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When does procedural fairness promote organizational citizenship behavior? Integrating empowering leadership types in relational justice models

Marius van Dijke [a,*], David De Cremer [a,b], David M. Mayer [c], Niels Van Quaquebeke [d]

[a] Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University Rotterdam, The Netherlands
[b] London Business School, United Kingdom
[c] University of Michigan, United States
[d] Kuehne Logistics University, Germany

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ABSTRACT

We examined how procedural fairness interacts with empowering leadership to promote employee OCB. We focused on two core empowering leadership types—*encouraging self-development* and *encouraging independent action*. An experiment revealed that leaders encouraging self-development made employees desire status information more (i.e., information regarding one's value to the organization). Conversely, leaders encouraging independent action decreased employees' desire for this type of information. Subsequently, a multisource field study (with a US and German sample) showed that encouraging self-development strengthened the relationship between procedural fairness and employee OCB, and this relationship was mediated by employees' self-perceived status. Conversely, encouraging independent action weakened the procedural fairness-OCB relationship, as mediated by self-perceived status. This research integrates empowering leadership styles into relational fairness theories, highlighting that multiple leader behaviors should be examined in concert and that empowering leadership can have unintended consequences.

Introduction

Scholars and practitioners increasingly recognize the relevance of procedural fairness as a determinant of effective organizational leadership (e.g., Bies, 2005; Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003; De Cremer & Tyler, 2010; Greenberg, 2009; Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Van Knippenberg, 2007). This interest is likely in part because leaders who enact decision-making procedures in a fair manner promote cooperative employee behaviors like organization citizenship behavior (OCB; see De Cremer and Tyler (2005a), Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2006) for overviews; see Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Yee (2001), for meta-analyses). OCB, in turn, contributes to better organization functioning and performance (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Influential procedural fairness theories like the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003) and the self-based model of cooperation (De Cremer & Tyler, 2005a) note that fairly enacted procedures have this desirable influence on employee OCB because they address important identity concerns, particularly with respect to employees' self-perceived status within the organization (De Cremer & Sedikides, 2008; Smith, Tyler, Huo, Ortiz, & Lind, 1998; Tyler & Blader, 2002; Tyler & Lind, 1992; van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008).

Given the large number of studies that address the procedural fairness – OCB relationship, it is surprising that we know virtually nothing about how leaders should coordinate procedural fairness with other elements of their leadership style to stimulate this important employee behavior (cf. Bies, 2005; van Knippenberg et al., 2007). To start addressing this gap in the literature we set out to investigate how leaders' procedural fairness interacts with empowering leadership to relate to employee OCB. We focus on two empowering leadership types — *encouraging self-development* and *encouraging independent action* — (Pearce & Sims, 2002). These leadership types reflect core empowerment processes by stimulating employee skill development and independent decision-making (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005; Arneson & Ekberg, 2006; Spreitzer, 1995, 2008). As we will argue later on in this paper, whereas we expect encouraging self-development to strengthen the effect of procedural fairness on employee OCB, we expect encouraging independent action to weaken this procedural fairness effect.

Understanding how leaders should coordinate procedural fairness with their empowerment efforts to stimulate employee OCB is clearly relevant from a practical perspective. However, our primary interest lies in making two theoretical contributions to

* Corresponding author. Address: Department of Business Society Management, Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University Rotterdam, P.O. Box 1738, 3000 DR Rotterdam, The Netherlands.
E-mail address: MvanDijke@rsm.nl (M. van Dijke).

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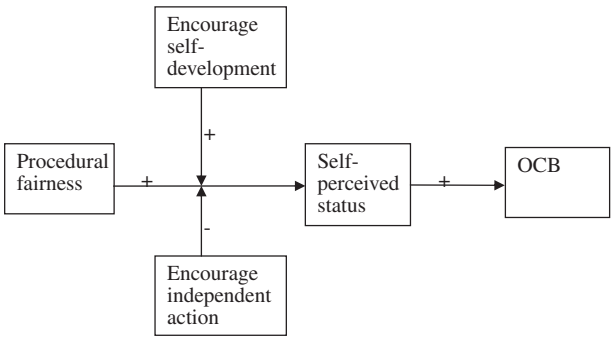

