Edited by Foxit PDF Editor
Copyright (c) by Foxit Corporation, 2003 - 2010
For Evaluation Only.

Chinese Traditionality Matters: Effects of Differentiated Empowering Leadership on Followers' Trust in Leaders and Work Outcomes

Shao-Long Li
Economics and Management School
Wuhan University
Wuhan, PR China, 430072
E-mail: tangjingtian1988@sina.com

Yuanyuan Huo*
Department of Management
Hong Kong Baptist University
Hong Kong, PR China
E-mail: huoyuanyuan@gmail.com

Li-Rong Long
School of Management
Huazhong University of Science and Technology
Wuhan, PR China, 430074
E-mail: lrlong@mail.hust.edu.cn

*Corresponding author.

This paper was supported by the grants from the National Science Foundation of China (71232001 & 71402061) and Hong Kong Baptist University (FRG2/13-14/042).

Edited by Foxit PDF Editor
Copyright (c) by Foxit Corporation, 2003 - 2010
For Evaluation Only.

Chinese Traditionality Matters: Effects of Differentiated Empowering Leadership on Followers' Trust in Leaders and Work Outcomes

Running head: Differentiated Empowering Leadership and Trust

Abstract

From the perspective of the integrative model of organizational trust, this study proposes a multi-level model for whether, how, and when differentiated empowering leadership influences followers' trust in leaders and their work outcomes. Drawing on a sample of 372 followers from 97 teams in China, it was found that the negative effect of differentiated empowering leadership on followers' trust in leaders became salient when followers' Chinese traditionality was low. Moreover, followers' trust in leaders mediated the effect of differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality on followers' in-role performance, extra-role performance, and counterproductive work behaviors toward the organization. These findings have implications for managerial theory and practice in the domains of trust and differentiated empowering leadership.

Keywords: trust in leaders; differentiated empowering leadership; Chinese traditionality; in-role performance; extra-role performance; counterproductive work behaviors

Introduction

Trust has been defined as an implicit moral duty that one person will not bring harm to the other (Hosmer 1995). Work environments have become increasingly uncertain and interdependent, and interpersonal trust has accordingly become indispensable in establishing and maintaining cooperative and productive relationships in the workplace (Mayer and Gavin 2005; Newman, Kiazad, Miao, and Cooper 2014; Sgro, Worchel, Pence, and Orban 1980). Most organizations expect their employees to trust coworkers and leaders to create stable social relationships and encourage risk-taking. Therefore, it is not surprising that the factors motivating employees' trust have attracted attention from both scholars and employers (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, and Salas 2007; Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis 2007).

Trusting in leaders involves a certain vulnerability, and followers' willingness to do so is greatly influenced by how leaders treat them (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer 1998). The extant literature demonstrates that leaders have a critical role in eliciting trust from their followers (Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence 2012; Newman et al. 2014). For example, Schaubroeck, Lam, and Peng (2011) found that transformational leadership enhanced followers' cognition-based trust. Newman et al. (2014) concluded that ethical leadership increased followers' cognitive and affective trust.

Unfortunately, the aforementioned studies generally focused on the dyadic level, investigating the antecedents and consequences of trust between a leader and a particular subordinate. Some recent research has begun to consider leadership as a team-level process that involves both team-level consensus (Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber 2009; Chen and Kanfer 2006; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, and Rosen 2007) and differentiation among

team members (Wu, Tsui, and Kinicki 2010; Cole, Bedeian, and Bruch 2011; Liden, Erdogan, Wayne, and Sparrowe 2006). However, the extent to which differentiated leadership violates leaders' moral duty to their followers and impairs followers' trust in leaders needs further examination.

One typical form of differentiated leadership is differentiated empowering leadership, which reflects the degree to which leaders give different amounts of authority and autonomy to their followers (Li, He, Yam, and Long 2015). Empirical evidence has supported the critical role of empowering leadership in influencing followers' trust in leaders. For example, several studies have found that participative leadership, which is similar to empowering leadership, is an effective way for leaders to gain followers' trust (Huang, Iun, Liu, and Gong 2010; Miao, Newman, and Huang 2014; Miao, Newman, Schwarz, and Xu 2013).

There is some debate over whether leaders should implement differentiated empowering leadership. Khan (1997) noted that differentiated empowerment is harmful for the organization and for employees, since it violates the principle of fairness; Forrester (2000) claimed that a "one-size-fits-all empowerment" may result in detrimental outcomes because not all employees are ready, or want, to be empowered. Nevertheless, little empirical research has explored the influence of differentiated empowering leadership on followers' psychological and behavioral outcomes. It is thus not clear whether followers' trust in leaders is impaired when leaders empower them with different amounts of autonomy and authority.

According to the integrative model of organizational trust (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman 1995), the trustworthiness of the trustee is crucial in generating the trustor's trust. In addition, the trustor's propensity to trust, a stable factor that affects the likelihood the

trustor will trust, also plays an important role in the trust development process (Burke et al. 2007; Mayer et al. 1995). Thus, followers' trust in their leaders is dependent on both the leaders' differentiated empowering behaviors and the followers' propensity to trust in their leaders. Previous research has indicated that employees' propensity to trust is greatly influenced by cultural values (Hofstede 1980; Mayer et al. 1995). Compared with power distance and collectivism (Hofstede 2001), Chinese traditionality originates from a familial framework rooted in Confucianism (Schwartz 1992). For followers with high Chinese traditionality, leaders are seen as father substitutes (Rarick 2007; Yang 1993). Hence, Chinese traditionality, which fosters father-child relationships among leaders and employees (Farh, Earley, and Lin 1997; Farh, Hackett, and Liang 2007), may be more likely to influence the magnitude of the association between differentiated empowering leadership and trust in leaders. It was thus chosen as a cultural boundary condition in this study. Specifically, the trust in leaders of followers high in Chinese traditionality may be less likely to change according to the degree of leaders' differentiated empowering behaviors.

Furthermore, based on the integrative model of organizational trust (Mayer et al. 1995), followers' trust in leaders can translate leadership effectiveness into work outcomes. Among all work outcomes, in-role performance and extra-role performance contribute to the effective functioning and success of the organization (Eisenberger, Karagonlar, Stinglhamber, Neves, Becker, Gonzalez-Morales, and Steiger-Mueller 2010). Counterproductive work behaviors toward the organization, such as employee theft and dishonesty, can cause great financial loss, and even result in business failures (Dalal 2005; Gross-Schaefer, Trigilio, Negus, and Ro 2000). Some researchers have suggested that task performance (similar to in-role

performance), organizational citizenship behavior (similar to extra-role performance), and counterproductive work behavior are three broad performance domains (Rotundo and Sackett 2002). Including all three work outcomes allows us to capture a more integrated and comprehensive picture of the impact of differentiated empowering leadership. Therefore, a mediated moderation model is proposed, in which followers' trust in leaders mediates the interactive effect of differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality on followers' in-role performance, extra-role performance, and counterproductive work behaviors toward the organization (CWBO).

