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## How Does Differential Leadership Influence Extra-role Behavior? An Employee Identity Perspective

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*Doctor of Management*

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February, 2020



BUSINESS  
SCHOOL

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Marketing, Operations and General Management Department

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## Abstract

How to motivate employees' work attitude and behavior through scientific and effective leadership behavior, and thereby improve organizational performance is one of the realistic dilemmas faced by Chinese enterprises in the process of transformation. The study analyzed the relationship between variables, proposes the research hypotheses based on the relevant theory in the field of organizational behavior and human resource management, constructs the research model, and explores the influencing mechanism of differential leadership on extra-role behavior. By collecting 403 paired questionnaires, analyzing the reliability and validity of scales, and adopting the analysis method of hierarchical regression, the study comes to the conclusions that: (1) The differential leadership perceived by employees is significantly positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and significantly negatively related to counterproductive behavior; (2) Employee psychological empowerment and insider identity play a partial mediating role in the above influencing process; (3) Besides, emotional intelligence of leaders and ethical climate in organizations have a cross-level moderating effect in the above influencing process. The research conclusions have implications for guiding the management practice of Chinese enterprises: (1) Leaders should show moderate partial behavior to effectively control employees' counterproductive behavior and activate employees' organizational citizenship behavior; (2) Enterprises and leaders should cooperate to improve employees' insider identity and psychological empowerment, and cultivate appropriate ethical climate to management employee's extra-role behavior using informal method. Moreover, the study has posed questions for future research.

**Keywords:** differential pattern; differential leadership; extra-role behavior; psychological empowerment

**JEL:** C14; G22



## Resumo

Como motivar as atitudes e o comportamento dos trabalhadores, bem como o comportamento de liderança de forma a melhorar o desempenho organizacional, sempre foi um dos dilemas dos processos de transformação das empresas Chinesas. Neste sentido, este estudo analisa a relação entre variáveis, desenvolvendo as suas hipóteses ancoradas em teorias relevantes nos domínios dos recursos humanos e comportamento organizacional. Desta forma, é desenvolvido um modelo de investigação que explora a influência dos mecanismos de liderança diferencial nos comportamentos extra-papel. Através da recolha de 403 questionários emparelhados, analisou-se a validade e fidelidade das escalas utilizadas, e recorreu-se a uma análise metodológica de regressão hierárquica, para concluir que: (1) a liderança diferencial percebida pelos trabalhadores encontra-se significativamente associada aos comportamentos de cidadania organizacional e negativamente associada aos comportamentos contra-produtivos; (2) as variáveis *psychological empowerment* e *insider identity* exercem um papel de mediação parcial no processo descrito anteriormente; (3) para além disso, a inteligência emocional dos líderes e o clima ético das organizações exercem um efeito moderador nas relações estudadas. As conclusões obtidas proporcionam implicações relevantes para a gestão de empresas Chinesas: (1) os líderes devem mostrar comportamentos que moderem a existência de comportamentos contra-produtivos e aumentem os comportamentos de cidadania dos seus subordinados; (2) as empresas e os seus líderes devem cooperar para aumentar os níveis de *insider identity* e de *psychological empowerment*, bem como desenvolver um clima ético que conduza a um aumento dos comportamentos extra-papel. Por último, esta tese providencia importantes questões que poderão conduzir a investigações futuras nos domínios estudados.

**Palavras-chave:** padrão diferencial, liderança diferencial, comportamentos extra-papel, *psychological empowerment*.

**JEL:** C14; G22



## 摘要

如何通过科学有效的领导行为激发员工的工作态度和行为,进而提升组织绩效是中国企业在转型过程中面临的现实困境之一。本研究通过对各变量之间的关系进行归纳和分析,并在组织行为学与人力资源管理领域相关理论的基础上提出了变量间的研究假设,构建了具体的理论模型,进而探索了差序式领导影响员工角色外行为的具体机制。通过收集 403 份配对调查问卷,在对各量表的效度信度进行相应的检验后,通过回归分析方法对研究假设进行相应的检验,并得到了如下研究结论:(1)员工感知的差序式领导与其组织公民行为显著正相关,与其反生产行为显著负相关;(2)在上述影响过程中,员工的心理授权感与内部人身份感具有部分中介作用;(3)除此之外,领导情绪智力在员工感知的差序式领导影响其组织公民行为各个维度的过程中具有跨层次的调节作用,团队伦理氛围在员工感知的差序式领导影响其反生产行为各个维度的过程中具有跨层次的调节作用。相关研究结论,对中国企业的管理实践具有如下启示:(1)领导者应通过适度表现出偏私行为来有效控制员工的反生产行为,并激发员工的组织公民行为;(2)企业和领导者应共同着力提升员工的内部人身份感和心理授权感,并注重培育和营造恰当的伦理氛围,以非正式控制的方法来管理员工的角色外行为。此外,本文还提出了未来应重点关注的研究问题。

**关键词:** 差序格局; 差序式领导; 角色外行为; 心理授权

**JEL:** C14; G22



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## **Chapter 1: Research Introduction**

Facing the realistic dilemma of Chinese culture and Chinese enterprise management, the thesis is projected to focus on the influence of differential leadership on extra-role behavior and the corresponding mechanism. As the introduction of the whole research, this chapter will introduce and explain systematically the specific background of the study, the main content and the value of the research, as well as the research methods, research design and innovation.

### **1.1 Research background**

Entering twenty-first century, the extensive and deep use of network and information technology has made the internal and external context of the enterprise organization more complex and changeable in management practice. Therefore, as the core elements of organizational management, employees' complexity and variability have become a real dilemma that all enterprises are facing currently. How to show the scientific and effective leadership behavior and characteristics? How to improve employee's job satisfaction and commitment in their working process, so that employees' positive work attitude and behavior can promote the whole organizational performance? All of these have become a core issue that each organization's leaders have to think about. Because of this, the thesis is mainly based on two seemingly independent but key close issues: employees' extra-role behavior and differential leadership behavior in the field of organizational behavior and human resource management. We believe that studying the impact of differential leadership behavior on extra-role behavior, to a certain degree, can help supervisors in enterprises to think deeply and find solutions for the above problems, so that the complicated internal and external environment can be well dealt with. In this chapter, we will introduce the origin and current status of extra-role behavior and differential leadership, and put forward the theoretical research background of this study by analyzing the logical connections between them.

#### **1.1.1 Extra-role behavior**

In the organizational behavior field, individual behavior is an important part to help explore organizational effectiveness and performance. Thus, from the early 1960s, there were researchers who did the study about the influence of individual behavior on organizational performance, in different perspectives and by various methods. For example, Katz (1964) once

pointed out, there are three significant individual behaviors in the organization: behavior that matches the job requirements for a particular organization's specific identity; in-role behavior, which is the job behavior showed to fulfill the specific working requirements in a particular organization; extra-role behavior, which is the non-duty behavior showed spontaneously as members in a particular organization. Yet, in the twenty years afterwards, most researchers in the field of human resources and organizational behavior focused on the previous two individual behaviors proposed by Katz (1964) (they argued that those two behaviors have a greater impact on organizational performance). They did considerable research concerning the attitudes and behaviors of employees, such as, staff ability matching, core work characteristics and competency model, as well as job burnout, turnover tendency.

Until the 1980s, more and more scholars began to put emphasis on the Katz's extra-role behavior, such as pro-social behavior (Dozier & Miceli, 1985; Eisenberg & Miller, 1987; Puffer, 1987) and organizational citizenship (Organ, 1989; Organ, 1990; Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). The expansion in the research content is helpful in enriching our theoretical knowledge and practical experience in the field of individual behavior (Lepine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Subsequently, after 10-year fast development and research precipitation, Werner (1994) and Dyne, Cummings, and Parks (1995) found that the extra-role behavior put forward by Katz (1964) refers to those that go far beyond organization system and job responsibilities without any specific rewards and punishments in organization. The characteristic is the lack of external constraints and employees can do self-decision and self-judgement. Therefore, Kelloway, Loughlin, and Barling (2002) argued that extra-role behavior should include two dimensions, or there should be two independent and organic unity research objects, namely: (1) positive extra-role behavior represented by organizational citizenship behavior, widely concerned from the early 1980s; (2) negative extra-role behavior represented by anti-production behavior, gradually concerned from the mid-1990s. Therefore, anti-production behavior has become another important subject in the study of extra-role behavior by researchers (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; Sackett, 2002; Gruys & Sackett, 2003), and formed research branches which have an independent and mutually reinforcing relationship with the study of organizational citizenship behavior.

In fact, with the development of comprehensive and clear definition made by scholars on extra-role behavior, we have come to realize that, in the process of exploring employees' extra-role behavior, rather than considering the glorious human nature only, the dark side of human nature should also be given appropriate priority to (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Bennett &

Robinson, 2000). Meantime, as the systemic research on extra-role behavior can enrich our scientific understanding of individual work performance to most extent, the exploration of the antecedent variables of extra-role behavior (including organizational behavior and counterproductive behavior), and the specific influencing mechanism of extra-role behavior, has surely become one hot research issue in the past twenty years in the field of organizational and human resources management (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Mount, Vies, & Johnson, 2006; Lavelle, Brockner, & Konovsky, 2009; Fida, Paciello, & Tramontano, 2015).

Instead of studying the influence of extra-role behavior on performance of individual / group / organization, in this thesis, we take the influencing factors of extra-role as the key starting point and core focus, and try to explore the core essential factors which may affect extra-role behavior in Chinese companies, as the context of Chinese culture is different from the western. We hope that we can help Chinese companies to solve some realistic dilemmas and problems that they may face in the management of extra-role behavior.

### **1.1.2 Differential leadership**

From the early trait theory of leadership, organization management experts always do reflection and exploration on “Which kind of leadership is scientific and effective?” from the day when the theory of leadership came into being. However, the fact is that, Hofstede (1980), in the study of cross-cultural values, once suggested that because the effectiveness of leadership gave too much priority to supervisor-subordinate ideas and interactions, the leadership and leadership behaviors which are proved to be effective in western context, may, in fact, have effect discount or even without any effect at all. In other words, it would make a huge difference among the working style, behavior performance, and specific content due to the impact of social history and traditional culture. Since the 1980s, more western researchers studying in management of organizational behavior, began to not only focus on the management practices of Chinese enterprises (Xie, 1996; Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Farh, Tsui, & Xin, 1998), but also made an attempt to explore the localization of the theory of management in China. Therefore, when a Chinese theory of management is constructed, the interpretation of leadership behavior and the understanding of mechanism of leadership effectiveness, based on Chinese history and traditional behavior, have become hot issues gradually, or even been a major issue (Wang, 2013). For example, Xi and Han (2010) supported that, only by constructing Chinese people’s own leadership view can we meet and adapt to the practical needs of carrying out Chinese localization leadership theory research.

Obviously, Professor Zheng Bo Xun first proposed the differential leadership theory in 1995, and the follow-up active exploration to this theory by related researchers (Zheng, 1995, 2004; Jiang & Zhang, 2010; Jiang & Zheng, 2014) can be regarded as a strong response to the realistic needs of the study of Chinese localization leadership theory. The theory is on the basis of the pattern of difference sequence put forward by a famous Chinese sociologist Fei (1947), and he holds the view that in Chinese enterprise organization, supervisors will divide their subordinates into their own people and people outside, according to three elements including subordinates' degree of intimacy with them, subordinates' loyalty and ability, and then treat these own people and people outside by different ways. That is, our social pattern is not a bundle of clear firewood, instead it is like a circle of ripples occurring when the stone is thrown to the water. Everyone is the center of his circle of social influence. As a result, when subordinates receive different treatment from their supervisors, the relationship structure in the whole organization will show the pattern of difference sequence. While Chinese people distinguish own people and people outside in the process of interpersonal and social interaction, and thus the pattern of difference sequence emerges in the whole social relationship structure. These two cases have a high degree of consistency. Indeed, western scholars pioneered the leader-member exchange theory (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Many Chinese scholars also use the leader-member exchange theory to explain the inside own groups and outside groups phenomenon that happened in Chinese organization (Ma & Qu, 2007; Yang, Shi, & Tan, 2015). But, which is more suitable for actual situation of Chinese enterprises between these two theories rooted in two different culture backgrounds? At least so far, there is no answer to this question.

As a matter of fact, although the differential leadership behavior clearly deviates from the basic core values of western leadership theory which advocates fairness, yet there are some studies which have verified the wide existence and practical effectiveness of differential leadership behaviors in organization of Chinese companies (Hu, Hsu, & Cheng, 2004; Jiang & Zhang, 2010; Jiang & Zheng, 2014). Therefore, the use of differential leadership theory plays a great positive role in the studies of leadership of Chinese enterprises organization, and the explanation of some seemingly unreasonable phenomenon, as well as the construction of Chinese people's own leadership value. However, as the exploration of differential leadership theory is still in its infancy stage, there are not so many scholars studying this field. So, the influence and the intrinsic mechanism of effect about differential leadership behavior on kinds of variables has not been clarified, even the dimensions distinguished and measurement tools

of differential leadership behavior are not perfect. Certainly, Gao and Wang (2013) argue that it is because the current research is not so perfect that differential leadership theory has a strong theoretical extension and great development of theoretical space. Wang (2013) also pointed out several research issues about the differential leadership theory in the future: first, the theoretical connotation, the theoretical foundation; second, the measurement of conception about the differential leadership behavior together with own people and outsider; third, the effectiveness of the differential leadership behavior, that is, the major effect of the differential leadership behavior on subordinates, teams or organizations; fourth, the internal mechanism of the differential leadership behavior taking effect, namely, the specific path through which that the differential leadership behavior influences subordinates, teams or organizations; fifth, the research level of the differential leadership behavior, that is, the comparative study about the differential leadership behavior in two levels between the individual and team.

Based on this, when we conduct research topic, the internal mechanism of the effectiveness of differential leadership behavior is regarded as another core concern. In other words, the focus of this thesis is not the theoretical connotation, foundation, structural dimensions, measurement, and research level of the differential leadership behavior. We are trying to incorporate differential leadership behaviors and staff's extra-role behaviors into the same research framework in the context of Chinese culture, establish a logical link between the two aspects, and explore the specific mechanism about the impact of the differential leadership behavior on extra-role behaviors. This makes the conclusions of this thesis be helpful in two aspects. On one hand, it helps Chinese enterprises solve the practical problems in the effective management of extra-role behavior. On the other hand, it can enable us to get a deep understanding about the differential leadership behavior, so as to construct Chinese own leadership concept, providing some experience and reference to carry out the research on leadership theory of Chinese localization.

## **1.2 Research content and research significance**

Based on above research background, this research is projected to sort out the logical link between the extra-role behavior and differential leadership behavior, and then the main content of this research is preliminarily constructed, additionally, necessary analysis is done on the theoretical value and practical significance of these research contents.

### **1.2.1 Research content**

In the selection and design of the research content, the impact of differential leadership on employees' extra-role behavior is one significant logical mainline. And on the basis of this logical mainline, the theoretical model is constructed (i.e., to explore the corresponding mediating effect and moderating effect). Thus, three aspects of the specific research content are formed as follows. However, there are still two points that need to be emphasized:

Firstly, there are two ways (or two main lines) to study differential leadership. One research is from leaders' perspectives about how to classify supervisors and how supervisors treat subordinates differently (Zheng, 1995). The other is from employees' perspectives about differential leadership behavior to find out employees' attitudes, behaviors and performance (Jiang & Zhang, 2010). The measurement of differential leadership in this research is mainly from the perspective of employees to examine their perception of differential leadership, that is, differential leadership is regarded as a variable of individual's cognitive level.

Secondly, from the general point of view, differential leadership should include both partiality to inside subordinate and partial evil to outside subordinate. For example, Jiang and Zheng (2014) argued that, in the latest developed differential leadership measuring table, supervisors are partial to inside subordinates in five dimensions: error tolerance, promotion, trust, intimate interaction, high expectations. While supervisors are partial evil to outside subordinates in three dimensions: interactive indifference, scruples, more trouble to blame. This study only focuses on employees' perception of leaders' partial favorite behavior, that is it only study the relative problems of differential leadership in the aspect of partial favoritism.

#### **1.2.1.1 The direct effect of differential leadership on extra-role behavior**

In the process of introducing the research background in the previous part, we only briefly introduce the research origin and current status about extra-role behavior and the differential leadership, thus such a conclusion is made (or namely the judgement): Differential leadership and extra-role behavior can be incorporated into the same framework, and then the specific impact of differential leadership on extra-role behavior can be explored. However, is there a theoretical and realistic basis for this judgment? In this regard, we believe a necessary answer can be found in the related research about the exchange of leadership-members in western academia.

Initially, the leader-member exchange theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) argues that, due to the dual constraints of time and resources leaders face, they consciously establish

special relationships with part of subordinates, that is, regard these subordinates as their in-group members to give them more trust, care and support (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). However, Graen and Cashman (1975) only took the charm and loyalty in the communication process between leaders and subordinates, in other words, the connotation and operational definition have not been agreed upon by scholars. Until the time that Graen and Scandura (1987) constructed a three-stage model of leadership-members exchange (i.e., role acquisition, role-play, role programming), and pointed out that leadership-members exchange should include two dimensions of quality of relationship and the degree of coupling relationship. To be more specific, relationship quality reflects the specific attitudes of leaders and employees in exchange relationships, such as loyalty, support and trust and so on. Obviously, the more positive of the attitudes of both sides, the higher quality of the relationship. The degree of coupling reflects the degree of behavioral consistency and internal consistency of leaders and employees in exchange relationships, such as, the extent to which they can influence each other, the extent to which they can represent each other, the degree to which they can forgive each other, and the degree to which they can support each other's innovation. Obviously, the more interaction, representation, tolerance and the support of innovation between leaders and subordinates, the higher degree of their relationship coupling. Schriesheim, Castro, and Cogliser (1999) conducted a comprehensive and systematic review and analysis of more than 100 articles of leadership-members exchange relationships published before 1998, and put forward six specific dimensions of leader-member exchange, including, mutual support, trust, loyalty related to attitudes (relationship quality), and mutual tolerance, concern and influence related to behavior (degree of coupling relationship).

In fact, the higher degree of coupling relationship with relationship quality, the greater of the value of leader-members exchange relationships, and the more positive influence. High quality and high degree of coupling of the leader-member exchange relationships can enable leaders and subordinates to create a series of positive attitudes, emotions and behaviors such as mutual trust, respect, support and tolerance, thus, subordinates gradually can have value identity and emotional attachment, and tend to work harder or even make greater efforts far beyond their job responsibilities to reward their leaders (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Meanwhile, there are some studies about the mediating effect and moderating effect of leader-member exchange relationships, for example, Chen and Farh (1999) found in one study that, it is difficult for those employees who have negative perceptions or attitudes toward their life and work, to establish working relationships of high quality with their leaders or colleagues. Furthermore, since their

work performance is relatively low, they behave less organizational citizenship. In other words, the leader-member exchange relationship can play the mediating effect in the influence of individual negative emotions on job performance and organizational citizenship behavior. However, the research by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) showed that leader-member exchange relationship can play the moderating effect in the relationships between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. When the leader-member exchange relationship is better, employees would give more positive feedback to transformational leadership behavior, so as to perform more organizational citizenship behavior when the leader-member exchange relationship is worse.

Because both leader-member exchange and differential leadership give priority to the use of different or inconsistent approaches and standards in dealing with different employees, which can be so-called “circle” characteristics. Therefore, it is of strong theoretical and practical basis to incorporate differential leadership and extra-role behavior into the same framework, and to explore the specific impact of differential leadership on extra-role behavior. Since there are a large number of research literatures to explore the influence of leader-member exchange relationships on extra-role behavior (at least up to now, all research focus on the field of organizational citizenship behavior, yet there are limited literatures about the research of leader-member exchange relationship on staff counterproductive behaviors.), is it still necessary to do research about the effect of the differential leadership on extra-role behavior?

Indeed, some Chinese scholars have already used the leader-member exchange theory to explain the phenomenon “own groups and external groups” occurring in Chinese enterprises (Ma & Qu, 2007; Yang, Shi, & Tan, 2015), and also explored the influence of leader-member exchange on extra-role behavior (Wang, Chu, & Ni, 2009; Yin & Zheng, 2011; Tang & Song, 2015). However, we believe that, both leader-member exchange and differential leadership give priority to the use of different or inconsistent approaches and standards in dealing with different employees, which can be so-called “circle” characteristics. While the leader-member exchange relationship is constructed on the basis of role making system and social exchange theory. It emphasizes how leaders establish good relationships with employees, the core of which is, through a series of specific methods promoting the quality of relationships between leaders and employees, as well as the degree of coupling, to help leaders build a set of management system except those formal rules, therefore improve the leadership efficiency to the maximum (Xu et al., 2006). In other words, the own people in the leader-member exchange relationship is merely a symbolic meaning, and the corresponding outsiders may not exist at all. But the own people

in the differential leadership has the real sense, and there is exclusive reality between own people and outsiders (although the own people and outsiders are all dynamic, that is can transform each other). We notice that, the proposer of leader-member exchange theory Graen (2003) have once argued that, the distinction between inner and outer teams is just a semantic need, and actually, there is no effective proof to suggest that there exist such two groups in real situation. However, Fei (1947) argues that it is a very common and historical phenomenon in Chinese culture to distinguish own people and outsiders. Therefore, in context of Chinese culture, the differential leadership may be more suitable for real situations in Chinese business organizations, and can help solve practical problems in Chinese business organizations.

To sum up, according to the existing theoretical literature about the relationships between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior, as well as the practical significance of the differential leadership in context of Chinese culture, we intend to explore the specific influence of the differential leadership on organizational citizenship behaviors, meanwhile, because counterproductive behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors constitute two important research branches of extra-role behavior, so we incorporate counterproductive behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors into the basic framework of this study. And based on that, the exploration of the direct effect of the influence of the differential leadership dimensions on extra-role behavior is used as the first key research content of this thesis.

#### **1.2.1.2 The mediating effect of psychological empowerment and internal identity**

After the understanding the direct effect of differential leadership on extra-role behavior, the next core question is “what exactly is the specific mechanism of such kind of effect?” As a matter of fact, Kark and Dijk (2007) once pointed that presently the research on the potential mechanism of leadership behavior taking effect has begun to attract the attention of academic circles, but, in the whole perspective, there are few literatures about the psychological process that leadership behaviors stimulate subordinates. Therefore, Kark and Dijk (2007) use the regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) to do exploratory research about the leadership behaviors, and propose that the path research of the influence of leadership behaviors on subordinates should pay more attention to the psychological mechanism of individual level. Concerning that, in this study, two variables of individual psychological level of empowerment and identity are given priority, which can take the mediating effect in the influence of differential leadership on extra-role behavior.

### **(1) The mediating effect of psychological empowerment**

Many scholars argued that empowerment is the grant and commission of official power (Blau & Alba, 1982; Burke, 1986; Mainiero, 1986). The core of empowerment is the decentralized decision-making power (Kanter, 1983), in other words, empowerment refers to that supervisors entitle their subordinates kind of authority to complete certain tasks. It is not only the key to organizational operation but also the core issue of organizational management research. Conger and Kanungo (1988) argue that different from the simple working power granted to subordinates, psychological empowerment enables subordinates to believe in themselves to accomplish the tasks. It is a process to enhance the intrinsic motivation of employees, which can be understood as the process to improve employee self-efficacy. Therefore, from employees' perspective, psychological empowerment is a concept related to individual internal incentive. It reflects the individual's inner belief and the process of changes, meanwhile, accompanied by such changes in the internal beliefs, corresponding individual behavior changes can be caused. On the basis of this perception, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) summarized previous studies and proposed a multidimensional conceptual model of employee empowerment, including self-efficiency, the meaning of work, work autonomy and the sense of self-influence, which are four specific dimensions of employees' psychological empowerment.

According to existing research results, leadership behavior can indeed have a significant impact on psychological empowerment of employees, thereby making employees show difference in work attitude and behavior. Only from the perspective of the effect of leadership-members exchange on the psychological empowerment, Aryee and Chen (2006) used the empirical data from China to examine the relationship between leader-member exchange and psychological empowerment, and found that the sense of psychological empowerment took complete mediating effect in the influencing process of leadership-members exchange on employees' job satisfaction, task performance and psychological retreat behavior; Schermuly, Meyer, and Dämmer (2014), through the use of a time-lagged questionnaire, explored the influencing process of leadership-members exchange on continuous innovation behavior by employees' psychological empowerment. There was a result that, under the premise of the control of time stability of innovative behavior, psychological empowerment also took total mediating effect in the influencing process of leadership-members exchange on innovative behavior. In addition, Hill, Kang, and Seo (2014) constructed a mediating effect model, and found that, in electronically-enabled work environments, if staff use an abundance of internet

communication channels to do interaction with leaders, the positive influence of leader-member exchange on employee psychological empowerment and job performance will be enhanced. Ozdevecioglu, Demirtas, and Kurt (2015) demonstrated that the perception of employee working meaning can play a mediating role in the process of the effect of leader-member exchange on organizational citizenship behaviors and turnover intention in the latest research.

The above research results about the influence of leader-member exchange on work attitude, behavior and performance through psychological empowerment, have provided a significant enlightenment. That is, psychological empowerment is an important factor to reveal the internal mechanism of the influence of the leadership on work attitude, behavior and performance of employees. It is a significant mediator variable of leadership effectiveness.

## **(2) The mediating effect of internal identity**

The theory of social identity (Tajfel, 1970) suggests that, in order to reduce kinds of uncertainties and to improve themselves, people tend to distinguish own people and outsiders between themselves and others according to varieties of attributes (such as age, education, identity of members), so as to establish effective self-definition and social identity in social settings (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Based on the theory of social identity, Stamper and Masterson (2002) propose the concept of perceived insider status, the purpose of which is to explore the ways to improve employee performance and stimulate employees' positive attitudes and behaviors, from the different treatment employees received and perceived. Masterson and Stamper (2003) argue that perceived insider status represents that employees get personal space and acceptance as a member in an organization. It describes the extent to which employees consider themselves as insiders of the organization, that is, the extent to which employees can perceive their group membership in a specific organization. Once employees have formed their perceived insider status, their sense of responsibility and organizational citizenship will also be formed, and thus they will show more altruistic behavior and less counter-productive behavior. Li et al. (2014) supposes that from the perspective of the sense of organizational politics and psychological safety, insiders are more likely to acquire higher level of sense of psychological safety compared with outsiders, and then are more likely to provide advice boldly in organization with high level of political perception. Buonocore, Metallo, and Salvatore (2009) argues that, those employees with high insider identity normally feel they should be highly responsible for their work, and they prefer to devote more time and energy to meet job requirements with higher standards. In addition, employees with strong perception of internal identity often identify with value and core interests of their teams (or organizations), and regard

their identity (or qualification) is of great value and worth great efforts to keep (Tes, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2012). Therefore, we can see internal identity should have a greatly significant impact on employee extra-role behavior.

In the meanwhile, although Chen and Aryee (2007) believe internal identity is a kind of strong social identity to organizations, yet given that leaders, as the key symbol of organization (agents and spokesperson), they are obviously the important factor affecting internal identity. In fact, Guerrero, Sylvestre, and Muresanu (2013) once pointed out that employees with leader-member exchange relationships of high quality would have a sense of self-worth and belongs to the group due to the gaining of more resources and preferential treatment. So good relationships with leaders are significantly positively associated with perceiving themselves as inside subordinates within the group. In addition, Zhao, Kessel, and Kratzer (2014) found that employees who perceived high quality leader-member exchange relationship are more likely to get personal advance and being accepted in the organization, that is, they are more likely to be have internal identity. As a result, we can see that, differential leadership when performing favoritism would surely have effect on the internal identity. But, the problem we are projected to explore is that, the internal identity resulting from the differential leadership will absolutely lead to positive influence?

Therefore, in the process of exploring the mediating effect of differential leadership on extra-role behavior, perceived insider status will be used as an important mediating variable in the theoretical model in this thesis.

### **1.2.1.3 The moderating effect of ethical climate in organizations and emotional intelligence of leaders**

Only by analyzing the moderating effect of differential leadership on extra-role behavior we can actually explain some influences can take effect under what conditions and in what areas.

Based on this, in consideration of this interaction effect between individual cognition and external environment emphasized by the theory of social identity, for example, Hatrup and Jackson (1996) and House, Shane, and Herold (1996) all support that, the degree of explanation about the interaction effect between individual cognition and external environment on individual working behaviors is higher than the explanation of their independence. As a result, from the perspective of organizational (or team) context, we will explore the moderating effect of organizational ethical atmosphere and leader' emotional intelligence in this study, namely the moderating effect of the two in the process of differential leadership perceived by employees

(individual cognition) affecting employees' extra-role behavior.

### **(1) The moderating effect of ethical climate in organizations**

According to concertive control theory proposed by Barker (1993) that contain the basic methods to do the amendment on behaviors in self-management teams, ethical climate in organizations is a kind of typical informal control mechanism to counterproductive behaviors. Just as Victor and Cullen (1988) argues that, the ethical climate in organizations can reflect not only the characteristics when dealing with ethical problems in organizations, but also mutual influence and common cognition about what behaviors conform to ethic and how to deal with ethical problems among organizational members. It is kind of organizational situation feature of great importance that is similar to the conception of organizational culture, yet more easily described and measured than organizational culture. The study to the ethical climate in organizations, to some extent, provides a new way of thinking or perspective to manage employee counterproductive behaviors. Therefore, since the late 90s of last century, there has emerged some research literature about the influence of organizational ethical climate on employee non-ethical (or immoral behavior) (Wimbush, Shepard, & Markham, 1997; Deshpande & Joseph, 2009; Deconinck, 2010; Duh, Belak, & Milfelner, 2010), as well as a few research literatures about the influence of organizational ethical climate on employees' counter-productive behaviors. (Vardi, 2001; Deconinck, 2010; Arnaud & Schminke, 2012; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). However, these studies basically regard the organizational ethical climate as antecedent variables of the unethical behavior or counterproductive behavior, while there are few studies in the exploration of moderating effect of organizational ethical climate and other interaction of individual factors on counter-productive behavior. Therefore, taking organizational ethical climate as a moderator, this thesis is projected to explore whether the employee perception can be moderated by organizational ethics climate in the process of influencing anti-productive behavior.

### **(2) The moderating effect of emotional intelligence of leaders**

Emotional intelligence is considered as an individual cognitive ability which has both difference and link with intelligence. It is similar to social skills and abilities, reflecting that individuals effectively manage their emotion and feeling, and by use of the information acquired in this process to guide their own ideas and abilities of action. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Related studies based on emotional intelligence have demonstrated that, emotional intelligence can influence people's judgement, memory, creativity and reasoning process. From the leader's perspective, on the one hand, leaders with high emotional intelligence are usually

good at recognizing, managing and controlling both their own and employees' emotions; on the other hand, emotion or emotional interaction is the necessary part and content in the whole process of leadership. Therefore, if leaders have high emotional intelligence, they can effectively provide staff with the corresponding social support (including not only emotional support, but also support on information and resources), so as to achieve the goal to make clear work objectives for staff, clearly define staff's tasks and role in the working process, avoid task ambiguity and role conflict, and promote employees to behave positive attitudes and actions. In fact, in the process of empirical research, leaders' emotional intelligence plays a predictable role in many important outcome variables, such as job performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'boyle, Humphrey, & Pollack, 2011), organizational identity (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002), job satisfaction (Sy, Tram, & O' Hara, 2006; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008), organizational citizenship behavior (Slaskim & Cartwright, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002; Wang, Tsui, & Zhang, 2003; Goleman, 2004), etc. However, this can only explain the direct impact of leaders' emotional intelligence on employee attitudes and behaviors. There are few studies to explore the moderating effect of the interaction between leaders' emotional intelligence and the factors of individual cognition on employee attitudes and actions. Taking leaders' emotional intelligence as a moderator, this thesis explores whether the perception of differential leadership can be moderated by leaders' emotional intelligence in the process of influencing organizational citizenship behavior.

### **1.2.2 Research value**

As an applied doctoral dissertation, the research significance of this study reflects in two aspects. Firstly, on the basis of the existing theory moderate expansion, and strive to have some theoretical innovation. Secondly, the conclusion of this study is helpful to solve some practical problems in the management of Chinese enterprises.

#### **1.2.2.1 The theoretical innovation of this study**

Firstly, there is enlightenment to construct Chinese own unique leadership concept from the aspect of theory (Xi & Han, 2010). As mentioned above, in the exploration of the effectiveness of leadership, most Chinese scholars now still use western leadership theory to analyze and explain specific problems that Chinese enterprises face (Tsui, 2009), that is, to test the applicability of western leadership theory in Chinese culture context and situations. We also notice that, leaders treat their subordinates differently, and the phenomenon of insider and outsider is present in organizations, both of which have attracted attention to some extent. But,

there are some scholars who used LMX theory to explore the phenomenon of insider team and outsider team in Chinese management practices (Ma & Qu, 2007; Wang, Chu, & Ni, 2009). Indeed, following this research logic can create some theories of management in China, which can address some problems called “western theory used in China”. It is surely an important path to realize localization of management research. However, in order to create “theory of management in China”, we need to use the Chinese history and traditional culture to explain out unique leadership, and clarify the effect mechanism of leadership. So, from this viewpoint, this study explores the influence of differential leadership from the perspective of employees can possibly to some extent help people understand “Chinese own unique leadership” and provide theoretical guidance.

Secondly, a theoretical model explaining the effect mechanism of the differential leadership is established in this thesis. In fact, the issue of the validity (leadership effectiveness) of leadership is an important direction of theoretical research and empirical test (Wang, 2013). Only when we clarify why the differential leadership is effective can we provide necessary theoretical support to the specific implementation. The influence of the differential leadership on extra-role behavior is used as a significant logical mainline to explore the moderating and mediating effect, so the relevant research results can provide necessary theoretical foundation to explain the effectiveness of the differential leadership. The theoretical model proposed in this study also provide foundation for future exploration and comparison of similar problems.

Thirdly, the study provides a relatively new theoretical perspective to understand the effect mechanism of the extra-role behavior. No matter in the studies of organizational citizenship behavior or counterproductive behavior, scholars choose different theoretical perspectives to help explain the process of mechanisms and accumulate many research results. For instance, some studies proved that the leadership-member exchange can effectively encourage the generation of organizational citizenship behavior (Waismel et al., 2010; Deluga, 2011; Sun et al., 2013; Michel & Tews, 2016), and some scholars explored the influence of the leadership-member exchange on extra-role behavior (Wang, Chu, & Ni, 2009; Yin & Zheng, 2011; Tang & Song, 2015). But, until now, there are few literatures which incorporate the differential leadership into extra-role behavior. We start from the point of employee perception to study the differential leadership, so the relevant research conclusions can provide a new perspective of individual cognitive level to help understand the effect mechanism of extra-role behavior. The research of the moderating and mediating effect can help furthermore enrich or verify the research conclusions made by previous scholars.