Fig. 1. Visual depiction of our proposed model.

the literature. First, we aim to broaden the scope of relational theories of procedural fairness to enable them to also account for the role of other leader behaviors. In order to achieve this integration, we will explicitly consider the mediating role of an employee's self-perceived status in this process. Self-perceived status refers to how valued and respected an employee perceives him- or herself to be as an organizational member (e.g., Simon & Stürmer, 2003; Tyler, 1999). As noted, relational fairness theories consider self-perceived status a critical mediator of the effect of procedural fairness on employee OCB (e.g., Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2002). We will argue that the type of empowerment that leaders display influences employees' desire for information about their value to their organization. Thus, the fairness of the enacted procedures should directly address this desire by shaping employees' perceptions of their status in the organization.

Second, focusing on interactive effects of procedural fairness and the two types of empowering leadership on employee OCB also contributes to the empowerment literature. Research has revealed various positive effects of empowerment on variables such as employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (see Seibert, Wang, and Courtright (2011), for a meta analysis; see Spreitzer (2008), for a review). However, we know of no prior work that has distinguished different processes to explain the workings of different types of empowering leadership. We aim to show empirically that such a distinction is important as it influences the extent to which procedural fairness is associated with employees' self-perceived status and OCB. In fact, distinguishing employees' independent action and development has also implications for other literatures in which these concepts play a central role, such as the job design literature (Johns, 2010).

We will develop a mediated moderation model in which two types of empowering leadership uniquely interact with procedural fairness to relate to employee OCB via an employee's self-perceived status. Fig. 1 presents a visual illustration of our model.

Theoretical background

Procedural fairness

Procedural fairness refers to the perceived fairness of decision making procedures and the enactment of those procedures when allocating resources to organizational members (Tyler, 1988). Research shows that procedures are perceived as more fair when they are applied consistently over time and people (van den Bos, Vermunt, & Wilke, 1996), accurately and without regard for leaders' self-interest (De Cremer, 2004), and when they allow employees to provide voice in the decision-making process (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). The present study focuses specifically on procedural fairness as it is enacted by the supervisor. Note that this type of fairness is conceptually and empirically distinct from interpersonal fairness, i.e., supervisors treating employees with dignity and respect, and informational fairness, i.e., supervisors giving adequate explanations regarding the rationale for decisions as part of the enactment of procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993).

Relational models of procedural fairness like the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) build on the notion that people are naturally predisposed to belong to social collectives and therefore they are very attentive to signals that indicate their status in the organization (Tyler & Smith, 1999). Fairly enacted procedures signal that the organization, by means of its representatives (the enacting leaders), respects and values its members thus indicating that the employee has high status in the organization. Conversely, unfairly enacted procedures signal to employees that they are peripheral, low status organizational members (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Two subsequent theoretical developments, the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003) and the self-based model of cooperation (De Cremer & Tyler, 2005a) argue that fairly enacted procedures will also increase employee's motivation to support the organization by means of engaging in discretionary behaviors that benefit the organization. Specifically, the positive effects of procedural fairness on employee OCB should result *because* perceiving that one has high status in the organization instills an intrinsic motivation in organizational members to support the organization's goals (De Cremer & van Dijk, 2002; Tyler, 1999).

These relational models have been supported in different research streams. First of all, studies show that procedural fairness positively influences employees' self-perceived status in the organization (Smith et al., 1998; Tyler, 1989; Tyler, 1994; Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2002; van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008). Furthermore, a large number of studies show that procedural fairness promotes employee OCB (see Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, for meta-analyses). In line with relational procedural fairness models, self-perceived status in the organization has been shown to mediate the relationship between procedural fairness and employee OCB (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2002).

Other research has identified boundary conditions to procedural fairness effects that form relevant tests of relational fairness models. This research shows that procedural fairness is most impactful among people for whom it is relevant to assess their relationship with the group or organization. For instance, people who strongly identify with or feel committed to the organization respond particularly strongly to procedural fairness (Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992; Tyler & Degoey, 1995; see also Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996). Furthermore, procedural fairness influences people's perception of their status in the organization particularly when they are concerned about their status. This is arguably because status concerns make people attend more to status relevant information conveyed by procedural fairness (De Cremer & Sedikides, 2008; see also De Cremer & Tyler, 2005b; Van Prooijen, Van den Bos, & Wilke, 2002).