This study makes three contributions to the literature on leadership and trust. First, by investigating the impact of differentiated empowering leadership on followers' trust in leaders and on their work outcomes, the study makes a pioneering attempt to explore the relationship between differentiated leadership and trust. By doing so, a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between leadership and followers' trust in leaders is provided.

Second, Chinese traditionality refers to submission and reliance on authority (Farh et al. 1997, 2007). Using Chinese traditionality to represent followers' propensity to trust can extend the integrative model of organizational trust to differentiate trust referents. Empirical evidence of the moderating effect of cultural values in magnifying or diminishing the effect of the predictors on trust is limited. By investigating the moderating role of Chinese traditionality in the relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and trust in leaders, this study explores followers' cultural values as a boundary condition in the leadership-trust process model.

Third, rather than focusing on a single type of work outcome among followers, this study tests how followers' trust in leaders mediates the effect of differentiated empowering leadership on followers' in-role performance, extra-role performance, and CWBO. In doing so, the integrative model of organizational trust is advanced by providing a comprehensive understanding of the behavioral consequences of trust (Mayer et al. 1995).

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Integrative Model of Organizational Trust

Mayer and colleagues (1995) developed the integrative model of organizational trust and proposed several key factors that influence trust and outcomes influenced by trust. They defined trust as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer et al. 1995, p. 712). The trustor's level of trust in a trustee is determined by two factors: the trustworthiness of the trustee and the propensity to trust of the trustor (Mayer et al. 1995). The trustworthiness of the trustee is determined by the trustee's ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al. 1995). Ability reflects the trustee's skills, competencies, and characteristics in a specific domain; benevolence is a moral value that reflects the extent to which a trustee wants to do good to the trustor for reasons other than personal profit or selfishness; integrity is also a moral value, representing the trustor's belief about whether the trustee adheres to principles that the trustor holds dear. The model also states that the trustor's propensity to trust may influence the relationship between the trustee's trustworthiness and trustor's trust.

Over nearly twenty years, the integrative model of organizational trust has been effectively applied in various areas of organizational behavior research (Mayer and Davis 1999; Mayer and Gavin 2005). The model provides the overarching theoretical framework in this study for exploring how differentiated empowering leadership influences followers' trust in leaders and furthers their work outcomes. The cultural value of Chinese traditionality has been integrated into our research model as a moderator in the process of building trust in leaders. The logic of the current research model is presented in detail below.

Differentiated Empowering Leadership and Followers' Trust in Leaders

The idea of differentiated leadership was first elaborated in the leader-member exchange (LMX) literature (Chen, He, and Weng 2015; Erdogan and Bauer 2010; Liden et al. 2006), and was later extended to research in transformational leadership (Cole and Bedeian 2007; Cole et al. 2011; Wu et al. 2010). Wu and colleagues (2010) defined differentiated leadership as "the case in which a leader exhibits varying levels of individual-focused leadership behavior to different group members" (p. 90). Building on the concept of differentiated leadership, differentiated empowering leadership is defined as the situation in which a leader distributes power, autonomy, motivation, and other job privileges unequally among followers.

Following Mayer and colleagues (1995), trust in leaders is defined as the willingness of followers to be vulnerable to the actions of leaders. Followers' trust in their leaders may be influenced by their judgment of the ethical principles underlying leaders' behaviors. Based on Mayer and colleagues' (1995) integrative model of organizational trust, followers' trust in leaders is posited to be negatively affected by differentiated empowering leadership.

Leaders who implement highly differentiated empowering behaviors may be regarded

by their followers as having a low level of integrity and as being immoral. When leaders fail to enact policies and behaviors in a fair and consistent way, followers' trust may be impaired because they perceive leaders to have low integrity (Ambrose and Schminke 2003; Burke et al. 2007). Colquitt and Jackson (2006) found that employees in teams prefer equality-based resource allocations because of their interdependence with other team members and need for cooperation and social cohesion. Thus, leaders' unequal allocation of resources such as power, autonomy, and decision-making rights among team members leads to a perception of unfairness. When differentiated empowering leadership is high in the work team, followers, especially those who prefer equality-based allocation, will lose trust in their leaders because they perceive them to be unfair.

Moreover, leaders' benevolence is judged according to followers' beliefs about whether their leaders will do good for them beyond egocentric profit motives (Mayer et al. 1995). Followers who are less empowered by leaders in work teams receive less autonomy and decision-making rights, and feel they receive less support from their leaders. Their welfare is thus impaired and they consider their leaders to be less benevolent toward them and less deserving of trust. The evaluations of team leaders' empowering behaviors by followers who are more empowered may be influenced by the judgment of less-empowered team members (Chen et al. 2007). In a potentially risky situation, followers must develop sufficient confidence in their leaders' motives and future behaviors to build trust in them (Doney, Cannon, and Mullen 1998). Thus, due to other team members' unfavorable reactions to differentiated empowering leadership, even highly empowered followers may worry that the authority and support from their leaders may be arbitrarily reduced or disappear (Tyler 1989;

Tyler, Lind, and Huo 2000). Meanwhile, the norms of power differentials suggest that leaders who empower followers differentially may be suspected of being motivated by egocentrism and personal gain (Doney et al. 1998). Accordingly, leaders who implement highly differentiated empowering behaviors may not be considered benevolent and may be less trusted by followers.

Hypothesis 1: Differentiated empowering leadership is negatively related to followers' trust in leaders.

The Moderating Effect of Chinese Traditionality

Chinese traditionality could be one of the most influential factors influencing the relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and trust in leaders. Yang (2003) defined Chinese traditionality as "the typical pattern of more or less related motivational, evaluative, attitudinal and temperamental traits that is most frequently observed in people in traditional Chinese society and can still be found in people in contemporary Chinese societies such as Taiwan, Hong Kong, and mainland China" (p. 265). Farh and colleagues (1997) introduced the concept of Chinese traditionality from social psychology to organizational behavior research.

