members develop coherent sets of perceptions about their surrounding organizational climate. Team members are proximal to one another and engage in sharing information and beliefs in a recurring and reinforcing pattern. As a result, their attitudes, cognitions, and perceptions become shared (e.g., through informational and normative social influence pathways, Ashforth, 1985, or through “social interactions,” Schneider & Reichers, 1983: 31). Common cognitive filters, as well as attraction-selection-attrition processes (Takeuchi, Chen, & Lepak, 2009), are additional mechanisms generating shared beliefs.

Shared perceptions consolidate into a broad assessment of a work climate, reflecting a favorable or unfavorable impression about an organization (L. A. James & James, 1989). Even though numerous specific types of climate have been proposed (e.g., service, safety), we build upon the idea that employees form a *general* perception of whether they are supported by their organization either tangibly (e.g., being provided material support) or intangibly (e.g., valuing their well-being). Importantly, team-level perceptions of climate go above and beyond individual perceptions of the same and have additional explanatory power (e.g., Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010). From a content standpoint, the question of whether climates are beneficial or detrimental (L. A. James & James) can be addressed by focusing on various organizational aspects (e.g., rewards, recognition, care). Yet, one fundamental question employees need to address is the extent to which the organization is on their side (i.e., providing support). Consistent with L. R. James et al., we surmise that employees engage in a “cognitive appraisal of the degree to which the work environment is personally *beneficial* or *detrimental* [emphasis added] to the organizational well-being of the individual” (2008: 11). Organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) captures this evaluative stance and has been examined in connection with individual employee work effectiveness (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). On the basis of organizational support theory and prior research (Bliese, 2000; Bliese & Castro, 2000; Wallace, Arnold, Finch, Edwards, & Frazier, 2009), we focus on

the extent to which team members develop shared beliefs of support (Takeuchi et al., 2009; Wallace, Popp, & Mondore, 2006) and how these beliefs modify the relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and individual-level citizenship behaviors.

To explain how team-level perceptions of organizational support climate influence our model, we rely on two core theoretical perspectives based on social exchange and control theories. Predictions derived from these theories shape the “double-edged” effect of support climate. Under a highly supportive climate, empowered team members will act congruently with social exchange theory predictions, reciprocating the favorable treatment of their team by engaging in citizenship (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Conversely, under low support conditions, a discrepancy-reducing motivation is more likely to be activated, as predicted by control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1998). Negative aspects in the environment are translated internally as deviations between a desired and actual state, motivating employees to make functional changes (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996). This differential activation proposition has been previously demonstrated in studies examining predictors of proactive behaviors and creative solutions (e.g., situational constraints, a negative aspect of the work environment, generate *more* employee initiative; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009). For example, in a study examining voice behaviors, employees working under low levels of control were shown to speak up because of their dissatisfaction with the status quo, in contrast with positive perceptions, motivated by positive expectancies (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). Going one step further, a recent study has demonstrated that negative aspects of a job can create proactive responses because of employees’ challenge appraisals (i.e., the belief that the situation can be mastered through effort; Ohly & Fritz, 2010). Next, we develop arguments for our specific hypotheses.

Organizational support as a moderator of the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and affiliative OCB. When leaders empower their teams, they can benefit from higher levels of individual effectiveness (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Organ et al., 2006). This cross-level relationship can be accentuated by team members’ shared perceptions of support. When employees consensually feel supported by their organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986), they are more committed, satisfied, and likely to internalize the organization’s values. When empowered team members feel that the organization cares about them, this support can also manifest itself through maintaining the status quo. As Cropanzano and Mitchell pointed out, “The benefits of [organizational support] often are understood in *reciprocal* [emphasis added] terms,” noting further that “researchers have often conceptualized POS [perceived organizational support] and the ‘quality’ of the *social exchange* [emphasis added] that take place between an employee and the employer as a whole” (2005: 883-884). Therefore, under supportive conditions, empowered team members will more likely readily construe their relationship with the organization through a social exchange lens, and expectations of reciprocity will be enhanced (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Under such favorable circumstances, leaders’ attempts to empower their teams will stimulate team members to engage in more citizenship to uphold the existing status quo, reinforce existing team expectations of reciprocity, and lead to increased incorporating of organizational membership into their self-identity (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Conversely, shared perceptions of low support can change team members’ perceptions and attitudes toward the organization for the worse (e.g., Takeuchi et al., 2009) and are

inconsistent with affiliative OCB. Empowered team members will be less likely to go above and beyond their current job requirements and engage in affiliative OCB. Negative evaluations of support can also modify the extent to which empowering leadership originating from the direct leader is seen as beneficial. While leaders may attempt to empower their teams, team members' perceptions of lack of support for their team will decrease their identification with the organization, reduce their inclination to reciprocate, and correspondingly diminish affiliative OCB. Consequently, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 2a: Organizational support climate moderates the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and individual-level affiliative OCB, with the relationship being more strongly positive when support climate is higher.

Organizational support climate as a moderator of the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and taking charge. We have argued above that both empowering leadership and support are necessary for affiliative OCB. On the contrary, we argue that this is not the case for taking charge. On the basis of control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1998) and research supporting the discrepancy-reducing motivations of negative characteristics at work (e.g., lack of control; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008), we expect an opposite pattern for the prediction of taking charge. To unfold, proactive behaviors depend on a state of dissatisfaction with the status quo or a motivation originating from the need to reduce existing discrepancies (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Empowered team members who feel supported by their organization may not create a sufficient need to ignite change. Consistent with this reasoning, findings by Lambert unexpectedly showed that high levels of support decreased proactive forms of engagement (e.g., making suggestions): "The more supported the workers studied here felt, the more they took the organization for granted" (2000: 812). Similarly, Burnett, Chiaburu, Shapiro, and Li (2015) found that high organizational support decreased employees' taking charge. As they argued, too much support directed at employees may diminish their agency.