### **1.2.2.2 The practical significance of this study**

Firstly, this study can provide important theoretical guidance to control the counterproductive behavior of employees. As can be seen from the related surveys and statistics of foreign scholars, employee counterproductive behavior has become a kind of common or even serious individual behavior in organizations since the 1980s-1990s of last century. For example, Harper (1990) clearly supposed that, there are 33% to 75% of employees who have once cheated their colleagues or damaged the property of companies intentionally in American companies. While in the research of Farrell, Bobrowski, and Bobrowski (2006), the number of people who have been attacked by maliciously languages or physical by their colleagues or supervisors was even more astounding at 63.5%. Similarly, LeBlanc and Kelloway (2002) once estimated that, as far as all American companies, nearly 18000 employees are likely to suffer from varieties of psychological and physical injuries in their workplace every week. These counterproductive behaviors surely cause extremely serious and adverse effects to organizations, making organizational performance at a great loss. For example, Camara and Schneider (1994) had a rough statistic that, only the item of corrupting and possessing the property of companies by employees, whole American enterprises would face the direct economic losses of nearly \$200 billion every year. On the one hand, as far as the research of organization citizenship behavior, the study of counterproductive behavior starts later. On the other hand, the actual harm caused by counterproductive behavior is much higher than the adverse effect caused by the loss of organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, how to control counterproductive behavior of employees has always been an important problem that confuses supervisors in companies. Based on this, the first practical significance of this research is that it can provide specific guidance for leaders to control the counterproductive behavior of employees.

Secondly, the research provides legitimacy to differential leadership. In Chinese culture context, due to high power distance in Chinese values (Hofstede, 1980), it is of great legitimacy for leaders to show authoritarian. Thus, we find that, in the practice of Chinese leadership, paternalistic leadership in Chinese organizations is preferred by many leaders (Farh & Cheng, 2000). The main methods for leaders to improve their effectiveness of leadership include the grant of favors, the build of morality, and the set of authority. However, unlike the paternalistic leadership, the differential leadership implies the premise of distinguish own people and outsiders among subordinates, which to some extent may violate fairness, or even be labeled immoral. Therefore, even leaders in China indeed show partial favoritism to their subordinates,

they are unwilling or dare to admit. In fact, even casting aside the legitimacy of classification of subordinates by leaders (that is, the subordinates are divided into own people and outsiders according to the value of intimacy, loyalty and talent), the identity of own people is dynamic by itself. When outsiders reach the standards of own people, leaders will transform the outsiders to the identity of own people. Conversely, when own people never meet the requirements, leaders will transform them into the identity of outsiders (Zheng, 2004). As a consequence, the differential leadership should attract attention of employees, especially the focus of leaders. From this point, the relevant conclusions in this study can help leaders in Chinese enterprises to realize and pay attention to the value of differential leadership.

Thirdly, the study provides some practical guidance to the specific operation of differential leadership. From the perspectives of leaders, the core problem of the differential leadership lies in differentiating employees into own people and outsiders and then show favoritism behavior differently through scientific and proper classification (such as intimacy, loyalty, talent). But, is it surly effective? If it is effective, what should be focused in this process? There are no clear answers to these two questions till now, which may bring some difficulties to the specific operation of the differential leadership, or even some problems. In fact, to solve these two problems, the effect mechanism of differential leadership should be clearly understood, and the attitudes and behaviors of leaders should be adjusted on basis of this effect mechanism. In the process of theoretical exploration, we clarify the moderating and mediating effect of the differential leadership on extra-role behavior, which can to some extent help solve the above questions. Specifically, because ethical climate in organizations and emotional intelligence of leaders have the mediating effect in the process of the influence of the leadership behavior on extra-role behavior, the differential leadership is possibly effective. Thus, when leaders operate in the process of leadership behavior, they should give priority to the construction of ethical climate in organizations and the improvement of emotional intelligence. In addition, the differential leadership can influence extra-role behavior through the psychological empowerment and the internal identity of employee. Thus, when leaders operate in the process of leadership behavior, they should give priority and proper evaluation to the psychological empowerment and the internal identity. These findings can help leaders to improve the effectiveness of their leadership.

### **1.3 Research design and research methods**

In order to explore the specific questions related to the above research content, rigorous

research design and scientific research methods are adopted to promote the research work gradually.

### 1.3.1 Research design

The logical mainline of this research is very clear, that is, to explore the main internal mechanism of the influence of differential leadership on extra-role behavior. The theoretical model, based on this logical line, includes the main effect model between two core variables, the mediating effect model of psychological empowerment and internal identity, and the moderator effect model of organizational ethical climate and leaders' emotional intelligence. The basic flow chart of the whole research is as follows in Figure 1-1.

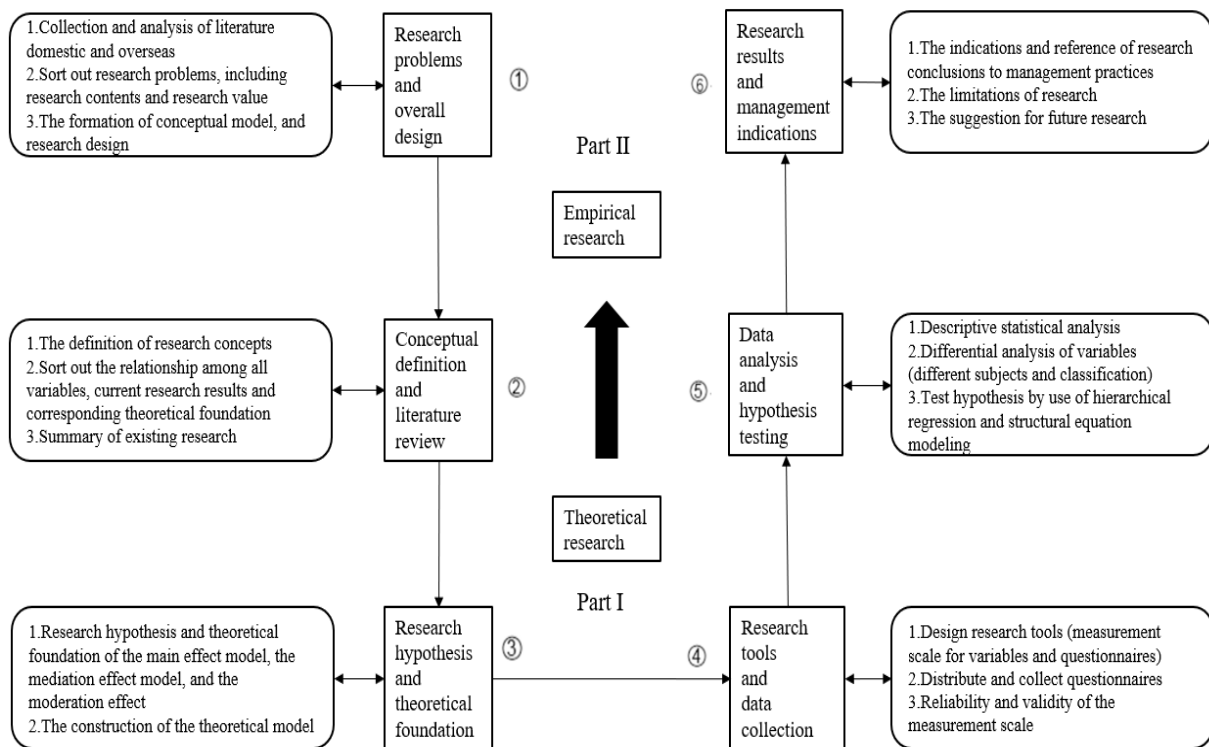


Figure 1 - 1 The whole framework and basic flow of the research

As shown in Figure 1-1, the whole framework can be divided into two parts, and the first part is the theoretical research, corresponding two important parts, namely, research questions and whole design, literature review and research hypothesis; the second part is the empirical analysis, including three parts, namely, research tools and data collection, data analysis and hypothesis testing, as well the research conclusions and management implications. Overall, the empirical analysis in second part is established on basis of the theoretical research in the first part.

Following the whole research framework and corresponding research process above, the main research contents in this study are divided into five chapters. The first is research introduction, on basis of the introduction of the background of research topics, mainly about the construction of the main content and basic framework of the whole research, as well as the corresponding explanation of the research value and research process. The second chapter is literature review and research hypothesis, which mainly introducing the core concepts of the research, clarifying the practical definition of core variables in this research, analyzing the current research literatures. Then based on the relevant theories, the corresponding research hypothesis and theoretical model are proposed. The third chapter is research tools and data collection, which mainly introducing the questionnaire of the research design and the specific process of data collecting on the questionnaire, in addition to that, the necessary amendment being done on basis of the reliability and validity Test. The fourth chapter is data analysis and hypothesis test, which mainly doing empirical test to the research hypothesis proposed in the third chapter by the use of statistical analyzing tools. The fifth chapter is research conclusions and management enlightenment, which mainly summarizing the empirical research conclusions in fourth chapter, as well as the corresponding analysis of the specific enlightenment in management practice, finally, summarizing the drawback of the whole research and the corresponding suggestions given for future study.

### **1.3.2 Research methods**

As far as the research method is concerned, this thesis uses a variety of scientific research methods, based on the research paradigm of human resource and organizational behavior. More specific are as follows.

Firstly, document analysis. Document analysis is the foundation and starting point of this research. We have adopted document analysis in both the research review and the necessary theoretical foundation provided for theoretical hypothesis of this thesis.

Secondly, logical deduction. In order to construct the theoretical model of this study, corresponding assumptions are made between all variables, then considerable logical deduction and induction would be conducted about the relationship between differential leadership and extra-role behavior (including the main effect, the mediating effect, and the moderator effect) by the use of related theories about organizational behavior, social psychology, and human resources management.

Thirdly, comparative analysis. Through the comparison of the difference between eastern

and western leadership theory, we try to enrich Chinese own unique view of leadership in the exploration of the specific process of the differential leadership.

Fourthly, interview investigation. In order to collect the first-hand data of empirical research, interviews and investigations are projected to conduct among staff and their department supervisors of enterprises and government in many Chinese provinces and cities, including eastern coastal (such as Beijing, Tianjin, Zhejiang and Guangdong), southwest inland (such as Sichuan, Guizhou and Chongqing), central Hubei. The interviews are mainly conducted in the form of semi-structured questionnaires and face-to-face depth interviews with interviewees. While investigations are mainly conducted in the form of distributing and collecting questionnaires.

Fifthly, statistical analysis. Excel, SPSS21.0, AMOS22.0 and HLM7.0 which are three commonly statistical analysis software for data analysis, are used in this research.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review and Research Hypothesis**

In this chapter, there are literature reviews about multiple core concepts concerning in the research process. Then, we conclude and analyze the relationships among variables. Then the research hypothesis of the relationships among variables is proposed on the basis of necessary theoretical foundation. After that, the concrete theoretical model is constructed to do the corresponding empirical research.

### **2.1 Literature review of differential leadership**

The earliest researchers who did studies on the leadership and management practices in Chinese context mostly came from overseas. For instance, Lei (1993) conducted research about family business in HongKong and Southeast Asian. Westwood (1997) proposed the paternalistic headship theory. And Zheng put forward the differential leadership theory and the paternalistic leadership theory (Zheng, 1995, 2004). Furthermore, there are also scholars in Chinese mainland who have done specific studies on indigenous leadership theory. For example, Ling, Chen, and Wang (1987) first found that, in the process of standardization of PM measurement scale proposed by Misumi, the expectations of Chinese people toward leaders included another significant aspect, that is Character and Moral, besides the performance and maintenance, thereby proposing the Character Performance Maintenance Theory (CPM).

The research about local leadership theory mentioned above has a significant influence on how we effectively recognize leadership behavior and leadership process. A series of comparisons are made between the differential leadership theory in Chinese cultural context and the leader-member exchange theory in western cultural context. The reviews of differential leadership theory are conducted afterwards, so as to identify gaps in existing research.

#### **2.1.1 Comparative analysis of differential leadership and LMX**

Economics make people learn how to properly allocate scarce resources in economics, and also remind people of the reality of scarcity of resources. As a matter of fact, due to the scarcity, people who are in charge of allocating resources would come across “uneven”. It can inevitably cause the difference between inside and outside groups in companies or any organization. It is

such a kind of phenomenon that leads researchers to study and explore the differential leadership and LMX.

#### **2.1.1.1 Introduction of related theories**

Leadership-member exchange theory has always been one of the hotspots in studies of leadership theories. It was firstly proposed by (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), who argued that, unlike traditional leadership theories, the relationship between leaders and subordinates is the most important in the process of leadership behavior. According to LMX, due to the pressure of time, leaders would select part of subordinates to establish a relatively special relationship which might enable people in this group to achieve career advancement, more easy adjustment of working time, and some other priorities in the workplace. Subordinates of this part are called “insider”. Corresponding to this, the other part is named “outsider”, who are likely to only have official working relationships with their supervisors. Therefore, leaders may have relative trust to this group, and “outsider” hardly can be entitled of the special rights in the workplace, thereby obviously less opportunities to get rewards or promotion. The empirical research also shows that such difference indeed exists in the organization.

The establishment of differential leadership theory results from the practical needs to satisfy and adapt the studies of leadership theories in China. The theory was first proposed by Zheng (1995). After that, many researchers did further studies and explorations. In the 1940s, sociologist Fei (1947, p24) put the social relationships among single unit in Chinese society to a saying that “throw a stone to water surface, generating ripples in circles. Each one is the center of the circles and linked by each ripple”. The differential pattern is the difference of the circles of ripples that occur between people themselves and other groups who are interacted with them. Among various social phenomena, the most typical one is the closeness of interpersonal relationships, which presenting the step-like differential status like the ripple of circles from inside to outside. With an increasing expansion of the circles, the more outside, the weaker the relationship. There is an obvious difference between closeness and alienation among people. In fact, different treatment to “insider” and “outsider” completely demonstrates the differential features of Chinese traditional culture.

#### **2.1.1.2 Similarities between differential leadership and LMX theory**

In the studies of LMX theory, Graen and Cashman (1975) found that the way of interaction is different between leaders and each subordinate, and there are also different exchange relationships between leaders and each subordinate. Liden and Graen (1980) discovered the

difference in leadership-member exchanges can lead to the emergence of two different groups- inside and outside. Specifically, those insiders have better interactions with leaders, and leaders are more likely to trust and support subordinates from inside group. On the other hand, those outsiders have worse interactions with leaders, limited to the contractual relationships and work responsibility of the working role. It can be seen that there are similar divisions and interactions about the “insider” and “outsider” between LMX theory and differential leadership theory.

Firstly, similar divisions of inside and outside group. In leadership-member exchange theory, because of the time and other resources constraints, leaders can only close to a part of subordinates who are labeled “insider”. These subordinates would get more trust and special attention from leaders, thereby performing more actively. While others are labeled by “outsider”. As the core base of the differential leadership theory, the selecting and staying phenomenon in differential pattern is also such kind of so-called circle, which mainly being reflected in the interactions among people in Chinese context. The center is self in the social network of Chinese context, and then the network of interpersonal relationships spread out circle by circle according to the degree of closeness and distance. Family member is just outside the “self” because of the blood relationships. The following is “acquaintances”, namely, nine kinds of close people, including schoolmate, countryman (a person from the same village, town or province), clansman, colleagues, peers, comrade - in - arms, a person of common faith, a person with common interests, a person with a common misfortune. The further outside is stranger. This also shows that two theories all reflect the division of inside and outside group distinguished by different circles separately.

Secondly, similar interactions. There are not only similar divisions of inside and outside group between differential leadership theory and LMX theory, but also have similar interactions when treating different groups after being divided. When Cai (2008) studied the LMX theory, he found that there are different qualities of interactions in the three kinds of circles: from the innermost layer to the outermost layer, the quality of interaction is on the decrease gradually. To be more specific, the formal employment relationship reflects the interactions of low quality, which can be mainly seen from the behavior within the scope of work contract and within the role. While deep emotional interactions between leaders and subordinates can lead to the interactions of high quality, reflected by mutual trust and support, such as subordinates’ gratitude to leaders, and leaders’ trust to subordinates.

Concerning to the different groups in the differential pattern, family members, who have blood relationship with “self”, demonstrate the prominent closeness by law of needs. Simply to

say, “self” and family members share the same fortune and difficulty. Acquaintances are outside by family members, applying the rule of benefits exchange. That is, one needs to remember the favor that acquaintances offer and should seek opportunities to help them in the future, never to betray. Strangers are following acquaintances, and their relationship is weak, which is suitable for the law of fairness. Just there is no deception only integrity in the treatment between each other. Three different interactions can also be classified by the rules of instrumentality, emotionality, and mixture. Emotional interactions happen among family members, and require constant enhancement and deepening to maintain this kind of relationship. The instrumental interactions happen among strangers, requiring fairness and even pressure to maintain. The middle-mixed layer is the circle of acquaintances, it is difficult to maintain if only instrumental interaction or emotional interaction is used.

### **2.1.1.3 Difference between differential leadership theory and LMX theory**

The origin LMX theory was put forward by western authors, and afterwards, many scholars in China were trying to explain leadership phenomena in Chinese management practice through LMX theory. In fact, we believe that LMX theory and differential leadership theory are different in essence, and do not fit each other in reality. There are different cultural root and contents between China and western countries. Therefore, the differential leadership theory proposed in Chinese organizations is different from LMX theory in many aspects.

Firstly, the research perspective is different. Concerning to the circle phenomenon occurring in organizations, LMX theory has gradually developed into a mature theory which can explain organizational events, mainly on basis of leadership behavior from the aspect of organizational behavior. Initially, the attention was paid to the effectiveness of leadership behavior. With the progress and development of studies, subsequent researchers have proposed more cutting-edge theories such as leadership traits theory and leadership situational theory. People began to realize leadership is the interactive process among dynamic emotions, social material interests and psychology. At the beginning of establishment of leader-subordinate relationships, the process formed and developed. Consequently, LMX theory has gradually grown into a more mature theory. However, unlike LMX theory, the studies of the differential pattern are mainly from the sociological perspective. Sun (1996) believes that it is not only just a concept to analyze the structure of social relations in Chinese context, but also as an important cornerstone to analyze the evolution from traditional society to modern social relations. In modern society, the differential pattern is mostly applied in the analysis of human relationship network in China. In the past decades, there are some scholars who do organizational research

refer to the differential pattern, such as differential leader proposed by Liu (2010), and differential atmosphere of teamwork by Liu, Zhang, and Zhong (2009). For specific example, Liu (2009) discovered that political skills of organizational members and team task dependence have an impact on the differential atmosphere of teamwork. The teams with different differential atmosphere would have different work performance. The team cooperation efficiency and cohesiveness will be influenced adversely if there are more differential atmosphere in the teams, therefore, team performance is on the decline. The scholars in this field are mostly foreigners. This help people get a deep understanding about the effect of differential atmosphere on work performance or job satisfaction.

Secondly, the theoretical foundation is different. Xu et al. (2006) argued that based on the role shaping system and social exchange theory, LMX theory is a kind of management form that leaders have to seek besides the required rules in order to achieve management goal. Guo (2011) thought that leaders and subordinates should only have working contract relationships in this theory. As for the differential leadership theory, Xu et al. (2006) contended that it is kind of special leadership that based on classification theory of cognitive psychology, and integrates specific relationships and authority orientation, as well as the particular differential atmosphere. Guo (2011) also argued that there are both working contract relationships and relationships of identity between leaders and subordinates in the theory.

Thirdly, the cultural presupposition is different. The LMX theory was first proposed in the west, with the premise that the relationships between leaders and subordinates are equal and reciprocal. Its essence is the exchange by law of fair rules. While the differential leadership theory aims to Chinese social organization with heavy differential atmosphere, where not only the power distance exists, but also serious biased behaviors exist. The essence is the law of human relationships in mind of leaders and the corresponding attitudes and behaviors (Guo, 2011). Farh, Hackett, and Liang (2007) also pointed that the western principle of mutual benefits does not fit in Chinese management practice. Thought the LMX theory emphasizes the relationships between leaders and subordinates in originations, yet, besides working, the equal personality and the interactions of leader-member also play an important role in management. On the other side, Chen and Liu (2009) believed that in the theory of differential leadership, the relationships between leaders and subordinates exit not only in the workplace but also in private life, which are accepted by subordinates generally and making leaders take the dominant positions in the daily interactions.

Fourthly, the basic connotation is different. The differential leadership theory includes two

aspects, the difference and sequence. The LMX theory only covers the difference in the horizontal aspect, without the reflection of the sequence in the vertical aspect. Additionally, the meaning of aspect of “difference” in two theories is not the same. Yang (2009) argued that, the meaning of “inside and outside difference” is totally different between China and West. In west, there is no ethic attached and the evolution follows blood relationships and other endowments. Generally, the groups in the west are highly homogeneous and separate from each other. While, in China, the groups usually have strong ethics. Therefore, the “difference” in LMX theory only represents a western style universalism, yet the “difference” in the differential leadership theory represents a kind of special relationship orientation. That is to say, the “difference” in west and in China is different in essence.

Fifthly, the criteria of classification for subordinates are different. Dienesch and Liden (1986) found subordinates’ own characteristics and the emotional leader-member relationships can have an impact on how leaders classify their subordinates, such as subordinates’ work performance and ability, the loyalty to leaders. Xu et al. (2006) thought the loyalty in the LMX theory only refers to the support of subordinates toward leaders, which differs that in the differential leadership theory. Furthermore, besides the loyalty, the meaning of relationship and ability in the LMX theory and the differential leadership theory is not the same. Farh, Tsui, and Xin (1998) proposed demographic variables such as age and education level that can have a great influence on the interactive process between leaders and subordinates. The differential leaders give priority to the endowment and interactions with subordinates. The performance is affected by the difference of classification. For an organization, the emergence of circles might have a positive or negative impact, but there would be more adverse phenomena influencing others’ performance adversely, like kinds of power disputes.

Sixthly, the final carrier is different. For the final carrier from the two theories, there are the insider and outsider in the differential theory, while internal and external groups in the LMX theory. The question whether these two can explain each other has attracted the attention of many scholars. Fei (1947) thought it is common for Chinese people to distinguish insider and outside people around them. For example, most trustful subordinates, teams or circles in the organization are actually the demonstration of existence of insider. But Graen (2003), the founder of LMX theory, argues that the distinguish between internal and external group is just a semantic division. There is no actual evidence to prove the existence of these two groups. Later, Ma (2007) suggested that there are many circles of different relationships in western and eastern organizations due to preference, personality and education level. But the circles in

Chinese organizations have the characteristics of clear boundary and stability. It can be seen from above that the formation of final carrier is different.

Through the comparisons of the above six aspects, we understand that there are many limitations and differences between the differential leadership theory and the LMX theory, from the research perspective, theoretical foundation to cultural presupposition and connotation etc. And their adaptations are Chinese society and Western society separately. Researcher Guo (2011) asserted that compared to the differential leadership theory, the LMX theory is not likely to fully describe and explain the leadership-member relationships in Chinese context. So, we should choose the differential theory to explain the unique leadership phenomenon in China. It is more in line with the situation of Chinese organizations.

### **2.1.2 The structure dimensions of the differential leadership**

As mentioned above, there are insufficient studies about the differential leadership. In particular, most research only related about the explanation of leadership phenomena, in lack of systematic and comprehensive theoretical constructions. In the literature review of the differential leadership, it is necessary to elaborate the structure dimensions.

Domestic and oversea scholars have their own views and defining criteria. Xu, Zheng, and Huang (2002) defined the management behavior as information share, decision-making participation, care and trust. Cheng et al. (2002) gives definition as the benevolence, empowerment, communication, compassion, disclosure and trust. Xu (2004a) further asserted that management behavior includes three aspects: individual care, promotion and communication. Based on previous research results, Jiang and Zhang (2010) developed differential leadership scale. They thought that, in contrast to “outside” subordinates, leaders would have partial treatment to their “inside” subordinates. To be more specific, this mainly manifests in three aspects: care and communication, promotion and awards, tolerance for mistakes.

Firstly, care and communication. It refers to the different extent of interactions and communications between leaders and subordinates in the work and daily life. Leaders usually tend to favor their inside subordinates in the decision-making communications and support. Xu, Zheng, and Huang (2002) pointed out that inside subordinates are likely to have more opportunities than outside subordinates in the decision-making participation, sometimes even influencing the decisions of leaders. Cheng et al. (2002) discovered that leaders will give those inside subordinates the rights of decision-making participation and work empowerment.

Besides, leaders prefer to be closer with inside subordinates and give more care and encouragement no matter in the workplace or in private life.

Secondly, promotion and rewards. It refers that there is difference in the rewards that leaders give to subordinates in the resource allocation. Xu (2004b) believed that inside subordinates have more opportunities in the workplace and can get more rewards due to the work performance. And in other aspects, leaders are likely to offer inside subordinates more training opportunities, and even make career development and plan for subordinates personally.

Thirdly, tolerance for mistakes. It refers that leaders have different responses to their subordinates who have the same negative behavior. That is to say, the tolerance of leaders is different in the seriousness and error rate. If inside subordinates make mistakes in the workplace, leaders will be tolerant and forgive. If outside subordinates make mistakes in the workplace, leaders are possibly not tolerant and even seriously blame.

Presently, the measurement of the differential leadership mainly applies the differential leadership scale by Jiang and Zhang (2010), which have been examined with good reliability and validity in many studies. Therefore, we adopted the research results of Jiang and Zhang (2010), that is, the differential leadership has three dimensions, namely, care and communication, promotion and rewards, tolerance for mistakes.

### **2.1.3 Main influence of the differential leadership theory**

Presently, the studies of the differential leadership theory in China are still on the starting stage. There are already some research results, but compared to kinds of mature theories overseas, there still exists limitations. With an increasing number of scholars starting to explore in this area, the effect of the differential leadership theory on the work performance, altruistic behavior, organizational identity and employee innovation has been gradually revealed.

#### **2.1.3.1 Job performance**

In the field of the organizational behavior, job performance is used to evaluate employee's efficiency because it represents subordinates' behavioral performance, which means the output that employees obtained from their obligations in the required working scope and other behaviors that is helpful to achieve organizational targets.

Leaders often treat subordinates differently, which generally can affect the psychological activities and behaviors of the subordinates. Farmer and Aguinis (2005) believed that subordinates are more likely to rely on their leaders because of the unique atmosphere of

humanism and the different allocation of resources. With the increasing pressure of organizational performance, the level of dependency of subordinates on leaders is higher, and subordinates possibly will satisfy their leaders' requirements.

The behaviors caused by the differential leadership can improve subordinates' work performance no matter whether it is the organizational mandatory or internal voluntary.

Leaders show partiality to these inside subordinates. This is similar to the closeness and encouragement of parents to children. Such kind of behaviors will make these "insiders" have a sense of dependence on the leader, which undoubtedly take positive effects on employees' performance. On the other hand, once leaders show preference to these "insiders", those "outsiders" will have a strong sense of deprivation. According to the relative deprivation theory by Martin (1981), when employees have a strong sense of deprivation, and they believe they can change the situations by their effort, there would be positive effects such spontaneous self-enhancement and active change. For instance, employees exert more efforts and are more responsible, as well as making constructive comments to leaders. Those "outside" subordinates will change their working behaviors continuously to get leaders' acceptance. That is to say, "outside" subordinates will take various measures to improve their performance to get leaders' partial treatment no matter it is the role or extra-role.

#### **2.1.3.2 Altruistic behavior**

Altruistic behavior is part of organizational citizenship behaviors. Barnard (1939) describes the organizational citizenship behavior as everyone cooperates with each other voluntarily in the organization. The voluntary cooperation here includes not only the obligations in the working contract but also the individuals' spontaneous activities to improve performance. Katz (1964) argues that in order to improve job performance and keep the organization to be operated effectively, employees must be integrated into the organization and behave spontaneously to achieve the organization goal, additionally, with some creative behaviors. In other words, for the complement of the working goals, there needs both the contract obligation, and the willingness to do some activities voluntarily which are beneficial to organizations.

In Yang (2009)'s opinion, different treatment of leaders can enable the "inside" subordinates not only to depend on leaders to some extent but also to try to dedicate their time and efforts to help others after they finish their working duties. As a matter of fact, this makes leaders tend to be partial, and makes subordinates have a strong gratitude and high recognition toward organizations. This kind of gratitude and recognition can be seen from much sincere

hardworking, and extra-role activities which are beneficial to organizations. For example, these subordinates will help colleagues or assist leaders to acquire high level of working output.

### **2.1.3.3 Organizational identity**

Organizational identity is often used to study the emotional and cognitive states of members to the organization they belong to. Ashforth and Mael (1989) defined organizational identity as an individual's cognition, a strong sense of self-belonging and identity to the organization. Haslam (2001) has a similar idea that organizational identity is self-defining by identity of membership. However, in the further research, Ashforth and Johnson (2001) found that, employees not only have a sense of organizational identity but also a sense of leaders' identity. Tu and Li (2012) pointed out that compared to organizational identity, leaders' identity is more important in Chinese context. So, leaders' identity has a significant influence in China.

We can understand leader's identity from social identity theory. According to self-categorization theory by Turner (1985), when individuals get a deep understanding about their social groups, and make assessment about their value in groups or organizations, they will have a self-concept. Tajfel (1970) believes personal identity and social identity constitute the individual self-concept. Deschamps and Devos (1998) assert that personal identity refers to the special characteristics of individuals, that is, each person's unique characteristic which is different from others. While social identity refers that individuals learn that they are a group in the society, and they realize that this group has similar backgrounds with themselves.

Due to personal identity, the "inside" subordinates naturally have the emotional recognition about leaders. The "outside" subordinates are likely to keep away from their groups subconsciously because of their relative disadvantage compared with "inside" subordinates. So, they will approach "inside" subordinates to learn from the groups highly recognized in order to make more progress. Such kind of behavior might improve the recognition of "outside" subordinates about leaders.

### **2.1.3.4 Employee innovation**

Employee innovation behavior is associated with employee creativity. Amabile (1988) gave definition to employee innovation that in an organization, employees can bring short-term or long-term application behavior, and come up with new ideas. That is to say, employee innovation refers to the new and potentially valuable works or ideas of employees, such as new products, new service, new methods to manufacture, even new management process and promotion strategy. In fact, it serves as a source of motivation for companies to survive and

grow in fiercely competitive environment.

The role of leaders play has close relationships with the motivation of employee creativity. Therefore, it is of great practical significance to do the influencing research of the differential leadership on employee innovation. There are some studies show that, although the differential leadership can influence creativity of both “inside” and “outside” subordinates, yet the internal effect mechanism is different. For “inside” subordinates, on the one hand, they have gratitude to leaders, on the other hand, they compete with their outside peers, both of which can influence the generation of creativity. For “outside” subordinates, on the one hand, they want to get leaders’ partial treatment, on the other hand, they feel unsatisfied in the real context, both of which leading to the generation of creativity. Other studies found that innovative atmosphere also affects the role of differential leadership plays on employee creativity. When the degree of innovative atmosphere is high, more differential leadership will have more significance on the incentives of employee creativity. Conversely, when the level of innovative atmosphere is low, more differential leadership will otherwise inhibit employee creativity. As a consequence, in order to make full use of the differential leadership in promoting innovative activities, good team innovative atmosphere should be created in the organization.

In summary, the differential leadership can improve work performance of both “inside” and “outside” subordinates, as well as deepen their recognition about leaders, and encourage them to take altruism and self-innovative activities. Thus, the research of the differential leadership has made forward a further step.

## **2.2 Literature review and research hypothesis of the main effect model**

### **2.2.1 The structural dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior**

The extant studies of the content of organizational citizenship behavior basically hold consistency. However, there is still no consensus on the structural dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. Different scholars have different scales according to their research purpose. From the related literature reviews about this, the most widely accepted scales are the two-dimension structure and five-dimension structure.

Initially, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) put forward to the two-dimension structure of organizational citizenship behavior (see Table 2-1).

Table 2 - 1 Two-dimension structure of organizational citizenship behavior

Dimensions	Content
Altruism	In the workplace, employees spontaneously assist colleagues or organizations to get more benefits.
Generalized Compliance	Employees follow rules and regulations about the management and attendance in the workplace.

Source: Smith, Organ, and Near (1983)

After that, Organ (1988) proposed that there are five dimensions of the organizational citizenship behavior (see Table 2-2), including altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, courtesy and civic virtue. Additionally, Philip, Podsakoff, and Scott (2000) divided organizational citizenship behaviors into seven dimensions: helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development.

Table 2 - 2 Five-dimension structure of organizational citizenship behavior

Dimension	Content
Civic Virtue	Active and responsible participation in life of the organization
Altruism	Helping people to solve important problems for the organization
Conscientiousness	Behavior that goes beyond what is requested in assiduity, obey norms, or manage breaks for example
Sportsmanship	Being able to bear with not unsatisfactory circumstances without complaining
Courtesy	Dealing with working relationships with others, and strictly demand their own words and behaviors.

The research of the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior in the west has been very mature, and such studies in Chinese context have also been given priority by Chinese scholars. For example, Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) firstly proposed that organizational citizenship behavior in context of Chinese culture consists of five dimensions: organizational identity, altruistic behavior, interpersonal harmony, professionalism, and protection of corporate resources. (see Appended Table 1). Subsequently, Farh, Zhong, and Organ (2000) specified the dimensions and extended to ten dimensions, including proactive, helping colleagues, expressing opinions, participation in group activities, promoting corporate image, consciously learning, participation in public welfare activities, maintaining and saving, keeping the working

environment tidy and interpersonal harmony (see Appended Table 2).

As shown from the comparisons in above tables, there are many similarities, as well as differences in the dimensions of division of OCB between China and west. For example, OCB in Chinese cultural context demonstrates the specialties like interpersonal harmony and participation in public welfare activities. While, in the west, there are special dimensions like sportsmanship. However, Coyle (2002) proposed that there are five dimensions of the organizational citizenship behavior, including advocating participation, mutual assistance, functional participation, loyalty, obedience. We adopted the research results of Coyle (2002).

### **2.2.2 The structural dimensions of counterproductive behavior**

Reviewing large amount of current literatures, scholars have different research focuses and propose different dimensions of counterproductive behavior. Generally speaking, the more common structural dimensions include one-dimension, two-dimension, three-dimension, four-dimension, five - dimension.

One-dimension model. Hollinger and Clark (1982) initially started research about counterproductive behavior and proposed the one-dimension structure including production deviance and property deviance. The reason for single dimension model is that, in the classification system, Hollinger only considered the counterproductive behavior of employees directing to organizations. The property deviance refers to the behaviors destroying corporate resources like stealing corporate property or damaging organizational facilities on purpose. Production deviance refers to the behaviors disobeying company rules, thus reducing the working standards, like early leave, absenteeism. These two kinds of behaviors can both influence organizational performance.