Chinese traditionality indicates the extent to which followers are unconditionally obedient and loyal to their leaders (Hui, Lee, and Rousseau 2004). In China, among followers high in Chinese traditionality, leaders are treated as fathers and followers are seen as sons (Rarick 2007; Yang 1993). Sons have the instinctive tendency to trust their fathers. Thus, followers high in Chinese traditionality are less likely to be suspicious of leaders' behaviors (Farh et al. 1997, 2007). Followers high in Chinese traditionality are more likely to accept the

highly differentiated empowering leadership that accompanies unequal resource allocation, without close scrutiny (Farh et al. 1997, 2007; Hui et al. 2004). They will be less skeptical about their leaders' empowerment decisions, benevolence, and team management ability. Highly differentiated empowering leadership is thus less likely to reduce their trust in leaders. Leaders' differentiated empowering leadership becomes more salient in influencing trust among followers with a lower level of Chinese traditionality.

Hypothesis 2: Chinese traditionality moderates the relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and followers' trust in leaders in such a way that the negative relationship is weaker for followers higher in Chinese traditionality.

The Mediating Effect of Followers' Trust in Leaders

So far, a negative relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and followers' trust in leaders, as well as the moderating role of Chinese traditionality in this association, has been hypothesized. In addition, followers' trust in leaders is proposed to mediate the interactive effect of Chinese traditionality and differentiated empowering leadership on followers' work outcomes (i.e., in-role performance, extra-role performance, and counterproductive work behaviors toward the organization). These behaviors cover both the positive and negative sides of followers' behaviors in organizations.

Previous research has found that followers' trust in leaders enhances their positive work behavior, such as task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen 2002; Huang et al. 2010). Trust has also been shown to decrease negative behaviors, such as conflict (De Dreu, Giebels, and Van de Vliert 1998; Zaheer, McEvily, and Perrone 1998). The character-based perspective of trust implies that followers' trust in

leaders, which involves judgment about leaders' character, influences followers' work behaviors (Dirks and Ferrin 2002). If followers believe that their leader is honest, benevolent, and neutral, they will feel more comfortable engaging in complex or risky tasks (such as extra-role behaviors) because they can accept their vulnerability to their leaders (Mayer et al. 1995). In contrast, when followers regard their leader as insincere and untrustworthy, they will divert their effort into covering their backs, which will decrease their organizational citizenship behavior (Mayer and Gavin 2005). Low trust can even lead to CWBO, such as working slowly and not doing one's best.

Furthermore, the relationship perspective of trust argues that followers' trust in their leader results in an amicable relationship between both parties (Dirks and Ferrin 2002). A high-quality relationship encourages followers to work hard on required tasks and to go above and beyond their job requirements (Konovsky and Pugh 1994). This will promote both their in-role performance and extra-role performance, as well as decrease their CWBO.

The interaction between differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality is also positively related to in-role performance and extra-role performance, and negatively related to CWBO. Differentiated empowering leadership leads to unequal distribution of authority and autonomy, and differentiated status among team members. Followers low in Chinese traditionality are less likely to accept unequal power distribution and differentiated status (Hui et al. 2004), and are more likely to consider highly differentiated empowering leadership as unfair and lacking in benevolence. Accordingly, their in-role and extra-role performance will deteriorate. Their CWBO may even increase.

In contrast, followers with high Chinese traditionality are less likely to be suspicious of

leaders' behaviors (Farh et al. 1997, 2007). They can tolerate differentiated empowering leadership. Thus, the negative effect of differentiated empowering leadership on work outcomes may be weaker for followers high in Chinese traditionality than those low in Chinese traditionality.

Combining (1) the prediction that Chinese traditionality moderates the negative effect of differentiated empowering leadership on trust in leaders (H2) with the discussion of (2) the effect of trust in leaders on followers' work outcomes, and (3) the interaction of differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality on followers' work outcomes, trust in leaders is proposed to mediate the interaction between differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality on various work outcomes. Figure 1 depicts the overall research model.

Hypothesis 3: Followers' trust in leaders mediates the interactive effect of differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality on followers' (a) in-role performance, (b) extra-role performance, and (c) CWBO.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Method

Procedure and Sample

Data were collected from 11 Chinese firms across a wide range of industries, including mobile communication services, motorcycle manufacturing, road and bridge construction, communication manufacturing, education services, and security services. This helped us to avoid the contextual constraints of studying a limited range of industries (Rousseau and

Fried, 2001). The following procedures were used with each firm. First, permission was requested from one executive manager of each firm. Then, with the help of the HR manager, work teams were randomly selected to complete the survey over a short period of time. Sample teams were all officially established departments or long-term work teams in each organization. There was only one leader in each team, and members had very close and frequent interaction with one another.

Participation was voluntary and anonymous, with a reward of 20 Chinese yuan (about US$3.27) for each participant. Team members gathered in a large meeting room to complete the paper-and-pencil questionnaire assessing empowering leadership, trust in leaders, Chinese traditionality, interactional justice, and demographics. Team leaders evaluated their followers' in-role performance, extra-role performance, and CWBO. Each questionnaire was coded numerically so that questionnaires completed by leaders could be matched to those completed by their followers.

A total of 411 followers in 103 teams participated in the survey. Five team leaders were out for business on the day of the survey, so we discarded 34 followers' questionnaires from their teams. One leader's responses could not be matched with his five followers' questionnaires because of a coding problem. These five followers were excluded from the sample. The final sample consisted of 372 followers from 97 teams. Of the 372 followers, the mean age was 31.27 (SD = 7.11), and 55.9% were male. Their average job tenure in the current firm was 5.79 years (SD = 5.38). Most were well educated (69.6% had a bachelor's degree or higher). The 97 teams had a mean size of 7.95 members, ranging from 4 to 12 (SD = 2.98).

Measures

The questionnaires were originally developed in English. Brislin's (1980) back-translation procedure was followed to ensure the accuracy and clarity of the Chinese version. Unless otherwise indicated, all items used 7-point Likert scales (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

Differentiated empowering leadership. According to Chan's (1998) dispersion composition model, differentiated empowering leadership can be seen as a configural team property that reflects the disparity type of diversity within a team. Similar to Wu and colleagues' (2010) measure of differentiated leadership, which was recommended by Harrison and Klein (2007), the within-team coefficient of variance (CV) was used to measure differentiated empowering leadership. Specifically, differentiated empowering leadership was calculated by dividing the within-team standard deviation of empowering leadership by the mean score of empowering leadership of all the team members. Empowering leadership was measured with the 12 items developed by Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2005). This scale has been previously used in studies in China (e.g., Zhang and Bartol 2010). A sample item is "My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level." Cronbach's alpha was .96.

Trust in leaders. Trust in leaders was measured using an adapted version of Dirks's (2000) scale. A sample item is "If I shared my problems with the team leader, I know he would respond constructively and caringly." Cronbach's alpha was .95.