Yet, lack of support in and of itself is, in most cases, insufficient to promote proactive behaviors because of associated risks and uncertainties. Even if team members are dissatisfied by the quasiabsence of support, when placed in a low empowerment context, they will lack the confidence to spearhead changes. For taking charge to emerge, low support and the related change-directed expectations need to be combined with empowering leadership, which offers team members the necessary space to be proactive. Specifically, empowering leader behavior may increase team members' taking charge engagement when shared perceptions will contain elements of discontent, driving a desire to change the situation (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). As noted, a consistent negative evaluation of organizational support climate will activate expectations aimed at changing the status quo (Zhou & George, 2001). When lack of support generates expectations for change and the leader is empowering, empowering leadership reinforces team members' tendencies to challenge the status quo. In other words, being empowered by the leader, team members will have the autonomy and self-determination to diminish their lack of satisfaction by taking charge.

Admittedly, it is plausible that high levels of organizational support may motivate employees to engage in proactive behavior, particularly if the behavior targets helping the organization, such as taking charge from a social exchange perspective.² However, we argue that a discrepancy-reducing perspective is more relevant in driving taking charge behavior (Carver

& Scheier, 1998). For example, previous research has proposed (Parker et al., 2010) and empirically supported (Burnett et al., 2015) that discrepancy and discontent can drive proactive behaviors, even if the behavior aims to benefit the source of discontent (see the discussion in Parker et al., 2010: 845). Thus, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 2b: Organizational support climate moderates the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and individual-level taking charge, with the relationship being more strongly positive when support climate is lower.

The Two “Edges” of Organizational Support Climate: Conditional Mediation

In addition to the direct moderating effects of organizational support climate in the cross-level relationships between team-directed empowering leadership and employee behaviors described above, we expect that at least part of the effects will be conditionally mediated by psychological empowerment, which suggests a second stage moderated mediation effect (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher et al., 2007). Specifically, we expect that empowering leaders tend to enhance team members' psychological empowerment in all situations. However, the extent to which empowered employees can express their motivation (e.g., enhanced self-determination, self-efficacy) as behavior depends on social contexts (Silver, Randolph, & Seibert, 2006). Extending the mediating relationship of team member psychological empowerment examined in prior research (Chen et al., 2007; X. M. Zhang & Bartol, 2010), we propose that team-directed empowering leadership differentially influences affiliative OCB and taking charge. Our logic is consistent with findings indicating that empowering leadership can influence outcomes differently depending on the context (Silver et al.). Specifically, regardless of social contexts, empowering leaders increase their team members' psychological empowerment. Yet psychologically empowered individuals' actions are shaped by team members' shared cognitions. As a motivational component (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), employees' psychological empowerment can be translated into multiple actions, including in-role or task performance, affiliative OCB, taking charge, and even deviant actions. Organizational support climate serves as a cognitive filter shaping the expression of employee empowerment. Thus, shared beliefs of support climate can attenuate or accentuate the relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and individual-level outcome behaviors through psychological empowerment.

Consistent with organizational support theory and its social exchange and reciprocation fundamentals, supportive climates will act as shared perceptions and cognitions to activate employees' norm of reciprocity: at high (but not low) levels of support, team members will share the perception that the organization is supportive and team members need to both reciprocate and maintain the status quo. Empowered employees are more intrinsically satisfied and motivated and, hence, are willing to contribute above and beyond their role requirements by engaging in affiliative OCB. Therefore, team members' psychological empowerment will translate into affiliative OCB. Conversely, we propose an opposite pattern for taking charge that is consistent with the direct moderating hypotheses. Specifically, the mediating effect of psychological empowerment will be enhanced when support climate is low. Shared perceptions of low levels of support toward the team will trigger discrepancy-reducing motives (Carver & Scheier, 1998). As a result, team members' psychological empowerment states will be readily translated into initiating action to change the situation in the form of taking

charge. Discrepancy-reducing perceptions are less likely to be activated at high levels of support because support may signal that change is not necessary (Lambert, 2000). Consequently, the mediating effect is expected to diminish when support climate is high, signaling satisfaction with the current order of things and a reduced need for improvement in the organization. Thus, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 3a: Organizational support climate moderates the indirect effect of team-directed empowering leadership on individual-level affiliative citizenship (through individual-level psychological empowerment). Specifically, mediation takes place when support climate is high (rather than low).

Hypothesis 3b: Organizational support climate moderates the indirect effect of team-directed empowering leadership on individual-level taking charge (through individual-level psychological empowerment). Specifically, mediation takes place when support climate is low (rather than high).

Method

Sample and Procedure

We collected data from a large petrochemical company in Shanghai, China, with divisions based on teams centered on product lines (e.g., refined oil products, petrochemicals, synthetic resins and plastics, synthetic fibers). With the approval of personnel managers, we conducted a two-stage sampling strategy to select teams and team members. We first received a list of manufacturing teams distributed in multiple divisions responsible for different product lines. Although there were other supporting teams and groups (e.g., marketing, human resources, logistics), manufacturing teams constitute the organization core and contribute more directly to organizational objectives. Also, by focusing on manufacturing teams, we held other factors constant (e.g., team type). We selected a total of 128 manufacturing teams from 12 different divisions to comprehensively capture teams responsible for various products. To ensure the representativeness of selected teams, we made certain that their number was proportional with the size of the division.