Two-dimension structure model. Robinson and Bennett (1995) used multidimensional metrics to put forward two latent scales of counterproductive behavior, including organizational orientation and interpersonal orientation. The former mainly includes the production deviance and property deviance. The production deviance includes absenteeism and sabotage. The property deviance includes theft and vandalism. Interpersonal orientation includes political deviant behavior and personal offensive deviant behavior. Political deviance includes spreading rumors and secretly framed. While personal attacking deviance includes harmful words and personal attacks. Yang and Diefendorff (2009) proposed that there are two dimensions of the counterproductive behavior, including organizational orientation and interpersonal orientation.

Three-dimension structure model. Baron and Kenny (1986) originally proposed and did

studies focusing on the specific attacking behaviors of counterproductive behavior. He divided this kind of attacking behavior into three scales, including hostile behaviors, deliberate prohibition, and word attacks. Hostile behavior refers to the behavior violating organizational goals. Deliberate prohibition refers to the hindrance to achievement of organizational goals. Word attacks refer to the behavior publicly damaging or insulting the reputation of organizations or individuals.

Four-dimension structure model. Yang, Hannah, and Chen (2011) conducted a survey by sending questionnaire to MBA students major in human resources management, and they found that, in Chinese context, there are four dimensions of counterproductive behavior, including production fault, illegal behavior, benefits for individuals by damaging organizational interests, and cooperate destruction. Yang and Lu (2010) further proposed that, these four dimensions clearly help explain the counterproductive behavior in Chinese situation. And the production fault plays the most important role among them.

Five-dimension structure model. Famous scholar Spector firstly proposed the model and it consists of word attacking others, production fault, vandalism, theft and work alienation. Accordingly, considering Chinese organization culture, domestic scholar Liu (2009) proposed a five-dimension structure model of counterproductive behavior, including sabotage, corruption, hostile destruction, power abuse and corporate political behavior.

We adopted the research results of Yang and Diefendorff (2009), namely, there are two dimensions of the counterproductive behavior, including organizational orientation and interpersonal orientation.

### **2.2.3 Research hypothesis and theoretical foundation**

#### **2.2.3.1 Differential leadership and organizational citizenship behavior**

Organ (1988) formally proposed the term “organizational citizenship behavior”, and defined it as a kind of spontaneous individual behavior which is not directly recognized by formal rewarding system but can improve organizational performance. Afterwards, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) defined the organizational citizenship behavior as a kind of individual behavior of employees which is not directly recognized by formal rewarding system but can improve organizational performance. As studies develop, Organ (1997) redefined the organizational citizenship behavior, and pointed out that it is a kind of behavior which can maintain and enhance the social and psychological environment of organizations. Podsakoff et al. (2000) did empirical studies and found that the antecedent variables of organizational

citizenship behavior mainly include two categories: individual characteristics of employees and organizational situational factors. Leadership style and leadership behavior work as the variables in the organizational context level. The influence of leadership on employee behavior has widely attracted scholars' attention Burke (2006). Particularly, the influence of transformational leadership behavior on organizational citizenship behavior has been proved in many studies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Moorman, 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Moorman, 1996; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Radostina, Joyce, & Jessica, 2006; Euwema, Wendt, & Emmerik, 2007; Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2018). Bass (1995) argued that transformational leadership can enable followers to realize the meaning and value of their working responsibility, and motivate employees to have high level of psychological needs, and thus promote them to make extra efforts beyond individual interests in the process of achieving organizational targets. Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that, leaders with transformational style always proactive to give subordinates individual care and motive their intelligence, therefore, they can acquire high recognitions from employees, and make followers perform corresponding organizational citizenship behavior.

Due to the distinct difference of culture between west and east, several Chinese scholars also conducted empirical research about the relationships between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese cultural context. For example, Li and Shi (2003) used MLQ (Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire) to study the effectiveness of transformational leadership behavior, and they found that personalized care, leadership charm and intelligence motivation have a significantly positive effect on extra efforts of employees. Chen and Farh (1999) classified transformational leadership into relationship orientation and task orientation and the results showed that two kinds of transformational leadership all have a positive impact on organizational citizenship behavior of employees. However, although the positive influence of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese cultural context was proved, yet Zhang and Chen (2004) contended that, the past history and current reality all demonstrate that most leaders in China perform more transactional leadership behavior, and the transformational leadership just works as an effective complement. Xu and Shi (2005) pointed that, the focus on the theoretical and empirical studies on transactional leadership is more likely to conform to Chinese objective reality and management practices.

In fact, transactional and transformational leadership are not absolutely opposite and independent, and leaders perform both transactional and transformational leadership behavior

in order to improve the work motivation of employees (Howell & Avolio, 1993). However, different from transformational leaders who can motivate followers to have high-level psychological needs, the transactional leaders do instant motivation to exchange value of economic, political, psychological with the subordinates, so as to achieve the goal of effective motivation (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Additionally, the theory of transformational leadership developed on the basis of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943), while the theory of transactional leadership developed based on Path - Goal Theory (Robert, 1977) and Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), LMX. Therefore, in the explanation of the influence of transactional leadership on subordinate behavior, the widely used theory is the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Although there is a big difference in the concept between differential leadership and transactional leadership, in particular, for transactional leadership theory (Hollander, 1978), there is no classification of employees, which can lead to different behaviors to insider and outsider. Yet, from two core dimensions of transactional leadership, contingent reward and management-by-exception is actually to some extent consistent with the partial behavior (i.e., care and communication, promotion and reward and tolerance of mistakes) of differential leadership. Therefore, social exchange theory can be completely made use to analyze the influence of differential leadership on organizational behavior.

Barnard proposed the concept of social exchange in 1938, after that, in Inducement-contribution Model, March and Simon (1958) defined the concept as the exchange relationships between employee efforts and certain kind rewards offered by organizations, in other words, employees pay time, energy and intelligence to get rewards that employees want to get, such as job promotion or material rewards or spiritual rewards, which are determined by the organization. Then, Blau (1964) further classified all exchanging behavior in human social life into economic exchange and social exchange in general. The economic exchange base on the clear contract, while the social exchange is a kind of voluntary behavior based on trust among people. Therefore, according to social exchange theory, when employees perceive the differential leadership of leaders, they are likely to have a sense of trust to the leaders, and the strong willingness of social exchange is activated between employees and leaders. Next, in order to ensure the social exchange with leaders proceed smoothly, that is, in the future continually receiving leader behavior such as promotion and reward, communication and care, tolerance of mistakes, employees are likely to require themselves in high working standards, and then perform organizational citizenship behavior like mutual assistance, obedience, active

participation. The following is elaborated,

First, supervisors show more promotion and reward behavior to followers. In the perspective of working process, this means that subordinates can acquire more resources and opportunities. In the perspective of work results, this means that subordinates can acquire more salaries and rewards. According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), in order to acquire the effective exchange in kinds of resources and opportunities, salaries and rewards, employees should make every effort. On one hand, they have to fulfill their job duties seriously, on the other hand, they need to make contributions to leaders and organizations except the required job responsibility, that is, they have the corresponding organizational citizenship behavior.

Second, supervisors show more communication and care behavior to followers, which means that supervisors and followers interact and communicate more frequently. This to the large extent can satisfy the psychological needs of interpersonal communication. The most important is that in Chinese cultural context, the information that leaders know is more abundant and valuable, so the unblocked information communication channel can help employees acquire more important information related with their work or even life. According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), in order to effectively exchange, employees have a strong work motivation and behavior organizational citizenship behavior.

Finally, supervisors show more tolerance of mistakes behavior toward followers. This means that when confronting various of problems and mistakes made by employees in the workplace, leaders can have a relatively tolerant attitude, or even take the initiative to help them cover the mistakes and take all responsibility. According to the normal organizational management rules, followers should be punished if they make mistakes, but this can definitely bring economic loss and psychological frustration, so the tolerance of mistakes behavior performed by supervisors can help followers avoid these problems. According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), in order to effectively exchange the avoided punishment and frustration, followers will trust or even rely on their leaders in a high degree, then they initiatively perform kinds of organizational citizenship behavior beneficial to leaders.

As mentioned before, nowadays there is a large amount of literature which explored the impact of western mature leadership theories on organizational citizenship behavior of employees, and the practical implications of the differential leadership in Chinese cultural context. Therefore, the integration of differential leadership and organizational citizenship behavior in the same research framework and the exploration of the specific influence of differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior have strong theoretical

foundations and a practical significance. But, until now, there are few researches about it.

In summary, there are following hypotheses proposed about the relationships between the differential leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

***H1: The differential leadership perceived by employees significantly positively relates with organizational citizenship behavior, that is, the stronger perception of differential leadership, the more organizational citizenship behavior generated.***

***H1.1 The reward and promotion perceived significantly positively relate with different dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H1.2 The communication and care perceived significantly positively relate with different dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H1.3 The tolerance of mistakes perceived significantly positively relates with different dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

#### **2.2.3.2 Differential leadership and counterproductive behavior**

The influence of leadership on organizational citizenship behavior has attracted a large number of scholars' extensive attentions, but the amount of literature about the impact of leadership on counterproductive behavior obviously reduced (Holtz & Harold, 2013). In fact, from the existing literature of antecedent variables of counterproductive behavior, except personality traits such as amenity, extraversion and responsibility, and negative emotions and attribution style (Colbert, Mount, & Harter, 2004; Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006; Mount, Vies, & Johnson, 2006; Allen, 2007; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007), the negative situations employees confronting in the workplace have been proved to be the key factor causing counterproductive behavior. These negative situations include heavy and tough work tasks, complex interpersonal relationships, negative organizational culture and work climate (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). As a matter of fact, according to the stress-emotion model of counterproductive behavior proposed by Spector and Fox (2005), the reason of these negative situations causing counterproductive behavior is that it leads to huge working pressure and makes employees have strong boring emotions. Based on this, counterproductive behavior is actually a kind of retaliation behavior performed by employees towards specific organizational members or organizations due to negative events or negative emotions. Personality traits, affective features, and attribution styles all determine the degree of retaliation intention and self-control level, thus take effects on counterproductive behavior (Penney, Hunter, & Perry, 2011). There is one point

to mention, in the stress-emotion model, counterproductive behavior is regarded as a kind of retaliation behavior performed by employees towards specific organizational members or organizations due to negative emotions. However, according to the viewpoints proposed by Neuman and Baron (2005), there are two main reasons leading to counterproductive behavior, one is indirectly triggered by retaliation behavior performed by employees towards specific organizational members or organizations, the other is directly driven by instrumental motivation of obtaining specific interests. The core difference mainly demonstrates that, the counterproductive behavior based on retaliation motivation is a kind of passive behavior (or reactive), while the counterproductive behavior based on instrumental motivation is a kind of proactive behavior. In fact, if counterproductive behavior is regarded as proactive behavior based on instrumental motivation, then conservation of resources theory proposed by Hobfoll (1989) can effectively help explain the rationality of this kind of behavior (Witt, Burke, & Barrick, 2002; Zellars, Perrewe, & Hochwarter, 2006; Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). Therefore, we base on conservation of resource theory to analyze the influence of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior.

Conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989) is believed to be an important approach to relieve psychological pressure. So, people have strong motivations to protect and acquire these tangible and intangible resources which are valuable to them. As can be seen from the following Table 2-3, these resources include physical resources, identity resources, personal resources and broad energy resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Hobfoll (1989) argued that, when employees in organizations meet the resource shortage or resource loss (in the three forms, the loss of resources, the risk to lose resources, and unable to acquire new resources under the large input of resources), they will experience psychological pressure. In order to relieve such pressure, they proactively take kinds of measures to realize the resource compensation. However, if they cannot acquire effective compensations due to resource shortage or loss, they will have psychological distortion because of psychological pressure. In the subsequent studies, Krischer, Penney, and Hunter (2010) found that Conservation of resource theory can help explain not only the phenomenon of psychological pressure or distortion, but also kinds of distorting phenomenon including counterproductive behavior, because psychological distortion and behavioral distortion actually have high correlations. For example, when employees confront unfair distributions, they will behave negatively slack or malicious competition such counterproductive behavior, so as to make attempts to help themselves realize the resource compensation to some extent. In fact, various counterproductive behaviors in this kind of

situations are tactical behaviors that employees perform based on the perspective of conservation of resource, rather than passive behavior based on retaliatory motivation.

As can be seen below, according to conservation of resource theory, when supervisors have differential leadership behavior, employees are more likely to acquire various resources in Table 2-3.

Table 2 - 3 The main resources of conservation of resources theory

Personal transportation (car, truck, etc.).	Stable employment.	Knowing where I am going with my life.
Feeling that I am successful.	Intimacy with spouse or partner.	Affection from others.
Time for adequate sleep.	Adequate home furnishings.	Financial stability.
Good marriage.	Feeling that I have control over my life.	Feeling that my life has meaning/ propose.
Adequate clothing.	Role as a leader.	Positive feeling about myself.
Feeling valuable to others.	Ability to communicate well.	People I can learn from.
Family stability.	Providing children's essentials.	Money for transportation.
Free time.	Feeling that my life is peaceful.	Help with tasks at work.
More clothing than I need*.	Acknowledgement of my accomplishments.	Medical insurance.
Sense of pride in myself.	Ability to organize tasks.	Involvement with church, synagogue, etc.
Intimacy with one or more family members.	Extras for children.	Retirement security (financial).
Time for work.	Sense of commitment.	Help with tasks at home.
Feelings that I am accomplishing my goals.	Intimacy with at least one friend.	Loyalty of friends.
Good relationship with my children.	Money for extras.	Money for advancement or self-improvement (education, starting a business)
Time with loved ones.	Self-discipline.	Help with child care.
Necessary tools for work.	Understanding from my employer/ boss.	Involvement in organizations with others who have similar interests.
Hope.	Savings or emergency money.	Financial help if needed.
Children's health.	Motivation to get things done.	Health of family/ close friends.
Stamina/ endurance.	Spouse/ partner's health.	Sense of human.
Necessary home appliances.	Support from co-workers.	Larger home than I need*.
Feeling that my future success depends on me.	Adequate income.	
Positively challenging routine.	Feeling that I know who I am.	
Personal health.	Advancement in education or job training.	
Housing that suits my needs.	Adequate financial credit.	
Sense of optimism.	Feeling independent.	
Status/ seniority at work.	Companionship.	
Adequate food.	Financial assets (stocks, property, etc.)	

Source: Hobfoll (2001)

For example, perception of self-value to others, working status, recognition of skills, sense of belonging, the understanding of leaders etc. However, if supervisors do not perform differential leadership behavior, employees are blocked to get access to above resources, and the likelihood is greatly reduced. This may cause employees to be stuck in the tough situation of resource shortage. Although according to relative deprivation theory proposed by Martin (1981). Employees who act as outsiders have a strong sense of deprivation, and believe that

they could make efforts to become leaders' insiders, they proactively have motivations of self-enhancing and positive changing. But there are two premises of relatively deprivation theory, for one, employees believe they can make efforts to change the current states, for the other, employees have recognition of the classification of insiders and outsiders among subordinates by supervisors. If these two premises are not established, then employees who are not treated as insiders are more likely to be in the state of resource shortage. Therefore, they have stronger motivation to fulfill resource compensation by counterproductive behavior. To be more specific: First, leaders perform less reward and promotion behavior towards subordinates. This means that the subordinates may think that the leader is not optimistic about him, so that he cannot obtain some tangible and intangible resources, such as status / seniority at work, hope, feeling that I am successful, adequate income, sense of commitment, help with tasks at work, etc. According to conservation of resources theory, in order to achieve resource compensation, it is likely for employees to have counterproductive behaviors, such as work procrastination, pretending work, establishing small groups, encroaching properties of the company, damaging work environment and doing vicious competition with others.

Second, leaders show less communication and care behavior towards subordinates. It means that followers cannot get kinds of tangible and intangible resources listed in Table 2-3, like the sense of belonging, support from colleagues, love of others, supervisors' understanding and helping others to complete tasks. According to conservation of resource theory, in order to achieve resource compensation, employees are likely to perform counterproductive behavior, such as making use of their professional advantages to deceive supervisors and colleagues, ignoring or not reporting when finding problems, deliberately telling others wrong knowledge or methods, disseminating unconfirmed gossip or even rumors or seek loopholes of the systems and norms of companies to earn profits.

Finally, leaders show less tolerance of mistakes behavior. It means that followers cannot get kinds of tangible and intangible resources listed in Table 2-3, like, hope, the sense of belonging, being recognized by others, loyalty of friends, understanding of leaders, friendship of colleagues. According to conservation of resources theory, in order to achieve resources compensation, employees possibly have counterproductive behaviors, such as carelessly dealing with their work, wasting time in workplace, bringing work barriers to colleagues in other departments, making use of their power or work convenience to harm or retaliate against colleagues, conveying individual ideas unconducive to the company or using professional advantages to deceive leaders or colleagues.

To sum up, based on the three dimensions of differential leadership (communication and care; reward and promotion; tolerance of mistakes) proposed by Jiang and Zhang (2010), the following hypotheses about the relationships between differential leadership and counterproductive behavior are proposed in this research:

***H2. The differential leadership significantly negatively relates with counterproductive behavior, that is, the stronger employees perceive the differential leadership behavior, the less counterproductive behavior they have.***

***H2.1 The reward and promotion behavior employees perceived significantly negatively affect all dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H2.2 The communication and care behavior employees perceived significantly negatively affect all dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H2.3 The tolerance of mistakes behavior employees perceived significantly negatively affect all dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

## **2.3 The literature review and research hypotheses of mediating effect model**

### **2.3.1 The structural dimension of psychological empowerment and the identity cognition of insiders**

#### **2.3.1.1 The structural dimension of psychological empowerment**

Many scholars have done research on the structural dimensions of psychological empowerment. Currently, there are three general types, separately, unidimensional structure, three-dimension structure and four-dimension structure.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) initially proposed the unidimensional psychological empowerment and believed that psychological empowerment is the motivation component of self-efficacy. That is to say, the realizing process of psychological empowerment is actually the demonstration of self-efficacy. Later, Fulford and Enz (1995) firstly proposed the three-dimension structure of psychological empowerment, including the meaning of work, self-efficacy and individual influence. After that, Menon (2001) proposed the new three-dimension structure on basis of Conger's unidimensional structure: competence, control and goal internalization. The competence here is similar to the self-efficacy by Conger and Kanungo (1988). Control is the self-perception of the authority, which is the most intuitive feeling. Goal internalization is to make the organization goal highly unified or consistent with the individual

goal, which in fact giving the authorized individual much incentives.

Based on the research of Conger and Kanungo (1988), Thomas and Velthouse (1990) proposed four-dimension structure, mainly including the meaning of work, self-efficacy, self-decision-making and work influence. The meaning of work refers to the value individual perceived about work. Self-efficacy refers to the ability to accomplish organizational goals from the individual cognition. Self-decision-making refers to the perception of autonomy in the decision-making. Work influence refers to the perception of the influence of individual work on organizations. The four-dimension structure actually reflects the different changes of individual psychological cognition resulting from psychological empowerment. On this basis, Spreitzer (1995) proposed a four-dimensional theory with the same latitude division as Thomas and Velthouse (1990). We adopted the scale developed by Spreitzer (1995), but it just a unidimensional construct in this study.

#### **2.3.1.2 The structural dimension of the identity cognition of insiders**

Only Stamper and Masterson (2002) proposed unidimensional structure in the present research about the structural dimensions of the identity cognition of insiders. However, this is not actually comprehensive. For example, leaders and managers have different meanings of identity cognition of insiders, which would fail to be covered by one dimension. Additionally, considering Chinese organizational cultural context, there is likely to be a division of the dimension of insiders' identity cognition involving Chinese characteristics. We adopted the research results of Stamper and Masterson (2002).

### **2.3.2 The mediating effect of psychological empowerment**

#### **2.3.2.1 From differential leadership to psychological empowerment**

In the research of influence of leadership on performance, psychological empowerment is usually regarded as an important mediating variable (Vandenberghe, 1999). In particular, under the Chinese cultural context, the impact of psychological empowerment on the exploration of transformational leadership effectiveness as well as its effect on positive behavior of employees is very effective (Liu & Zou, 2013; Tang, 2014). Spreitzer (1995) argued that psychological empowerment actually represents one kind of cognition of employees about their own roles. The important basis which can help employees to have such role cognition is the relationship between them and others (mainly supervisors). If they have stronger and more positive cognition about relationships, the degree of psychological empowerment is higher. Based on

this, he proposed four dimensions of psychological empowerment: Self-esteem, internal/external Locus of control, access to information, reward. The corresponding empirical research has proved that self-esteem, access to information and reward can significantly affect the psychological empowerment. Additionally, Koberg, Boss, and Senjem (1999) found the factors like, employees are trusted by other team members and whether employees have effective influence have a significant influence on psychological empowerment, and Sigler and Christine (2000) found the power distance between employees and leaders. Butts, Vandenberg, and David (2009) found that work support provided by leaders can have a significant impact on psychological empowerment of employees.

In fact, Dienesch and Liden (1986) have long found that, there is obvious difference in the way leaders towards subordinates. For those subordinates who have high quality of leadership-member exchange relationships, leaders usually tend to adopt communication and negotiation as their work way, while for those subordinates who have low quality of leadership-member exchange relationships, leaders usually tend to adopt stick control and regulatory orders as their work way. Therefore, the followers who are treated differently have different psychological empowerment. Actually, many follow-up scholars also did studies to prove that leadership-member exchange could significantly improve psychological empowerment of employees (Wat & Shaffer, 2005; Hill, Kang, & Seo, 2014; Newman, Schwarz, & Cooper, 2017). Based on this, we use cognitive valuation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to analyze the specific influence of differential leadership on psychological empowerment. The cognitive valuation theory is mainly used to help explain the effect mechanism of social background or environment on individual inside motivation. According to cognitive valuation theory, ability to perceive and self-determination in the working process have an important influence on internal motivation. Based on this, Deci and Ryan (1985) further found that, communication, positive feedback can enhance individual ability to perceive and self-determination, and help improve internal motivation. Whereas, restrictions, rules and threats can reduce individual ability to perceive and self-determination, and weaken internal motivation. In fact, the ability to perceive and self-determination are consistent with psychological empowerment, or even have similarities. According to cognitive valuation theory, when supervisors have differential leadership towards subordinates, they usually give more communication and care, as well as more positive work feedback. Additionally, when employees make mistakes in the work, leaders have more tolerance to help them to solve problems. This all obviously improve the ability to perceive and self-determination in the workplace (i.e., psychological empowerment). Due to this, there are

following research hypotheses proposed about the relationships between differential leadership and psychological empowerment.

***H3. Differential leadership perceived significantly positively relates with psychological empowerment, that is, the stronger perception of the differential leadership, the more psychological empowerment.***

***H3.1. Reward and promotion perceived significantly positively affect psychological empowerment.***

***H3.2 Communication and care perceived significantly positively affect psychological empowerment.***

***H3.3 Tolerance of mistakes perceived significantly positively affects psychological empowerment.***

#### **2.3.2.2 Psychological empowerment to organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior.**

Deci and Ryan (1985) proposed self-decision theory to explain the formation process of human being self-determination. The theory is not only one branch of cognitive valuation theory, but also an important theoretical genre for studying individual subjective well-being. According to self-decision theory, there are three basic individual needs, competence, belongingness, autonomy. The satisfying of these needs can make individual perceive happiness, which are also internal life targets. The need of autonomy is the need of self-determination, which symbolizing the flexibility to master and control the interplay between themselves and the environment. When individuals can make self-determination, they are free to choose actions, rather than being forced or restricted (Deci & Ryan, 1985). For employees, self-determination means that when they can complete certain task, they can make their own decisions about the working methods, deadline and resources arrangement. That is to say, self-determination to some extent actually reflects individual psychological empowerment. According to self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), when individual autonomy need is satisfied, they can experience self-realization and happiness, the behavior is more positive and proactive. Therefore, from this aspect, when autonomy need is satisfied, that is, the sense of psychological empowerment is high, employees have more happiness and self-realization. Based on this, they possibly perform more organizational citizenship behavior and less counterproductive behavior.

Actually, Spreitzer (1995) argued that psychological empowerment actually represents employee cognition of their role. When employees have positive cognition about their own role,

they tend to believe that they could complete tasks excellently, otherwise, if they have negative cognition about their own role, they tend to doubt whether they can accomplish tasks perfectly. Similarly, according to the social exchange theory, employees who believe that they can complete work tasks excellently, have organizational citizenship behavior to further get trust and empowerment of leaders, except their internal motivation to finish role tasks. And according to conservation of resources theory, employees who doubt that whether they could finish tasks perfectly, possibly face resource loss and resource shortage, then they have psychological and behavioral distortions, and finally do resource compensation by counterproductive behavior. Based on this, there are following hypotheses proposed about the relationships between psychological empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior as well as counterproductive behavior.

***H4. Psychological empowerment significantly positively relates with organizational citizenship behavior, that is, more psychological empowerment, more organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H5. Psychological empowerment significantly negatively relates with counterproductive behavior, that is, more psychological empowerment, less counterproductive behavior.***

#### **2.3.2.3 Differential leadership to psychological empowerment to organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior.**

In the past theories or studies about the influence of leadership on employee attitudes and behaviors, psychological empowerment has been proved to an important mediating variable. For example, Avolio et al. (2004) confirmed the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the influence of transformation leadership on organizational commitment. Hill, Kang, and Seo (2014) found that leadership-member exchange has a significant effect on job performance and organizational citizenship behavior, which is moderated by whether their work highly depending on electronic information device for communication. But Schermuly and Meyer (2016) used the longitudinal research methods to collect empirical data in two stages and found that, psychological empowerment acts as a mediating variable in the influence of leadership-member exchange and team member exchange on employee emotional exhaustions and job depressions. Some Chinese scholars also confirmed the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in Chinese cultural context, for example, Chen, Jia, and Li (2006) verified psychological empowerment has a mediating effect in the influencing process of transformational leadership on organizational commitment. Ding and Xi (2007) confirmed that the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the influencing of transformational

leadership on organizational citizenship behavior. Liang and Chen (2008) explored whether four dimensions of psychological empowerment had the mediating effect in the influencing of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behavior, and the results showed that only two dimensions of sense of meaning and ability to perceived had the mediating effect. Besides that, Liu and Zou (2013) found the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the influencing of transformational leadership on employee creativity. Shi and Yang (2015) found the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the influencing of transformational leadership on prosocial violation behavior. As a result, psychological empowerment is a guiding mechanism of attitudes and behaviors based on psychological motivations. It itself is an invisible mediating variable. Therefore, it is reasonable for leadership takes effects on attitudes and behaviors through psychological empowerment. Employees respond to how their leaders treat them, and change their behaviors according to the concrete situations, and link antecedent variables and outcome variables. To be more specific, in the working process, when leaders treat employees differently, employees can have different psychological empowerment, thus they perform different organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive behaviors.

Combining with related theories for H1, H3, H4, first, based on social exchange theory, differential leadership has a significant influence on organizational citizenship behavior, second, based on cognitive evaluation theory, differential leadership has a significant impact on psychological empowerment. Finally, based on self-determination and social exchange theory, psychological empowerment has a significant influence on organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed about the role of psychological empowerment in the effect of differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior.

***H6. Psychological empowerment has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H6.1 Psychological empowerment has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of reward and promotion on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H6.2 Psychological empowerment has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H6.3 Psychological empowerment has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

Similarly, combining with related theories for H1, H2, H5, first, based on conservation of

resources theory, differential leadership has a significant influence on counterproductive behavior, second, based on cognitive evaluation theory, differential leadership has a significant influence on psychological empowerment. Finally, based on self-determination and conservation of resources theory, psychological empowerment has a significant impact on counterproductive behavior. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed about the role of psychological empowerment in the influencing process of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior.

***H7. Psychological empowerment has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H7.1 Psychological empowerment has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of reward and promotion on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H7.2 Psychological empowerment has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H7.3 Psychological empowerment has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

### **2.3.3 The mediating effect of insider identity**

#### **2.3.3.1 Differential leadership → insider identity**

Perceived insider status is the further understanding of research concept about organizational identity (Xu, Zheng, & Huang, 2002). It reflects the individual degree of acceptance as the organizational member and the perception of individual space. It can also be used to measure the sense of belonging in the organizations (Stamper & Masterson, 2002). Jiang and Zhang (2010) pointed out that, differential leadership improves the perception of followers towards equality by leaders, which further supporting “close principle “in traditional Chinese cultural value. That is to say, supervisors’ partial behaviors conform to the anticipation of employees who regard them as insiders deserving more care and attention, and this expectation is in line with Chinese traditional cultural value. Consequently, supervisors have more communication and care, reward and promotion and tolerance of mistakes such behaviors, which can make subordinates acquire more space and more opportunities, as well as more work flexibilities. This meets the expectations of the distance between subordinates and supervisors, and further improves the perception of insider identity.

Wang, Chu, and Ni (2009) found that, insider identity to a large extent is manifested by

the perception of their own status as the insider. Obviously, supervisors who have differential leadership style usually classify employees into insiders and outsiders according to certain criteria (such as intimacy, loyalty and talented). Therefore, when differential leadership performs promotion and reward, communication and care and tolerance of mistakes behaviors, employees have strong sense of insider identity.

From the other perspective, the relationships between employees and other individuals who act as a leading role in particular groups have a significant impact on identity classification and perception in the groups, and this kind of relationships further affects their attitudes and behaviors (Erez & Earley, 1993). Therefore, insider identity significantly improves as the increase of interaction and exchanging relationships between employees and supervisors (Stamper & Masterson, 2002; Chen & Aryee, 2007). In other words, followers who are more intimate with supervisors can usually acquire more care, promotion, reward and tolerance. The access of these resources enables them to believe that they have already been accepted by leaders (or organizations), therefore have strong perception of insider identity (Wang, Chu, & Ni, 2009).

In fact, as mentioned above, according to cognitive evaluation theory, ability to perceive and self-determination in the work process have an important impact on the internal motivation. Based on this, Deci and Ryan (1985) further found that, communication, positive feedback strengthens the ability to perceive and self-determination, while restrictions, rules and threats weaken individual ability to perceive and self-determination. Obviously, communication and care, positive feedback offered by differential leadership to employees, can help improve the ability to perceive and self-determination of employees, and make them perceive being accepted and more individual space (including current good working conditions, and development opportunities in the future). Therefore, insider identity can be significantly enhanced. Based on this, the following hypotheses are proposed about the relationships between differential leadership and insider identity.

***H8 Differential leadership perceived by employees significantly positively relates with insider identity, that is, the stronger perception of the differential leadership, the stronger insider identity.***

***H8.1 Promotion and reward perceived by employees significantly positively relate with insider identity.***

***H8.2 Communication and care perceived by employees significantly positively relate with insider identity.***

***H8.3 Tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees significantly positively relate with insider identity.***

**2.3.3.2 Insider identity → organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior**

Insider identity satisfies employees' needs of belongingness, and increases their sense of belonging (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Stamper & Masterson, 2002). Therefore, employees with a high sense of insider identity usually regard creation benefit and value of organizations as their action rule or work motivation based on this sense of belonging. They proactively take responsibility for some extra-role work beneficial to organizational healthy development, that is, they have more organizational citizenship behavior and more creative behavior (Chen & Aryee, 2007).

In fact, according to work motivation theory (Locke & Henne, 1986), the degree of work involvement is affected by the combination of self and job role. The theory emphasizes whether employees can reach the same cognition about "who am I?" and "what is my job?" (Kahn, 1990). That is to say, employees judge whether it is their duty work according to their identity cognition. Specifically, when they have the same cognition about who am I and what is my job, they think they are one member of the organization, and all work is their responsibility, thus they will have a high work involvement. On the contrary, when they do not have the same cognition about the two questions, they think that they are not one member in the organization, thus the work is not their duty, and the work involvement is low. Zheng (1995) did studies about Chinese family business and found that, due to the factor of being trusted, subordinates with insider identity have more responsibility. They believe that their work is consistent with their work role, so they not only make great efforts to work, but also have high obedience of their work role. They are willing to proactively take responsibility for more extra-role work but beneficial for their organizations, that is, they perform more organizational citizenship behavior. On the contrary, these subordinates without sense of insider identity, usually have cognitions and minds that these jobs are none of their business. So, after they complete required work for their work role, they would not perform organizational citizenship behavior. Xie (2014) argued that, in the discussion of motivation of job involvement in Chinese cultural context, the influence of reciprocity should be considered. Therefore, according to social exchange theory, when getting more freedom, trust and resources, followers with insider identity have strong emotions to their supervisors or organizations, and are willing to do extra-role work as their reciprocation. Based on this, there are following hypotheses about the relationships about the insider identity and organizational citizenship behavior.

***H9. Employee insider identity significantly positively relates with organizational citizenship behavior, that is, employees have stronger sense of insider identity in the work process, then they have more organizational citizenship behavior.***

Merton (1938) pointed that when social culture (or values) creates a serious imbalance between the expectations of people's desire for success and the means of success that social structures can provide, society as a whole is in a state of structural tension. At this time, conflicts or even victims can occur increasingly. For example, when mainstream ideology advocates access to wealth and material needs, but society cannot provide everyone with a way to meet their needs, the whole society is in a state of structural tension. Those people whose needs are seriously unsatisfied, will position their social status irrationality, and have further irrational minds, beliefs and behaviors. From the perspective of micro level, structural strain theory found that, when individuals make a decentralized position at a lower level in their social (or organizational) system, they will have a series of negative emotions because they are unable to achieve goals recognized by their society or organizations, sometimes even they are forced to keep away from social (or organizational) regular track to perform the deviant behavior. Consequently, according to structural strain theory (Merton, 1938), if employees have low insider identity, on one hand, their psychological needs for the desire of success are unable to be satisfied, on the other hand, they are influenced to think that they are unaccepted by their supervisors and organizations, and the deviating self-positioning behavior is generated, as well as the counterproductive behavior. Based on this, the following hypotheses are proposed about the relationships between insider identity and counterproductive behavior.

***H10 Employee insider identity significantly negatively relates with counterproductive behavior, that is, the stronger sense of insider identity in the work process, the less counterproductive behavior.***

### **2.3.3.3 Differential leadership → insider identity → organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior**

Insider identity reflects the strong social identity of employees in teams and organizations (Chen & Aryee, 2007). It promotes employees to have a high degree of identity within teams or organizations, and regard the failure or success of teams or organizations as their own (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1995). When supervisors' partial treatment enables employees to get high insider identity, employees will internalize the team and the organization's interests and goals into their own interest and goals, and they have a sense of citizenship and responsibility. Thus, they are willing to make extra efforts and have strong

motivations and beliefs to control themselves not to perform any behavior bad for interests or goals of their organizations, so that to avoid self-recognition disorders (Festinger, 1954). In fact, the mediating effect of insider identity has attracted many Chinese scholars' attention. For example, Yang (2009) in the studies of relationship governance of Chinese family business pointed out that when supervisors perform partial treatment to insider followers, they can not only improve insider identity of employee, but also allow subordinates to have the sense of trust and dependence. Therefore, employees are willing to dedicate their time and energy to help others finish tasks and think about how to improve the effectiveness of the whole organizations, after the efforts to complete their jobs. Surely, the performance of followers can in turn further help them to get partial treatment of leaders, therefore, there is a positive inner loop between insider identity and organizational citizenship behavior. Yin, Wang, and Huang (2010) found that the more empowerment of leaders, the stronger sense of insider identity of employees, the more organizational citizenship behavior. The high level of insider identity enables employees to have self-cognition and positioning of citizenship, which in turn affects employee behavior. It can be seen that; insider identity is a guiding mechanism of employee attitude and behavior based on self-cognition and position. It itself is an invisible mediating variable. Therefore, it is logically reasonable for the leadership to affect attitudes and behaviors through insider identity.