Chinese traditionality. Followers' Chinese traditionality was measured using Farh and colleagues' (2007) 5-item short scale. This shortened scale has been successfully used in

previous organizational behavior studies in mainland China (Chen and Aryee 2007; Farh et al. 2007; Hui et al. 2004), Hong Kong (Pillutla, Farh, Lee, and Lin 2007), and Taiwan (Farh et al. 1997; Spreitzer, Perttula, and Xin 2005). A sample item is "When people are in dispute, they should ask the most senior person to decide who is right." Cronbach's alpha was .79.

In-role performance. Team leaders assessed followers' in-role performance using Eisenberger and colleagues' (2010) 5-item scale. A sample item is "This follower fulfills responsibilities specified in his/her job description." Cronbach's alpha was .71.

Extra-role performance. Team leaders assessed followers' extra-role performance using Eisenberger and colleagues' (2010) 8-item scale. A sample item is "This follower takes action to protect our firm from potential problems." Cronbach's alpha was .94.

Counterproductive work behaviors toward the organization. Followers' CWBO was assessed by their team leaders using a 6-item scale adapted from Dalal et al. (2009). A sample item is "This follower spoke poorly about our organization to others." Cronbach's alpha was .92.

Control variables. At the individual level, demographic variables, including gender, age, job tenure in the current firm (measured in years), and education, were controlled for because previous research has shown these factors may influence followers' trust in leaders and work outcomes (e.g., Raub and Robert 2010; Eisenberger et al. 2010; Thau, Aquino, and Wittek 2007). At the team level, in line with previous research on differentiated leadership (e.g., Erdogan and Bauer 2010), the mean empowering leadership was controlled for within each team, to ensure that any observed effects of differentiated empowering leadership on outcomes were not due to the influence of team-level mean empowering leadership. The

results indicated that the interrater reliability and intraclass correlation (mean r_{wg} = .95, ICC[1] = .63, ICC[2] = .87) justified its aggregation across team members (Bliese 2000).

Interactional justice climate was also controlled for to partial out its potential influence on some of the dependent variables (e.g., Marcus and Schuler 2004; Thau et al. 2007). Followers' perceptions of interactional justice were firstly measured using Colquitt's (2001) 9-item scale. A sample item is "Have the leader and team members treated you with respect?" The Cronbach's alpha was .95. Then interactional justice climate was calculated by averaging all team members' perceptions. Interrater reliability and the intraclass correlation (mean r_{wg} = .97, ICC[1] = .47, ICC[2] = .77) justified the aggregation of interactional justice. Finally, team size was included (measured by the number of team members in each team) as one of the team-level control variables, due to its potential influence on trust in leaders and other dependent variables.

Analytical Strategy

Given the multilevel research model and the nested structure of the data, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; Raudenbush 2004) was used to test the hypotheses. Chi-square tests showed that the between-team variances in followers' (1) trust in leaders (χ^2 (96) = 615.00, p < .001; ICC(1) = .59), (2) in-role performance, (χ^2 (96) = 393.80, p < .001; ICC(1) = .45), (3) extra-role performance (χ^2 (96) = 498.75, p < .001; ICC(1) = .52), and (4) CWBO (χ^2 (96) = 504.54, p < .001; ICC(1) = .54) were significant, justifying the use of HLM to test the hypotheses. All individual-level variables were grand-mean centered before being added to the regression to reduce collinearity between the team-level intercept and the slope terms, except for gender, which was dummy coded (Hofmann and Gavin 1998).

Results

Preliminary Analysis

Before testing the hypotheses, a set of confirmatory factor analyses was conducted using AMOS 20.0 to determine whether our multi-item variables (i.e., trust in leader, Chinese traditionality, in-role performance, extra-role performance, CWBO, empowering leadership, and interactional justice) were distinct from one another. In line with prior studies (e.g., Zhang and Bartol 2010), the 12 items of empowering leadership were categorized into four sub-dimensions (i.e., enhancing the meaningfulness of work, fostering participation in decision-making, expressing confidence in high performance, and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints). The nine items of interactional justice were also categorized into two sub-dimensions (i.e., interpersonal justice and informational justice).

The results showed that the proposed seven-factor model fits the data well ($\chi^2_{[681,\ N = 372]}$ = 1903.66, IFI = .90, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .07). The fitness index for the hypothesized model was significantly better than the alternative models (e.g., a six-factor model created by grouping in-role performance and extra-role performance into one factor: $\chi^2_{[687,\ N = 372]}$ = 2450.86, IFI = .86, CFI = .86, RMSEA = .08). The CFA results indicated that our measures had good discriminant validity. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations of all variables.

Insert Table 1 about here

Main Effect of Differentiated Empowering Leadership on Trust in Leaders (H1)

Table 2 presents the HLM regression results. Model 2 shows that differentiated empowering

leadership was not significantly related to followers' trust in leaders (γ = –.05, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Insert Table 2 about here

Moderating Effect of Chinese Traditionality (H2)

Hypothesis 2 proposed that followers' Chinese traditionality moderates the relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and followers' trust in leaders. The results of Model 3 in Table 2 suggest that the interaction between differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality on trust in leaders was significant (γ = .14, p < .05). To further clarify Hypothesis 2, Aiken and West's (1991) method was followed and simple slope tests conducted. Figure 2 depicts the results. The relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and followers' trust in leaders was not significant (γ = .11, *n.s.*) when Chinese traditionality was high, and was significantly negative (γ = –.17, p < .01) when Chinese traditionality was low. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Insert Figure 2 about here

The Mediated Moderation Model (H3a-H3c)

Hypotheses 3a-3c proposed that followers' trust in leaders mediates the interaction of differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality on followers' work outcomes (i.e., in-role performance, extra-role performance, and CWBO). To test this mediated moderation model (Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt 2005), a two-step procedure (e.g., James, Mulaik, and Brett 2006) based on Baron and Kenny (1986) and Muller and colleagues' (2005) step-wise procedures was performed. That is, the test of the mediated moderation

model requires two regression equations: (1) regressing the mediator on the interaction of the independent variable and moderating variable and (2) regressing the outcome variables on the mediator and the interaction term.

First, as demonstrated in Hypothesis 2, the interaction between differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality was significantly related to the mediator (followers' trust in leaders). Then, the mediator (followers' trust in leaders) had (1) a positive relationship with in-role performance (γ = .18, p < .05; Model 4), (2) a positive relationship with extra-role performance (γ = .29, p < .01; Model 5), and (3) a negative relationship with CWBO (γ = –.19, p < .05; Model 6). Finally, after controlling for the effect of followers' trust in leaders, the interaction term had no significant relationship with followers' in-role performance (γ = .06, *n.s.*), extra-role performance (γ = –.02, *n.s.*), or CWBO (γ = –.06, *n.s.*).