Because the company explicitly requested limiting the length of supervisor surveys (and supervisors needed to assess outcomes for each of their team members), we were unable to survey every team member, particularly for larger teams. Thus, in the second stage of sampling, a human resources representative with an advanced degree and experience in random sampling, who also received additional information on random sampling from one of the authors, randomly selected team members (see Hempel, Zhang, & Han, 2012, for a similar strategy). For teams that had fewer than 5 members, we surveyed all members in the team. In total, 123 work teams consisting of 588 employees received questionnaires. Team members and their leaders responded to the surveys during working hours. Respondents returned completed surveys directly to research assistants. We obtained 461 usable responses from 98 teams for an overall response rate of 78.4%. The actual number of team members in each team varied from 4 to 12 members. The mean number of respondents per team is 4.71, and the median is 5. We received 5 responses from most teams (78.5%), 4 responses from 15 teams (15.4%), and 3 responses from 6 teams (6.1%). We note that all the teams in our sample provided at least 3 responses, which is often used as a criterion for aggregation in teams research (Kostopoulos, Spanos, & Prastacos, 2013; Z. X. Zhang, Hempel, Han, & Tjosvold, 2007).

There was sufficient variation in terms of gender (46% female). Age ranges were younger than 30 years (44%), between 31 and 40 years (22%), between 41 and 50 years (27%), and older than 51 years (7%). Employee education ranged from high school education or less (17%), associate degree (48%), and university degree (33%). Most employees were with the company for more than 5 years (56%), some less than 2 years (24%), and others between 3 and 5 years (19%).

Measures

We collected data from leaders and team members to minimize common method issues. We used 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) for all measures. Materials were in Chinese, and we followed the standard translation and back-translation procedures to minimize translation errors (Brislin, 1986).

Team-directed empowering leadership. We used Kirkman and Rosen's (1999) 14-item scale to measure team-directed empowering leadership ($\alpha = .92$). We prefaced the items with "Our team leader . . ." followed by specific items (e.g., "encourages my work team to take control of its work"). Consistent with researchers in prior studies (Chen et al., 2007), we conceptualized empowering leadership at the team level. Aggregation was supported: Mean and median r_{wg} were .89 and .92, respectively, indicating "strong agreement" among members within units (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). In addition, the estimated intraclass correlation ICC(1) of .31, ICC(2) of .68, and F value ($F(97, 363) = 3.09, p < .01$) further supported aggregation.

Psychological empowerment. We measured individual psychological empowerment ($\alpha = .90$) with Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item scale, which was previously validated in a Chinese context (Aryee & Chen, 2006). The four subdimensions (3 items each) include meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. As prior meta-analytic work has pointed out, these dimensions are correlated with one another (see Table 9 of Seibert et al., 2011; r_c from .41 to .60), and researchers have consistently used the four dimensions together (e.g., Chen et al., 2007; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Spreitzer). On the basis of prior research, as well as our own correlations (ranging from .52 to .83; with the average correlation among subdimensions of .64), we averaged the four subscales into one overall dimension.

Organizational support climate. Consistent with researchers in existing studies (e.g., Bliese & Castro, 2000; Chen, Kirkman, Kim, Farh, & Tangirala, 2010; Wallace et al., 2006; Wallace et al., 2009), we assessed organizational support climate ($\alpha = .88$) as team members' perceptions of support received from the organization (i.e., nine items; e.g., "Help is available from the organization when I have a problem"; Eisenberger et al., 1986), previously validated in a Chinese context (Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007). Following Hofmann's recommendation for data aggregation ("If the items reference the individual, then the direct consensus model is appropriate"; 2002: 256), we used direct consensus (Chan, 1998) to maintain consistency with prior support climate operationalizations (Chen et al.; Wallace et al., 2006; Wallace et al., 2009). Supporting aggregation, the mean and median r_{wg} were .82 and .87 (ICC(1) = .30, ICC(2) = .66, $F(97, 363) = 2.98, p < .01$, for organizational support climate).

Affiliative OCB and taking charge. Supervisors rated their subordinates' work behaviors. We measured affiliative OCB ($\alpha = .93$) with Williams and Anderson's (1991) 14-item scale (e.g., "helps others who have heavy workloads"). For taking charge behaviors ($\alpha = .96$), we used Morrison and Phelps's (1999) 10-item scale (e.g., "This employee often tries to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department").

Control variables. Consistent with prior research on citizenship (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002), our procedure controlled for age, education, gender (0 = female), organizational tenure, and time with leader. In line with recent research examining support climate as a predictor (e.g., Chen et al., 2010), our procedure controlled for employees' *individual* organizational support perceptions to distinguish the levels at which these constructs operated. Finally, as climate strength may influence the relationship between organizational climate and employee outcomes (Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002), we also controlled for between-team differences in climate strength (i.e., the variance of individual perceived support).

Analyses

Because of the multilevel nature of our data, we tested the hypotheses using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2004). HLM provides the correct parameter estimates and significance tests for multilevel and nonindependent data by estimating within-team and between-team variances and covariances separately and by using the robust standard errors for both within-group and between-group effects (Bliese, 2000; Maas & Hox, 2004; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). We first ran null models with no predictors, including only affiliative OCB and taking charge as dependent variables. We obtained significant between-team variance in OCB ($\tau_{00} = .58, p < .01$, indicating 58% of variance residing between teams) and taking charge ($\tau_{00} = .76, p < .01$, indicating 76% of variance residing between teams), justifying HLM as the correct analytic technique. We analyzed empowering leadership and support climate at the team level (Level 2) and psychological empowerment, OCB, and taking charge behaviors at the individual level (Level 1).