Combining with related theories for H1, H8, H9, first, based on social exchange theory, differential leadership has a significant impact on organizational citizenship behavior, second, based on cognitive evaluation theory, differential leadership has a significant impact on insider identity. Finally, based on work motivation theory (Locke & Henne, 1986) and social exchange theory, insider identity has a significant impact on organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, there are following hypotheses proposed about the role of insider identity in the influencing process of differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior.

***H11. Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H11.1 Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of promotion and reward on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H11.2 Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H11.3 Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

Similarly, combining with related theories for H2, H8, H10, first, based on conservation of resources theory, differential leadership has a significant impact on counterproductive behavior, second, based on cognitive evaluation theory, differential leadership has a significant impact on insider identity. Finally, based on structural strain theory, insider identity has a significant impact on counterproductive behavior. Therefore, the following hypothesis are proposed about the role of insider identity in the influencing process of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior.

***H12 Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H12.1 Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of promotion and reward on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H12.2 Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H12.3 Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

## **2.4 The literature review and research hypothesis of moderating effect models**

### **2.4.1 The structural dimension of emotional intelligence and ethical climate**

#### **2.4.1.1 The structural dimension of emotional intelligence**

There are several genres in the research area of the emotional intelligence theory. Different genres have different dimensional divisions. Among them, the representative and influencing genres of emotional intelligence in the international academic fields include the following: cognitive ability orientation (Mayer, 2000), work performance orientation (Goleman, 1995), and personality orientation (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

##### **(1) The emotional intelligence theory of cognitive ability orientation**

The most representative emotional intelligence theory of cognitive ability tendency is Mayer (2000)'s emotional intelligence theory. Mayer (2000) argued that emotional intelligence is the ability that individuals can deal with their emotional information precisely and effectively. She divided the structure into four dimensions, from perceiving emotions to managing emotions. It is divided just according the order of development of emotions, from perceiving and

expressing emotions, promoting thinking, understanding and analyzing emotions and regulating emotions. In China, there are many scholars who belong to this genre. Though most researcher draw upon Mayer's theoretical structure model, they also come up with some new ideas. For example, the emotional intelligence proposed by Lu (2005) emphasize on the emotional processing, and by combing with psychology, she found emotional intelligence is a kind of psychological characteristic involving in the whole individual emotional activities.

### (2) Emotional intelligence theory of job performance orientation.

Goleman (1995)'s theory of emotional intelligence is kind of typical work performance orientation. He associated emotional intelligence with work performance. Therefore, his opinions about emotional intelligence are from initial understanding emotions to the later "excellent quality of employees". In the structural model of emotional intelligence, he pointed out that there are five dimensions: perceiving emotions, rationally controlling emotions, self-motivation, understanding other people's emotions, and managing interpersonal relationships. Because the extension of these five dimensions are too broad and the theory seems not much rigorous, Goleman (1998) revised the model to meet the working requirement in the companies. For example, in the explanation of self-motivation, there are increasing descriptions of responsibility etc.

### (3) Emotional intelligence theory of personality orientation

Baron, Jamon, and Barshavit (1997) and Petrides and Furnham (2000) proposed emotional intelligence theory on the basis of personality. Petrides, Perez, and Furnham (2007) argued that emotional intelligence is a kind of personality on the bottom level. Baron, Jamon, and Barshavit (1997) also believed that people with high level of emotional intelligence will be more capable and have more mental health. Compared with the above emotional intelligence of ability orientation and work performance orientation, this kind of emotional intelligence of personality orientation has different measurement scales, yet the contents make not so much difference. Therefore, the personality emotional intelligence model is basically extracted from the ability orientation model and work performance orientation model. It consists of 15 components: emotional expression, emotional management, emotion perception, emotional regulation, low impulse, interpersonal skills, self-esteem, self-motivation, adaptability, self-confidence, social ability, management pressure, empathy, well-being and optimism.

We adopted the scale developed by Wong and Law (2002), but it just a unidimensional construct in this study.

#### **2.4.1.2 Structural dimensions of ethical climate**

Concerning the structures of ethical climate, what foreign scholars generally accept is the five-factor structure, and six-factor structure by Victor and Cullen (1990), and five-factor structure by Agarwal and Malloy (1999).

Victor and Cullen (1988) reported that there are five dimensions of organizational ethical climate, including instrumentalism, caring orientation, independence orientation, rule orientation and law and norm orientation. Instrumentalism refers to the fact that in the organizational ethical decision-making, organizational members pay more attention to their own benefits, and ignore the benefits of others or organizations. Caring orientation is a dimension opposite to instrumentalism, with more attention to the benefits of others or organizations. Independence orientation refers that the ethical decision-making of each member should be paid attention. Rule orientation, relative to independence orientation, means that members will give priority to their own interests in the process of ethical decision-making. Law and norm orientation refer that members fully abide by laws and norms or systems to do the ethical decision-making. (Victor & Cullen, 1990) proposed the six-factor structure improving the five-factor structure, including professionalism, care, rule, instrument, efficiency, and independence orientations. The content is similar to those five-factor structure.

Different from the five-factor structure proposed by Victor and Cullen (1988), Agarwal and Malloy (1999) argued that there are five-dimension structure of organizational ethical climate, including survival of the fittest, personal care, social care, independence and law and norm. Survival of the fittest refers to the employees' cognition about the competition, career advancement and development in the organization. Personal care refers to members' perception of their own happiness. Social care refers to the attention of organizations to the whole social members' benefits, not only the benefits of internal organizations. Independence refers that organizations pay attention to employees' own cognition about ethical problems, and respect their abilities of ethical behaviors. Law and norms refer to the cognition of organizations or members about laws, systems, norms.

No doubt that the structure division in foreign countries cannot completely conform to Chinese organizational context. There are scholars in China conducting such studies. For example, Fan and Zhou (2006) studied the relationship between organizational ethical climate and counterproductive behavior, and divided the organizational ethical climate into three dimensions: egoism, altruism, law and norm orientation. Heng (2008) found, through the survey of a large number of companies in Henan and Fujian, that the organizational ethical climate

consists of five dimensions, organizational system orientation, egoism, altruism, dependence orientation, law and norm orientation. The conclusions are somewhat similar to the research results by Victor and Cullen (1988). This indicates that the research results of foreign scholars can also be drawn upon and explored.

We adopted the research results of Victor and Cullen (1988), but it just a unidimensional construct in this study.

#### **2.4.2 The moderating effect of emotional intelligence of leaders**

Emotional intelligence is regarded as a kind of individual cognition ability that is both distinct and related with intelligence. It is similar to social skills and abilities, and reflects that individuals can effectively manage their emotions and feelings. During this process, people can acquire information to guide their thinking and action (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Based on the related studies of emotional intelligence, it can influence people's judgement, memory, creativity and reasoning process. From the perspective of leaders, on one hand, leaders with high emotional intelligence usually are good at recognizing, managing and controlling their own and followers' emotions and feelings, on the other hand, the interplay of emotions or feelings is an indispensable link and content in the entire leadership process. From the perspective of employees, if employees work with a leader with high emotional intelligence, leaders can effectively provide employees with social support (including emotional support, information and resources support), employees can achieve some goals like setting job targets by leaders, clearly defining tasks and roles of employees in the work process, avoiding task ambiguity and role conflict, it can encourage employees to show positive attitudes and behaviors. As a matter of fact, in the empirical studies, emotional intelligence of leaders acts as a predictable role in many important outcome variables, such as job performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'boyle, Humphrey, & Pollack, 2011), organizational identity (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002), job satisfaction (Sy, Tram, & O' Hara, 2006; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008), organizational citizenship behavior (Slaskim & Cartwright, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002; Wang, Tsui, & Zhang, 2003; Goleman, 2004). However, this can only explain the direct effect of emotional intelligence on employee attitudes and behaviors, and there are less studies to explore moderating effect of the interplay of emotional intelligence and individual cognitive factors on employee attitudes and behavior. Therefore, there are following hypotheses proposed about the role of emotional intelligence in the influencing process of differential leadership perceived by employees on organizational

citizenship behavior.

***H13. Emotional intelligence of leaders has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of differential leadership on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H13.1. Emotional intelligence of leaders has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of promotion and reward on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H13.2. Emotional intelligence of leaders has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of communication and care on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

***H13.3. Emotional intelligence of leaders has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of tolerance of mistakes on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.***

#### **2.4.3 The moderating effect of organizational ethical climate**

Hollinger and Clark (1982) found two basic mechanisms affecting employee behavior when studying the core strategy of organizational control according to social norm theory. First, employees spontaneously internalize their behavioral norms based on social learning, thereby constraining their behavior in the organizations. This is called internal control mechanism. Second, employees will adjust and correct their behavior under the constraints of external force, which making their behavior conform to constraints. This kind of external force is called external control mechanism. In addition, there are two specific forms of external control: formal control and informal control. Among them, the former is actually the system control. It is on the premise of supervisor authority (the right of reward and punishment), and the control on employee behavior by implementing various required systems or administrative rules. Whereas, the latter is often called soft control. It controls employee behavior by culture and value. It goes without questions that formal control (i.e., rule system and administrative details) takes a significant role in governing counterproductive behavior, but informal control (i.e., culture and value) has greater significance (Hollinger & Clark, 1982). Organizational ethical climate is the common perception about organizational rules, systems, and methods to solve problems by organizational members.

We notice that, according to the basic method of concertive control theory proposed by Barker (1993), on behavior bias of self-managed teams, organizational ethical climate is a typical informal control mechanism targeting counterproductive behavior. Just as Victor and Cullen (1988) pointed that, organizational ethical climate not only reflects the characteristics of how to deal with ethical problems in organizations, but also reflects the interactions and common perceptions of what is ethical behavior and how they deal with ethical issues. It is an

important contextual feature which is very close to organizational culture in the concept, but more easily portrayed and observed than organizational culture. The studies of organizational ethical climate to some extent provide a new idea or perspective to control counterproductive behavior of employees. Therefore, since the mid-to-late 1990s, there have been some research literature about the influence of organizational ethical climate on employees' unethical behaviors (Wimbush, Shepard, & Markham, 1997; Deshpande & Joseph, 2009; Deconinck, 2010; Duh, Belak, & Milfelner, 2010) as well as a small amount of research literature about the influence of organizational ethical climate on counterproductive behavior of employees (Vardi, 2001; Deconinck, 2010; Arnaud & Schminke, 2012; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). However, these studies mostly regard organizational ethical climate as the antecedent variable of unethical or counterproductive behavior. There are also few studies that have explored the moderating effect of the interaction of organizational ethical climate and other individual factors on counterproductive behaviors. There is one point to be noted that, considering that this study only regards organizational ethical climate as an important informal control mechanism, so we only focus on rule orientation and care orientation. According to the viewpoint of Liu and Shi (2008), climate is a typical variable of the environment, and the studies can be divided into three levels including individual, team, and organization. Team atmosphere is the analysis of organizational environment in the team level. But (Vardi, 2001) argued that, department ethical climate may be totally different from team ethical climate, Therefore, the team ethical climate referred to in this study is a unidimensional variable to measure the care and rule oriented ethical atmosphere of a particular team. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed about the role of team ethical climate in the influencing of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior.

***H14. Organizational ethical climate has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of differential leadership on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H14.1. Organizational ethical climate has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of promotion and reward on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H14.2. Organizational ethical climate has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of communication and care on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

***H14.3. Organizational ethical climate has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of tolerance of mistakes on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.***

## 2.5 The theoretical model of this research

Based on the basic research paradigm “Environment → Cognition → behavior” in the field of organizational behavior and human resource management, a research framework in this study is constructed in which leadership behavior affects individual cognition then determines individual leadership. In Chinese cultural context, we explore the influence of differential leadership on the extra-role behavior (including organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior). In this process, in order to clarify the detailed mechanism of differential leadership on extra-role behavior, on one hand, we analyze the mediating effect of insider identity and psychological empowerment, on the other hand, we also analyze the moderating effect of emotional intelligence of leaders and team ethical climate. The specific relationships between the variables in this study and theoretical foundation for the corresponding research hypotheses are shown in Figure 2-1.

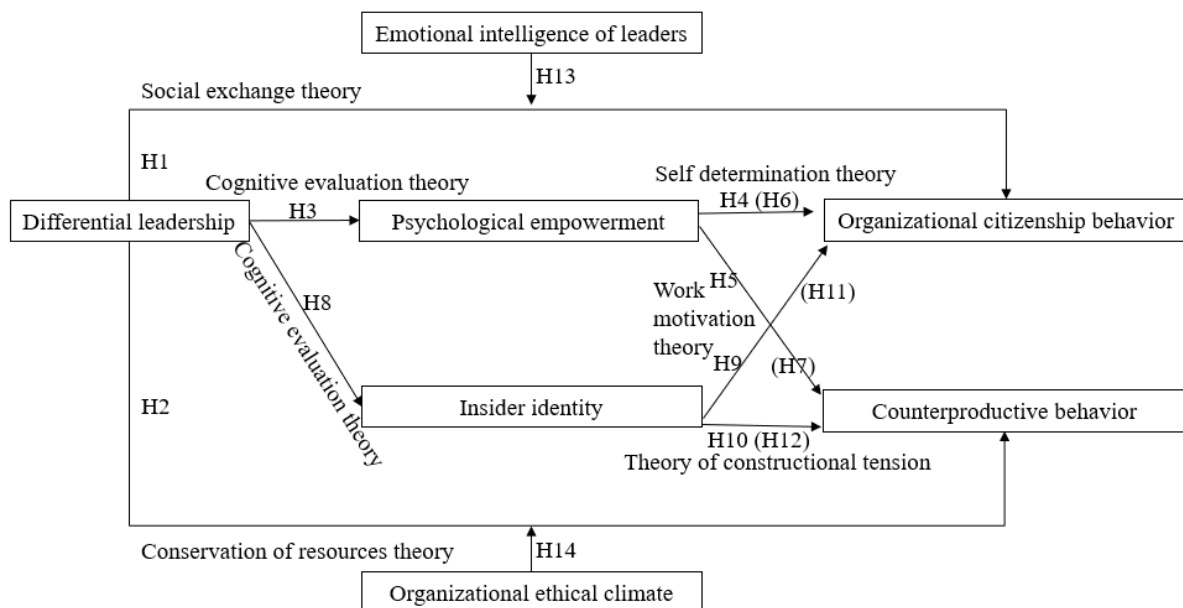


Figure 2 - 1 Theoretical foundation and relationships between variables

In the process of logical deduction of the theoretical relationship between variables in research model, the study mainly draws upon various of management, sociology and social psychology theory. It should be noted that, considering that, the test of the effect of cross-level model construction between different variables in different levels is an important development direction in the area of human resources and organizational behavior, therefore, when we analyze the emotional intelligence and team ethical climate, we use the cross-level analysis to construct the corresponding theoretical model. In other words, emotional intelligence of leaders and team ethical climate are research variables of team-level. However, if we regard the

differential leadership as a team-level variable, the measurement of various outcome variables should also be carried out for a period of time after the measurement of the independent variables, so we cannot use longitudinal empirical research design, otherwise it will bring certain challenges and difficulty to our data collection work. Therefore, we analyze the perception of differential leadership from the perception of employees and then construct the corresponding theory.

## **Chapter 3: Data Collection and Data Processing**

Based on the theoretical model and research hypothesis proposed in the previous chapter, we will employ a proper research measurement to collect data, and do the reliability test about the measurement scale in this chapter. Additionally, by use of descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and the variance analysis (T-test), we pre-dealt with the sample data.

### **3.1 Variable measurement and data collection**

#### **3.1.1 Descriptive statistics of the sample**

##### **3.1.1.1 Descriptive statistics of the sample above supervisors**

58 supervisors from different kinds of organizations responded to the questionnaire and the data was collected. We used SPSS24.0 to do the descriptive statistics of the sample about these questionnaire (showed in Table 3-1 below).

Descriptive statistical analysis included gender, marriage, age, education, working time, department category, department size and nature of companies. According to the statistical results, among the 58-supervisor sample, we can see six aspects.

(1) 36 were male, accounting for 62.1%, and 22 were female, accounting for 37.9%, additionally, 52 were married, accounting for 89.7%.

(2) Concerning to the age structure, there were 32 people between 36 and 45 years old, accounting for 55.2%, 15 people between 26-35, accounting for 25.9%, 8 people between 46 and 50, accounting for 13.8%.

(3) Concerning to the education level, most people got bachelor degree, there were 33 people (56.9%), 12 people of master degree (20.7%); 13 people technological college or below (22.4%).

(4) Working time. Most people had 10 years of working experience, and the number was 26, accounting for 44.8%; and 15 people worked 3-5 years, accounting for 25.9%, 9 people worked below 2 years, accounting for 15.5%; 8 people worked between 6 and 10 years, accounting for 13.8%.

Table 3 - 1 Demographic information about supervisors (n=58)

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
Gender	Male	36	62.1	62.1
	Female	22	37.9	100.0
Marriage	Single	6	10.3	10.3
	Married	52	89.7	100.0
Age	Under 26	2	3.4	3.4
	26-35	15	25.9	29.3
	36-45	32	55.2	84.5
	46-50	8	13.8	98.3
	51-55	1	1.7	100.0
Education	Technical college or below	13	22.4	22.4
	Bachelor	33	56.9	79.3
	Master	12	20.7	100.0
	Doctor	0	0	100.0
Working hours	2 years or below	9	15.5	15.5
	3-5years	15	25.9	41.4
	6-10years	8	13.8	55.2
	More than 10 years	26	44.8	100.0
Department category	Technology & research development	6	10.3	10.3
	Production & operation	24	41.4	51.7
	Service & management	20	34.5	86.2
	Marketing & sales	8	13.8	100.0
Department size	Below 5 people	12	20.7	20.7
	6-10 people	17	29.3	50.0
	11-15 people	14	24.1	74.1
	16-20 people	7	12.1	86.2
Nature of companies	Above 20 people	8	13.8	100.0
	State-owned enterprises	27	46.6	46.6
	Private enterprises	20	34.5	81.0
	Public institutions	11	19.0	100.0

Note: "Single" includes unmarried; "Married" includes married, widowed, and divorced.

(5) In the aspect the category and size of departments, most participants came from production and operation department, and there were 24 people, accounting for 41.4%; 20 people from service and management, accounting for 34.5%, 8 people from marking and sales department, accounting for 13.8%; and those who came from technology and research

development were 6, accounting for 10.3%. In addition, the number of people who were in the department with 6-10 staff accounted for 29.3%, and that in the department with 5 staff below accounted for 20.7%, and the percentage of those who belonged to the department with size of 11-15, 16-20, more than 20 people was separately 24.1%, 12.1%, 13.8%.

(6) In the perspective of nature of organizations, most worked in state-owned enterprises, and there were 27 people, accounting for 46.6%; and there were 20 people who came from private enterprises, accounting for 34.5%, also 11 people came from public institutions, accounting for 19%.

### **3.1.1.2 Descriptive statistics about employee sample**

Paired-data methods were used and 403 sample data on employee questionnaire from different kinds of organizations was collected. We used SPSS24.0 to do the sample descriptive statistics about the employee data. Descriptive statistical analysis included gender, marriage, age, education, working time, department category, department size and nature of companies. From the statistical results in Table 3-2 below, among the sample of 403 employees, we can also see six aspects.

(1) 228 people were male, accounting for 56.6%, and 175 people were female, accounting for 43.4%. Additionally, 243 employees were single, accounting for 60.3%, while 160 employees were married, accounting for 39.7%.

(2) In the aspect of age structure, 250 people aged between 26 and 35, accounting for 62%, 64 people between 36 and 45 (15.9%), 7 people between 46 and 50 (1.7%), 77 people below 25 years old, accounting for 19.1%, and only 5 people aged above 51, accounting for 1.2%.

(3) In the aspect of education, most people got bachelor degree, totally 216 people, accounting for 53.6%; 41 people got master degree (10.2%), and 146 people got technical college degree or below, accounting for 36.2%.

(4) In the aspect of working time, most people had 2 years of working experience or below, and the number was 154, accounting for 38.2%; and 145 people worked 3-5 years, accounting for 36%, 41 people worked more than 10 years, accounting for 10.2%; 63 people worked between 6 and 10 years, accounting for 15.6%.

Table 3 - 2 Demographic information about employees (n=403)

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative
Gender	Male	228	56.6	56.6
	Female	175	43.4	100.0
Marriage	Married	160	39.7	39.7
	Single	243	60.3	100.0
Age	Under 26	77	19.1	19.1
	26-35	250	62.0	81.1
	36-45	64	15.9	97.0
	46-50	7	1.7	98.8
	51-55	5	1.2	100.0
	Technical college or below	146	36.2	36.2
Education	Bachelor	216	53.6	89.8
	Master	41	10.2	100.0
	Doctor	0	0	100.0
Working time	2 years or below	154	38.2	38.2
	3-5 years	145	36.0	74.2
	6-10 years	63	15.6	89.8
	More than 10 years	41	10.2	100.0
	Technology & research	41	10.2	10.2
Department	Production & operation	196	48.6	58.8
	Service & management	128	31.8	90.6
	Marketing & sales	38	9.4	100.0
	5 people or below	46	11.4	11.4
	6-10 people	93	23.1	34.5
Department size	11-15 people	109	27.0	61.5
	16-20 people	76	18.9	80.4
	More than 20 people	79	19.6	100.0
Nature of companies	State-owned enterprises	194	48.1	48.1
	Private enterprises	117	29.0	77.2
	Public institution	92	22.8	100.0

Note: “Single” includes unmarried; “Married” includes married, widowed, and divorced.

(5) In the aspect the category and size of departments, most participants came from production and operation department, and there were 196 people, accounting for 48.6%; 128 people from service and management, accounting for 31.8%, 38 people from marking and sales department, accounting for 9.4%; and those who came from technology and research

development were 41, accounting for 10.2%. In addition, the number of people who were in the department with 6-10 staff accounted for 23.1%, and that in the department with 5 staff below accounted for 11.4%, and the percentage of those who belonged to the department with size of 11-15, 16-20, more than 20 people was separately 27.0%, 18.9%, 19.6%.

(6) In the perspective of nature of organizations, most worked in state-owned enterprises, and there were 194 people, accounting for 48.1%; and there were 117 people who came from private enterprises, accounting for 29%, also 92 people came from public institutions, accounting for 22.8%.

### **3.1.2 Process of data collection**

The study investigated 31 companies located in Beijing, Tianjin, Zhejiang, Sichuan, Guizhou, Chongqing, Guangdong and Hubei. The industry covered real estate and construction (13), machinery manufacturing (5), light industry (4), food processing industry (1), public institution (7)-including administrative department, public hospitals and public schools, sales industry (1)-car sales. In order to avoid the homology deviation problem within the samples, we investigated team members and supervisors separately 403 team members and 58 supervisors, the mean of individuals per team is 6.95. In the questionnaire survey of employees (Volume A), we collected data including the evaluations of employees concerning their supervisors' leadership, employee evaluations about their work and companies, employee evaluations about their own behavior in workplace, employee evaluations on their own emotional management, employee evaluations about their team working climate and employees' basic personal information. In the questionnaire survey of team leaders (Volume B1), we collected data including leaders' basic personal information, supervisor evaluations about their own leadership, about their own emotional management, In the questionnaire survey of team leaders (Volume B2), we collected data including evaluations on their followers' working behavior in workplace. In order to ensure the timeliness, validity and authenticity of data acquisition, the distribution and collection of all questionnaires were conducted by researcher and related assisting people. Related assisting people referred to those people who helped researchers do the survey in the company. Before each investigation, the author or team members directly contacted with supervisors of companies. Firstly, they introduced the research background and research object, then the survey was carried out after getting trust and support of supervisors. Samples came from different regions of several cities, covering different industries, and different nature of companies. Additionally, the geographical scope was wide

and the time span was long. Furthermore, there was much difficulty in coordination investigation. Therefore, due to these realities and consideration of time, energy and financial resources, the survey included two conducting ways: presence and absence of the researcher. On the condition of presence of researcher on the spot. First, the supervisor of companies held a short meeting with related participants (generally involving team leaders and employees who participated in the survey). During the meeting, researcher introduced research background, research object, and informed investigation items. They distributed paper questionnaires to the participants who could complete on the spot if conditions permitted or submitted to researcher for face-to-face collection in the same day. As the survey was concerned with sensitive issues about direct leaders, the investigators would seal the questionnaires in envelopes before collecting. Due to some objective factors, there were conditions that some researcher could not attend the meeting although they were on the spot. Therefore, before the meeting, researcher would give detailed descriptions about research background, research objects, investigation items and attention issues to the assisting people assigned by leaders of the investigated companies. The assisting members took place of researcher to introduce participants the research background and investigation items, and distribute and collect questionnaires on behalf of researcher. On the condition of absence of researcher on the spot. The researcher sent the questionnaires to the assisting members of investigated companies via email, and informed them the research background, research object, investigation items, and attention issues in detail. The survey was conducted only after the researcher made sure that the assisting members totally understood. When conducting the survey, the assisting members were on behalf of researcher to introduce research background and investigation items to participants, and in charge of distributing and collecting questionnaires, finally sent questionnaires to researcher by mail. If the questionnaire survey was electronic version rather than paper version, the assisting members would send to participants via email, and directly forward to researcher after the participants completed the electronic questionnaires. The survey lasted seven months. 1397 questionnaires of 87 teams were totally distributed (including 655 copies of volume A, 87 copies of volume B1, 655 copies of volume B2.). Actually, 1212 questionnaires of 73 teams were collected (including 622 copies of volume A, 73 copies of volume B1, 517 copies of volume B2.). The researcher based on following rules to delete trash data 1) non-missing, that is, the missing rate cannot be higher than 10%; 2) matching, that is, each employee questionnaire should have both employee and leader evaluation accordingly; 3) adequacy, that is, there are at least three employee questionnaires in each team; 4) uniqueness, that is, there is only one leader in each team. Finally, we got the valid sample which consisted of 864 questionnaires of 58 teams

(including 403 copies of volume A, 58 copies of volume B1, 403 copies of volume B2.). The feedback rate of the questionnaires reached 61.85%.

### **3.1.3 Variable measurement**

#### **3.1.3.1 The measurement scale of the differential leadership**

The variable of the differential leadership was assessed according to the research results of Jiang and Zhang (2010). The inventory scale consisted of 14 items, the examples of which were like “Offer or retain the opportunity for advancement.”, “Not to blame for the mistakes in the work.” The scale was rated by 7-point Likert-type, with 1 indicating “never” to 7 indicating “extremely well”.

#### **3.1.3.2 The measurement scale of the extra-role behavior**

Organizational citizenship behavior was measured referring to the scale proposed by Coyle (2002). It was a 22-item inventory. Examples of items were following “Shares ideas for new projects or improvements widely”, “Encourages others to speak up at meetings”. The scale was rated by 7-point Likert-type, with 1 indicating “never” to 7 indicating “extremely well”. Counterproductive behavior was measured referring to the scale proposed by Yang and Diefendorff (2009). It was a 23-item inventory. Examples of items were following “Took supplies or tools home without permission.”, “Came to work late without permission.” The scale was rated by 7-point Likert-type, with 1 indicating “never” to 7 indicating “more than six times”.

#### **3.1.3.3 The measurement scale of psychological empowerment and insider identity**

Psychological empowerment was measured referring to the scale proposed by Spreitzer (1995). It was a 12-item inventory. Item examples were like “My job activities are personally meaningful to me.”, “I am confident about my ability to do my job.” The scale was rated by 7-point Likert-type, with 1 indicating “totally disagree” to 7 indicating “totally agree”.

Insider identity was measured according to research results of Stamper and Masterson (2002). It was a 6-item inventory. Item examples were like “My work organization makes me believe that I am included in it”, “I feel like I am an ‘outsider’ at this organization.” The scale was rated by 7-point Likert-type, with 1 indicating “totally disagree” to 7 indicating “totally agree”.

#### **3.1.3.4 The measurement scale of emotional intelligence**

Emotional intelligence was measured according to research results of Wong and Law (2002). It was a 16-item inventory. Item examples were like “I always know whether or not I am happy.”, “I am a good observer of others’ emotions”. The scale was rated by 7-point Likert-type, with 1 indicating “totally disagree” to 7 indicating “totally agree”.

#### **3.1.3.5 The measurement scale of organizational ethical climate**

Organizational ethical climate was measured according to research results of Victor and Cullen (1988), as well as Wimbush, Shepard, and Markham (1997). It was a 15-item inventory. Item examples were following like “People are expected to do anything to further company’s interests, regardless of the consequences”, “Work is considered substandard only when it hurts company’s interests”. The scale was rated by 7-point Likert-type, with 1 indicating “totally disagree” to 7 indicating “totally agree”.

### **3.2 Reliability and validity test of the measurement**

#### **3.2.1 Validity test of scale**

In this section, we used CFA analysis to test the validity of the scale. To be specific, we mainly chose goodness of fit indices such as  $\chi^2 / df$ , GFI, CFI, NFI, IFI, RMSEA to test the validity of the scale.  $\chi^2$  goodness-of-fit test ( $\chi^2 / df$ ) is a statistic that directly tests the degree of similarity between the sample covariance matrix and the estimated variance matrix. Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) refers to the degree to which the variance and covariance of the model fit can explain the variance and covariance of the data. Comparative Fit Index (CFI) reflects the degree of difference between the hypothetical model and the independent model. Normed Fit Index (NFI) is a measure of the reduction in the chi-square value between the independent model and the hypothetical model. Incremental Fit Index (IFI) is used to adjust the effect of sample size on NFI. Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) can measure the square root of the mean of the residuals between the input matrix and the estimation matrix.

##### **3.2.1.1 The validity test of the scale of differential leadership**

As can be seen from the Table 3-3 below, goodness of fit indices for three-factor model of

differential leadership was following,  $\chi^2 / df = 2.872$ , GFI = 0.901, CFI = 0.898, NFI = 0.886, IFI = 0.891, RMSEA = 0.101.  $\chi^2 / df$ , GFI, NFI, IFI all shows a good fitting degree, CFI and RMSEA are not in the best value range, which is almost acceptable. Therefore, the validity of the difference leadership scale is acceptable.

Table 3 - 3 Validity test of scale of differential leadership

Model	Description	$\chi^2$	$\chi^2 / df$	GFI	CFI	NFI	IFI	RMSEA
Differential leadership	Three-factor model	316.722	2.872	0.901	0.898	0.886	0.891	0.101

### 3.2.1.2 The validity test of the scale of extra-role behavior

As can be seen from the Table 3-4 below, the goodness of fit indices for five-factor model of organizational citizenship behavior was following  $\chi^2 / df = 5.900$ , GFI = 0.791, CFI = 0.865, NFI = 0.842, IFI = 0.865, RMSEA = 0.110. Meanwhile, the goodness of fit indices for two-factor model of counterproductive behavior was following  $\chi^2 / df = 6.700$ , GFI = 0.734, CFI = 0.899, NFI = 0.884, IFI = 0.899, RMSEA = 0.119. All these values were not in the acceptable range. So, we calculated the factor loadings for each factor of the scale, and found that the factor loadings for item 14, 19, 20 in organizational citizenship behavior scale were obviously low, all below 0.3. We decided to delete these three items. Whereas, the factor loadings for item 11, 21 in counterproductive behavior scale were obviously low, all below 0.4. We also decided to delete these two items. Again, we did CFA to test the scale. The results are showed in Table 3-5.

Table 3 - 4 Validity test of scale of extra-role behavior

Model	Description	$\chi^2$	$\chi^2 / df$	GFI	CFI	NFI	IFI	RMSEA
Organizational citizenship behavior	Five-factor model	1174.140	5.900	0.791	0.865	0.842	0.865	0.110
Counterproductive behavior	Two-factor model	1534.492	6.700	0.734	0.899	0.884	0.899	0.119

From the Table 3-5 below, the goodness of fit indices for modified five-factor model of organizational citizenship behavior was following  $\chi^2 / df = 2.719$ , GFI = 0.903, CFI = 0.919, NFI = 0.932, IFI = 0.961, RMSEA = 0.081.  $\chi^2 / df$ , GFI, CFI, NFI, IFI all shows a good fitting degree, RMSEA are not in the best value range, which is acceptable. Therefore, the validity of

the organizational citizenship behavior scale is acceptable. The goodness of fit indices for modified two-factor model of counterproductive behavior was following  $\chi^2 / df = 3.011$ , GFI = 0.796, CFI = 0.839, NFI = 0.867, IFI = 0.851, RMSEA = 0.121.  $\chi^2 / df$ , GFI, NFI, IFI all shows a good fitting degree, CFI and RMSEA are not in the best value range, which is almost acceptable. Therefore, the validity of the counterproductive behavior scale is acceptable.

Table 3 - 5 Modified validity test of scale of extra-role behavior

Model	Description	$\chi^2$	$\chi^2 / df$	GFI	CFI	NFI	IFI	RMSEA
Organizational citizenship behavior	Five-factor model	512.255	2.719	0.903	0.919	0.932	0.961	0.081
Counterproductive behavior	Two-factor model	721.187	3.011	0.796	0.839	0.867	0.851	0.121

### 3.2.1.3 Validity test of the scale of psychological empowerment and insider identity

As we can see from the Appended Table 3, the goodness of fit indices for one-factor model of psychological empowerment was following,  $\chi^2 / df = 3.121$ , GFI = 0.891, CFI = 0.906, NFI = 0.882, IFI = 0.839, RMSEA = 0.108.  $\chi^2 / df$ , GFI, CFI, NFI, IFI all shows a good fitting degree, RMSEA are not in the best value range, which is almost acceptable. Therefore, the validity of the psychological empowerment scale is acceptable. The goodness of fit indices for one-factor model of insider identity was following  $\chi^2 / df = 3.017$ , GFI = 0.903, CFI = 0.891, NFI = 0.876, IFI = 0.881, RMSEA = 0.112.  $\chi^2 / df$ , GFI, NFI, IFI all shows a good fitting degree, CFI and RMSEA are not in the best value range, which is almost acceptable. Therefore, the validity of the insider identity scale is acceptable.