These results provided initial support for the mediating role of followers' trust in leaders in the relationships between the interaction term and followers' work outcomes. Bootstrapping was performed to further test the mediated moderation model. Results based on 20,000 Monte Carlo replications suggested that the indirect effect (interaction of differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality → followers' trust in leaders → followers' work outcomes) were significant for in-role performance (indirect effect = .02, 95% CI = [.001, .060]), extra-role performance (indirect effect = .04, 95% CI = [.003, .094]) and CWBO (indirect effect = .03, 95% CI = [–.064, –.001]). Therefore, Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c were supported.

Discussion

The relationship between leadership and trust continues to attract scholars' and practitioners' attention (Huang et al. 2010; Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence 2012; Miao et al. 2013; Newman et al. 2014; Schaubroeck et al. 2011). This study contributes to that field of research by exploring the impact of differentiated leadership on followers' trust in leaders and subsequent work outcomes. The hypothesis regarding the direct effect of differentiated empowering leadership on followers' trust in leaders is not supported. Neglecting the boundary conditions may account for the insignificant effect. Burke and colleagues' (2007) integrated framework for trust in leadership also suggests that the impact of leaders' trustworthiness on followers' trust in leaders may depend on several moderating factors (p. 613), such as psychological safety and organizational climate. For example, organizational policies were not taken into account in this study. Followers may trust their leaders no matter whether leaders empower them equally or selectively because of the compensatory effect of supportive organizational policies.

When followers' Chinese traditionality was taken into account, the interaction of differentiated empowering leadership and Chinese traditionality had a significant effect on followers' trust in leaders. Specifically, differentiated empowering leadership destroyed trust in leaders among followers who were low in Chinese traditionality. The interaction between differentiated empowering leadership and followers' Chinese traditionality also further influenced followers' work outcomes (i.e., in-role performance, extra-role performance, and CWBO) through the mediating role of trust in leaders.

Theoretical Implications

These findings advance the literature on leadership and trust in leaders in several important

ways. First, by introducing the concept of differentiated empowering leadership and exploring its effect on followers' trust in leaders, the present study makes a pioneering attempt to examine the relationship between differentiated leadership and trust in leaders. The results show that differentiated empowering leadership interacts with followers' Chinese traditionality to influence their trust in leaders. Consistent with work by Burke and colleagues (2007), the interaction shows that followers' trust in their leader results from the integrative impact of both leaders' trustworthiness and followers' predisposition to trust. Specifically, leaders' differentiated positive behaviors may be perceived by followers with low Chinese traditionality as a violation of moral duty and reduce their trust in their leader. Scholars have also argued that one of the weaknesses in current trust research is the limitation of single-level analysis (e.g., Rousseau et al. 1998; Schoorman et al. 2007). This study avoids this problem by investigating trust by means of a cross-level model including both team and individual levels.

Second, this study serves as the first attempt to examine the boundary condition of cultural values (i.e., Chinese traditionality) in the relationship between leader behaviors and trust in leaders. The integrative model of organizational trust claims that cultural values are influential predictors in reflecting followers' propensity to trust (Burke et al. 2007; Mayer et al. 1995). However, few empirical studies have explored the moderating effect of cultural values in the relationship between leadership and followers' trust in leaders. This study provides initial evidence by showing that followers' Chinese traditionality interacts with differentiated empowering leadership to influence followers' trust in leaders. This finding is consistent with Doney and colleagues' (1998) argument that the cultural values that reflect

employees' relationship to authority serve an important role in the trust development process. As Triandis (1972) argued, culture has a major influence on how information is used to make decisions. Thus, the influence of cultural values cannot be ignored when investigating followers' trust.

Finally, this study extends Mayer and colleagues' (1995) integrative model of organizational trust and extends understanding of the behavioral consequences of differentiated leadership by synthetically investigating the effect of differentiated empowering leadership on followers' positive (i.e., in-role performance, extra-role performance) and negative (i.e., CWBO) work outcomes. This study also answers Hosmer's (1995) call for empirical investigation supporting the linkage between the moral duty of managers and the work outcomes of followers through trust. It also answers the question "Why should managers be moral?" by examining followers' three work outcomes as consequences of differentiated empowering leadership, which is directly pertinent to the linkage between ethics and organizational theory (Hosmer 1995).

Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, the cross-sectional design prevents us from making causal inferences about the proposed relationships. Alternative explanations for these findings are therefore possible. For instance, one may argue that rather than differentiated empowering leadership reducing followers' trust in leaders, followers' different levels of trust in their leaders may make the latter implement a selective empowerment strategy. However, the multi-level structure of this research model and its strong theoretical foundations mean that the issue of causality does not substantially affect the main findings. Future researchers

should collect longitudinal data or to design experimental studies to further validate the causal relationships in the current study.

Second, two limitations of the rating of the dependent variables must be mentioned. One is the high ICC(1) values observed for followers' in-role performance, extra-role performance, and CWBO, which raise the concern that supervisors in collectivistic cultures, such as Chinese culture, may avoid singling out individual performance or negative behavior among team members in the interest of maintaining harmony (Triandis 1995). However, anonymous data-collection process and hierarchical linear modeling approach allowed us to reduce rater bias to some extent. Nonetheless, the hypotheses of this study should be further explored in non-collectivistic cultures, such as the U.S., to enhance the generalizability of our findings.

Another limitation is that followers' work outcomes were rated by their direct supervisors. A team leader's evaluation of a follower's performance may be influenced by the quality of his or her relationship with the follower in question. We did our best to eliminate leaders' bias in the survey process, by asking them to provide accurate ratings. Moreover, the validity of leaders' ratings of followers' behavior and performance has been widely accepted in organizational behavior research, and the methodology is widely used (e.g., Farh et al. 2007; Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, and Tetrick 2008; Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, and Ghosh 2010). However, it would be better to include objective performance information in the future where possible, to enhance the robustness of findings.

Future Research Directions

This study is the first attempt to explore the relationship between differentiated empowering

leadership and trust in leaders, and to link these factors with followers' work outcomes. More studies are needed to investigate the boundary conditions of the impact of differentiated empowering leadership on trust in leaders. Based on the integrated model of trust in leaders (Burke et al. 2007), more organizational- or group-level factors should be considered as the boundary conditions of the relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and trust in leaders. For example, in organizations with high-commitment work systems, the detrimental effect of differentiated empowering leadership on followers' trust in leaders may be not very salient because of the compensation effect of supportive organization policies.

In addition, more research is required to investigate the relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and trust in leaders, and into work outcomes in societies with different cultures. A number of researchers have called for more research into the influence of culture on trust (Den Hartog 2004; Schoorman et al. 2007; Wasti, Tan, Brower, and Onder 2007). We found that for followers high in Chinese traditionality, differentiated empowering leadership is less harmful to followers' trust in leaders. Future research could examine the boundary conditions of other cultural values, such as individualism, in Western countries.