For mediation, we tested Hypotheses 1a and 1b using the cross-level mediation procedures outlined by Mathieu and Taylor (2007) applied in multilevel studies (e.g., Kirkman et al., 2009). We examined the significance of the mediated relationship by testing the significance of the product of coefficients using PRODCLIN (MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2007).³ We then tested Hypotheses 2a and 2b, which describe team-level interactions (i.e., empowering leadership with support climate, all at the team level) on individual-level outcomes, following Hofmann, Griffin and Gavin (2000). Predictors were grand-mean centered.

Concerning our formal moderated mediation hypotheses (Hypotheses 3a and 3b), we predicted that the indirect effects of team-directed empowering leadership on individual-level outcomes are conditional on the value of the moderator (i.e., support climate), also known as *conditional indirect effects* (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher et al., 2007). We conducted moderated path analysis using an SPSS macro developed by Preacher and colleagues. The macro employs bootstrapping methods to test the significance of conditional indirect effects at different values of the moderator.

Results

Through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), we compared the proposed five-factor model with several alternative models in which the correlation between each pair of factors is fixed to 1 by conducting chi-square difference tests to show that the model with the freely estimated correlations displays superior fit to each model with fixed correlations (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991). Specifically, the proposed five-factor model had an acceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 377.04$, CFA = .94, root mean square error of approximation = .09) and displayed superior fit to the alternative models ($\Delta\chi^2(1)$ from 52.5 to 105.6, $p < .01$). Table 1 presents descriptive statistics. Team-directed empowering leadership positively predicted psychological empowerment ($r = .45$, $p < .01$),⁴ affiliative OCB ($r = .15$, $p < .01$), and taking charge ($r = .23$, $p < .01$). Psychological empowerment positively predicted affiliative OCB ($r = .17$, $p < .01$) and taking charge ($r = .18$, $p < .01$).

Hypotheses Testing

Psychological empowerment as a mediator (Hypotheses 1a and 1b). As shown in Table 2, team-directed empowering leadership was positively related to individual-level psychological empowerment ($\gamma = .56$, $p < .01$; Model 5). In addition, psychological empowerment was positively related to both individual-level affiliative OCB ($\gamma = .09$, $p < .05$; Model 1) and taking charge ($\gamma = .09$, $p < .05$; Model 3), after controlling for team-directed empowering leadership. The product of coefficient tests based on PRODCLIN demonstrated significant mediated effects on employee affiliative OCB and taking charge. The bias corrected 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effects were .002 and .105 for OCB and .006 and .100 for taking charge, excluding 0. Thus, both Hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported.

Support climate as a moderator (Hypotheses 2a and 2b). In line with Hypotheses 2a and 2b, the results in Table 2 show significant interactions between team-directed empowering leadership and support climate when positively predicting affiliative OCB ($\gamma = .42$, $p < .01$) and negatively predicting taking charge ($\gamma = -.42$, $p < .05$). Adding interaction terms explained 3% additional total variance in affiliative OCB and 2% total variance in taking charge. We plotted simple slopes using the Johnson-Neyman technique (Bauer & Curran, 2005).⁵ When support climate was higher, team-directed empowering leadership was more strongly positively related to affiliative OCB ($\gamma = .49$, $p = .05$ vs. $\gamma = -.00$, n.s.); when support climate was lower, team-directed empowering leadership was more strongly positively related to taking charge behaviors ($\gamma = .60$, $p < .05$ vs. $\gamma = .01$, n.s., an opposite pattern; see Figure 2). Thus, both Hypotheses 2a and 2b were supported.

Tests of moderated mediation effects of support climate (Hypotheses 3a and 3b). We examined the indirect effects of team-directed empowering leadership on outcomes via psychological empowerment at three values of support climate: the mean, 1 *SD* above the mean, and 1 *SD* below the mean (Preacher et al., 2007). Table 3 presents the results for Hypotheses 3a and 3b. As predicted, the indirect effect on affiliative OCB was significant when support climate was higher ($\gamma = .116$, $p < .05$ vs. $\gamma = .051$, n.s.). In addition, the conditional indirect effects were significant (at $\alpha = .05$) for any value of support climate greater than .03 on the Perceived Organizational Support Scale (i.e., $M = 0.00$, $SD = 0.66$). In contrast, consistent with the prediction, results showed that the indirect effect on taking charge was significant

Table 1
Intercorrelations and Descriptive Statistics Among Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Gender (male = 1, female = 0)													0.55	0.51
2. Age	.10												2.93	1.02
3. Education	.06	.06											2.18	0.73
4. Organizational tenure	.08	.80	.22										2.78	1.25
5. Length of time with leader	.11	.49	.09	.57									2.41	1.12
6. Perceived organizational support	-.04	-.09	-.08	-.18	-.10	(.88)							4.18	0.99
7. Support climate	-.05	-.10	-.09	-.21	-.10	.67	(.88)						4.18	0.66
8. Support climate strength	-.06	.05	-.01	.11	.05	-.25	-.37						0.77	0.33
9. Psychological empowerment	.00	.03	.08	.03	.08	.40	.29	-.10	(.90)				4.99	0.77
10. Team-directed empowering leadership	-.05	.05	.16	.06	.06	.39	.58	-.23	.45	(.92)			5.03	0.54
11. Affiliative OCB	.02	.01	.08	-.01	.03	.14	.18	-.07	.17	.15	(.93)		5.20	0.88
12. Taking charge	.10	.25	.19	.29	.14	.09	.14	-.07	.18	.23	.26	(.96)	3.22	1.15

Note: Team *N* = 98; employee *N* = 461. Team-level variables, including empowering leadership and support climate, were assigned to members of the same team to calculate the individual-level correlations. Correlations greater than |.10| are significant at *p* < .05. Correlations greater than |.13| are significant at *p* < .01. Estimated reliabilities are in parentheses along the main diagonal. OCB = organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 2
Cross-Level Mediation and Moderation Analyses of Individual Outcomes