### 3.2.1.4 Validity test of the scale of supervisor emotional intelligence and organizational ethical climate

As we can see from the Appended Table 4, the goodness of fit indices for one-factor model of supervisor emotional intelligence was following,  $\chi^2 / df = 2.982$ , GFI = 0.916, CFI = 0.912, NFI = 0.910, IFI = 0.908, RMSEA = 0.081, meanwhile, the goodness of fit indices for one-factor model of organizational ethical climate was following  $\chi^2 / df = 2.761$ , GFI = 0.921, CFI = 0.906, NFI = 0.908, IFI = 0.902, RMSEA = 0.096.  $\chi^2 / df$ , GFI, CFI, NFI, IFI all shows a good fitting degree, RMSEA are not in the best value range, which is acceptable. Therefore, the validity of supervisor emotional intelligence scale and organizational ethical climate scale is acceptable.

Here's what needs to be said. In the aspect of validity test, the mature measurement scale in areas of organizational behavior and human resources management was employed in this research, so we just directly used CFA analysis to test the validity of the scale. We found that the CFI value and RMSEA value of some scales were not in the best value interval, namely,  $CFI < 0.9$ ,  $RMSEA > 0.08$ , but at the same time, other values of the scale showed a good degree of fitting. For this, we think it is mainly due to the cultural differences between the east and the west, so we think such test results are acceptable.

### 3.2.2 Reliability test of the measurement

Concerning to the reliability test, we drew up on the research of Hinkin (1998) and used Cronbach's  $\alpha$  to analyze the internal consistency reliability of the measurement.

#### 3.2.2.1 Reliability test of the differential leadership measurement

The scale of differential leadership was mainly to measure the partial behavior of supervisors perceived by employees, including three dimensions—promotion and reward, communication and care, and tolerance of mistakes. Next, we will do the reliability test about the scale and subscale of the measurement.

Table 3 - 6 Reliability of the scale of differential leadership (DL)

Variable	Dimension	Index	Corrected-item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's $\alpha$
Differential leadership	Promotion and rewards	DL2	0.665	0.919	0.875
		DL5	0.737	0.917	
		DL8	0.783	0.915	
		DL11	0.744	0.917	
		DL14	0.700	0.918	
	Communication and care	DL1	0.705	0.918	0.879
		DL4	0.719	0.917	
		DL7	0.743	0.917	
		DL10	0.746	0.916	
		DL13	0.618	0.921	
		DL3	0.624	0.921	0.706

Tolerance	DL6	0.536	0.923
of mistakes	DL9	0.327	0.929
	DL12	0.517	0.924

From the Table 3-6 above, we can see that, Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , of the scale of differential leadership was 0.824, and the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of subscale of promotion and reward was 0.875, and the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of subscale of communication and care was 0.879, and the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of subscale of tolerance of mistakes was 0.706. Therefore, the differential leadership scale had high internal consistency reliability.

### 3.2.2.2 Reliability test of the extra-role behavior scale

Table 3 - 7 Reliability of the scale of OCB

Scale	Dimension	Index	Corrected-item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's $\alpha$
OCB	Advocacy participation	OCB1	0.650	0.939	0.915
		OCB2	0.784	0.937	
		OCB3	0.787	0.937	
		OCB4	0.788	0.937	
		OCB5	0.661	0.939	
	Helping behavior	OCB6	0.807	0.937	0.918
		OCB7	0.762	0.937	
		OCB8	0.742	0.938	
		OCB9	0.780	0.937	
		OCB10	0.740	0.937	
					0.840
	Functional participation	OCB11	0.771	0.937	
		OCB12	0.806	0.937	
		OCB13	0.743	0.938	
		OCB14	0.169	0.945	
		OCB15	0.690	0.938	
	Loyalty	OCB16	0.709	0.938	0.838
		OCB17	0.598	0.940	
		OCB18	0.737	0.938	

	OCB19	-0.075	0.950	
Obedience	OCB20	-0.143	0.948	0.732
	OCB21	0.623	0.939	
	OCB22	0.738	0.938	

Table 3 - 8 Reliability of the scale of CWB

Variable	Dimension	Index	Corrected-item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's $\alpha$
CWB	CWB directed at the organization	CWB1	0.910	0.975	0.874
		CWB2	0.929	0.975	
		CWB3	0.914	0.975	
		CWB4	0.747	0.977	
		CWB5	0.658	0.977	
		CWB6	0.890	0.976	
		CWB7	0.910	0.976	
		CWB8	0.834	0.976	
		CWB9	0.865	0.976	
		CWB10	0.787	0.976	
		CWB11	0.637	0.978	
		CWB12	0.916	0.975	
		CWB13	0.929	0.975	
	CWB directed at individuals	CWB14	0.904	0.975	0.854
		CWB15	0.919	0.975	
		CWB16	0.791	0.976	
		CWB17	0.894	0.976	
		CWB18	0.846	0.976	
		CWB19	0.908	0.975	
		CWB20	0.831	0.976	
		CWB21	0.582	0.979	
		CWB22	0.577	0.979	
		CWB23	0.768	0.977	

The extra-role behavior in this research covers two variables-organizational citizenship

behavior and counterproductive behavior. Organizational citizenship behavior includes five dimensions (advocating participation, mutual assistance, functional participation, loyalty, obedience), and counterproductive behavior includes two dimensions (organizational counterproductive behavior and interpersonal counterproductive behavior). Next, we will do the reliability test about the scale and subscale of these two measurement scales.

As can be seen from the Table 3-7 above, the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of the total scale was 0.840. The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the subscale of participation and reward, mutual assistance, functional participation, loyalty, obedience was separately 0.915, 0.918, 0.775, 0.838, 0.732. Consequently, the reliability test show that organizational citizenship behavior scale had high internal consistence.

As can be seen from the Table 3-8 above, the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of the total scale of CWB was 0.981. The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the subscale of organizational counterproductive behavior was 0.874, and the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the subscale of interpersonal counterproductive behavior was 0.854. Consequently, the reliability test show that counterproductive behavior scale had high internal consistency reliability.

### **3.2.2.3 Reliability test for the scale of psychological empowerment and insider identity**

The psychological empowerment and insider identity are two important mediating variables in this study. We did the reliability test for measurements of these two variables separately (see Appended Table 5, 6).

Showed in the Appended Table 5, the psychological empowerment is a unidimensional construct. The coefficient of Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for this scale was 0.922. As a result, the PE scale had very high internal consistency reliability.

Showed in the Appended Table 6, the insider identity is a unidimensional construct. The coefficient of Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for this scale was 0.937. As a result, the II scale had very high internal consistency reliability.

### **3.2.2.4 Reliability test of the scale of supervisor emotional intelligence and organizational ethical climate**

The supervisor emotional intelligence and organizational ethical climate are two important moderating variables in this research. We did the reliability test for measurements of these two variables separately (see Appended Table 7, 8).

From the Appended Table 7, the supervisor emotional intelligence is a unidimensional construct. The value of Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for this scale was 0.960. As a result, the EI scale had very

high internal consistency reliability. From the Appended Table 8, organizational ethical climate is a unidimensional construct. The value of Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for this scale was 0.841. As a result, the EC scale had relatively high internal consistency reliability.

### 3.2.3 Descriptive statistics and related analysis of different variables

Next, by use of descriptive statistics and related analysis, we conducted a preliminary analysis of the data structure and simple correlation about kinds of variables.

#### 3.2.3.1 Descriptive statistics of the scale of differential leadership

From the Table 3-9 below, we can see that, 1) in the dimension of participation and reward, the mean value of supervisor self-rating scale was 5.229 (SD=1.015), much larger than the mean value of employee evaluation 3.597 (SD=2.254); 2) in the dimension of communication and care, the mean value of supervisor self-rating scale was 4.576 (SD=1.057), similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 4.451 (SD=2.341); 3) in the dimension of tolerance of mistakes, the mean value of supervisor self-rating scale was 3.019 (SD=0.921), also similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 3.187 (SD=1.595).

Table 3 - 9 Descriptive statistics analysis of scale of differential leadership

Variable	Sample N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
<b>Promotion and rewards</b>	58 (Supervisor self-rating)	2	7	5.229	1.015
	403 (Employee valuation)	1	7	3.597	2.254
<b>Communication and care</b>	58 (Supervisor self-rating)	1	7	4.576	1.057
	403 (Employee valuation)	1	7	4.451	2.341
<b>Tolerance of mistakes</b>	58 (Supervisor self-rating)	1	7	3.019	0.921
	403 (Employee valuation)	1	7	3.187	1.595

However, on the whole, the data fluctuation of employee evaluation was obviously bigger than that of supervisor self-rating. That is to say, the variance of employee evaluation data was obviously higher than that of supervisor self-rating. It to some extent indicates that it can make a huge difference among different employees perceiving the various types of differential leadership.

#### 3.2.3.2 Descriptive statistics of the scale of extra-role behavior

From the Table 3-10 below, 1) in the dimension of advocating participation, the mean value of supervisor evaluation was 4.172 (SD=1.873), similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 4.334 (SD=1.822); 2) in the dimension of mutual assistance, the mean value of supervisor evaluation was 4.562 (SD=1.847), similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 4.988 (SD=1.796); 3) in the dimension of functional participation, the mean value of supervisor evaluation was 4.365 (SD=1.852), similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 4.759 (SD=1.544); 4) in the dimension of loyalty behavior, the mean value of supervisor evaluation was 4.374 (SD=1.983), similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 4.643 (SD=1.906); 5) in the dimension of obedience behavior, the mean value of supervisor evaluation was 4.839 (SD=1.828), similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 4.728 (SD=2.032).

Table 3 - 10 Descriptive statics analysis of the scale of extra-role behavior

Variable	Sample N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
<b>Advocation participation</b>	403 (Supervisor evaluation)	1	7	4.172	1.873
	403 (Employee evaluation)	1	7	4.334	1.822
<b>Mutual assistance</b>	403 (Supervisor evaluation)	1	7	4.562	1.847
	403 (Employee evaluation)	1	7	4.988	1.796
<b>Functional participation</b>	403 (Supervisor evaluation)	1	7	4.365	1.852
	403 (Employee evaluation)	1	7	4.759	1.544
<b>Loyalty</b>	403 (Supervisor evaluation)	1	7	4.374	1.983
	403 (Employee evaluation)	1	7	4.643	1.906
<b>Obedience</b>	403 (Supervisor evaluation)	1	7	4.839	1.828
	403 (Employee evaluation)	1	7	4.728	2.032
<b>Organizational CWB</b>	403 (Supervisor evaluation)	1	7	1.433	0.704
	403 (Employee evaluation)	1	7	1.361	0.670
<b>Interpersonal CWB</b>	403 (Supervisor evaluation)	1	7	1.506	0.802
	403 (Employee evaluation)	1	7	1.410	0.662

Meanwhile, in the dimension of organizational counterproductive behavior, the mean value of supervisor evaluation was 1.433 (SD=0.704), similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 1.361 (SD=0.6702); and in the dimension of interpersonal counterproductive behavior, the mean value of supervisor evaluation was 1.506 (SD=0.802), similar to the mean value of employee evaluation 1.410 (SD=0.662).

The results of descriptive statistics above to some extent indicated that, on the whole, the evaluation in organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior had high consistency between supervisors and employees.

### **3.2.3.3 Descriptive statistics analysis of the scale of psychological empowerment and insider identity**

As can be seen from the Appended Table 9, 1) for data of psychological empowerment of employee participating in this survey, the minimum was 1, the maximum was 7, mean value was 4.800 (SD=1.281); 2) for data of insider identity of employee participating in this survey, the minimum was 1, the maximum was 7, mean value was 5.818 (SD=1.617).

The results of above descriptive statics indicated that, on the whole, employees participating in this survey all had strong psychological empowerment and insider identity.

### **3.2.3.4 Descriptive statistics analysis of the scale of emotional intelligence and organizational ethical climate**

As can be seen from the Appended Table 10, 1) for data of emotional intelligence of supervisors, the minimum was 2, the maximum was 7, mean value was 5.221 (SD=1.162). 2) under the circumstance of unaggregated data (that is, the perception of employees about organizational ethical climate was in the individual level), for data of organizational ethical climate, the minimum was 1, the maximum was 7, mean value was 5.256 (SD=1.797)

The results of above descriptive statics to some extent indicated that, on the whole, supervisors in this survey had high emotional intelligence, and the evaluation of organizational ethical climate by employees in the department was high.

### **3.2.3.5 The correlation analysis of variables**

In order to conduct the preliminary analysis of the correlation between variables, we used the Pearson correlation analysis method to do the correlation analysis between seven core variables (differential leadership, psychological empowerment, insider identity, organizational ethical climate, supervisor emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior) (showed in Table 3-11 below). Specifically, 1) the differential leadership significantly positively correlated with psychological empowerment, insider identity, organizational ethical climate, supervisor emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior, and significantly negatively correlated with counterproductive behavior; 2) psychological empowerment significantly positively correlated with insider identity, organizational ethical climate, supervisor emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior, and significantly negatively correlated with counterproductive behavior; 3) insider identity significantly positively correlated with organizational ethical climate, supervisor emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior, and significantly negatively

correlated with counterproductive behavior; 4) supervisor emotional intelligence significantly positively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior, and significantly negatively correlated with counterproductive behavior; 5) organizational citizenship behavior significantly negatively correlated with counterproductive behavior.

Table 3 - 11 Simple correlation analysis of all variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Differential leadership	-						
Psychological empowerment	0.501**	-					
Insider identity	0.348**	0.595**	-				
Organizational ethical climate	0.437**	0.557**	0.529**	-			
Supervisor emotional intelligence	0.143**	0.440**	0.338**	0.337**	-		
Organizational citizenship behavior	0.401**	0.664**	0.456**	0.380**	0.535**	-	
Counterproductive behavior	-0.315**	-0.545**	-0.343**	-0.467**	-0.458**	-0.576**	-

Note: The correlation coefficient test uses Pearson correlation analysis (two-tailed test), \*\*p<0.01, \*p<0.05.

## **Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Hypothesis Test**

The research is based on social exchange theory, conservation of resources theory and social learning theory. A basic model of the exploration of the influence of differential leadership behavior on extra-role behavior is constructed. In addition, the research hypothesis is put forward aiming at the main influencing mechanism (including the moderating and mediating role). In this chapter, we do the hypothesis testing by regression analysis on the basis of the research data pretreatment in previous chapter.

### **4.1 Hypothesis testing of the main effect model**

#### **4.1.1 The differential leadership and organizational citizenship behavior**

In order to explore the influence of differential leadership perceived by employees on organizational citizenship behavior in three dimensions- promotion and rewards, communication and care, tolerance of mistakes, we employed the method of hierarchical regression to test the hypothesis H1.1-H1.3 proposed in Chapter 2. We also tested variance inflation factor of the variables. The results showed that, all variance inflation factors of variables (VIF) were below 5 (the value for promotion and reward was 3.162, the value for communication and care is 4.026, the value for tolerance of mistakes was 1.935). Therefore, it could be inferred that there was no problem of multicollinearity for each variable in the regression model.

Specifically, first step (M1). The gender, marriage, age, education, the working years, department category and size, and the nature of the company were all used as control variables, and the five dimensions of organizational citizenship were used as dependent variables, all of which were input into the regression equation. Second step (M2). The control variables were firstly input in the regression equation, then three dimensions of differential leadership (promotion and reward, communication and care, tolerance of mistakes) were used as independent variables, and five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior (advocating participation, mutual assistance, functional participation, loyalty, obedience) were input into regression equation as dependent variables. In this kind of procedures, the significance (F value) and the increment of variance ( $\Delta R^2$ ), as well as the significance of regression coefficient (T

value) between dependent and independent variables were all mainly tested and studied. The results of regression analysis were shown in Table 4-1. We could make some concrete analysis about the relationships between the perceived differential leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

(1) From the perspective of relationships between promotion & reward and organizational citizenship behavior, there was a significantly positive effect of promotion and reward perceived by employees on advocating participation ( $\beta = 0.355, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of the promotion and reward perceived by employees on mutual assistance ( $\beta = 0.343, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of the promotion and reward perceived by employees on functional participation ( $\beta = 0.302, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of the promotion and reward by employees on employee loyalty behavior ( $\beta = 0.339, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of the promotion and reward by employees on obedience behavior ( $\beta = 0.252, p < 0.001$ ). Consequently, the hypothesis H1.1 was supported.

(2) From the perspective of relationships between communication & care and organizational citizenship behavior, there was a significantly positive effect of the communication and care perceived by employees on advocating participation ( $\beta = 0.405, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of the communication and care perceived by employees on mutual assistance ( $\beta = 0.495, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of the communication and care perceived by employees on functional participation ( $\beta = 0.390, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of the communication and care perceived by employees on employee loyalty behavior ( $\beta = 0.463, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of the communication and care perceived by employees on obedience behavior ( $\beta = 0.381, p < 0.001$ ). Consequently, the hypothesis H1.2 was supported.

(3) From the perspective of relationships between tolerance of mistakes and organizational citizenship behavior, there was a significantly positive effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on advocacy participation ( $\beta = 0.224, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on mutual assistance ( $\beta = 0.206, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on functional participation ( $\beta = 0.210, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on loyalty behavior ( $\beta = 0.284, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on obedience behavior ( $\beta = 0.136, p < 0.001$ ). Consequently, the hypothesis H1.3 was supported.

Table 4 - 1 Direct effect (differential leadership → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: organizational citizenship behavior									
		Advocating participation		Mutual assistance		Functional participation		Loyalty		Obedience	
		M 1	M 2	M 1	M 2	M 1	M 2	M 1	M 2	M 1	M 2
Control variable	Gender	-.138*	-.075	-.097	-.023	-.164**	-.103*	-.096	-.022	-.099	-.043
	Marriage	-.048	-.060	-.037	-.040	-.079	-.085	-.084	-.084	.001	-.001
	Age	.148*	.180**	.051	.089	.109	.141*	.176**	.215***	.079	.107
	Education	.142**	.144**	.015	.031	.016	.023	.042	.051	-.013	.002
	Working years	.046	.101	-.089	-.024	.001	.053	-.160	-.099	.016	.066
	Department category	-.069	-.102*	-.043	-.085	-.020	-.052	.000	-.036	-.107*	-.140**
	Department size	-.217***	-.225***	-.229***	-.219***	-.229***	-.228***	-.195***	-.192***	-.189***	-.179***
	Nature of companies	.063	.059	.125*	.123*	.147*	.143*	.133*	.128*	.131*	.131*
Independent variable	Promotion and reward		.355***		.343***		.302***		.339***		.252***
	Communication and care		.404***		.495***		.390***		.463***		.381***
	Tolerance of mistakes		.224***		.206***		.210***		.284***		.136**
	R <sup>2</sup>	0.101	0.254	0.073	0.311	0.075	0.216	0.082	0.289	0.065	0.211
	△R <sup>2</sup>	0.101	0.153	0.073	0.238	0.075	0.141	0.082	0.207	0.065	0.145
	F	5.517***	12.105***	3.894***	16.044***	4.016***	9.816***	4.399***	14.459***	3.452**	9.495***

Note: \* p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant

To sum up, the hypothesis H1 was completely supported. The differential leadership perceived by employees significantly positively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior. That is, the higher level of differential leadership perceived by employees, the more the organizational citizenship behavior. We could infer that the differential leadership behavior had the corresponding incentive effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

#### **4.1.2 Differential leadership behavior and counter-productive behavior**

Similarly, in order to explore the influence of differential leadership perceived by employees on counterproductive behavior in three dimensions- promotion and reward, communication and care, tolerance of mistakes, we employed the method of hierarchical regression to test the hypothesis H2.1-H2.3 proposed in Chapter 2. We also tested variance inflation factor of the variables. The results showed that, all variance inflation factors of variables (VIF) were below 3 (the value for promotion and reward was 2.766, the value for communication and care was 2.561, the value for tolerance of mistakes was 2.816). Therefore, it could be inferred that there was no problem of multicollinearity for each variable in the regression model.

Specifically, first step (M1). The gender, marriage, age, education, the working years, department category and size, and the nature of companies were all used as control variables, and the two dimensions of counterproductive behavior were used as dependent variables, all of which were input into the regression equation. Second step (M2). The control variables were firstly input into the regression equation, then three dimensions of differential leadership (promotion and reward, communication and care, tolerance of mistakes) were used as independent variables, and two dimensions of counterproductive behavior (organizational counterproductive behavior and interpersonal counterproductive behavior) were input into regression equation as dependent variables. In this kind of procedures, the significance (F value) and the increment of variance ( $\Delta R^2$ ), as well as the significance of regression coefficient (T value) between dependent and independent variables in step 2 were all mainly tested and studied. The results of regression analysis were showed in Table 4-2. We could make some concrete analysis about the relationships between the perceived differential leadership and counterproductive behavior.

Table 4 - 2 Direct effect (differential leadership → counterproductive behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: CWB			
		Organizational CWB		Interpersonal CWB	
		M 1	M 2	M 1	M 2
Control variable	Gender	.088	.030	.082	.018
	Marriage	.143*	.138*	.168**	.168*
	Age	-.057	-.087	-.074	-.107
	Education	.198***	.182***	.174**	.160***
	Working years	.019	-.031	.040	-.016
	Department category	.029	.060	-.041	-.007
	Department size	.011	-.002	-.017	-.027
	Nature of companies	-.199**	-.197***	-.127*	-.125*
Variable	Promotion and reward		-.231***		-.280***
	Communication and care		-.377***		-.420***
	Tolerance of mistakes		-.170***		-.193***
	R <sup>2</sup>	0.081	0.228	0.062	0.235
	△R <sup>2</sup>	0.081	0.148	0.062	0.173
F		4.323***	10.515***	3.249**	10.900***

Note: \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 significant

(1) From the perspective of relationships between promotion & reward and counterproductive behavior, there was a significantly negative effect of promotion and reward perceived by employees on organizational counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.231$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significantly negative effect of promotion and reward perceived by employees on interpersonal counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.280$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). As a result, the hypothesis H2.1 was supported.

(2) From the perspective of relationships between communication & care and counterproductive behavior, there was a significantly negative effect of communication and care on organizational counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.377$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significantly negative effect of communication and care on interpersonal counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.420$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). As a result, the hypothesis H2.2 was supported.

(3) From the perspective of relationships between tolerance of mistakes and counterproductive behavior, there was a significantly negative effect of tolerance of mistakes on organizational counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.170$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significantly negative effect of tolerance of mistakes on interpersonal counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.193$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). As a result, the hypothesis H2.3 was supported.

To sum up, the hypothesis H2 was completely supported. The differential leadership perceived by employees significantly negatively correlated with counterproductive behavior. That is, the higher level of differential leadership perceived by employees, the less the counterproductive behavior. We could infer that the differential leadership behavior played a corresponding control role in counterproductive behavior.

## 4.2 Hypothesis testing of the mediating effect model

Next, we would do the hypothesis testing about two important mediating effect proposed in this research, that is, the mediating effect of psychological empowerment and insider identity in the influencing process of differential leadership on extra-role behavior.

There is one point to be noted that, all mediating effect testing in this study employed the testing procedure and steps proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), which has already been widely recognized and used in the academic cycles. Baron and Kenny argued that, between dependent variable and independent variable, if there is a third variable which can explain the relationships between the other two variables, then the third variable is regarded to have mediating effect. In the practical process, we can judge whether there is the mediating effect according to following steps: first, testing equation, 1)  $y = Cx + e_1$ , if  $c$  is significant, then continue to test equation 2, otherwise, if not significant (which indicates that  $x$  does not have an impact on  $Y$ ), then stop testing the mediating effect. Second, after the significance of  $C$  is supported, continue to test equation. 2)  $M = aX + e_2$ , if  $a$  is significant, then continue to test equation 3, otherwise, if not significant, then stop testing. Third, after equation 1 and 2 both pass the significance test, then equation. 3)  $y = c'X + bM + e_3$  is tested, if  $b$  is significant, we can infer that there exists the mediating effect. And then we go back to see  $c'$ , if  $c'$  is significant, there is a part mediating effect, and if  $c'$  is not significant, there is a complete mediating effect.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986)'s testing procedures and steps, there was a significant effect of differential leadership perceived by employees on all dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior, which meaning  $c$  in the first step test were all significant, so we would do the second testing step, that is, to test whether the influence of independent variable (differential leadership) on the mediating variable (psychological empowerment and insider identity) was significant. Based on this, we would apply the method of hierarchical regression to test the hypothesis H3.1-H3.3 and H8.1-H8.3 proposed in Chapter 2 one by one.

According to the results of regression analysis showed above in Table 4-3, we conducted detailed analysis of the relationships between differential leadership perceived by employees and psychological empowerment & insider identity.

(1) From the perspective of relationships between promotion & reward and psychological empowerment & insider identity, there was a significantly positive effect of promotion and reward perceived by employees on psychological empowerment ( $\beta = 0.455$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significant positive effect on insider identity ( $\beta = 0.305$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H3.1 and H8.1 were supported.

(2) From the perspective of relationships between communication & care and psychological empowerment & insider identity, there was a significantly positive effect of communication and care perceived by employees on psychological empowerment ( $\beta = 0.555$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significant positive effect on insider identity ( $\beta = 0.425$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H3.2 and H8.2 were supported.

Table 4 - 3 Regression of differential leadership on psychological empowerment and insider identity

Variable		Psychological empowerment		Insider identity	
		M 1	M 2	M 1	M 2
Control variable	Gender	-.118*	-.098	-.102	-.060
	Marriage	-.051	-.061	.004	-.016
	Age	.132*	.142**	.004	.026
	Education	-.058	-.064	.017	.007
	Working years	-.119	-.077	-.035	.000
	Department category	.014	-.025	.121*	.102*
	Department size	-.042	-.054	-.091	-.112*
	Natural of companies	.006	-.012	-.032	-.037
Independent variable	Promotion and reward		.455***		.305***
	Communication and care		.555***		.425***
	Tolerance of mistakes		.280***		.084
	R <sup>2</sup>	0.081	0.286	0.062	0.278
	$\Delta R^2$	0.081	0.155	0.062	0.216
F		4.323***	11.212***	3.249**	12.815***

Note: \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$  significant

(3) From the perspective of relationships between tolerance of mistakes and psychological empowerment & insider identity, there was a significantly positive effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on psychological empowerment ( $\beta = 0.280$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), yet

there was not a significant effect on insider identity. Therefore, hypothesis H3.3 was supported, while H8.3 was not supported.

In summary, the hypothesis H3 was completely supported. The differential leadership perceived by employees significantly positively correlated with psychological empowerment. The higher level of differential leadership perceived by employees, the more psychological empowerment. That is to say, the differential leadership behavior played a stimulating role in psychological empowerment. However, the hypothesis H8 was partly supported. Some differential leadership behavior perceived by employees could play a stimulating role in insider identity, yet others couldn't. According to the method which Baron and Kenny proposed to test the mediating effect, there was no mediating effect in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on extra-role behavior. Next, based on the above analysis, we would test the mediating effect of psychological empowerment and insider identity separately.

#### **4.2.1 The mediating effect of psychological empowerment**

##### **4.2.1.1 Differential leadership → psychological empowerment → organizational citizenship behavior**

First, we conducted the test about the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the influencing process of differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior. We have completed the first two steps of the mediating effect testing proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), so we only needed to input the demographic variable as control variable into the regression equation first. Then differential leadership and psychological empowerment worked as independent variables, all dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior worked as dependent variables, all of which were input into regression equation. In this procedure, we mainly focused on whether the regression coefficient of the mediating variable (psychological empowerment) was significant. If it was significant, there existed a mediating effect. Furthermore, we would see the regression coefficient of independent variable (differential leadership). If it was still significant, it indicated that there existed a part mediating effect, otherwise, if it was no longer significant, it could be inferred that there was a complete mediating effect. In addition, we would analyze the influence of mediating effect (psychological empowerment) on dependent variable (organizational citizenship behavior), therefore the hypothesis H4 proposed in Chapter 2 was tested.

Table 4 - 4 Mediating effect of psychological empowerment (promotion and reward → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: organizational citizenship behavior									
		Advocating participation		Mutual assistance		Functional participation		Loyalty		Obedience	
Control variable	Gender	-.069	-.059	-.022	-.016	-.093*	-.090*	-.029	-.021	-.038	-.036
	Marriage	-.018	-.028	-.004	-.011	-.048	-.051	-.055	-.064	.027	.025
	Age	.070	.085	-.032	-.022	.029	.034	.101*	.115*	.011	.014
	Education	.176***	.169***	.052	.048	.052	.050	.075	.068	.017	.016
	Working Years	.116*	.123*	-.014	-.010	.073	.075	-.093	-.087	.077	.078
	Department category	-.077	-.084*	-.052	-.056	-.029	-.031	-.008	-.014	-.114*	-.116**
	Department size	-.193***	-.203***	-.203***	-.209***	-.203***	-.206***	-.172***	-.181***	-.168***	-.170***
	Nature of companies	.059	.058	.121**	.121**	.143**	.143**	.130**	.129**	.128*	.128*
Independent variable	<b>Promotion and rewards</b>		.111*		.071**		.033		.103*		.024**
Mediating variable	Psychological Empowerment	.586***	.536***	.630***	.599***	.606***	.591***	.565***	.519***	.513***	.502***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.432	0.441	0.456	0.460	0.430	0.431	0.390	0.398	0.319	0.320
<b>F</b>		33.179***	30.945***	36.662**	33.417***	32.942***	29.674***	27.924***	25.931***	20.469***	18.412***

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant.

Table 4 - 5 Mediating effect of psychological empowerment (communication and care → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: organizational citizenship behavior									
		Advocating participation		Mutual assistance		Functional participation		Loyalty		Obedience	
Control variable	Gender	-.069	-.058	-.022	-.003	-.093*	-.086*	-.029	-.010	-.038	-.026
	Marriage	-.018	-.023	-.004	-.014	-.048	-.052	-.055	-.065	.027	.021
	Age	.070	.087	-.032	-.001	.029	.041	.101*	.134**	.011	.032
	Education	.176***	.174***	.052	.048	.052	.050	.075	.071	.017	.015
	Working Years	.116*	.124*	-.014	.000	.073	.079	-.093	-.078	.077	.086
	Department category	-.077	-.086	-.052	-.068	-.029	-.034	-.008	-.024	-.114*	-.124**
	Department size	-.193***	-.196***	-.203***	-.209***	-.203***	-.205***	-.172***	-.177***	-.168***	-.171***
	Nature of companies	.059	.059	.121**	.120**	.143**	.143**	.130**	.129**	.128*	.128*
Independent variable	<b><u>Communication and care</u></b>		.111*		.206***		.075		.213***		.136**
Mediating variable	Psychological Empowerment	.586***	.526***	.630***	.520***	.606***	.566***	.565***	.452***	.513***	.440***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.432	0.440	0.456	0.484	0.430	0.434	0.390	0.420	0.319	0.331
<b>F</b>		33.179***	30.781***	36.662**	36.795***	32.942***	30.021***	27.924***	28.331***	20.469***	19.420***

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant

Table 4 - 6 Mediating effect of psychological empowerment (tolerance of mistakes → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: organizational citizenship behavior									
		Advocating participation		Mutual assistance		Functional participation		Loyalty		Obedience	
Control variable	Gender	-.069	-.063	-.022	-.020	-.093*	-.089*	-.029	-.017	-.038	-.039
	Marriage	-.018	-.018	-.004	-.005	-.048	-.049	-.055	-.056	.027	.028
	Age	.070	.077	-.032	-.028	.029	.034	.101*	.116*	.011	.010
	Education	.176***	.172***	.052	.050	.052	.049	.075	.066	.017	.018
	Working years	.116*	.119*	-.014	-.013	.073	.075	-.093	-.087	.077	.076
	Department category	-.077	-.079	-.052	-.053	-.029	-.030	-.008	-.010	-.114*	-.114*
	Department size	-.193***	-.197***	-.203***	-.205***	-.203***	-.206***	-.172***	-.181***	-.168***	-.167***
	Nature of companies	.059	.057	.121**	.120**	.143**	.142**	.130**	.126**	.128*	.129*
Independent variable	<u>Tolerance of mistakes</u>		.063**		.030**		.041		.135**		.010**
Mediating variable	Psychological empowerment	.586***	.568***	.630***	.622***	.606***	.595***	.565***	.527***	.513***	.516***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.432	0.435	0.456	0.457	0.430	0.432	0.390	0.406	0.319	0.319
<b>F</b>		33.179***	30.213***	36.662**	33.019***	32.942***	29.754***	27.924***	26.805***	20.469***	18.382***

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant

From the results of regression analysis showed in above Table 4-4, 4-5, 4-6, we could make specific analysis about the relationships between psychological empowerment and organizational citizenship behavior, as well as the psychological empowerment's mediating role in the influencing process of the differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior.

(1) There was a significantly positive effect of psychological empowerment on advocating participation behavior ( $\beta = 0.586$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect on mutual assistance ( $\beta = 0.630$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect on functional participation behavior ( $\beta = 0.606$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect on loyalty behavior ( $\beta = 0.565$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect on obedience behavior ( $\beta = 0.513$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). As a consequence, the hypothesis H4 was supported.

(2) Employee psychological empowerment played a part mediating role in the influencing process of promotion and reward on advocating participation behavior, mutual assistance, loyalty and obedience, whereas employee psychological empowerment played a complete mediating role in the influencing process of promotion and reward on functional participation. Therefore, the hypothesis H6.1 was supported. But there needs to be further theory exploration and explanation about why there was a complete mediating effect.

(3) Employee psychological empowerment played a part mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on advocating participation behavior, mutual assistance, loyalty and obedience, whereas employee psychological empowerment played a complete mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on functional participation. Therefore, the hypothesis H6.2 was supported. But there needs to be further theory exploration and explanation about why there was a complete mediating effect.

(4) Employee psychological empowerment played a part mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on advocating participation behavior, mutual assistance, loyalty and obedience, whereas employee psychological empowerment played a complete mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on functional participation. Therefore, the hypothesis H6.3 was supported. But there needs to be further theory exploration and explanation about why there was a complete mediating effect.

In conclusion, the hypothesis H6 proposed in Chapter 2 was also supported to some extent. Psychological empowerment had a mediating effect in the influencing process of perceived differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior's different dimensions. However, as to why employee psychological empowerment had the complete mediating effect in the

influencing process of three dimensions of differential leadership on functional participation behavior, this requires further theory exploration and explanation.

#### **4.2.1.2 Differential leadership → psychological empowerment → counterproductive behavior**

Next, we conducted the test about the mediating effect of psychological empowerment in the influencing process of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior. We have completed the first two steps of mediating effect testing proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), so we only needed to input the demographic variable as control variables into the regression equation first. Then the differential leadership and psychological empowerment worked as independent variables, all dimensions of counterproductive behavior worked as dependent variables, all of which were input into regression equation. In this procedure, we mainly focused on whether the regression coefficient of mediating variable (psychological empowerment) was significant. If it was significant, there existed a mediating effect. Furthermore, we would see the regression coefficient of independent variable (differential leadership). If it was still significant, it indicated that there existed a part mediating effect, otherwise, if it was no longer significant, it could be inferred that there was a complete mediating effect. In addition, we would analyze the influence of mediating effect (psychological empowerment) on the dependent variable (counterproductive behavior), therefore the hypothesis H6 proposed in Chapter 2 was tested.