Managerial Implications

The findings of this study have several useful implications for managers' empowerment strategies. The empirical findings of this study concerning the relationship between differentiated empowering leadership and followers' trust in leaders suggest that team leaders should carefully consider their moral duty in managing their teams as a whole. More specifically, the findings indicate that if team leaders treat team members unequally,

followers with low Chinese traditionality will lose trust in their team leaders and engage in counterproductive work behavior.

In connection with the debate over whether selective empowerment is beneficial or detrimental (Forrester 2000; Khan 1997), this study has shown that it depends on the cultural values of followers. One straightforward suggestion this research can offer to managers is that they should pay special attention to the trustworthiness of their leadership behaviors and to the cultural values of their followers. The findings of the current study suggest that differentiated empowering leadership is more harmful to followers who are lower in Chinese traditionality. To solicit positive attitudes and behavior from followers, leaders should consider followers' cultural values when they implement leadership strategies.

To cultivate effective leadership, organizations should ensure that training for team leaders includes team management skills. For example, organizations should provide training courses to educate their managers to make appropriate decisions about when to treat followers equally and when to engage in differentiated treatment.

References

Ahearne, M., Mathieu, J., & Rapp, A. (2005). To empower or not to empower your sales force? An empirical examination of the influence of leadership empowerment behavior on customer satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(5): 945–955.

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2003). Organization structure as a moderator of the relationship between procedural justice, interactional justice, perceived organizational support, and supervisory trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(2): 295–305.

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(3): 267–285.

Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*: 421–449.

Baron, R. M., & 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): 1173–1182.

Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 349–381). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 389–444). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Burke, C. S., Sims, D. E., Lazzara, E. H., & Salas, E. (2007). Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*(6): 606–632.

Chan, D. (1998). Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(2): 234–246.

Chen, G., & Kanfer, R. (2006). Toward a systems theory of motivated behavior in work teams. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 27*: 223–267.

Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kanfer, R., Allen, D., & Rosen, B. (2007). A multilevel study of leadership, empowerment, and performance in teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(2): 331–346.

Chen, X. P., He, W., & Weng, L. C. (2015). What is wrong with treating followers differently? The basis of leader-member exchange differentiation matters. *Journal of Management*. doi: 10.1177/0149206315598372.

Chen, Z. X., & Aryee, S. (2007). Delegation and employee work behaviors: An examination of the cultural context of mediating processes in China. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(1): 226–238.

Cole, M. S., & Bedeian, A. G. (2007). Leadership consensus as a cross-level contextual moderator of the emotional exhaustion-work commitment relationship. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*(5): 447–462.

Cole, M. S., Bedeian, A. G., & Bruch, H. (2011). Linking leader behavior and leadership consensus to team performance: Integrating direct consensus and dispersion models of group composition. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(2): 383–398.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3): 386–400.

Colquitt, J. A., & Jackson, C. L. (2006). Justice in teams: The context-sensitivity of justice rules across individual and team contexts. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(4): 870–901.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(6): 1241–1255.

Dalal, R. S., Lam, H., Weiss, H. M., Welch, E. R., & Hulin, C. L. (2009). A within-person approach to work behavior and performance: Concurrent and lagged citizenship-counterproductivity associations, and dynamic relationships with affect and overall job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *52*(5): 1051–1066.

De Dreu, C. K. W., Giebels, E., & Van de Vliert, E. (1998). Social motives and trust in integrative negotiation: The disruptive effects of punitive capability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(3): 408–422.

Den Hartog, D. N. (2004). Assertiveness. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Culture, leadership and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 395–431). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dirks, K. T. (2000). Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA

basketball. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(6): 1004–1012.

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4): 611–628.

Doney, P. M., Cannon, J. P., & Mullen, M. R. (1998). Understanding the influence of national culture on the development of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3): 601–620.

Eisenberger, R., Karagonlar, G., Stinglhamber, F., Neves, P., Becker, T. M., Gonzalez-Morales, M. G., & Steiger-Mueller, M. (2010). Leader-member exchange and affective organizational commitment: The contribution of supervisor's organizational embodiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(6): 1085–1183.

Erdogan, B., & Bauer, T. N. (2010). Differentiated leader-member exchanges: The buffering role of justice climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(6): 1104–1120.

Farh, J. L., Earley, P. C., & Lin, S. C. (1997). Impetus for action: A cultural analysis and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese society. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 42*(3): 421–444.

Farh, J. L., Hackett, R. D., & Liang, J. (2007). Individual-level cultural values as moderators of perceived organizational support-employee outcome relationships in China: Comparing the effects of power distance and traditionality. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(3): 715–729.

Forrester, R. (2000). Empowerment: Rejuvenating a potent idea. *Academy of Management Executive, 14*(3): 67–80.

Gross-Schaefer, A., Trigilio, J., Negus, J., & Ro, C. S. (2000). Ethics education in the workplace: An effective tool to combat employee theft. *Journal of Business Ethics,*

26(2): 89–100.

Harrison, D. A., & Klein, K. J. (2007). What's the difference? Diversity constructs as separation, variety, or disparity in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(4): 1199–1228.

Henderson, D. J., Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., Bommer, W. H., & Tetrick, L. E. (2008). Leader-member exchange, differentiation, and psychological contract fulfillment: A multilevel examination. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(6): 1208–1219.

Hofmann, D. A., & Gavin, M. B. (1998). Centering decisions in hierarchical linear models: Implications for research in organizations. *Journal of Management, 24*(5): 623–641.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA, and London: Sage.

Hofstede, G. H. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hosmer, L. T. (1995). Trust: The connecting link between organizational theory and philosophical ethics. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(2): 379–403.

Huang, X., Iun, J., Liu, A., & Gong, Y. (2010). Does participative leadership enhance work performance by inducing empowerment or trust? The differential effects on managerial and non-managerial subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(1): 122–143.

Hui, C., Lee, C., & Rousseau, D. M. (2004). Employment relationships in China: Do workers relate to the organization or to people? *Organization Science, 15*(2): 232–240.

James, L. R., Mulaik, S. A., & Brett, J. M. (2006). A tale of two methods. *Organizational Research Methods, 9*(2): 233–244.

Kannan-Narasimhan, R., & Lawrence, B. S. (2012). Behavioral integrity: How leader referents and trust matter to workplace outcomes. *Journal of Business Ethics, 111*(2): 165–178.

Khan, S. (1997). The key to being a leader company: Empowerment. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 20*: 44–50.