	Affiliative OCB		Taking Charge		Psychological Empowerment
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Level 1					
Gender	-.06 (.06)	-.05 (.06)	-.05 (.06)	-.05 (.06)	.03 (.07)
Age	.02 (.04)	.03 (.05)	-.01 (.05)	-.02 (.05)	.01 (.05)
Education	.04 (.04)	.04 (.04)	.05 (.05)	.05 (.05)	.03 (.05)
Tenure	.00 (.05)	.01 (.05)	.10† (.05)	.10† (.05)	-.01 (.05)
Length with leader	.00 (.03)	.01 (.03)	.00 (.03)	.00 (.03)	.06† (.03)
Perceived organizational support	.01 (.03)	.02 (.03)	-.02 (.04)	-.02 (.04)	.29** (.05)
Psychological empowerment	.09* (.05)	.08† (.04)	.09* (.04)	.09* (.04)	
Level 2					
Team-directed empowering leadership	.07 (.19)	.23 (.19)	.31 (.25)	.17 (.26)	.56** (.07)
Support climate	.17 (.14)	.09 (.15)	.10 (.22)	.19 (.22)	-.20* (.09)
Support climate strength	-.01 (.22)	-.03 (.20)	-.08 (.30)	-.06 (.29)	.06 (.10)
Team-Directed Empowering Leadership × Support Climate		.42** (.14)		-.42* (.21)	
τ (intercept)	.44	.41	.90	.87	.00
σ ²	.33	.33	.32	.32	.48
~R ²	.02	.05	.08	.10	.19
~ΔR ²	.02	.03	.08	.02	.19

Note: Team $N = 98$; employee $N = 461$. Robust standard errors are shown in parentheses. OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; Pseudo $\sim R^2$ = proportion of total variance explained by predictors in the model.

† $p < .10$ (two-tailed).

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed).

** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

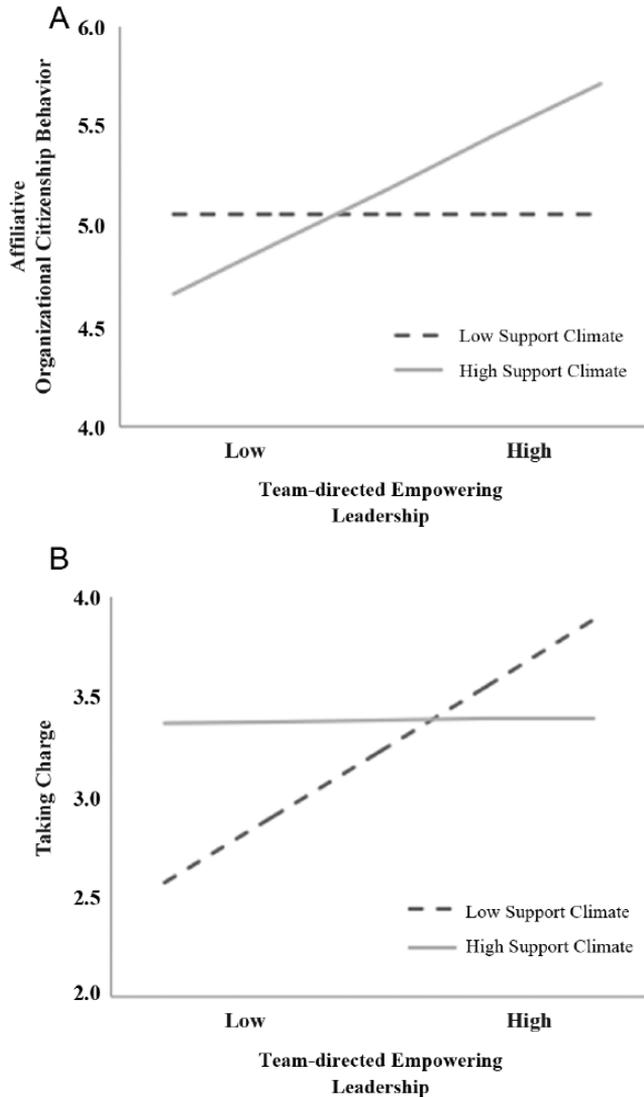
when support climate was lower rather than higher ($\gamma = .166, p < .05$ vs. $\gamma = .011, n.s.$). The conditional indirect effects were significant (at $\alpha = .05$) for any value of support climate smaller than $-.18$ on the scale. Therefore, both Hypotheses 3b and 3a were supported.

Additional Analyses

We conducted supplemental analyses on the moderating role of team task interdependence on the relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and individual empowerment.⁶ Prior theorizing and research suggests that the positive effect of team-directed empowering leadership on individual empowerment may be contingent upon task interdependence, provided that if leaders attempt to empower teams with low task interdependence, members may experience a loss of individual control and reduced empowerment; conversely, team-directed empowering leadership should be a better match for individual empowerment when task interdependence is high (Langfred, 2000; Liden, Wayne, & Bradway, 1997; Manz & Angle, 1986).