From the results of regression analysis demonstrated in Appended Table 11, 12 and 13, we could make specific analysis about the relationships between psychological empowerment and counterproductive behavior, as well as the psychological empowerment's mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior.

(1) There was a significantly negative effect of employee psychological empowerment on organizational counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.337$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), a significantly negative effect on interpersonal counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.338$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, the hypothesis H5 was supported.

(2) Employee psychological empowerment played a part mediating role in the influencing process of promotion and reward on both organizational and interpersonal counterproductive behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H7.1 was supported.

(3) Employee psychological empowerment played a part mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on both organizational and interpersonal counterproductive

behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H7.2 was supported.

(4) Employee psychological empowerment played a part mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on both organizational and interpersonal counterproductive behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H7.3 was supported.

In summary, the hypothesis H7 proposed in Chapter 2 was also supported to some extent. Psychological empowerment had a part mediating effect in the influencing process of perceived differential leadership on counterproductive behavior's different dimensions.

#### **4.2.2 The mediating effect of insider identity**

Next, we conducted the test about the mediating effect of insider identity in the influencing process of differential leadership on extra-role behavior. We have completed the first two steps of mediating effect testing proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) (step1: the test of the influence of differential leadership on extra-role behavior; step 2, the test of the influence of differential leadership on insider identity), so we only needed to input the demographic variables as control variables into the regression equation first. Then differential leadership and insider identity worked as independent variables, all dimensions of extra-role behavior worked as dependent variables, all of which were input into regression equation. There was one point to mention that, there was insignificantly effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on insider identity, so we only needed to test the mediating effect of insider identity in the influencing process of two dimensions (promotion and reward, communication and care) on extra-role behavior.

In this regression procedure, we mainly focused on whether the regression coefficient of mediating variable insider identity was significant. If it was significant, there existed a mediating effect. Furthermore, we would see the regression coefficient of independent variable (differential leadership). If it was still significant, it indicated that there existed a part mediating effect, otherwise, if it was no longer significant, it could be inferred that there was a complete mediating effect. In addition, we would analyze the influence of mediating effect insider identity on dependent variables (organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior), therefore the hypothesis H9 and H10 proposed in Chapter 2 was tested.

##### **4.2.2.1 Differential leadership →insider identity→ organizational citizenship behavior**

From the results of regression analysis demonstrated in Appended Table 14 and 15, we could make concrete analysis about the relationships between insider identity and

organizational citizenship behavior, as well as the insider identity's mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior.

(1) There was a significantly positive effect of insider identity on advocating participation ( $\beta = 0.376, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect on mutual assistance ( $\beta = 0.464, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect on functional participation ( $\beta = 0.371, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect on loyalty behavior ( $\beta = 0.441, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly positive effect on obedience behavior ( $\beta = 0.337, p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, the hypothesis H9 was supported.

(2) Employee's insider identity played a part mediating role in the influencing process of promotion and reward on advocating participation behavior, mutual assistance, loyalty and obedience. However, there was no mediating effect of insider identity in the influencing process of promotion and reward on functional participation behavior. The results were consistent with the conclusions above concerning psychological empowerment, that is, psychological empowerment took a complete mediating role in the influencing process of promotion and reward on functional participation behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H11.1 was partly supported.

(3) Employee's insider identity played a part mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on advocating participation behavior, mutual assistance, loyalty and obedience. However, there was no mediating effect of insider identity in the influencing process of communication and care on functional participation behavior. The results were consistent with the conclusions above concerning psychological empowerment, that is, psychological empowerment took a complete mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on functional participation behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H11.2 was partly supported.

(4) There was an insignificant effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on insider identity, so employee's insider identity played no mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H11.3 was not supported.

To sum up, the hypothesis H11 proposed in Chapter 2 was also supported to some extent. Insider identity had a part mediating role in the influencing process of some perceived differential leadership dimensions on all dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior.

#### **4.2.2.2 Differential leadership → insider identity → counterproductive behavior**

From the results of regression analysis demonstrated in Appended Table 16 and 17, we could make specific analysis about the relationships between insider identity and

counterproductive behavior, as well as the insider identity's mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior.

(1) There was a significantly negative effect of insider identity on organizational counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.368, p < 0.001$ ), a significantly negative effect on interpersonal counterproductive behavior ( $\beta = -0.351, p < 0.001$ ). Consequently, the hypothesis H10 was supported.

(2) Employee's insider identity played a part mediating role in the influencing process of promotion and reward on organizational and interpersonal counterproductive behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H12.1 was supported.

(3) Employee's insider identity played a part mediating role in the influencing process of communication and care on organizational and interpersonal counterproductive behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H12.2 was supported.

(4) There was an insignificant effect of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on insider identity, so employee's insider identity played no mediating role in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on counterproductive behavior. Therefore, the hypothesis H12.3 was not supported.

In conclusion, the hypothesis H12 proposed in Chapter 2 was also supported to some extent. Insider identity had a part mediating effect in the influencing process of some perceived differential leadership dimensions on all dimensions of counterproductive behavior.

### **4.3 Hypothesis testing of moderating effect model**

Next, we would do the hypothesis testing about two important moderating effect proposed in this research, that is, the moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence and team ethical atmosphere in the influencing process of differential leadership on extra-role behavior.

There is one point to be noted that, all moderating variables (supervisor emotional intelligence and team ethical group) mentioned in this research were variables at team level. While, the independent variable (differential leadership perceived) and dependent variables (organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive behavior) were all variables at individual level. The corresponding moderating effect played a cross-level role, so we would apply the hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) to do the test. There are four steps in the analyzing process. First step M1, null model is tested to identify the whether there is the significant difference both in the individual level and group level. Step 2 (M2), the regression

coefficients of control variables in the individual level (considering that the regression coefficients of control variables might increase content space and make tables ugly, they would not be listed in the table) and independent variables are added to test the explanatory power. Step3 (M3), the team-level moderating variables are added to the regression equation with intercept items to calculate the influence of moderating variables on dependent variables. Step 4 (M4), the moderating variables are added to the regression equation with the individual level slope to test the influence of the interaction of moderating variables and independent variables on dependent variables (In this process, we only need to focus on whether the regression coefficients are significant)

#### **4.3.1 Moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence**

##### **4.3.1.1 Moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence between the difference leadership and organizational citizenship behavior**

According to the results of cross-level regression showed in Table 4-7, we firstly analyzed the moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence in the influencing of promotion and reward perceived by employees on organizational citizenship behavior. To be more specific,

(1) Emotional intelligence moderated the influence of promotion & reward perceived by employees on advocating participation. According to M1, the first residual variance within group of advocating participation  $\sigma^2 = 0.61$ , the random intercept variance between group  $\tau_{00} = 0.22$  ( $p < 0.001$ ),  $ICC(1) = \tau_{00} / (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2) = 0.371$ , indicating 37.1% of the total variance of advocating participation could be explained by the group difference, so it was necessary and reasonable to do cross-level analysis. Based on this, according to M2 and M3, when the dependent variable was the advocating participation behavior, the supervisor emotional intelligence in team-level was added to null model to operate intercept predicating model, then the group variance decreased from 0.22 to 0.17. It indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence could provide 22.7% explanation ( $0.227 = (0.22 - 0.17) / 0.22$ ) to the group variance of advocating participation, additionally, the main effect was significant ( $\gamma_{01} = 0.19$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Besides that, refer to M4, the interaction of promotion & rewards and emotional intelligence had a significantly positive effect on advocating participation ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.22$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, supervisor emotional intelligence had a significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of promotion & reward on advocating participation.

(2) Emotional intelligence moderated the influence of promotion and reward perceived by employees on mutual assistance. According to M1, the first residual variance within group of

mutual assistance  $\sigma^2 = 0.58$ , the random intercept variance between groups  $\tau_{00} = 0.11$  ( $p < 0.001$ ),  $ICC(1) = \tau_{00} / (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2) = 0.246$ , indicating 24.6% of the total variance of could be explained by the group difference, so it was necessary and reasonable to do cross-level analysis. Based on this, according to M2 and M3, when the dependent variable was the mutual assistance, the supervisor emotional intelligence in team-level was added to null model to operate intercept predicating model, then the group variance decreased from 0.11 to 0.10. It indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence could provide 9.1% explanation ( $0.091 = (0.11 - 0.10) / 0.11$ ) to the group variance of mutual assistance, additionally, the main effect was not significant ( $\gamma_{01} = 0.22$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Besides that, refer to M4, the interaction of promotion & reward and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on mutual assistance ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.17$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of promotion & reward on mutual assistance.

(3) Emotional intelligence moderated the influence of promotion & reward perceived by employees on functional participation. According to M1, the first residual variance within group of functional participation  $\sigma^2 = 0.45$ , the random intercept variance between groups  $\tau_{00} = 0.12$  ( $p < 0.001$ ),  $ICC(1) = \tau_{00} / (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2) = 0.372$ , indicating 37.2% of the total variance of functional participation could be explained by the group difference, so it was necessary and reasonable to do cross-level analysis. Based on this, according to M2 and M3, when the dependent variable was the functional participation, the supervisor emotional intelligence in team-level was added to null model to operate intercept predicating model, then the group variance decreased from 0.12 to 0.11. It indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence could provide 8.3% explanation ( $0.083 = (0.12 - 0.11) / 0.12$ ) to the group variance of functional participation, additionally, the main effect was not significant ( $\gamma_{01} = 0.27$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Besides that, refer to M4, the interaction of promotion and reward and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on functional participation ( $\gamma_{01} = 0.27$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of promotion & reward on functional participation.

(4) Emotional intelligence moderated the influence of promotion and reward perceived by employees on loyalty. According to M1, the first residual variance within group of loyalty  $\sigma^2 = 0.46$ , the random intercept variance between groups  $\tau_{00} = 0.29$  ( $p < 0.001$ ),  $ICC(1) = \tau_{00} / (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2) = 0.578$ , indicating 57.8% of the total variance of loyalty behavior could be explained by the group difference, so it was necessary and reasonable to do cross-level analysis. Based on this, according to M2 and M3, when the dependent variable was loyalty, the supervisor

emotional intelligence in team-level was added to null model to operate intercept predicating model, then the group variance decreased from 0.29 to 0.18. It indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence could provide 37.9% explanation ( $0.379 = (0.29 - 0.18) / 0.29$ ), to the group variance of loyalty, additionally, the main effect was significant ( $\gamma_{01} = 0.22, p < 0.01$ ). Besides that, refer to M4, the interaction of promotion & rewards and emotional intelligence had a significantly positive effect on loyalty ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.22, p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, supervisor emotional intelligence had a significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of promotion & reward on loyalty.

(5) Emotional intelligence moderated the influence of promotion & reward perceived by employees on obedience. According to M1, the first residual variance within group of obedience  $\sigma^2 = 0.69$ , the random intercept variance between groups  $\tau_{00} = 0.23$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), ICC (1) =  $\tau_{00} / (\tau_{00} + \sigma^2) = 0.326$ , indicating 32.6% of the total variance of obedience could be explained by the group difference, so it was necessary and reasonable to do cross-level analysis. Based on this, according to M2 and M3, when the dependent variable was obedience, the supervisor emotional intelligence in team-level was added to null model to operate intercept predicating model, then the group variance decreased from 0.23 to 0.21. It indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence could provide 8.7% explanation to the group variance of functional participation ( $0.087 = (0.23 - 0.21) / 0.23$ ), additionally, the main effect was significant ( $\gamma_{01} = 0.13, p < 0.001$ ). Besides that, refer to M4, the interaction of promotion & rewards and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on functional participation ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.31, p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of promotion & reward on obedience.

In conclusion, the hypothesis H13.1 was partly supported. The supervisor emotional intelligence had a significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of promotion & reward on advocating participation and loyalty, however, there was no significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of promotion & reward on mutual assistance, functional participation and obedience.

Table 4 - 7 Moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence (promotion and rewards → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable	Advocating participation				Mutual assistance				Functional participation				Loyalty				Obedience			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
<b>Intercept</b> ( $\gamma_{00}$ )	3.26*	3.25*	3.26*	3.24*	4.18*	4.17*	4.16*	4.16*	4.56*	4.58*	4.56*	4.55*	4.36*	4.33*	4.36*	4.35*	4.61*	4.62*	4.62*	4.60*
<b>Level-1 predictin g factor</b>																				
Promotion and reward ( $\gamma_{10}$ )		.36** *	.25** *	.18** *		.29** *	.22** *	.20** *		.42** *	.36** *	.32** *		.44** *	.42** *	.39** *		.46** *	.33** *	.31** *
<b>Level-2 predictin g factor</b>																				
Superviso r emotional intelligenc e ( $\gamma_{01}$ )			.19**	.15**			.22	.19			.27	.15			.22**	.21**			.13** *	.15** *
<b>Interactio n</b>																				
Promotion and reward × emotional intelligenc e ( $\gamma_{11}$ )				.22**				.17				.26				.23**				.31
<b><math>\sigma^2</math></b>	.61	.60	.60	.59	.58	.56	.55	.56	.45	.44	.44	.45	.46	.44	.45	.45	.69	.68	.65	.62
<b><math>\tau_{00}</math></b>	.22** *	.18** *	.17** *	.15** *	.11** *	.10** *	.10** *	.13** *	.12** *	.11** *	.11** *	.17** *	.29** *	.26** *	.18** *	.20** *	.23** *	.22** *	.21** *	.19** *
<b><math>\tau_{11}</math></b>		.18**	.15**	.13**		.10**	.08**	.06**		.10**	.06**	.05**		.22**	.21**	.19**		.17**	.18**	.15**

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	*	*	*				*			*	*				
<b>R<sup>2</sup><sub>level-1</sub></b>	.22	.26	.29	.21	.15	.12	.24	.21	.16	.27	.29	.33	.15	.17	.20
<b>R<sup>2</sup><sub>level-2</sub></b>			.16			.09			.12			.26			.15

Note: \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 significant, all coefficients are estimated values of fixed effect under the robust standard error

Based on the above analysis, in order to demonstrate explicitly the cross-level moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence in the influencing process of promotion & reward on the advocating participation and loyalty, we drew upon the methods recommended by Aiken and West (1991). Using the mean value of supervisor emotional intelligence as the baseline, we added and deducted 1 standard variance separately as high emotional intelligence and low emotional intelligence, finally drew the moderating effect diagram showed in Figure 4-1, 4-2.

As showed in Figure 4-1, emotional intelligence had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of promotion and reward on advocating participation. When the supervisor emotional intelligence level was high, the positive influence of promotion and reward on advocating participation would be stronger, and, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was low, the positive influence of promotion and reward on advocating participation would be weaker. This indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence to some extent could enhance the positive influence of promotion and reward on advocating participation.

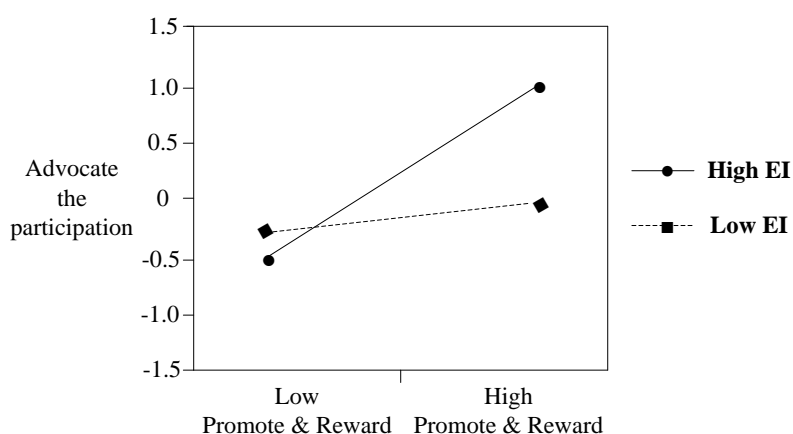


Figure 4 - 1 Cross-level moderating of emotional intelligence between promotion & reward and advocating participation

As showed in Figure 4-2, emotional intelligence had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of promotion and reward on loyalty. To be more specific, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was high, the positive influence of promotion and reward on loyalty would be stronger, and, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was low, the positive influence of promotion and reward on loyalty would be weaker. This indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence to some extent could enhance the positive influence of promotion and reward on loyalty.

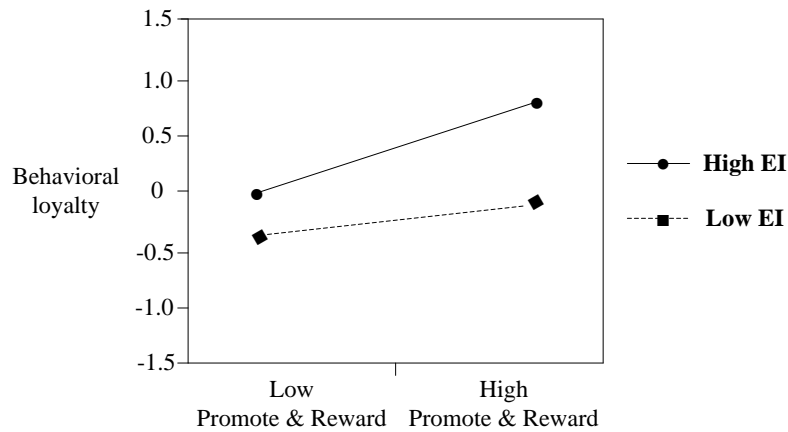


Figure 4 - 2 Cross-level moderating of emotional intelligence between promotion & reward and loyalty

Next, according to the results of cross-level regression analysis showed in Appended Table 18, we could analyze the moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence in the influencing process of communication and care on organizational citizenship behavior. There was another point to be noted, we have already made calculations about the variance of different dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior within and between groups, as well as clarified the rationality and necessity of cross-level analysis, so we would not repeat the same contents. We just directly tested whether there was a significant effect of the interaction of communication and care and emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behavior. To be more specific.

(1) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of communication & care on advocating participation. According to M4, the interaction of communication and care and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on advocating participation ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.27, p > 0.05$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of communication and care on advocating participation, the supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect.

(2) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of communication and care on mutual assistance. According to M4, the interaction of communication & care and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on mutual assistance ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.12, p > 0.05$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of communication and care on mutual assistance, the supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect.

(3) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of communication and care on functional participation. According to M4, the interaction of communication & care and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on functional participation ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.17, p > 0.05$ ).

As a result, in the influencing process of communication and care on functional participation, the supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect.

(4) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of communication and care on loyalty. According to M4, the interaction of communication & care and emotional intelligence had a significantly positive effect on loyalty behavior ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.19, p < 0.01$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of communication and care on loyalty, the supervisor emotional intelligence had a significant cross-level moderating effect.

(5) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of communication and care on obedience. According to M4, the interaction of communication & care and emotional intelligence had a significantly positive effect on obedience behavior ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.26, p < 0.01$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of communication and care on obedience behavior, the supervisor emotional intelligence had a significant cross-level moderating effect. To sum up, the hypothesis H13.2 was partly supported. Supervisor emotional intelligence had a significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of communication and care perceived by employees on loyalty and obedience behavior. However, the supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of communication and care on advocating participation, mutual assistance and functional participation.

Based on the above analysis, in order to demonstrate explicitly the cross-level moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence in the influencing process of communication and care on the loyalty and obedience behavior, we drew upon the methods recommended by Aiken and West (1991). By use of the mean value of supervisor emotional intelligence as the baseline, we added or deducted 1 standard variance separately as high emotional intelligence or low emotional intelligence, finally drew the moderating effect diagram.

As showed in Appended Figure 1, emotional intelligence had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of communication and care on loyalty. To be more specific, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was high, the positive influence of communication and care on loyalty would be stronger, and, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was low, the positive influence of communication and care on loyalty would be weaker. This indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence to some extent could enhance the positive influence of communication and care on loyalty.

As showed in Appended Figure 2, emotional intelligence had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of communication and care on obedience. To be more specific,

when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was high, the positive influence of communication and care on obedience behavior would be stronger, and, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was low, the positive influence of communication and care on obedience would be weaker. This indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence to some extent could enhance the positive influence of communication and care on obedience.

Finally, according to the results of cross-level regression analysis showed in Appended Table 19, we could analyze the moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on organizational citizenship behavior. There was another point to be noted, we have already made calculations about the variance of different dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior within and between groups, as well as clarified the rationality and necessity of cross-level analysis, so we would not repeat the same contents. We just directly tested whether there was a significant effect of the interaction of tolerance of mistakes and emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behavior. To be more specific,

(1) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of tolerance of mistakes on advocating participation. According to M4, the interaction of tolerance of mistakes and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on advocating participation ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.27, p > 0.05$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on advocating participation, the supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect.

(2) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of tolerance of mistakes on mutual assistance. According to M4, the interaction of tolerance of mistakes and emotional intelligence had a significantly positive effect on mutual assistance ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.23, p < 0.01$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on mutual assistance, the supervisor emotional intelligence had a significant cross-level moderating effect.

(3) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of tolerance of mistakes on functional participation. According to M4, the interaction of tolerance of mistakes and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on functional participation ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.26, p > 0.05$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on functional participation, the supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect.

(4) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of tolerance of mistakes on loyalty. According to M4, the interaction of tolerance of mistakes and emotional intelligence had a significantly positive effect on loyalty ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.25, p < 0.01$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on loyalty, the supervisor emotional intelligence had a

significant cross-level moderating effect.

(5) The emotional intelligence moderated the influence of tolerance of mistakes on obedience. According to M4, the interaction of tolerance of mistakes and emotional intelligence had no significant effect on obedience ( $\gamma_{11} = 0.18, p > 0.01$ ). As a result, in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on obedience, the supervisor emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect.

To sum up, the hypothesis H13.3 was partly supported. Supervisor emotional intelligence had a significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on mutual assistance and loyalty. However, in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on advocating participation, functional participation, and obedience, the emotional intelligence had no significant cross-level moderating effect. Based on the above analysis, in order to demonstrate explicitly the cross-level moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on the mutual assistance and loyalty behavior, we drew upon the methods recommended by Aiken and West (1991). By use of the mean value of supervisor emotional intelligence as based line, we added and deducted 1 standard variance separately as high emotional intelligence and low emotional intelligence, finally drew the moderating effect diagram shown in Appended Figure 3, 4.

As showed in Appended Figure 3, emotional intelligence had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of tolerance of mistakes on mutual assistance. To be more specific, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was high, the positive influence of tolerance of mistakes on mutual assistance would be stronger, and, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was low, the positive influence of tolerance of mistakes on mutual assistance would be weaker. This indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence to some extent could enhance the positive influence of tolerance of mistakes on mutual assistance.

As showed in Appended Figure 4, emotional intelligence had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of tolerance of mistakes on loyalty. To be more specific, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was high, the positive influence of tolerance of mistakes on loyalty would be stronger, and, when the supervisor emotional intelligence level was low, the positive influence of tolerance of mistakes on loyalty would be weaker. This indicated that supervisor emotional intelligence to some extent could enhance the positive influence of tolerance of mistakes on loyalty.

### **4.3.2 Moderating effect of team ethical climate**

#### **4.3.2.1 Moderating effect of team ethical climate between differential leadership and counterproductive behavior**

Different from supervisor emotional intelligence, though team ethical climate was a team-level variable, yet we could only do the survey about the team ethical climate perceived by employees during collecting data, so the individual-level data should be aggregated to team level.  $R_{wg}$  was used to test team consistency and ICC (1) and ICC (2) were employed to test inter-group heterogeneity, to determine the validity of individual data when aggregated into team level. The results of variance analysis demonstrated that, ICC (1) of team ethical climate was 0.162, and the ICC (2) of team ethical climate was 0.579, both of which were above 0.12 (standard recommended by James), and above 0.47 (standard recommended by Schneider et, al.). In addition, the average of  $R_{wg}$  was 0.826, meeting the aggregation requirements

According to the results of cross-level regression analysis showed in Appended Table 20, we could analyze the moderating effect of team ethical climate in the influencing process of promotion and reward on counterproductive behavior. There was another point to be noted, due to the analysis mentioned in last section, we have already made calculations about the variance of different dimensions of counterproductive behavior within and between groups, as well as clarified the rationality and necessity of cross-level analysis, so we would not repeat the same contents. We just directly tested whether there was a significant effect of the interaction of team ethical climate and promotion and reward on counterproductive behavior. To be more specific,

(1) The team ethical climate moderated the influence of promotion & reward on organizational counterproductive behavior. According to M4, the interaction of promotion & reward and team ethical climate had no significant effect on organizational counterproductive behavior ( $\gamma_{11} = -0.21$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Consequently, in the influencing process of promotion and reward on organizational counterproductive behavior, the team ethical climate had no significant cross-level moderating effect.

(2) The team ethical climate moderated the influence of promotion and reward on interpersonal counterproductive behavior. According to M4, the interaction of promotion & reward and team ethical climate had no significant effect on interpersonal counterproductive behavior ( $\gamma_{11} = -0.26$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Consequently, in the influencing process of promotion and reward on interpersonal counterproductive behavior, the team ethical climate had no significant cross-level moderating effect.

In conclusion, the hypothesis H14.1 was not supported. Team ethical climate had no significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of promotion and reward perceived by employees on counterproductive behavior. Additionally, because there was no existence of cross-level moderating effect, there was no need to draw diagrams to make further determinations about the detailed moderating effect. Next, according to the results of cross-level regression analysis showed in Appended Table 21, we could analyze the moderating effect of team ethical climate in the influencing process of communication and care on counterproductive behavior. To be more specific,

(1) The team ethical climate moderated the influence of communication and care perceived by employees on organizational counterproductive behavior. According to M4, the interaction of communication & care and team ethical climate had a significantly negative effect on organizational counterproductive behavior ( $\gamma_{11} = -0.16, p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, in the influencing process of communication and care on organizational counterproductive behavior, the team ethical climate had a significant cross-level moderating effect.

(2) The team ethical climate moderated the influence of communication and care perceived by employees on interpersonal counterproductive behavior. According to M4, the interaction of communication & care and team ethical climate had a significantly negative effect on interpersonal counterproductive behavior ( $\gamma_{11} = -0.13, p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, in the influencing process of communication and care on interpersonal counterproductive behavior, the team ethical climate had a significant cross-level moderating effect.

In conclusion, the hypothesis H14.2 was supported. Team ethical climate had a significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of communication and care perceived by employees on counterproductive behavior.

Similarly, in order to demonstrate explicitly the cross-level moderating effect of team ethical climate in the influencing process of communication and care on the counterproductive behavior, we drew upon the methods recommended by Aiken and West (1991). By use of the mean value of team ethical climate as the baseline, we added and deducted 1 standard deviation separately as high team ethical climate and low team ethical climate, finally worked out the moderating effect diagram showed in Appended Figure 5, 6.

As showed in Appended Figure 5, team ethical climate had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of communication and care on organizational counterproductive behavior. Specifically, when the team ethical climate level was high, the negative influence of communication and care on organizational counterproductive behavior

would be stronger, and, when the team ethical climate level was low, the negative influence of communication and care on organizational counterproductive behavior would be weaker. This indicated that team ethical climate to some extent could enhance the negative influence of communication and care on organizational counterproductive behavior.

As showed in Appended Figure 6, team ethical climate had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of communication and care on interpersonal counterproductive behavior. Specifically, when the team ethical climate level was high, the negative influence of communication and care on interpersonal counterproductive behavior would be stronger, and, when the team ethical climate level was low, the negative influence of communication and care on interpersonal counterproductive behavior would be weaker. This indicated that team ethical climate to some extent could enhance the negative influence of communication and care on interpersonal counterproductive behavior.

Finally, according to the results of cross-level regression analysis showed in Appended Table 22, we could analyze the moderating effect of team ethical climate in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on counterproductive behavior. To be more specific,

(1) The team ethical climate moderated the influence of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on organizational counterproductive behavior. According to M4, the interaction of tolerance of mistakes and team ethical climate had a significantly negative effect on organizational counterproductive behavior ( $\gamma_{11} = -0.11, p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on organizational counterproductive behavior, the team ethical climate had a significant cross-level moderating effect.

(2) The team ethical climate moderated the influence of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on interpersonal counterproductive behavior. According to M4, the interaction of tolerance of mistakes and team ethical climate had a significantly negative effect on interpersonal counterproductive behavior ( $\gamma_{11} = -0.15, p < 0.01$ ). Therefore, in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on interpersonal counterproductive behavior, the team ethical climate had a significant cross-level moderating effect.

In summary, the hypothesis H14.3 was supported. Team ethical climate had a significant cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes perceived by employees on counterproductive behavior.

Similarly, in order to demonstrate explicitly the cross-level moderating effect of team ethical climate in the influencing process of tolerance of mistakes on the counterproductive

behavior, we drew upon the methods recommended by Aiken and West (1991). By use of the mean value of team ethical climate as the baseline, we added and deducted 1 standard deviation separately as high team ethical climate and low team ethical climate, finally worked out the moderating effect diagram showed in Appended Figure 7, 8.

As showed in Appended Figure 7, team ethical climate had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of tolerance of mistakes on organizational counterproductive behavior. Specifically, when the team ethical climate level was high, the negative influence of tolerance of mistakes on organizational counterproductive behavior would be stronger, and, when the team ethical climate level was low, the negative influence of tolerance of mistakes on organizational counterproductive behavior would be weaker. This indicated that team ethical climate to some extent could enhance the negative influence of tolerance of mistakes on organizational counterproductive behavior.

As showed in Appended Figure 8, team ethical climate had a significant enhancing moderating effect in the influence of tolerance of mistakes on interpersonal counterproductive behavior. Specifically, when the team ethical climate level was high, the negative influence of tolerance of mistakes on interpersonal counterproductive behavior would be stronger, and, when the team ethical climate level was low, the negative influence of tolerance of mistakes on interpersonal counterproductive behavior would be weaker. This indicated that team ethical climate to some extent could enhance the negative influence of tolerance of mistakes on interpersonal counterproductive behavior.

## **Chapter 5: Research Summary and Practical Implication**

The study is a combination of theoretical and empirical research, and the empirical research is conducted about a series of research hypotheses based on kinds of theoretical foundation. The related research conclusions are of great value to the management practice, especially on how to make use of differential leadership to encourage organizational citizenship behavior and control counterproductive behavior, and to improve psychological empowerment and insider identity. Based on this, this chapter will explore the practical implications in management fields according to the basis of empirical studies of research hypotheses.

### **5.1 Research conclusion**

#### **5.1.1 Research conclusion of main effect model**

Based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), hypothesis H1 is supported after the data analysis, that is, the differential leadership perceived by employees is significantly positively related to their organizational citizenship behavior. There are also some studies arguing that leadership behavior is significantly positively related to employees' organizational citizenship behavior (Chen & Farh, 1999; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Li & Shi, 2003).

Based on the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), hypothesis H2 is supported after the data analysis, that is, the differential leadership perceived by employees is significantly negatively related to their counterproductive behavior. There are also some studies showing that organizational justice (including leadership justice) has a negative impact on employees' counterproductive behavior (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010).

#### **5.1.2 The research conclusion of mediating effect model**

##### **5.1.2.1 Psychological empowerment**

Firstly, based on the cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), hypothesis H3 is supported after the data analysis, that is, the differential leadership perceived by employees is significantly positively related to their psychological empowerment. There are also some

studies illustrating that the relationship between leaders and employees (including leaders' work support to employees) is significantly positively related to employees' psychological empowerment (Wat & Shaffer, 2005; Butts, Vandenberg, & David, 2009; Hill, Kang, & Seo, 2014; Newman, Schwarz, & Cooper, 2017).

Secondly, based on the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), hypothesis H4 is supported, that is, employees' psychological empowerment is significantly positively related to their organizational citizenship behavior, which has supported relevant research results (Spreitzer, 1995).

Based on the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), hypothesis H5 is supported, that is, employees' psychological empowerment is significantly negatively related to their counterproductive behavior, which has supported relevant research results (Spreitzer, 1995).

Finally, based the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), hypothesis H6 is partly supported, that is, employees' psychological empowerment plays a partial mediating role in the influencing process of the differential leadership perceived by employees on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. There are also some studies proving that psychological empowerment plays a mediating role in the influencing process of leadership behavior on employees' organizational citizenship behavior. (Ding & Xi, 2007; Liang & Chen, 2008; Liu & Zou, 2013; Tang, 2014).

Based on the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), hypothesis H7 is supported after the data analysis, that is, employees' psychological empowerment plays a partial mediating role in the influencing process of the differential leadership perceived by employees on dimensions of counterproductive behavior. There are also some studies suggesting that psychological empowerment plays a mediating role in the influencing process of leadership behavior on employees' counterproductive behavior (Shi & Yang, 2015).

#### **5.1.2.2 Insider identity**

Firstly, based the cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), hypothesis H8.1 and H8.2 are supported after the data analysis, but hypothesis H8.3 is not support. Therefore, hypothesis H8 is partly supported, that is, the hypothesis that differential leadership perceived by employees is significantly positively related to their insider identity is partly supported, which supports the relevant research results (Wang, Chu, & Ni, 2009; Jiang & Zhang, 2010). There are also some studies indicating that the interactions between leaders and employees are

positively related to employees' insider identity (Erez & Earley, 1993; Stamper & Masterson, 2002; Chen & Aryee, 2007; Wang, Chu, & Ni, 2009; Jiang & Zhang, 2010).

Secondly, based on the work motivation theory (Locke & Henne, 1986), hypothesis H9 is supported after the data analysis, that is, employees' insider identity is significantly positively related to their organizational citizenship behavior, which has supported relevant research results (Zheng, 1995).

Based on structural strain theory (Merton, 1938), hypothesis H9 is supported after the data analysis, that is, employees' insider identity is significantly positively related to their counterproductive behavior, which has supported relevant research results (Zheng, 1995).

Finally, based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), cognitive evaluation Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), hypothesis H11.1 and H11.2 are supported, but hypothesis H8.3 is not support. Therefore, hypothesis H11 is partly supported, that is, employees' insider identity plays a partial mediating role in the influencing process of the differential leadership perceived by employees on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, which supported the relevant research results (Yang, 2009; Yin, Wang, & Huang, 2010).

Based on the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and structural strain theory (Merton, 1938), hypothesis H12.1 and H12.2 are supported, but hypothesis H12.3 is not support. Therefore, hypothesis H12 is partly supported, that is, employees' insider identity plays a partial mediating role in the influencing process of the differential leadership perceived by employees on dimensions of counterproductive behavior.