Konovsky, M., & Pugh, D. (1994). Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(3): 656–669.

Li, S. L., He, W., Yam, K. C., & Long, L. R. (2015). When and why empowering leadership increases followers' taking charge: A multilevel study in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 32(3): 645–670.

Liden, R. C., Erdogan, B., Wayne, S. J., & Sparrowe, R. T. (2006). Leader-member exchange, differentiation, and task interdependence: Implications for individual and group performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*(6): 723–746.

Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of counterproductive behavior at work: A general perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4): 647–660.

Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(1): 123–136.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(3): 709–734.

Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. (2005). Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal, 48*(5):

874–888.

Miao, Q., Newman, A., & Huang, X. (2014). The impact of participative leadership on job performance and organizational citizenship behavior: Distinguishing between the mediating effects of affective and cognitive trust. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(20): 2796–2810.

Miao, Q., Newman, A., Schwarz, G., & Xu, L. (2013). Participative leadership and the organizational commitment of civil servants in China: The mediating effects of trust in supervisor. *British Journal of Management*, *24*(S1): S76–S92.

Muller, D., Judd, C. M., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (2005). When moderation is mediated and mediation is moderated. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *89*(6): 852–863.

Newman, A., Kiazad, K., Miao, Q., & Cooper, B. (2014). Examining the cognitive and affective trust-based mechanisms underlying the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational citizenship: A case of the head leading the heart? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *123*(1): 113–123.

Pillutla, M. M., Farh, J. L., Lee, C., & Lin, Z. (2007). An investigation of traditionality as a moderator of reward allocation. *Group & Organization Management*, *32*(2): 233–253.

Rarick, C. A. (2007). Confucius on management: Understanding Chinese cultural values and managerial practices. *Journal of International Management*, *2*(2): 22–28.

Raub, S., & Robert, C. (2010). Differential effects of empowering leadership on in-role and extra-role employee behaviors: Exploring the role of psychological empowerment and power values. *Human Relations*, *63*(11): 1743–1770.

Raudenbush, S. W. (2004). *HLM 6: Hierarchical linear and nonlinear modeling*. Scientific

Software International.

Rotundo, M., & Sackett, P. R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy-capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(1): 66–80.

Rousseau, D. M., & Fried, Y. (2001). Location, location, location: Contextualizing organizational research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*(1): 1–13.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S., Burt, R., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3): 387–392.

Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S. S. K., & Peng, A. C. (2011). Cognition-based and affect-based trust as mediators of leader behavior influences on team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(4): 863–871.

Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (2007). An integrative model of organizational trust: Past, present, and future. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(2): 344–354.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theory and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (vol. 25, pp. 1–65). New York, NY: Academic Press.

Sgro, J. A., Worchel, P., Pence, E. C., & Orban, J. A. (1980). Perceived leader behavior as a function of the leader's interpersonal trust orientation. *Academy of Management Journal, 23*(1): 161–165.

Spreitzer, G. M., Perttula, K. H., & Xin, K. (2005). Traditionality matters: An examination of the effectiveness of transformational leadership in the United States and Taiwan. *Journal*

of Organizational Behavior, 26(3): 205–227.

Thau, S., Aquino, K., & Wittek, R. (2007). An extension of uncertainty management theory to the self: The relationship between justice, social comparison orientation, and antisocial work behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1): 250–258.

Triandis, H. C. (1972). *The analysis of subjective culture*. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Interscience.

Triandis, H. C. (1995). *Individualism and collectivism*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Tyler, T. R. (1989). The psychology of procedural justice: A test of the group-value model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*(5): 830–838.

Tyler, T. R., Lind, E. A., & Huo, Y. J. (2000). Cultural values and authority relations: The psychology of conflict resolution across cultures. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 6*(4): 1138–1163.

Vidyarthi, P. R., Liden, R. C., Anand, S., Erdogan, B., & Ghosh, S. (2010). Where do I stand? Examining the effects of leader-member exchange social comparison on employee work behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(5): 849−861.

Wasti, S. A., Tan, H. H., Brower, H. H., & Onder, C. (2007). Cross-cultural measurement of supervisor trustworthiness: An assessment of measurement invariance across three cultures. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*(5): 477−489.

Wu, J. B., Tsui, A. S., & Kinicki, A. J. (2010). Consequences of differentiated leadership in groups. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*(1): 90–106.

Yang, K. S. (1993). Chinese social orientation: An integrative analysis. In L. Y. Cheng, F. M. C. Cheng, & C. N. Chen (Eds.), *Psychotherapy for the Chinese: Selected papers from the First International Conference* (pp. 19–56). Hong Kong: Chinese University of

Hong Kong.

Yang, K. S. (2003). Methodological and theoretical issues on psychological traditionality and modernity research in an Asian society: In response to Kwang-Kuo Hwang and beyond. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 6*(3): 263–285.

Zaheer, A., McEvily, B., & Perrone, V. (1998). Does trust matter? Exploring the effects of interorganizational and interpersonal trust on performance. *Organization Science, 9*(2): 141–159.

Zhang, X., & Bartol, K. M. (2010). Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation, and creative process engagement. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*(1): 107–128.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Individual-level variables											
1. Gender	.56	.50	—								
2. Age	31.27	7.11	.17**	—							
3. Education	1.66	.67	–.19**	–.13*	—						
4. Follower tenure in the current firm	5.79	5.38	.01	.73**	.09	—					
5. Trust in leaders	5.37	1.17	–.08	–.06	.19**	.06	(.95)				
6. Chinese traditionality	3.81	1.27	.06	.06	–.09	.02	.22**	(.79)			
7. In-role performance	5.01	.87	–.05	–.05	.13*	.06	.27**	–.11*	(.71)		
8. Extra-role performance	4.92	1.10	–.03	–.06	.20**	.02	.27**	–.09	.62**	(.94)	
9. CWBO	1.96	.94	.14**	.00	–.09	–.06	–.26**	.02	–.40**	–.34**	(.92)
Team-level variables											
1. Team size	7.95	2.98	—								
2. Differentiated empowering leadership	.14	.13	–.14	—							
3. Team mean empowering leadership	4.88	1.06	–.22*	–.52**	(.96)						
4. Interactional justice climate	5.25	.82	–.24*	–.38**	.82**	(.95)					

Note. N = 372 at the individual level; N = 97 at the team level. Reliabilities are in parentheses on the diagonal.
$^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.
CWBO = counterproductive work behaviors toward the organization.