We found that the majority of sampled teams had moderate to high levels of task interdependence (assessed using Campion, Medsker, & Higgs's, 1993, three-item measure), with

Figure 2
Support Climate as Moderator of the Relationship Between Team-Directed Empowering Leadership and Individual Outcomes (i.e., Affiliative Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Taking Charge)



over 75% having higher than average task interdependence (4.38 on a 7-point scale). Further, we tested the interaction between team-directed empowering leadership and task interdependence on individual psychological empowerment and found no significant effect ($\gamma = -.01$,

Table 3
Bootstrapping Results for Conditional Indirect Effects

	Affiliative OCB				Taking Charge					
	BC 95% CI	Indirect effect	Boot SE	Boot z	Boot p	BC 95% CI	Indirect effect	Boot SE	Boot z	Boot p
Overall indirect effects	[.014, .116]					[.007, .102]				
Conditional indirect effects at										
<i>support climate</i> = $M \pm 1 SD$										
-1 <i>SD</i> (-0.66)		0.051	0.051	1.008	.314		0.166	0.068	2.462	.014
<i>M</i> (0.00)		0.084	0.040	2.071	.038		0.089	0.055	1.597	.110
+1 <i>SD</i> (0.66)		0.116	0.055	2.099	.036		0.011	0.079	0.136	.892

Note: The table presents unstandardized regression coefficients for each measure. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000; team $N = 98$; employee $N = 461$. OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; BC 95% CI = bias corrected 95% confidence interval.

$p > .05$). In other words, team-directed empowering leadership had a positive effect on employee psychological empowerment irrespective of task interdependence levels.⁷ We return to this important issue in the Discussion section.

Discussion

When managers use empowering leadership directed at their teams, do these leadership behaviors increase individual team members' psychological empowerment, which, in turn, further translates into higher levels of affiliative OCB and taking charge; that is, are there spillover effects from the team to the individual level? And, importantly, does team-directed empowering leadership carry forward uniformly into subordinate actions for these two complementary behaviors, or are such relationships qualified by the work context? In answering these questions, we show (for the first time, to our knowledge) that individual psychological empowerment mediates the cross-level relationship between team-directed empowering leadership and both affiliative OCB and taking charge, and we also show that an important contingency factor—in the form of team members' shared perceptions of organizational support—differentially modifies these relationships. Affiliative OCB is enhanced when team members are individually empowered and when they operate under shared perceptions of a supportive organizational climate. Conversely, taking charge behavior is enhanced when individuals are empowered and when shared perceptions of organizational support are low. Consistent with our prediction and with the view that empowerment depends upon both individual and structural aspects (Wall, Wood, & Leach, 2004), results showed that empowering leaders influence team members' affiliative OCB and taking charge by increasing their individual motivation, and these same relationships are modified by the teams' perceptions of support. Next, we discuss theoretical implications followed by managerial implications and then by limitations and future research.

Theoretical Implications

A first extension of prior research in this study is an examination of empowering leadership effects across levels with a more precise specification of outcomes and processes. Specifically, we extend existing research to demonstrate that empowering leadership directed at teams actually has spillover effects that work through individual psychological empowerment and positively influence affiliative OCB and taking charge behaviors. While previous research has shown that team empowerment positively influences team OCB (Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, & Gibson, 2004), individual empowerment positively influences individual OCB (Seibert et al., 2011), and empowering leadership (at the individual level) works through psychological empowerment to influence employee creativity-related outcomes (X. M. Zhang & Bartol, 2010), our *cross-level* mediation findings for the role of psychological empowerment in the relationships between team-directed empowering leadership and affiliative OCB and taking charge mean that theory and research related to empowering leadership effects on work performance outcomes have been, heretofore, incomplete. While prior work has focused almost exclusively on empowering leadership effects on task (or role-based) performance (Chen et al., 2011; Seibert et al., 2004), we demonstrate that these leadership behaviors also motivate employees to “go the extra mile”—affiliative OCB and taking charge (Bindl & Parker, 2010; Organ et al., 2006). More importantly, the mediated relationship

uncovered in this study has theoretical relevance as it can clarify the reason for the mixed pattern of results for the relationships between leader empowerment and employees' task performance through psychological empowerment processes (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Chen et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011).

Specifically, one possible explanation is that employees' task (or role-based) performance is constrained to a greater extent than are contextual forms such as affiliative OCB and taking charge. This makes task performance more difficult to connect conceptually to leader empowering behavior, as demonstrated by the inconsistency of previous findings. Our results point toward the need to specify theoretical models with greater precision so that they account for possible differences between task and contextual performance. Interestingly, in a transformational leadership context, Wang, Oh, Courtright, and Colbert (2011) meta-analytically substantiated stronger predictive validities for the relationship between transformational leadership and contextual performance compared to task performance. Likewise, it may be that empowering leadership is less strongly related to employees' task performance and has a stronger influence on employees' citizenship (Ahearne et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011).

Our research also informs and can be integrated with research highlighting the possible "dark side" of unbridled empowerment (or, more generally, team autonomy or self-management; Langfred, 2005; Liden et al., 1997; Manz & Angle, 1986) in the absence of other necessary enabling team design features (e.g., task interdependence, skill diversity, team norms). Task interdependence is a case in point and is likely to modify the relationships uncovered in our research. As early (Manz & Angle) and more recent (Langfred) research has shown, the performance benefits of team autonomy and self-management—and by extension team-directed empowering leader behaviors—are realized only in the presence of higher task interdependence. By extension, spillover effects of team-directed empowering leadership on individual behaviors through individual psychological empowerment are likely to be diminished in low task interdependent situations. Given our findings and the results reported in prior studies, we propose this as an issue for future research investigation.

Second, we theorized that individual behaviors are influenced by both individual and structural aspects (Endler & Magnusson, 1976), a point also previously made in an empowerment context (Wall et al., 2004). Our theoretical model articulates the need to consider both perspectives to more fully explain empowered employees' behaviors—shaped by individual motivation and by team shared perceptions. Challenging the conventional view (i.e., more organizational support is always better in empowered teams), we theorized and found a "double-edged" function for team members' shared perceptions of support, *differentially* modifying the relationships between empowering leadership and affiliative OCB and taking charge.