### **5.1.3 The research conclusion of moderating effect model**

Firstly, hypothesis 13.1, 13.2, 13.3 are partly supported. Therefore, hypothesis H13 is partly supported, that is, the hypothesis that emotional intelligence of leaders has a cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of differential leadership perceived by employees on dimensions of their organizational citizenship behavior is partly supported. There are also studies demonstrating that emotional intelligence of leaders has a positive impact on employees' organizational citizenship behavior (Slaskim & Cartwright, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002; Graen, 2003; Wang, Tsui, & Zhang, 2003).

Secondly, hypothesis H14.1 is not supported, but hypothesis H14.2 and H14.3 are supported. Therefore, hypothesis 14 is partly supported, that is, the hypothesis that team ethical

climate has a cross-level moderating effect in the influencing process of differential leadership perceived by employees on dimensions of their counterproductive behavior is partly supported. There are also studies testifying that team ethical climate has a positive impact on employees' counterproductive behavior.

## **5.2 Theoretical innovation**

Based on the empirical research in this thesis, the theoretical implications are as follows.

Firstly, the mature Western leadership theories cannot fully explain the leadership behaviors in Chinese social and cultural contexts. This thesis explores the impacts of differential leadership behaviors from the perspective of employee perception, which is of theoretical value in helping us understand the unique Chinese leadership.

Secondly, this study has initially established a theoretical model that explains the mechanism by which differential leadership works. This study investigates the impact of differential leadership on employees' extra-role behavior and then explores the mediating and moderating effects. The research conclusions can provide theoretical basis when explaining the effectiveness of differential leadership.

Thirdly, this study provides a new theoretical perspective for understanding employees' extra-role behaviors: studying differential leadership and understanding the mechanism of employees' extra-role behaviors from the perspective of employee perception; organizing organizational citizenship and anti-production behaviors into the same theoretical framework and then carrying out relevant comparative studies to deepen the understanding.

Fourthly, the research conclusions are as following:

The differential leadership perceived by employees is significantly positively related to their organizational citizenship behavior and significantly negatively related to their counterproductive behavior, that is, the stronger employees perceive the differential leadership behavior, the more organizational citizenship behavior generated and the less counterproductive behavior they have.

The differential leadership perceived by employees is significantly positively related to their psychological empowerment, that is, the stronger perception of the differential leadership is, the more psychological empowerment will be.

Employees' psychological empowerment plays a partial mediating role in the influencing

processes of differential leadership on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior and dimensions of counterproductive behavior, that is, employees' psychological empowerment plays a partial mediating role in the influencing processes of differential leadership on employees' extra-role behavior.

Insider identity has a partial mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on dimensions of counterproductive behavior, that is, insider identity plays a partial mediating role in the influencing process of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior.

Emotional intelligence of leaders has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of differential leadership on dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, that is, high emotional intelligence of leaders can strengthen the positive effect of differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior and low emotional intelligence of leaders can weaken the positive effect of differential leadership on organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational ethical climate has the cross-level moderating effect in the influence of differential leadership on dimensions of counterproductive behavior, that is, low organizational ethical climate can weaken the negative effect of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior and high organizational ethical climate can strengthen the negative effect of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior.

## **5.3 Practical implications**

### **5.3.1 Strengthen the management of extra-role behavior**

Concerning with the research areas of organizational behavior and human resources, the study of individual behavior is a very important way to explore the effectiveness of organizational functions and organizational performance issues. Since the 1980s, more and more scholars have started to study extra-role behaviors proposed by Katz (1964). In the following process, a series of important research findings have made scholars and management practitioners gradually get rid of the thinking of regarding job performance as one-dimensional construct, and form a two-dimensional structure of work performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

However, most Chinese companies and other leaders still give high priority to task performance and ignore contextual Performance created by extra-role behaviors in the process

of performance evaluation, thus resulting in many practical issues, such as unscientific performance, and unfair salary distribution. The “Yin and Yang view “in Chinese traditional culture gives us a significant implication that in the process of performance management, the rigidity of task performance and the flexibility of contextual performance should be combined. Chinese companies or managers in transitions should learn to jump out from the old ideas of performance evaluations based only on task performance, and strengthen the management of extra-role behaviors.

In fact, in the process of collecting data for empirical studies, we found that, employees in Chinese companies indeed behave more and more organizational citizenship behavior or counterproductive behavior. Therefore, we suggest that all Chinese companies and leaders should consider these questions. 1) Whether those employees with high task performance have performed positive extra-role behavior to help their teams or departments to improve the whole efficiency? If not, how to motivate or promote them to perform corresponding positive extra-role behaviors. 2) whether those employees with low task performance have performed positive extra-role behavior to help their teams or departments to improve the whole efficiency? If there is, how to give them necessary rewards or compensations when conducting an overall performance evaluation. 3) whether those employees with high task performance have performed negative extra-role behaviors which reduce the whole efficiency of their teams or departments? If there is, how to control and constrain them to perform corresponding negative extra-role behaviors? 4) For those employees who have poor task performance and often have negative extra-role behaviors, how to give them necessary punishment or penalty, and how to change them correspondingly through certain kind of methods?

### **5.3.2 Correct understanding of the effectiveness of the differential leadership behavior**

From the day of the establishment of the leadership theory, organizational management scholars always think and explore which kind of leadership is scientific and effective. The related research results play a very important role in guiding leadership practices. However, in the research of cross-cultural values, Hofstede (1980) has clearly argued that, the effectiveness of leadership behavior emphasizes the thinking ideas of leaders and followers, or their interpersonal interactions between them, so these effective leadership style or behavior in western context actually may be less effective or even not applicable in Chinese companies. In other words, due to the influence of social history and traditional culture, the working style and behavior performance of effective leaders, or even the concrete concepts can all make a huge

difference (Fan & Zheng, 2000). Therefore, Xi and Han (2010) believed that only constructing Chinese own leadership concept can meet and adapt to the practical needs of studies of Chinese localization leadership theory. Zheng firstly proposed the differential leadership theory in 1995, and related scholars following positively explored in this theory, all of which can be regarded as a powerful response to the practical needs of the studies of Chinese localization leadership theory. Based on the basic research paradigm of “environment → cognition → behavior”, this research conducted a theoretical and empirical exploration about the influence of differential leadership on extra-role behaviors, which would have the following significant implications to management practices.

### 5.3.2.1 Classify insiders or outsiders among employees through pro-loyalty-talent

The primary problem to be solved about differential leadership is to classify employees. Therefore, it is top important to find a scientific classification standard, otherwise the classification bias can reduce the effectiveness of differential leadership behavior. In the stage of interview and survey, we communicated and talked deeply with interviewees concerning with the standard of classification. We empirically further supported the scientific classification of employees according to three criteria of “pro, loyalty, and talent” proposed by Zheng (1995) (as shown in Figure 5-1 below).

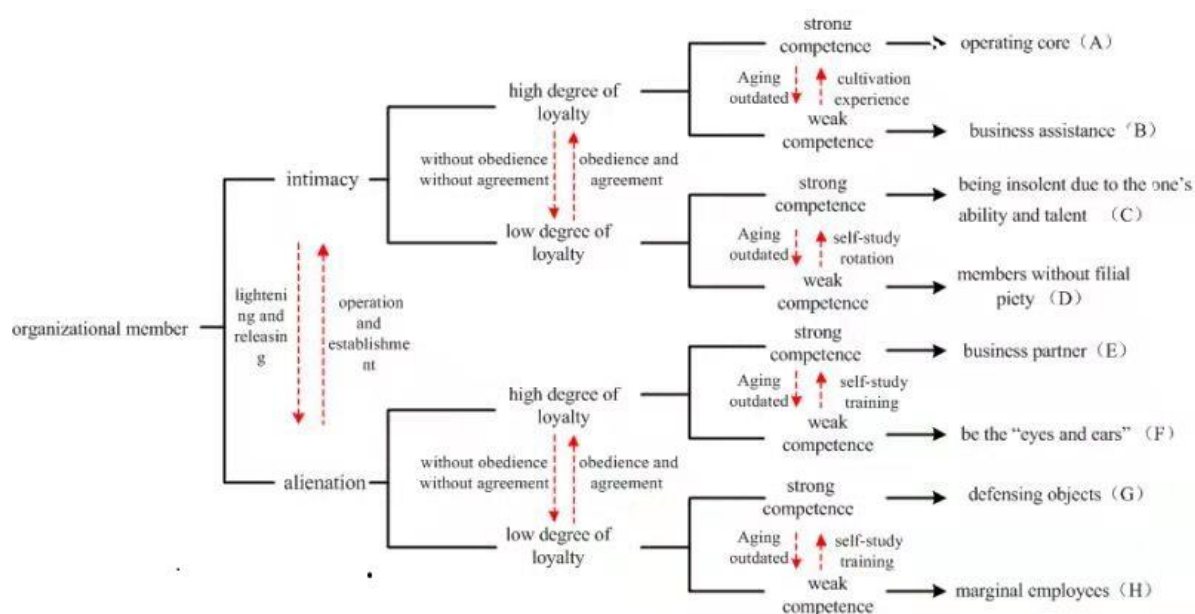


Figure 5 - 1 The classification standard of employees and classification results

To be more specific, 1) “pro” refers to the degree of intimacy or alienation between leaders and subordinates. The more frequent and close the subordinates proactively interact with

leaders, the more positive the leaders would do in the dimension of “pro”. 2) “loyalty” refers to the degree of loyalty of subordinates to leaders. The higher degree of obedience performed by subordinates in formal or informal occasions, the more positive judgement the leaders would make in the dimension of loyalty. 3) “talent” refers to the ability of subordinates to be capable in the workplace. The higher degree of the completion and stronger execution of employees in various of tasks assigned by leaders, the more positive judgement the leaders would make in the dimension of talent. There is one point to be noted that, the evaluation and judgement of leaders on the dimension of “pro, loyalty, and talent” would change dynamically with the interactions between subordinates and leaders. Only the leaders can make a dynamic assessment of the subordinates, it is possible for outsider to make efforts and change into insiders, therefore, there is a good cycle between insider and outsider subordinates.

pattern of trust	pro-emphasized doctrine		loyalty-emphasized doctrine		talent-emphasized doctrine		awareness of insiders
	loyalty-emphasized	talent-emphasized	pro-emphasized	talent-emphasized	pro-emphasized	talent-emphasized	
high	A	A	A	A	A	A	insiders
	B	C	B	E	C	E	
	C	B	E	B	E	C	
	D	D	F	F	G	G	
	E	E	C	C	B	B	
	F	G	D	G	D	F	
	G	F	G	D	F	D	
low	H	H	H	H	H	H	outsiders

A: operating core      B: business assistance      C: being insolent due to the one's ability and talent  
 D: members without filial piety      E: business partner      F: be the "eyes and ears"      G: defending objects  
 H: marginal employees

Figure 5 - 2 The pattern of trust and the classification of employees formed on basis of different classification standards

After the initial classification of employees based on the three criteria of “pro, loyalty, talent”, leaders need to do a further classification according to detailed work requirements and finally clearly identify who are insider and outsider subordinates. As shown in following Figure 5-2, when leaders classify employees based on the degree of importance of “pro>loyalty> talent”, the trust pattern of leaders for type A to H subordinates is in the first column of the figure. Correspondingly, employees with high degree of trust should be regarded as insiders,

while those employees with low degree of trust should be regarded as outsiders. Similarly, when leaders classify the employees based on the importance of “talent > loyalty > pro”. The trust pattern of leaders to type A to H subordinates is in the sixth column of the figure. Accordingly, employees with high degree of trust should be regarded as insiders, while employees with low degree of trust should be regarded as outsiders.

As a matter of fact, the principle of reciprocity does not only reflect in the process of exchange, but also reflect in the pattern of trust among people. For example, the partial treatment of leaders directly reflects their high degree of trust to insider subordinates, and this kind of trust can give followers psychological empowerment and insider identity. Therefore, in order to reward for the trust, subordinates usually follow the examples of leaders. At this time, kinds of behaviors of leaders stimulate the internal motivation through psychological mechanisms such as implied and imitative, thereby promoting positive organizational citizenship behaviors and controlling negative counterproductive behaviors. This study has supported the effectiveness of partial treatment of differential leadership to insider subordinates from theoretical and empirical aspects. Therefore, we suggest leaders in Chinese companies use the following ways to treat their insider subordinates 1) to offer promotion and rewards. From the working process, leaders should help insider subordinates acquire more resources and opportunities, and from the working results, leaders should offer more rewards after insider subordinates complete their work. 2) to give communication and care. Leaders should proactively do frequent and intimate interaction and communication with their insider subordinates in the work and life. 3) to tolerate mistakes properly. leaders can have a relatively tolerant attitude toward kinds of mistakes made by insider subordinates in the workplace, or even help followers cover up or deal with different mistakes and take responsibilities for various problems, namely, to help subordinates avoid these problems. When leaders perform partial behaviors such as tolerance of mistakes, they should grasp the proper degree, and must not turn tolerance into indulge or leave it alone.

#### **5.3.2.2 Promote employees to generate positive self-perception through differential leadership.**

Social cognition theory proposed by Bandura emphasized the interact of environment, cognition and individual behaviors, therefore a basic research paradigm in organizational behavior and human resources is formed, which is to analyze the effect of interactions on individual behavior through the studies of environment and cognition. This study to some extent supported that differential leadership working as an important organizational context in

working process can encourage employees to generate positive self-perception. The implications in management practices from related research conclusions mainly demonstrate in the following aspects.

First, according to theoretical and empirical research in this study, when leaders perform partial behaviors such as promotion and rewards, communication and care, and tolerance of mistakes, followers can be promoted to generate strong psychological empowerment. Though Thomas and Velthouse (1990) contended that psychological empowerment mainly demonstrates in four aspects: meaning, competence, choice and impact. However, this study based on the cognition evaluation theory proposed two most important dimensions of psychological empowerment: perceived competence in the workplace and self-determination. Deci and Ryan (1985) found that: communication and positive feedback can strengthen individual perceived competence and self-determination and help improve internal motivation. While restrictions, instructions and threats can reduce individual perceived competence and self-determination, and undermine internal motivations. Especially for knowledge employees, their perceived competence and self-determination in the workplace are important factors in determining working attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, leaders should make use of differential leadership behavior to improve the perceived competence and self-determination of subordinates, making them generate strong psychological empowerment.

Second, according to theoretical and empirical research in this study, when leaders perform partial behaviors such as promotion and rewards, communication and care, subordinates are promoted to generate strong insider identity. In Chinese traditional culture and value, the importance of identity to each social member goes without saying. Therefore, for Chinese people, it is crucial to acquire a certain identity. It reflects the degree of acceptance and perception of individual space acquired as organizational member, or even can measure the sense of belonging of employees in the organizations. Third, according to theoretical and empirical research in this study, when leaders perform partial behaviors such as tolerance of mistakes, there is no positive impact on insider identity. Therefore, we think the possible explanation may be that, when tolerance of mistakes performed by leaders to insider subordinates exceeds a certain scope, yet there is no deep communication and idea exchange about this between leaders and subordinates, so the followers possibly think that leaders have given up them and adopted a kind of “leave it alone” attitudes. At this time, subordinates have a feeling of being abandoned or forgotten, and the corresponding insider identity would greatly decrease. Therefore, there may be an “inverted U-type” relationship between tolerance of

mistakes and insider identity. When there is proper degree of tolerance of mistakes of leaders, the insider identity will increase. But when the degree of tolerance of mistakes of leaders exceeds a certain limit, the insider identity will decrease. Based on this, as concluded above, when leaders perform partial behavior such as tolerance of mistakes, they should grasp the degree and avoid turning tolerance of mistakes to leaving it alone.

### **5.3.2.3 Management of extra-role behavior by positive self-cognition**

The positive self-cognition of employees generated in workplace has an important impact on extra-role behavior. Based on this, the implications of related research conclusions on management practices are mainly reflected in the following aspects.

First, from the perspective of psychological empowerment. Chinese ancient philosopher Laozi once made an inclusive statement in *Tao Te Ching* about which kind of leaders is the most excellent leader, that is ,the most brilliant leader is that subordinates know his existence; and the second brilliant leader is that subordinates recognize him and praise him; and the third brilliant leader is that subordinates are all afraid of him; finally the worst leader is that subordinates despise and deny him. Therefore, we suggest, on one hand, leaders must have partial behaviors on their insider subordinates to improve their psychological empowerment, on the other hand, leaders need to build individual and team visions, through which employees can perceive the meaning of their work and the value of themselves.

When leaders have partial behaviors to insider subordinates, and construct work visions and plan work career together, subordinates will generate strong psychological empowerment, thereby perform more organizational citizenship behavior and less counterproductive behavior.

Second, from the perspective of insider identity. The specific identity is a very important self-cognition and self-concept for Chinese people. It has a greatly important impact on people's daily life. Therefore, leaders must help employees establish and strengthen their insider identity.

Third, there is another important finding from the empirical research in this thesis. The psychological empowerment has a complete mediating effect in the influencing process of differential leadership of leaders on functional participation behavior. The insider identity has no mediating effect in the influencing process of differential leadership perceived by employees in functional participation behavior. One of the most important characteristics of functional participation behavior is the dedication. To some extent, it reflects the working spirits of employees to be willing to dedicate to originations. So, why the partial behavior or leaders can motivate employees to have working spirits of dedication? It is because that the partial behavior

of leaders can enable subordinates to acquire a strong sense of psychological empowerment. It makes followers believe that they have the ability and autonomy to decide how to complete more work and make more contributions to the organization.

### **5.3.3 Pay attention to the boundary of the influence of differential leadership on extra-role behavior**

Is the effect of differential leadership on extra-role behavior always effective? In other words, which factors can affect the effect of differential leadership on extra-role behavior. Based on this question, we explored in the boundary issues about the effect of differential leadership on extra-role behavior from two perspectives (emotional intelligence and team ethical climate). The implications of related research conclusions on management practices are mainly reflected in the following two aspects.

#### **5.3.3.1 Leaders need to improve their emotional intelligence**

The open and positive minds can make leaders respect employees from the heart, and are willing to keep positive communications with employees. This is the precondition for leaders to improve their emotional intelligence. In addition to that, leaders can improve their emotional intelligence from the following concrete methods.

First, enhance the ability of intuitions and perceptions. As a leader with rich experience and independent thinking, he must have the corresponding cognition about his intuition. That is say, on one hand, he must be confident in his intuition, on the other hand, he needs to continue to summarize in his work and life, and understand which intuitions can be reliable, which ones may be at risk.

Second, improve the ability to control impulses. In the face of various responsibilities, difficulties and pressure, it is important whether leaders can keep enough rationality and calmness to control their irrational psychology and behavior in meeting of external stimuli.

Third, improve the ability to withstand setbacks. The best method to improve the ability to withstand failures and setbacks is to integrate into one team or one organization, making use of the care and help to analyze, recognize and face failures and setbacks.

#### **5.3.3.2 Strengthen the establishment of team ethical climate**

Team ethical climate working as an important informal control mechanism, not only can moderate the effect of differential leadership on counterproductive behavior, but also can directly inhabit the counterproductive behavior of employees. Combining with the related

conclusions of theoretical and empirical analysis, we suggest enterprises should establish a set of control systems about counterproductive behavior of employees, on one hand, companies must do their best to complete rules and systems so that to make formal organizational control on counterproductive behavior. However, in the process of establishment, they should fully consider the humanization and the reflection of humanistic spirits in the rules and regulations. On the other hand, companies should think about how to do informal control from the level of soft environments such as organizational (or team) ethical climate. Organizational (team) ethical climate is a more specific and concrete organizational culture. It has two important characteristics: strong elasticity and permeability. They help ensure that employees can relatively be more willing and autonomously integrated to solve various ethical issues (i.e. right and wrong), and can also to some extent help avoid the defects behind caused by the dependence of rules and regulations to conduct behavior control. Only the basic unit like the department or team work as platform and carrier to carry out the precise cultivation and establishment of team ethical climate, then different departments or teams gradually conform to their own ethical climate, finally all employees in departments or teams can have a consistent recognition about “which kind of behavior is consistent with ethical norms, and which is not”. All of these are the core to solve problems of counterproductive behavior by relying on informal control.

## **5.4 Limitation and prospects**

Due to the comprehensive influence of individual research ability, time and energy, there are some limitations in this study. So, the main problems which need to be solved and further studied are as followings.

### **5.4.1 Strengthen the specialized research on new generation employees**

Limitation 1: There was not a specialized design about the selection of research samples. From the theoretical construction and collection of empirical data, all were studying the influencing mechanism of differential leadership on extra-role behavior in a general perspective. However, no matter in stated-owned companies or in government departments, knowledge employees of new generation have already played a very important role in kinds of industries, which has become a significant force.

Prospect 1: New generation knowledge employees have some obvious core characteristics (shown in following Table 5-1). With the emergence of new core characteristic and career

pursuits in the continuing work process, the management issues of this special group have become the core problem focused commonly by theoretical and practical researchers. In particular, in the research area of organizational behavior and human resources management, there are some scholars in China who have started to study the management issues of new generation knowledge employees and have already achieved some important results.

Table 5 - 1 The core feature of new generation knowledge employees

Author and time	Research conclusions (core characteristic)
Xie (2007)	1) self-confident, independent, high individuality, pursuing oneself, self-esteem and high sense of recognition of others; 2) correspondingly, the psychological capacity to tolerate is low; 3) easy to have a sense of frustration; 4) lack of the spirits of enduring the hardships of work; 5) too much attention on short-term interests.
Zhan (2011)	1) have a diversified value orientation; 2) have a high level of knowledge; 3) advocating freedom, demanding the balance of work and life; 4) not being afraid of authority, have courage to challenge authority, usually disliking the unchangeable work; 5) strong desire to move and poor ability of anti-pressure; 6) emotional work attitudes, clear and changeable career view.
Bai (2013)	1) outstanding personality, emphasizing high self-esteem; 2) diversification of values; 3) utilitarian attitude; 4) strong sense of innovation; 5) diversity of skills; 6) weak teamwork; 7) strong willingness of mobility.

Undoubtedly, due to the characteristics of new generation knowledge employee obviously different from the traditional employees, is the effect of differential leadership on them still effective. If it is, then is there any change about the detailed influencing mechanism? These problems need to be targeted studied in the future.

#### 5.4.2 Strengthen the integration research of differential leadership

Limitation 2: The differential leadership in this study only targeted the partial behavior of leadership, but there was no abhorrent behavior targeted which may also be performed by leaders.

The reason why we use such a research design, is mainly the consideration that partial behavior to some extent can describe the differential treatment of leaders to subordinates. However, as a matter of fact, leaders not only perform little partial behavior to external followers, but only perform according abhorrent behaviors. Therefore, not paying necessary

attention on the abhorrent behavior of leaders is one defect of this study.

Prospect 2: Based on this, in future research, the integration of partial and abhorrent behavior should be considered in one research framework. We believe that, one way can be used in the process of empirical research. One evaluation axis can be established combining partial behavior and abhorrent behavior. Low scores are given to partial behavior (such as 1-5 scores), while high scores are given to abhorrent behavior (such as 6-10 scores). Of course, the influence of partial behavior and abhorrent behavior brought may be totally different. That is to say, partial behavior and abhorrent behavior have different dependent variables, as well as the totally different influencing mechanism on dependent variables. Therefore, discrete or comparative studies targeting partial behavior and abhorrent behavior can more effectively integrate the related theories about differential leadership behavior.

### **5.4.3 Conduct the dynamic research based on longitudinal research design**

Limitation 3: The study based on cross sectional research to construct the interactions among all variables, and used the cross-sectional data to do corresponding hypothesis test among variables.

Prospect 3: differential leadership behavior of leaders is with dynamics, and there is also a certain hysteresis about various cognitions (such as psychological empowerment and insider identity) resulting from the differential leadership behavior of leaders. Therefore, in the future, it is necessary to consider the theoretical model constructed in this study as the basis to explore the dynamic research of longitudinal research. Because the variables are usually measured for several times in a long term in the design of longitudinal research, that is, to conduct a following survey about the psychology and behavior of investigators after a certain time interval, and to compare the data collected in different time periods, which are all helpful to reveal various laws about the individual psychology and behavioral development change.

## **5.5 Conclusion**

In the perspective of employee perception, the theoretical model constructed in this research to some extent opens the black box of the influence of differential leadership behavior on extra-role behavior. The following research can continue to explore the related mechanism and boundary conditions of the effect of differential leadership behavior on extra-role behavior, therefore, a new theoretical perspective is offered for us to fully understand the influence of differential leadership behavior on extra-role behavior.



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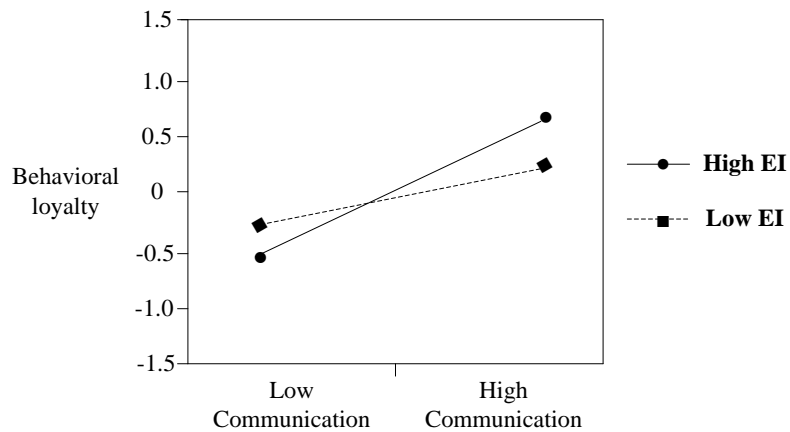
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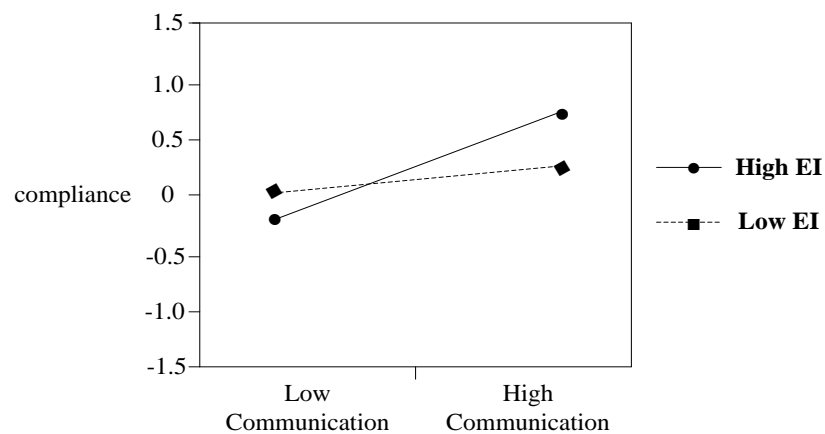


## Appendix 1

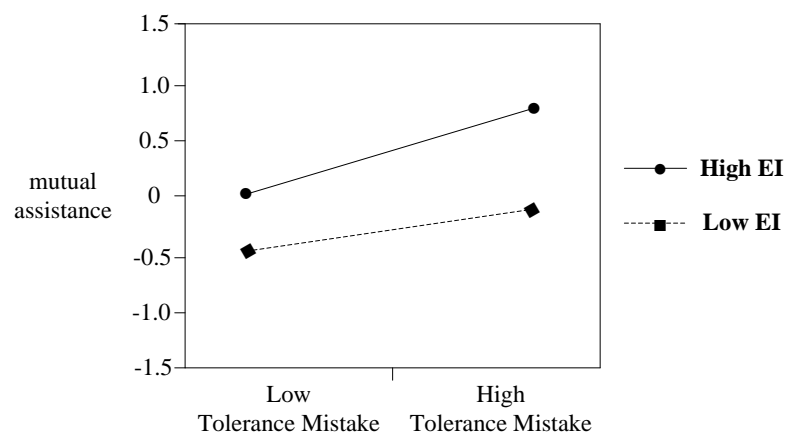
### Appended Figures



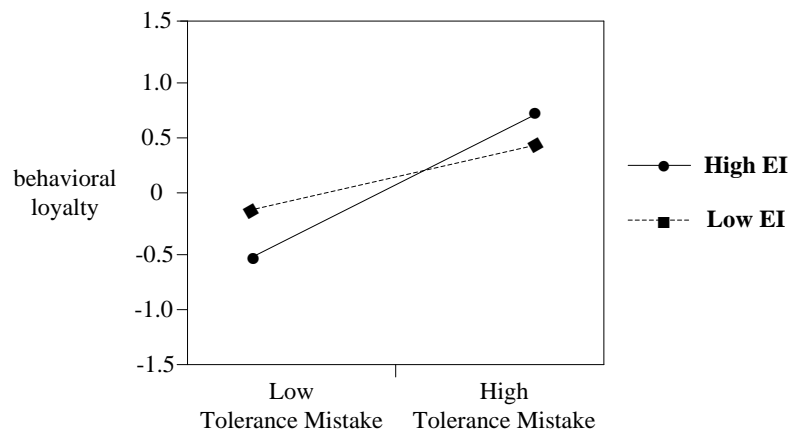
Appended Figure 1 Cross-level moderating of emotional intelligence between communication & care and loyalty



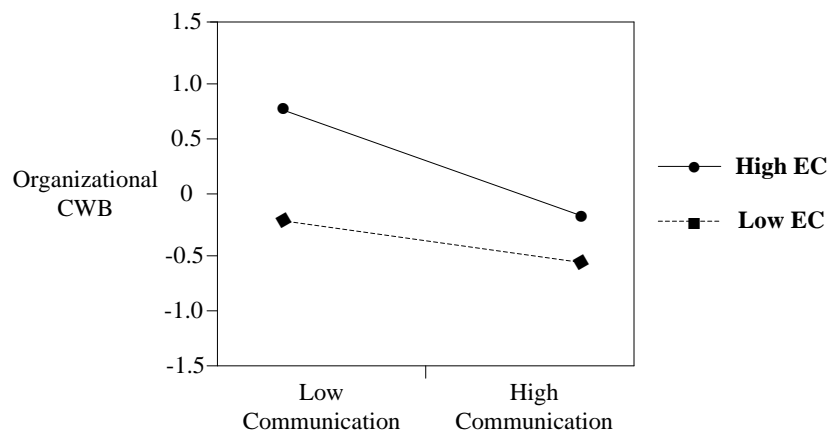
Appended Figure 2 Cross-level moderating of emotional intelligence between communication & care



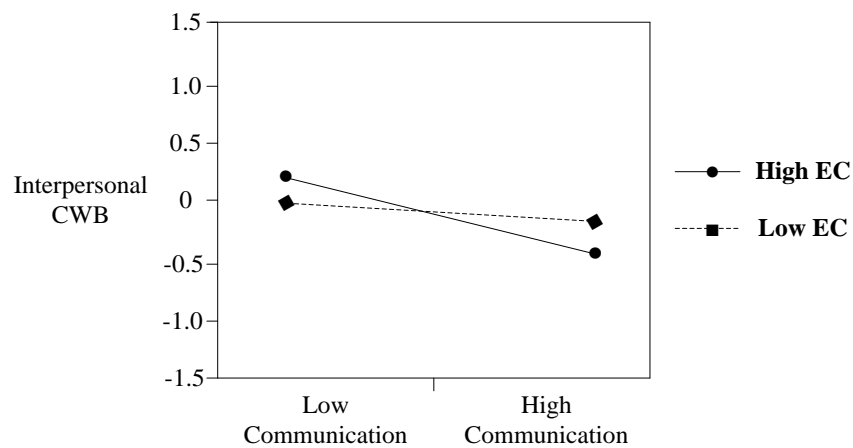
Appended Figure 3 Cross-level moderating of emotional intelligence between tolerance of mistakes and mutual assistance



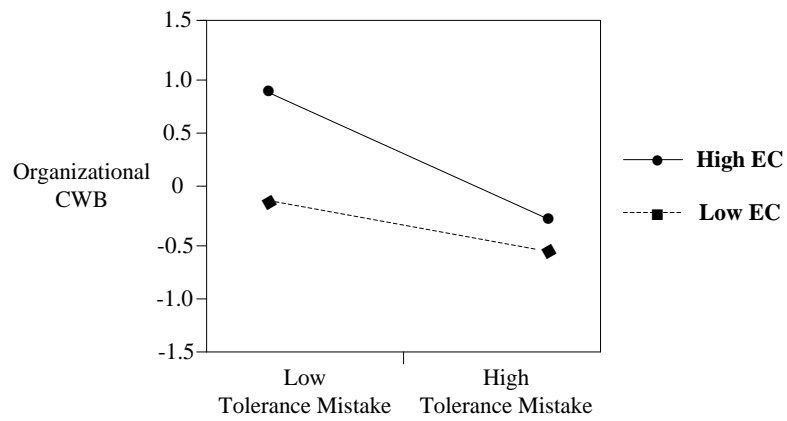
Appended Figure 4 Cross-level moderating of emotional intelligence between tolerance of mistakes and loyalty



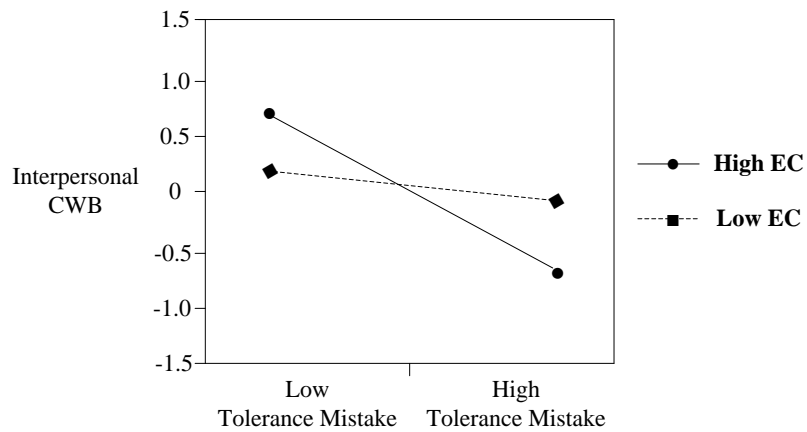
Appended Figure 5 Cross-level moderating of ethical climate between communication & care and organizational CWB



Appended Figure 6 Cross-level moderating of ethical climate between communication & care and interpersonal CWB



Appended Figure 7 Cross-level moderating of ethical climate between tolerance of mistakes and organizational CWB



Appended Figure 8 Cross-level moderating of ethical climate between tolerance of mistakes and interpersonal CWB

## Appended Tables

Appended Table 1 Five - dimension structure of organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese cultural context

Dimension	Content
Organizational identity	Behavior beneficial to organizations, such as constructive suggestions
Altruistic behavior	Initially helping and actively communicating with others in the workplace.
Interpersonal harmony	Efforts to maintain the harmonious atmosphere
Professionalism	Working hard and strictly obeying rules of organizations
Protection of corporate resources	Doing responsible work during working time and making use of corporate resources reasonably for organizational benefits.