Table 2
HLM Results

Variable	Trust in leader			IRP	ERP	CWBO
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	5.29***	5.29***	5.30***	4.99***	4.85***	1.87***
Level-1 control variables						
Gender	.13	.13	.14	–.02	.03	.16**
Age	–.04	–.07	–.07	–.00	–.01	–.04
Education	.02	.03	.03	.05	.10	–.04
Follower tenure in the current firm	.06	.05	.05	.05	.05	.01
Level-2 control variables						
Team size	–.05	–.07*	–.08*	–.05	.06	–.02
Interactional justice climate	.54***	.53***	.49***	.26**	.18	.11
Team mean empowering leadership	.42***	.36***	.39***	–.16	.04	–.13
Level-1 independent variables						
Chinese traditionality		.09	.07	–.10	–.07	.04
Trust in leader				.18*	.29**	–.19*
Level-2 independent variable						
Differentiated empowering leadership		–.05	–.03	–.08	–.06	.14
Cross-level interaction variable						
Differentiated empowering leadership × Follower Chinese traditionality			.14*	.06	–.02	–.06
Model deviance	867.94	859.12	853.86	858.43	1000.18	897.02

Note. N = 372 at the individual level; N = 97 at the team level. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$.
IRP = in-role performance. ERP = extra-role performance. CWBO = counterproductive work behaviors toward the organization.

Figure 1
Research Model

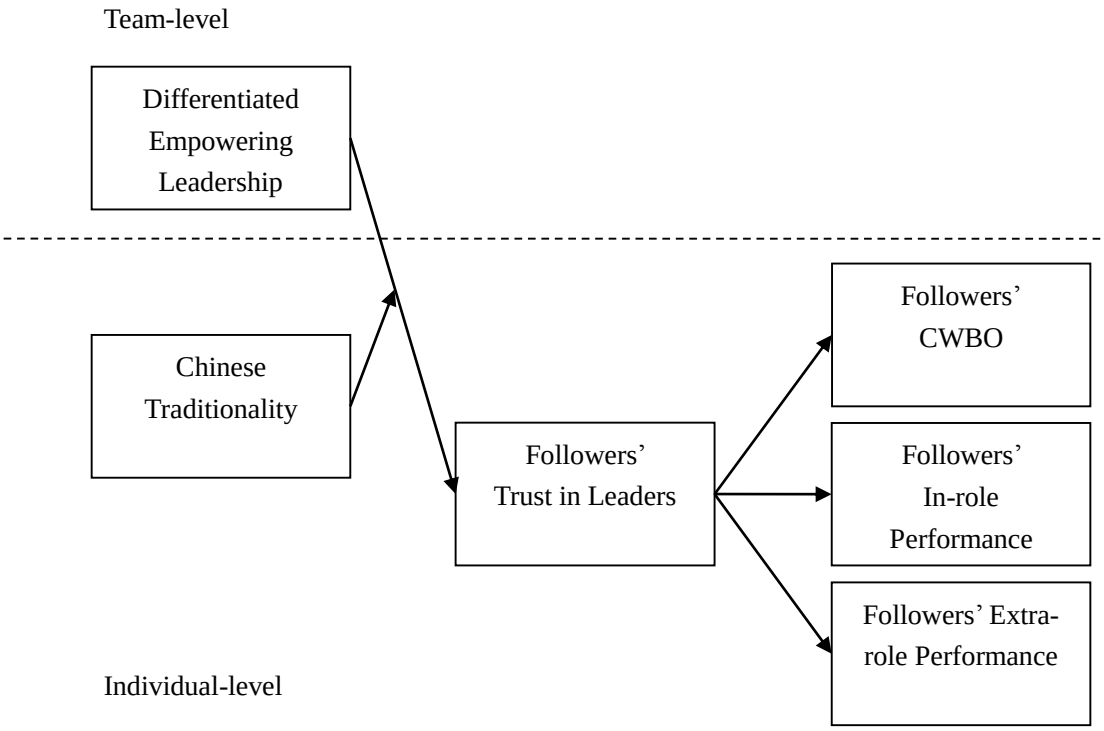
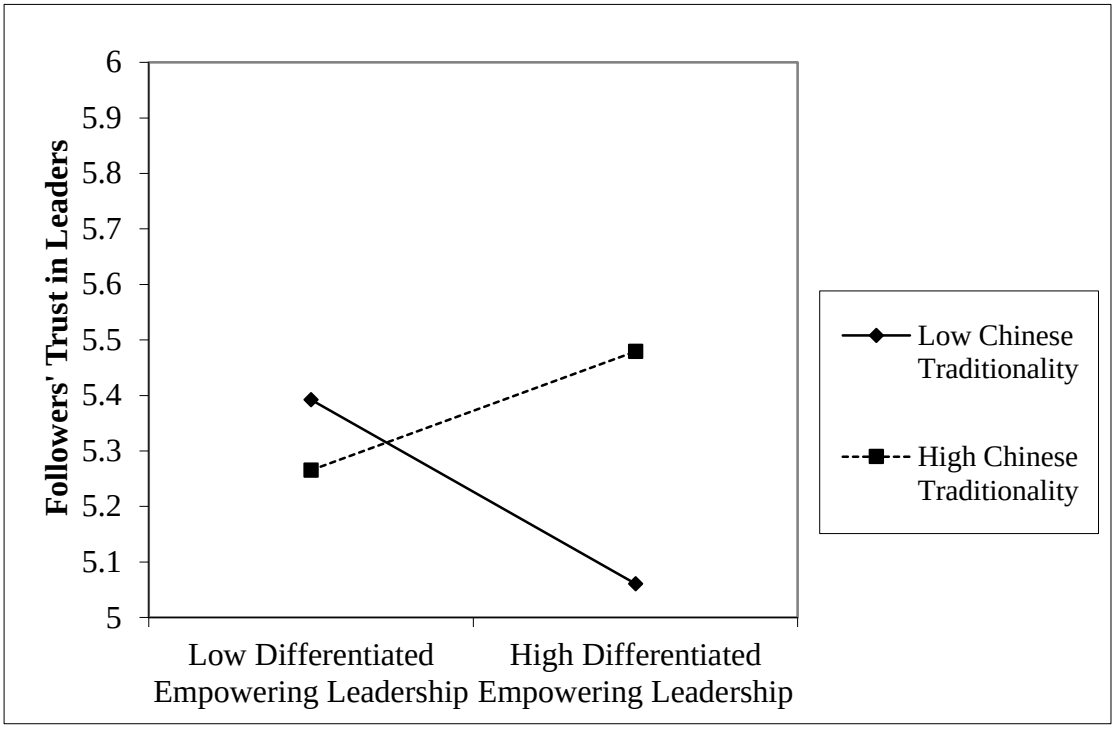
Figure 2
The Interaction of Differentiated Empowering Leadership and Chinese Traditionality on Followers' Trust in Leaders