Specifically, for those individuals reporting high levels of team-directed empowering leadership, the highest levels of affiliative OCB occur when those individuals also report high levels of shared support, consistent with expectations of reciprocation as posited in social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). On the contrary, for those individuals reporting high levels of team-directed empowering leadership, the highest levels of taking charge occur when those individuals also report low levels of shared support. Thus, in teams with leaders exhibiting high levels of team-directed empowering leadership, shared perceptions of support can be both a boon and a bane for affiliative OCB. Our theoretical framework and results present an unconventional view of organizational support as not always universally desirable in teams. For example, our findings suggest that supportive climates may prohibit change-oriented behavior. Even though prior research pointed to the possibility

of employee complacency in the presence of too much support (i.e., in a post hoc fashion; Lambert, 2000), our study offers a theoretical explanation, coupled with a corresponding empirical test. Ultimately, it is possible that less-than-ideal situations can be regarded as an impetus for change, as employees will become more proactive to decrease such discrepancies (Parker et al., 2010).

Our results are also consistent with research arguing for the “energizing effects of cognitive dissonance” (Wicklund & Brehm, 1976: 86) and, closer to the proactive behavior domain, with work demonstrating that negative aspects of the social environment may have motivating, rather than demotivating, influences (Zhou & George, 2001). The findings are also congruent with prior insights suggesting that employees engage in voice behaviors only at low levels of control because of personal dissatisfaction with the status quo (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). And, they fit well with research showing that challenges in the work environment (e.g., time pressure, control) are translated into internal goals and motives through challenging forms of appraisal (e.g., mastering a challenging situation through effort) and lead to higher levels of proactive behaviors (e.g., initiative; Fritz & Sonnetag, 2009; Ohly & Fritz, 2010). Finally, the dilemma of the “double-edged” effect of organizational support climate corresponds to findings in the stress literature (e.g., the effect of hindrance and challenge stressors on performance; Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005). Overall, deficiencies may catalyze employee action toward proactive behaviors; that is, for example, when high empowerment gives team members a “green light” for change, the complementary lack of resources creates a state of readiness directed toward positive outcomes.

Finally, the current study also adds to the growing body of research in which different forms of citizenship are examined in conjunction (McAllister et al., 2007; Parker et al., 2006; Van Dyne et al., 2008). Although prior work has provided theoretical arguments and empirical support pointing toward the need to distinguish prosocial from proactive behaviors, few studies have examined whether different processes drive the two behaviors (see Parker et al. for an exception). Such investigations are nevertheless important, given that meta-analytic correlations between proactive and prosocial forms of citizenship are relatively high (Chiaburu et al., 2011) and presumed differences can be established through examining differences in their nomological networks (Van Dyne et al.). While helping consist of “acts that served more of a maintenance purpose, to ‘maintain internal equilibrium’” (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983: 653), and help “lubricate the social machinery of the organization” (Bateman & Organ, 1983: 588), taking charge behaviors are related to improving procedures, instituting new work methods, and correcting faulty practices. Thus, employees’ proactive behaviors are likely to be triggered by being discontented with the current situation (Zhou & George, 2001). Our linking of empowerment to these complementary behaviors supports the point by Seibert et al. that “additional studies relating empowerment to . . . proactive behaviors (Parker & Collins, 2010) also have the potential to significantly extend psychological empowerment theory” (2011: 997).

Managerial Implications

For many years, managers have been told that if they want to increase team empowerment, they should focus on team-directed empowering leadership, and, conversely, if they

want to increase individual psychological empowerment, they should focus on individual-directed empowering leadership (Chen et al., 2007; Seibert et al., 2011). What has been missing from these recommendations is the fact that team-directed empowering leadership also has important spillover effects that can actually positively influence individual perceptions of psychological empowerment. Thus, our research, combined with previous findings (Chen et al.), shows that team-directed empowering leadership can have a powerful “one-two punch,” particularly in interdependent teams (drawing on related prior research; Langfred, 2000; Liden et al., 1997; Manz & Angle, 1986). That is, both individuals and the teams in which they work will have higher levels of individual and team empowerment, respectively, when leaders focus their empowering leadership behaviors on their teams. Since teams are clearly composed of individuals, and team leaders face choices on whether and when to focus on individual-directed versus team-directed leadership (e.g., Should I set more individual goals and focus motivation on individual team members or should I set more team goals and try to motivate my entire team?), our research suggests that leaders will not have to face this difficult trade-off if they focus their efforts primarily on team-directed empowering leadership, particularly when team members rely on one another to complete tasks. Ultimately, teams will be better off in terms of both individual and team effectiveness if leaders target their empowering leader behaviors toward the team as a whole. However, caution is warranted when teams have low levels of task interdependence because empowering entire teams may cause members to feel a loss of individual empowerment.

Yet, as our moderation results demonstrate, this recommendation also needs to be qualified by the “double-edged” relationship for organizational support climate. One reason behind suboptimal empowerment efforts is that they “fail to differentiate among employees” (Forrester, 2000: 70). Differentiation is also necessary among teams. In teams in which shared perceptions of support are high, managers are at advantage by knowing that their empowering efforts can generate increased affiliative OCB, while being less effective for taking charge (which increases under low shared support). Despite the difficulty of increasing both affiliative OCB and taking charge as a function of empowerment and organizational support, empowering leaders can nevertheless transcend this “either-or” dilemma by shaping their teams’ support perceptions and propelling desired behaviors. Practically speaking, leaders can modify their members’ reference comparison points or otherwise manage their perceptions of support through shifting social comparison referents. Such reframing can create the tension necessary to motivate employees to take charge.