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Source: Earh, Earley, and Lin, 1997

Appended Table 2 Ten - dimension structure of organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese cultural context

Dimension	Content	Corresponding western OCB
Proactive	Seriously and actively completing workload	Responsibility awareness, functional participation
Helping colleagues	Helping colleagues to deal with issues related with or without work	Altruism
Expressing opinions	Dare to express opinions, and propose constructive suggestions and oppose behaviors unbeneficial to organizations	Expressing opinions
Participating in the group activities	Actively participate activities in the organizations	Citizenship ethics
Promoting corporate image	Establishing the image of companies	Loyalty
Self-study	Broadening knowledge and improving job skills	Complementary dimension
Participating in public welfare activities	Taking part in public welfare or social service activities	Complementary dimension
Maintaining and saving corporate resources	Making good use of corporate resources, avoiding the waste of resources	Complementary dimension
Keeping working environment tidy	Well maintaining work environment, and trying to keep it tidy	Complementary dimension
Interpersonal harmony	Maintaining harmonious interpersonal relationship in workplace	Complementary dimension

Source: Farh, Zhong, and Organ, 2000

Appended Table 3 Validity test of the scale of psychological empowerment and insider identity

<b>Model</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b><math>\chi^2</math></b>	<b><math>\chi^2 /df</math></b>	<b>GFI</b>	<b>CFI</b>	<b>NFI</b>	<b>IFI</b>	<b>RMSEA</b>
Psychological empowerment	One-factor model	903.181	3.121	0.891	0.906	0.882	0.839	0.108
Insider identity	One-factor model	621.612	3.017	0.903	0.891	0.876	0.881	0.112

Appended Table 4 Validity test of the scale of supervisor emotional intelligence and organizational ethical climate

<b>Model</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b><math>\chi^2</math></b>	<b><math>\chi^2 /df</math></b>	<b>GFI</b>	<b>CFI</b>	<b>NFI</b>	<b>IFI</b>	<b>RMSEA</b>
Supervisor emotional intelligence	One-factor model	638.201	2.982	0.916	0.912	0.910	0.908	0.081
Organizational ethical climate	One-factor model	762.156	2.761	0.921	0.906	0.908	0.902	0.096

Appended Table 5 Reliability test of psychological empowerment scale

Scale	Index	Corrected-item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's $\alpha$
PE	PE1	0.663	0.914	0.922
	PE2	0.692	0.913	
	PE3	0.651	0.915	
	PE4	0.685	0.914	
	PE5	0.702	0.913	
	PE6	0.630	0.916	
	PE7	0.714	0.912	
	PE8	0.701	0.913	
	PE9	0.693	0.913	
	PE10	0.636	0.916	
	PE11	0.655	0.915	
	PE12	0.650	0.915	

Appended Table 6 Reliability test of scale of insider identity (II)

Scale	Index	Corrected-item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's $\alpha$
Insider identity (II)	II1	0.870	0.915	0.937
	II2	0.862	0.916	
	II3	0.795	0.926	
	II4	0.785	0.927	
	II5	0.784	0.928	
	II6	0.782	0.927	

Appended Table 7 Reliability test of scale of supervisor emotional intelligence (EI)

Scale	Index	Corrected-item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's $\alpha$
Supervisor emotional intelligence (EI)	EI1	0.734	0.959	0.960
	EI2	0.825	0.957	
	EI3	0.747	0.958	
	EI4	0.835	0.957	
	EI5	0.808	0.957	
	EI6	0.748	0.958	
	EI7	0.707	0.959	
	EI8	0.798	0.957	
	EI9	0.741	0.958	
	EI10	0.709	0.959	
	EI11	0.663	0.959	
	EI12	0.664	0.960	
	EI13	0.831	0.957	
	EI14	0.838	0.957	
	EI15	0.776	0.958	
	EI16	0.818	0.957	

Appended Table 8 Reliability test of scale of organizational ethical climate (EC)

Scale	Index	Corrected-item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's $\alpha$
Organizational ethical climate (EC)	EC1	0.135	0.849	0.841
	EC2	0.318	0.836	
	EC3	0.395	0.832	
	EC4	0.448	0.829	
	EC5	0.414	0.831	
	EC6	0.266	0.839	
	EC7	0.604	0.819	
	EC8	0.350	0.835	
	EC9	0.489	0.826	
	EC10	0.618	0.817	
	EC11	0.602	0.819	
	EC12	0.639	0.818	
	EC13	0.616	0.820	
	EC14	0.569	0.822	
	EC15	0.554	0.824	

Appended Table 9 Descriptive statistics analysis of the scale of psychological empowerment and insider identity

Variable	Sample N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
<b>Psychological empowerment</b>	403	1	7	4.800	1.281
<b>Insider identity</b>	403	1	7	5.818	1.617

Appended Table 10 Descriptive statics analysis of the scale of supervisor emotional intelligence and organizational ethical climate

Variable	Sample N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Supervisor emotional intelligence	58	2	7	5.221	1.162
Organizational ethical climate	403	1	7	5.256	0.797

Appended Table 11 Mediating effect of psychological empowerment (promotion and reward → counterproductive behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: counterproductive behavior CWB			
		Organizational CWB		Interpersonal CWB	
Control variable	Gender	.024	.026	.019	.015
	Marriage	.115*	.114*	.141**	.145**
	Age	.014	.016	-.003	-.009
	Education	.167***	.166***	.142**	.145**
	Working years	-.045	-.044	-.024	-.027
	Department Category	.036	.035	-.034	-.031
	Department size	-.011	-.013	-.040	-.036
	Nature of companies	-.196***	-.196***	-.124*	-.124*
Independent variable	<b>Promotion and reward</b>		.117**		.145**
Mediating variable	Psychological empowerment	-.337***	-.344***	-.338***	-.318***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.358	0.359	0.342	0.343
<b>F</b>		24.393***	21.917***	22.649***	20.470***

Note: \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 significant

Appended Table 12 Mediating effect of psychological empowerment (communication and care → counterproductive behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: counterproductive behavior CWB			
		Organizational CWB		Interpersonal CWB	
Control variable	Gender	.024	.014	.019	.003
	Marriage	.115*	.121*	.141**	.149**
	Age	.014	-.003	-.003	-.029
	Education	.167***	.168***	.142**	.145**
	Working years	-.045	-.053	-.024	-.036
	Department category	.036	.044	-.034	-.021
	Department size	-.011	-.008	-.040	-.035
	Nature of companies	-.196***	-.195***	-.124*	-.123*
Independent variable	<b><u>Communication and care</u></b>		-.113*		-.171**
Mediating variable	Psychological empowerment	-.537***	-.477***	-.538***	-.447***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.358	0.367	0.342	0.361
<b>F</b>		24.393***	22.695***	22.649***	22.115***

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant

Appended Table 13 Mediating effect of psychological empowerment (tolerance of mistakes → counterproductive behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: counterproductive behavior			
		CWB			
		Organizational CWB		Interpersonal CWB	
Control variable	Gender	.024	.022	.019	.015
	Marriage	.115*	.115*	.141**	.141**
	Age	.014	.011	-.003	-.008
	Education	.167***	.168***	.142**	.145**
	Working years	-.045	-.046	-.024	-.026
	Department category	.036	.036	-.034	-.033
	Department size	-.011	-.010	-.040	-.037
	Nature of companies	-.196***	-.195***	-.124*	-.123*
Independent variable	<b><u>Tolerance of mistakes</u></b>		-.121**		-.143**
Mediating variable	Psychological empowerment	-.537***	-.531***	-.538***	-.526***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.358	0.359	0.342	0.343
<b>F</b>		24.393***	21.931***	22.649***	20.483***

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant

Appended Table 14 Mediating effect of insider identity (promotion and reward → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: organizational citizenship behavior									
		Advocating participation		Mutual assistance		Functional participation		Loyalty		Obedience	
Control variable	Gender	-.099*	-.071	-.049	-.026	-.126*	-.104*	-.051	-.027	-.064	-.047
	Marriage	-.049	-.066	-.039	-.053	-.081	-.095	-.086	-.101	.000	-.011
	Age	.146*	.166**	.049	.066	.108	.123*	.174**	.191***	.077	.089
	Education	.135**	.128**	.007	.000	.010	.004	.034	.027	-.019	-.024
	Working years	.059	.087	-.073	-.050	.014	.036	-.145*	-.121*	.027	.045
	Department category	-.115*	-.122**	-.100*	-.106*	-.065	-.071	-.053	-.059	-.148	-.152**
	Department size	-.183***	-.209***	-.187***	-.209***	-.195***	-.215***	-.155**	-.177***	-.159**	-.175***
	Nature of companies	.075	.068	.140**	.134**	.159**	.154**	.147**	.142**	.142*	.138*
Independent variable	<u>Promotion and reward</u>		.265***		.222***		.208***		.225***		.165**
Mediating variable	Insider identity	.376***	.295***	.464***	.397***	.371***	.307	.441***	.373***	.337***	.287***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.236	0.296	0.279	0.321	0.207	0.244	0.268	0.312	0.174	0.197
<b>F</b>		13.453***	16.488***	16.868***	18.540***	11.368***	12.654***	15.965***	17.743***	9.189***	9.634***

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant

Appended Table 15 Mediating effect of insider identity (communication and care → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: organizational citizenship behavior									
		Advocating participation		Mutual assistance		Functional participation		Loyalty		Obedience	
Control variable	Gender	-.099*	-.066	-.049	-.008	-.126*	-.094	-.051	-.013	-.064	-.032
	Marriage	-.049	-.054	-.039	-.045	-.081	-.086	-.086	-.092	.000	-.005
	Age	.146*	.170**	.049	.079	.108	.131*	.174**	.202***	.077	.101
	Education	.135**	.142**	.007	.015	.010	.016	.034	.041	-.019	-.013
	Working Years	.059	.095	-.073	-.030	.014	.048	-.145*	-.105	.027	.062
	Department category	-.115*	-.124**	-.100*	-.111**	-.065	-.074	-.053	-.064	-.148	-.157
	Department size	-.183***	-.196***	-.187***	-.203***	-.195***	-.207***	-.155**	-.169***	-.159**	-.171***
	Nature of companies	.075	.068	.140**	.132**	.159**	.153**	.147**	.140**	.142*	.136*
Independent variable	<u>Communication and care</u>		.296***		.361***		.281***		.335***		.288***
Mediating variable	Insider identity	.376***	.254***	.464***	.315***	.371***	.255	.441***	.303***	.337***	.218***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.236	0.302	0.279	0.378	0.207	0.267	0.268	0.353	0.174	0.237
<b>F</b>		13.453***	16.982***	16.868***	23.857***	11.368***	14.277***	15.965***	21.405***	9.189***	12.188***

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant

Appended Table 16 Mediating effect of insider identity (promotion and reward → counterproductive behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: counterproductive behavior			
		CWB			
		Organizational CWB		Interpersonal CWB	
Control variable	Gender	.050	.036	.047	.026
	Marriage	.144*	.153**	.170**	.182**
	Age	-.056	-.065	-.072	-.086
	Education	.204***	.208***	.180***	.185***
	Working years	.006	-.008	.027	.007
	Department category	.073	.077	.001	.006
	Department size	-.022	-.009	-.049	-.030
	Nature of companies	-.211***	-.208***	-.138*	-.134*
Independent variable	<b><u>Promotion and reward</u></b>		-.130**		-.191***
Mediating variable	Insider identity	-.368***	-.328***	-.351***	-.293***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.210	0.225	0.180	0.211
<b>F</b>		4.323***	11.354***	9.557***	10.487***

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant

Appended Table 17 Mediating effect of insider identity (communication and care → counterproductive behavior)

Variable		Dependent variable: counterproductive behavior			
		Organizational CWB		Interpersonal CWB	
Control variable	Gender	.050	.019	.047	.009
	Marriage	.144*	.149**	.170**	.176**
	Age	-.056	-.078	-.072	-.099
	Education	.204***	.199***	.180***	.173***
	Working years	.006	-.026	.027	-.012
	Department category	.073	.082	.001	.011
	Category size	-.022	-.011	-.049	-.035
	Nature of companies	-.211***	-.205***	-.138*	-.131*
Independent variable	<b><u>Communication and care</u></b>		-.268***		-.328***
Mediating variable	Insider identity	-.368***	-.258***	-.351***	-.216***
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.210	0.265	0.180	0.262
<b>F</b>		4.323***	14.104***	9.557***	13.885***

Note: \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 significant

Appended Table 18 Moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence (communication and care → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable	Advocating participation				Mutual assistance				Functional participation				Loyalty				Obedience			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
<b>Intercept</b> ( $\gamma_{00}$ )	3.26*	3.52*	3.46*	4.12*	4.18*	4.61*	4.56*	4.38*	4.56*	4.12*	4.26*	4.18*	4.36*	3.18*	3.56*	4.02*	4.61*	3.51*	4.02*	3.68*
<b>Level-1 predicating factor</b>																				
Communicati on and care ( $\gamma_{10}$ )		.36**	.18**	.21**		.18**	.22**	.23**		.29**	.28**	.31**		.44**	.42**	.39**		.36**	.23**	.21**
<b>Level-2 predicting factor</b>																				
Supervisor emotional intelligence ( $\gamma_{01}$ )			.21	.18			.26	.27			.18	.25			.22**	.21**			.21**	.17**
<b>Interaction</b>																				
Communicati on and care × emotional intelligence ( $\gamma_{11}$ )				.27				.12				.17				.19**				.26**
<b><math>\sigma^2</math></b>	.61	.52	.50	.62	.58	.49	.55	.56	.45	.44	.44	.45	.46	.45	.48	.50	.69	.58	.55	.62
<b><math>\tau_{00}</math></b>	.22**	.18**	.20**	.21**	.11**	.18**	.17**	.23**	.12**	.11**	.11**	.17**	.29**	.26**	.18**	.22**	.23**	.22**	.21**	.19**
<b><math>\tau_{11}</math></b>		.16**	.18**	.19**		.16**	.15**	.16**		.10**	.06**	.05**		.22**	.21**	.19**		.17**	.18**	.15**
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-1}}</math></b>		.24	.21	.22		.18	.20	.22		.21	.24	.29		.27	.29	.33		.15	.22	.29
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-2}}</math></b>				.19				.16				.21				.26				.25

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant, all coefficients are estimated values of fixed effect under the robust standard error

Appended Table 19 Moderating effect of supervisor emotional intelligence (tolerance of mistakes → organizational citizenship behavior)

Variable	Advocating participation				Mutual assistance				Functional participation				Loyalty				Obedience			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
<b>Intercept(<math>\gamma_{00}</math>)</b>	3.26*	4.01*	4.26*	3.58*	4.18*	4.18*	4.26*	4.55*	4.56*	4.62*	4.11*	5.08*	4.36*	4.01*	4.15*	4.02*	4.61*	3.87*	4.16*	3.92*
<b>Level-1 predicting factor</b>																				
Tolerance of mistakes ( $\gamma_{10}$ )		.36** *	.25** *	.22** *		.22** *	.27** *	.10** *		.22** *	.32** *	.19** *		.37** *	.25** *	.31** *		.33** *	.18** *	.19** *
<b>Level-2 predicting factor</b>																				
Supervisor emotional intelligence ( $\gamma_{01}$ )			.22	.21			.26**	.27**			.27	.22			.26**	.18**			.19	.21
<b>Interaction</b>																				
Tolerance of mistakes × emotional intelligence ( $\gamma_{11}$ )				.27				.23**				.26				.25**				.18
<b><math>\sigma^2</math></b>	.61	.52	.50	.62	.58	.49	.57	.56	.45	.44	.52	.51	.46	.45	.48	.50	.69	.58	.55	.62
<b><math>\tau_{00}</math></b>	.22** *	.18** *	.17** *	.20** *	.11** *	.16** *	.19** *	.23** *	.12** *	.17** *	.15** *	.16** *	.29** *	.25** *	.16** *	.22** *	.23** *	.26** *	.24** *	.22** *
<b><math>\tau_{11}</math></b>		.16** *	.15** *	.17** *		.14** *	.17** *	.18** *		.15** *	.13** *	.11** *		.21** *	.14** *	.18** *		.19** *	.18** *	.16** *
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-1}}</math></b>	.20	.22	.23		.18	.20	.22		.19	.20	.21		.22	.29	.34		.15	.22	.27	
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-2}}</math></b>			.21				.17				.19				.31					.20

Note: \*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01, \*\*\*p &lt; 0.001 significant, all coefficients are estimated values of fixed effect under the robust standard error

Appended Table 20 Moderating effect of team ethical climate (promotion &amp; reward → counterproductive behavior)

Variable	Organizational CWB				Interpersonal CWB			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
<b>Intercept (<math>\gamma_{00}</math>)</b>	2.18**	2.32**	2.81**	2.27**	2.36**	2.51**	2.57**	2.66**
<b>Level-1 predicting factor</b>								
Promotion and reward ( $\gamma_{10}$ )		-.27***	-.19**	-.23**		-.22***	-.22***	-.17*
<b>Level-2 predicting factor</b>								
Ethical climate ( $\gamma_{01}$ )			-.17**	-.22**			-.15**	-.25**
<b>Interaction</b>								
Promotion and reward × Ethical climate ( $\gamma_{11}$ )				-.21				-.26
<b><math>\sigma^2</math></b>	.42	.46	.44	.48	.57	.55	.52	.56
<b><math>\tau_{00}</math></b>	.19***	.13***	.23***	.22***	.22***	.20***	.27***	.25***
<b><math>\tau_{11}</math></b>		.15***	.21***	.20***		.16**	.25**	.22**
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-1}}</math></b>		.19	.22	.21		.20	.22	.24
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-2}}</math></b>				.28				.22

Note: \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$  significant, all coefficients are estimated values of fixed effect under the robust standard error

Appended Table 21 Moderating effect of team ethical climate (communication &amp; care → counterproductive behavior)

Variable	Organizational CWB				Interpersonal CWB			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
<b>Intercept (<math>\gamma_{00}</math>)</b>	2.18**	2.51**	2.87**	2.79**	2.36**	2.51**	2.29**	2.46**
<b>Level-1 predicting factor</b>								
Communication & care ( $\gamma_{10}$ )		-.22***	-.25**	-.23**		-.31***	-.22***	-.17**
<b>Level-2 predicting factor</b>								
Ethical climate ( $\gamma_{01}$ )			-.18**	-.22**			-.16**	-.27**
<b>Interaction</b>								
Communication & care $\times$ Ethical climate ( $\gamma_{11}$ )				-.16**				-.13**
<b><math>\sigma^2</math></b>	.42	.52	.46	.50	.57	.46	.51	.52
<b><math>\tau_{00}</math></b>	.19***	.15***	.12***	.12***	.22***	.18***	.16***	.12***
<b><math>\tau_{11}</math></b>		.13***	.11***	.11***		.16**	.13**	.10**
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-1}}</math></b>		.21	.26	.31		.21	.24	.28
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-2}}</math></b>				.26				.22

Note: \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$  significant, all coefficients are estimated values of fixed effect under the robust standard error

Appended Table 22 Moderating effect of team ethical climate (tolerance of mistakes → counterproductive behavior)

Variable	Organizational CWB				Interpersonal CWB			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
<b>Intercept(<math>\gamma_{00}</math>)</b>	2.18**	3.22**	3.56**	3.29**	2.36**	3.11**	3.17**	3.28**
<b>Level-1 predicting factor</b>								
Tolerance of mistakes ( $\gamma_{10}$ )		-.26***	-.18**	-.22**		-.31***	-.21***	-.27**
<b>Level-2 predicting factor</b>								
Ethical climate ( $\gamma_{01}$ )			-.12**	-.13**			-.16**	-.25**
<b>Interaction</b>								
Tolerance of mistakes × Ethical climate ( $\gamma_{11}$ )				-.11**				-.15**
<b><math>\sigma^2</math></b>	.42	.52	.54	.51	.57	.51	.46	.42
<b><math>\tau_{00}</math></b>	.19***	.18***	.17***	.15***	.22***	.26***	.26***	.24***
<b><math>\tau_{11}</math></b>		.26***	.15***	.14***		.22**	.22**	.19**
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-1}}</math></b>		.21	.23	.26		.23	.25	.29
<b><math>R^2_{\text{level-2}}</math></b>				.21				.26

Note: \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$  significant, all coefficients are estimated values of fixed effect under the robust standard error



## Appendix 2

### Questionnaire (Volume A)

#### Differential leadership、employees' extra-role behavior

##### Dear Sir/Madam:

The questionnaire is an important part of my doctoral dissertation. I will analyze the data extracted from the questionnaire to verify some of the basic theories.

It may take up to 15-20 minutes for you to fill out the questionnaire, and of course you are completely voluntary.

When you fill out the questionnaire, if you are willing to: (1) Can be returned directly to the questionnaire to your people, and on behalf of your feedback to me; (2) I offer you it can be loaded into the envelope and sealed (postage paid), and send me at your convenience; (3) Of course, if you are convenient to connect to the Internet and browse the electronic files, you can also send the questionnaire to the people who ask you to get an electronic questionnaire, and after the answer sent to my e-mail: [497944316@qq.com](mailto:497944316@qq.com). If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me.

The quality of this questionnaire will directly affect the results of my research, so your help is very important to me. **I will assure you that your answer is completely confidential, and not cause any inconvenience to you and your company.** Thank you very much for your support and generous help.

Tang chao

January 10, 2017

Part I

##### How do you evaluate the supervisor's leadership style?

This questionnaire is designed to investigate the leader's leadership style, Each topic can be more objective description of your **department (or team) leadership**. Please according to the head of department (or team) and work with specific experience and feelings, **to help us judge him (or her) leadership style**. Please note: In answer to these questions, please forget for a moment that he is a "good supervisor" or "poor supervisor", That is not the subjective value judgment, As long as the honest answer.

In the work, each manager has a different style of leadership, For example, some directors will be divided into "insiders and outsiders". The following items describe, the behavior of such supervisors, Please select the most suitable number according to the actual experience when you interact with the supervisor.

**Your supervisor is treating you,would show...**

	Performance frequency						
	Never	—————>					Always
Care about employee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Give more bonuses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Given a relatively minor punishment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
spend more time for individual guidance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Offer or retain the opportunity for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Generally do not pursue the mistakes made	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Frequent contact and interaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Give more opportunities to be rewarded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To make a mistake and look the other way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Get help in times of trouble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Assign more important and easy work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not to blame for the mistakes in the work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Appoint you message	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Plan and arrange the rapid promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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## Part II

**How do you evaluate your work and organization?**

This part of the questionnaire is designed to investigate some of your cognition and feeling your current job. Please “√” the following options on the descriptive statement behind. To indicate that you agree to extent of these descriptions.

In the work of each employee to work their significance and value in work have different cognition and feelings.

Your cognition of your current job is..... It gives you the feeling that.....

strongly  
disagree



strongly  
agree

The work I do is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job activities are personally meaningful to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The work I do is meaningful to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am confident about my ability to do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My impact on what happens in my department is large	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have significant influence over what happens in my department	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In the same unit, different employees will be based on a variety of reasons to produce a completely different identity.

Your cognition of your current job is..... It gives you the feeling that.....

strongly  
disagree



strongly  
agree


I feel very much a part of my work organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My work organization makes me believe that I am included in it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel like I am an ‘outsider’ at this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don’t feel included in this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel I am an ‘insider’ in my work organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My work organization makes me frequently feel 'left-out'	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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## Part III

**How do you evaluate your behavior at work?**

This part of the questionnaire is designed to investigate some of your actions in this unit. Please “√ ” the following options on the descriptive statement behind, to indicate **the frequency of these behaviors in the past three months**.

In the process of work, we will show all kinds of behavior, some of these behaviors have a positive role to our organization, and others have a negative effect. Please careful recall: <b>In the past three months working in this unit, have you ever...</b>	Performance frequency						
	Never						Always
Uses professional judgement to assess what is right/wrong for the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Makes creative work-related suggestions to co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Makes innovative suggestions to improve the functioning of the department	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shares ideas for new projects or improvements widely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Encourages others to speak up at meetings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Helps others who have heavy workloads	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Helps others who have been absent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Goes out of the way to help colleagues with job-related problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Readily assists supervisor with his/her work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tries to avoid creating problems for others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Works beyond what is expected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exceeds formal requirements of the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Goes the 'extra mile' for the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Only attends work-related meetings if required by the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Participates in activities that are not required but that help the image of the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tells outsiders that the organization is a good place to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Defends the employer when other employees criticize it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Represents the organization favorably to outsiders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neglects aspects of job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Wastes time while at work on personal matters	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regardless of circumstance, produces the highest quality work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Follows work rules and instructions with extreme care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In the process of work, we will show all kinds of behavior, some of these acts have a positive effect on our organization, and others have a negative effect. Please careful recall: <b>In the past three months working in this unit, have you ever...</b>	Performance frequency						
	0	1 times	2 times	3 times	4 times	5 times	More than 6
Lied about hours worked	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stole something belonging to your employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Took supplies or tools home without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Came to work late without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Took an additional or a longer break	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Left work earlier	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intentionally working slow	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Put little effort into your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Daydreamed rather than did your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Worked on a personal matter instead of working for your employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surfed on the Internet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Wasted your employer's materials or supplies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Called in sick when you were not	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Verbally abused someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Acted rudely toward someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Started an argument with someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Withheld needed information from someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gossiped about someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Covered up mistakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Showed favoritism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Avoided returning a phone call to someone you should at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Failed to respond to memos or e-mails from someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Delayed actions on matters that were important to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## part IV

**How do you Self-emotion appraisal?**

This part of the questionnaire is designed to **investigate your ability to deal with emotions.** Please "✓" the following options on the descriptive statement behind, to indicate that you agree to extent of these descriptions.

Any employee will be in a certain emotional state at work, Please careful recall:

**When you are dealing with your emotions, you feel yourself.....**

strongly  
disagree



strongly  
agree

I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have good understanding of my own emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I really understand what I feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always know whether or not I am happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am a good observer of others' emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always tell myself I am a competent person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am a self-motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would always encourage myself to try my best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have good control of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## Part V

**How do you evaluate the working atmosphere of the Department (or team)?**

This part of the questionnaire is designed to investigate **your current work department (or team) working atmosphere**, please “√” the following options on the descriptive statement behind, to indicate that you agree to extent of these descriptions.

Any department (or team) will have one or more commonly accepted values, The working atmosphere. Please think it over carefully:

strongly disagree

strongly agree

**In your current work of the department (or team) ...**

people protect their own interests above all else	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
people are mostly out for themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In this company, people are mostly out for themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People are expected to do anything to further company's interests, regardless of the consequences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Work is considered substandard only when it hurts company's interests	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
people look out for each other's good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People here are concerned with the company's interests to the exclusion of all else	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
major concern what's best for others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The most important concern is the good of all the people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
it is expected that you will always do what is right for the customers and public	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is very important to follow strictly the company's procedures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People in this company strictly obey the company policies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
successful people obey policies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Everyone is expected to stick by company rules and procedures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Part VI Personal information**

Finally, please provide some basic information for us to study the classification, Please "√" in the appropriate information to meet your specific situation after. **We encode the information in the course of the study, so you do not have to worry about the information we will judge your personal situation. Of course, we will be completely confidential information.**

1. **Gender:** ☐ male ☐ female
2. **Marital Status:** ☐ married ☐ single/unmarried
3. **Age:** ☐ ≤25 years old ☐ 26-35 years old ☐ 36-45 years old  
☐ 46-50 years old ☐ 51-55 years old
4. **Education:** ☐ College degree and below ☐ bachelor ☐ Master ☐ Doctor
5. **Your working time in this unit:**  
☐ ≤2 years ☐ 3-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐ More than ten years
6. **You work department (or team) category:**  
☐ Technology & Development ☐ Production & operation  
☐ Market and marketing ☐ Service and management
7. **The size of your department (or team):**  
☐ ≤5 people ☐ 6-10 people ☐ 11-15 people ☐ 16-20 people ☐ more than 20
8. **The nature of your unit:**  
☐ State-owned enterprise ☐ private enterprise  
☐ Joint venture enterprise ☐ wholly foreign-owned enterprises  
☐ Public institutions ☐ the government department  
☐ other

**Thank you again for your selfless help. Good luck with jobs and all the best.**

## Questionnaire (Volume B)

### Differential leadership 、 employees' extra-role behavior

**Dear Sir/Madam:**

The questionnaire is an important part of my doctoral dissertation. I will analyze the data extracted from the questionnaire to verify some of the basic theories.

It may take up to 15-20 minutes for you to fill out the questionnaire, and of course you are completely voluntary.

When you fill out the questionnaire, if you are willing to: (1) Can be returned directly to the questionnaire to your people, and on behalf of your feedback to me; (2) I offer you it can be loaded into the envelope and sealed (postage paid), and send me at your convenience; (3) Of course, if you are convenient to connect to the Internet and browse the electronic files, you can also send the questionnaire to the people who ask you to get an electronic questionnaire, and after the answer sent to my e-mail: [497944316@qq.com](mailto:497944316@qq.com). If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me.

The quality of this questionnaire will directly affect the results of my research, so your help is very important to me. **I will assure you that your answer is completely confidential, and not cause any inconvenience to you and your company.** Thank you very much for your support and generous help.

Tang chao

January 10, 2017

**B1**

#### Part I Personal information

First of all, please provide some basic information for us to study the classification, Please “√” in the appropriate information to meet your specific situation after. **We encode the information in the course of the study, so you do not have to worry about the information we will judge your personal situation. Of course, we will be completely confidential information.**

1. **Gender:** ☐ male ☐ female
2. **Marital Status:** ☐ married ☐ single/unmarried
3. **Age:** ☐ ≤25 years old ☐ 26-35 years old ☐ 36-45 years old ☐ 46-50 years old ☐ 51-55 years old
4. **Education:** ☐ College degree and below ☐ bachelor ☐ Master ☐ Doctor
5. **Your working time in this unit:**  
☐ ≤2 years ☐ 3-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐ More than ten years
6. **You work department (or team) category:**  
☐ Technology & Development ☐ Production & operation  
☐ Market and marketing ☐ Service and management
7. **The size of your department (or team):**  
☐ ≤5 people ☐ 6-10 people ☐ 11-15 people ☐ 16-20 people ☐ more than 20
8. **The nature of your unit:**  
☐ State-owned enterprise ☐ private enterprise ☐ Joint venture enterprise  
☐ Wholly foreign-owned enterprises ☐ Public institutions  
☐ The government department ☐ other

#### Part II

**How do you evaluate your leadership style?**

---

In the work, each manager has a different style of

**Performance frequency**

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leadership, For example, some directors will be divided into "insiders and outsiders" . The following items describe, the behavior of such supervisors, Please select the most suitable number according to the actual experience when you interact with the supervisor.

**When you treat subordinates, would show...**

	<div>Never <span style="float: right;">Always</span></div> <div style="text-align: center;"> </div>						
Care about employee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Give more bonuses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Given a relatively minor punishment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
spend more time for individual guidance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Offer or retain the opportunity for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Generally do not pursue the mistakes made	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Frequent contact and interaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Give more opportunities to be rewarded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To make a mistake and look the other way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Get help in times of trouble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Assign more important and easy work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not to blame for the mistakes in the work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Appoint you message	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Plan and arrange the rapid promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This part of the questionnaire is designed to investigate your leadership style, Each topic can objectively reflect **the specific performance of your leadership in a particular way**. Please **help us to judge your leadership style** according to your cognition and evaluation. Please note: In answer to these questions, Would you like to forget that these statements reflect the behavior of a "good leader" or "bad leader". That is not the subjective value judgment, As long as the honest answer.

### Part III

#### How do you Self-emotion appraisal?

This part of the questionnaire is designed to **investigate your ability to deal with emotions**. Please “√” the following options on the descriptive statement behind, to indicate that you agree to extent of these descriptions.

	<div>strongly disagree <span style="float: right;">strongly agree</span></div> <div style="text-align: center;"> </div>						
Any supervisor will be in a certain emotional state at work, Please careful recall: <b>When you are dealing with your emotions, you feel yourself.....</b>							
I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have good understanding of my own emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I really understand what I feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always know whether or not I am happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am a good observer of others' emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always tell myself I am a competent person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am a self-motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would always encourage myself to try my best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have good control of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Note: if you have a number of subordinates, the survey does not need to repeat it. But due to the need of research, the investigation needs you to your supervisor within the department (or team) all subordinates, the evaluation is one by one.so, please fill in and give feedback to us! In addition, please note that the number of subordinates should correspond with the number of staff filled in the questionnaire!**

## B2

### part IV

#### How do you evaluate the behavior of subordinates in their work?

This part of the questionnaire is designed to investigate the level of understanding of your subordinates' behavior at work, please“√”the following options on the descriptive statement behind, to indicate the frequency at which a particular subordinate has shown these behaviors over the past three months. **Note: you need to evaluate each of your subordinates (or team).**

In the process of work, we will show all kinds of behavior, some of these behaviors have a positive role to our organization, and others have a negative effect. Please careful recall: In the past three months, your subordinate ever.....	Performance frequency						
	Never						Always
Uses professional judgement to assess what is right/wrong for the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Makes creative work-related suggestions to co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Makes innovative suggestions to improve the functioning of the department	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shares ideas for new projects or improvements widely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Encourages others to speak up at meetings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Helps others who have heavy workloads	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Helps others who have been absent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Goes out of the way to help colleagues with job-related problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Readily assists supervisor with his/her work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tries to avoid creating problems for others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Works beyond what is expected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Exceeds formal requirements of the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Goes the 'extra mile' for the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Only attends work-related meetings if required by the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Participates in activities that are not required but that help the image of the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tells outsiders that the organization is a good place to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Defends the employer when other employees criticize it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Represents the organization favorably to outsiders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neglects aspects of job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Wastes time while at work on personal matters	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regardless of circumstance, produces the highest quality work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Follows work rules and instructions with extreme care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In the process of work, we will show all kinds of behavior, some of these acts have a positive effect on our organization, and others have a negative effect. Please careful recall:

**In the past three months, your subordinate ever.....**

**Performance frequency**

0 1 2 3 4 5 More  
times times times times times than  
6

Lied about hours worked	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stole something belonging to your employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Took supplies or tools home without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Came to work late without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Took an additional or a longer break	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Left work earlier	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intentionally working slow	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Put little effort into your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Daydreamed rather than did your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Worked on a personal matter instead of working for your employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surfed on the Internet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Wasted your employer's materials or supplies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Called in sick when you were not	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Verbally abused someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Acted rudely toward someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Started an argument with someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Withheld needed information from someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gossiped about someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Covered up mistakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Showed favoritism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Avoided returning a phone call to someone you should at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Failed to respond to memos or e-mails from someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Delayed actions on matters that were important to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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**Thank you again for your selfless help. Good luck with jobs and all the best.**