Limitations and Future Research

As with all research, we acknowledge several limitations that can be addressed in future research. Our data set is country and organization specific, which, on the positive side, controls for within-organization and within-culture factors. However, external validity may be increased using data from other organizations and national settings. From a design standpoint, our cross-sectional, nonexperimental design does not allow for definitive conclusions about causality, an issue to be tackled by using (quasi) experimental designs (Lorinkova, Pearsall, & Sims, 2013). Further, other organizational support operationalizations are possible (e.g., referent shift, Takeuchi et al., 2009; team consensus, Kirkman, Tesluk, & Rosen, 2001). While our measure has the advantage of consistency with prior studies (Chen et al., 2010; Wallace et al., 2006), future research can use multiple approaches (Klein, Conn, Smith,

& Sorra, 2001) to aggregate support. Finally, our model does not incorporate the influence of individual team members' characteristics (e.g., locus of control; Elias, 2009; Spector, 1982), an issue on which we elaborate in more detail below. A related limitation is our sampling strategy. Constrained by organizational requests, we were unable to collect responses from every team member in each team. While we randomly selected 5 members from each team, this procedure does not guarantee that our respondents perfectly mirror their teams' characteristics. However, according to a recent simulation study, the potential bias introduced by non-response can be mitigated by the relatively high levels of ICC(1) values (Nesterkin & Ganster, 2015). Therefore, our high ICC(1) values help ensure the appropriateness of aggregation.

In future work, other combinations of factors triggering a desire for change should be investigated. Contradictory or incongruent signals present in the employees' work environment (e.g., in the form of paradoxical demands; Campbell, 2000) can originate from team leaders, the group members themselves, or other employees. Thus, empowering leaders may fail to provide requisite levels of support (e.g., as a result of lack of time or resources) for their teams. Empowering leadership can also be crossed with suboptimal conditions in the teams (e.g., lack of rewards; Kennedy, Loughry, Klammer, & Beyerlein, 2009). Future research should investigate conditions with less-than-ideal dispositions (e.g., negative affect) or with individual tendencies that could modify some of the current relationships. For example, team members' locus of control could further modify the joint relationships between leader empowerment, support, and taking charge.

According to Spector (1982), individuals with an external locus of control look to their supervisors for direction and find it aversive when that specific direction is lacking. More recently, Elias (2009) demonstrated that external locus of control subordinates exhibit increased turnover intentions when their supervisors ask them to be a part of decision-making processes (which could be akin to empowering them); at the same time, restrictive (rather than empowering) supervisors generate better supervisor-subordinate quality of the exchange relationship for external locus of control employees. Combining this prior research with our current findings, researchers can test a more encompassing model in which the joint influence of high team-directed empowering leadership and low support has more impact on employees' taking charge, but only for employees with an internal locus of control.⁸

In this study, we focused on organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Yet, when empowered by their leaders, team members may be more sensitive when they lack some forms of support (e.g., resources) and less sensitive to others. Specific forms of support may thus be teased apart in future investigations. In addition to forms, sources of support need to be considered as well. For example, besides the organization, support can originate from coworkers and team leaders (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). It is possible for empowered teams not supported by the organization to turn to team members for support or toward internal motivational resources in an effort to align with, and perform at, levels consistent with leaders' empowering signals. Such an examination will expand current research by uncovering not only what creates a discrepancy and a need for change but also where team members turn for necessary resources to enact change (e.g., intraindividual or intrateam sources).

Future research can also "zoom in" with more precision at an outcome level. Griffin and colleagues' (2007) model of positive work role behaviors can be useful in this respect because it crosses behaviors (i.e., proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity) with intended contribution levels (i.e., individual, team, and organization). Focusing on our two outcomes across such

levels, if a reciprocation principle is strictly followed for predicting affiliative OCBs, individual- and team-directed levels should be directly affected, and their magnitude could be larger than organization-directed forms. On the other hand, taking charge behaviors resulting from discrepancies based on perceived lack of support from the organization could be directed to the same organizational level and less so toward mismatching levels.

Conclusion

With organizations continuing to structure work processes at workgroup rather than individual levels, it is becoming more difficult for managers to clearly define team members' requirements. Scholars have recognized the importance of positive discretionary behaviors for promoting organizational effectiveness (Van Dyne et al., 1995). To contribute to this important research area, we linked empowering leadership research with the discretionary behavior literature by testing a model focused on contingencies influencing this relationship. Our examination of the boundary conditions and of the psychological mechanism connecting team-directed empowering leadership to two distinct forms of discretionary behaviors can help generate a more complete picture of this complex phenomenon.

Notes

1. Because taking charge is one of the most frequently studied types of proactive citizenship behavior, we use the terms affiliative OCB and taking charge behavior to represent affiliative citizenship and proactive citizenship behaviors, respectively.

2. We thank an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

3. The PRODCLIN program produces asymmetric confidence intervals for the indirect effect and, hence, has more accurate Type I error rates and more power than other commonly used tests, such as the Sobel test (see Edwards & Lambert, 2007; MacKinnon et al., 2007).

4. Because team members rated both empowering leadership and psychological empowerment, to rule out common method variance, we randomly selected 1 member from each team (focal employee) and recalculated team empowering leadership score by excluding the focal employee's rating on empowering leadership. The correlation between the two constructs is .34 ($p < .01$, $N = 98$) and, thus, unlikely to be caused by common method variance.

5. Based on Aiken and West's (1991) simple slopes procedure. It is more accurate for multilevel interactions as it accounts for both fixed and random effects associated with the multilevel model.

6. We thank an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

7. We also conducted specific analyses to test the potential interaction between team empowering leadership and task interdependence on each facet of psychological empowerment (meaning, confidence, autonomy, and impact). The analyses suggest that task interdependence marginally accentuated the positive effect of empowering leadership on perceived impact ($\gamma = .07$, $p < .10$), indicating that despite the constrained range of task interdependence, interdependence played a critical role in explaining the interplay between team and individual empowerment.

8. We thank an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

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