The important role of the leader in communicating status information to employees suggests that specific leader characteristics may also influence the effectiveness of their procedural fairness. According to relational fairness models, to convey meaningful status information to employees, the enacting authority should represent the organization (Tyler, 1999). In support of this assumption, Smith et al. (1998) showed that the fairness of treatment by an ingroup leader influences group members' self-perceived status and self-esteem stronger than the fairness of treatment by an outgroup leader. Further, group members react with higher levels

of OCB to fair procedures particularly when the leader is representative of the organization's identity (De Cremer, van Dijke, & Mayer, 2010) and when the leader is perceived as actually controlling the procedures (van Dijke, De Cremer, & Mayer, 2010).

These prior studies addressing leader characteristics form relevant tests of relational fairness models. However, they tell us very little about how leaders can coordinate procedural fairness with elements of their leadership style in order to stimulate employee OCB. Below we will consider the role of empowering leadership from the perspective of relational fairness models. We will argue that the effectiveness of leaders in promoting employee OCB by means of procedural fairness (via the mediating mechanism of the employee's self-perceived status) is likely to be contingent on their empowering leadership styles.

Empowering leadership

The literature on empowerment is concerned with the process through which supervisors and organizations give their employees influence over their own functioning in the organization (e.g., Leach, Wall, & Jackson, 2003). As a proxy of this process, studies often focus on empowerment as a psychological process, i.e., a subjective feeling of being empowered, such as self-efficacy (e.g., Ahearne et al., 2005; Conger & Kanungo, 1988), or a sense of impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice (Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Conger and Kanungo (1988, p. 474) therefore defined empowerment as "a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information." The ultimate rationale of empowering leadership is that giving employees influence over their own functioning evokes positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and improved performance (Ahearne et al., 2005; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Konkczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000).

In line with further theorizing on different forms of empowerment (cf. Ahearne et al., 2005), leaders have two broad classes of options to empower their followers: First, leaders can stimulate employees to develop competencies that support these employees in effectively directing their own functioning (i.e., by means of various formal and informal development opportunities). The literature refers to this leadership style as "encouraging self-development" (e.g., Lawler, 1996; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Yukl, 1994). Second, leaders can focus more immediately on empowerment by stimulating independent employee action (e.g., to independently search for solutions and take decisions without direct supervision). In other words, leaders can delegate necessary discretion to employees in order to allow these employees to directly influence their own functioning (e.g., Burke, 1986; Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The literature refers to this style as "encouraging independent action" (e.g., Manz & Sims, 1987; Manz & Sims, 1991; Pearce & Sims, 2002).[1]

Encouraging self-development and encouraging independent action are, however, not necessarily strongly related. That is, a leader might decide for one or the other but not necessarily both (Lawler, 1996; MacDuffie, 1995; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Spreitzer, 2008). Most importantly, in the context of the present paper, we argue that each of these empowering leadership styles plays a different role in the process that explains the procedural fairness-OCB link, via the employee's self-perceived status. We expect this because each style should uniquely influence employees' desire for information about their value to the organization.

Hypothesis development

Encouraging self-development and procedural fairness

We argue that encouraging self-development increases employeeś desire for information about their value to the organization. Such a desire may result because it is less clear to employees why their leader encourages them to develop themselves (i.e., "Why does my leader think I need to develop myself more? Do I not contribute to the organization sufficiently?"). More generally, encouraging self-development implies that employees consider different ways and directions in which they can develop themselves. Considering different alternatives is known to induce a mindset in which one considers in realistic ways what one can and cannot do (Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995). In addition, encouraging self-development makes salient the characteristics of the self that *can* be developed, rather than more fixed, trait-like characteristics (Dweck, 1999). A host of findings show that an orientation towards self-development and learning increases a desire for diagnostic information about one's performance (see VandeWalle, 2003, for an overview).

The fairness of the enacted procedures communicates social information about employees' organizational status. Hence, a stronger desire for information about one's value to the organization likely makes an employee more sensitive towards procedural fairness. This idea is directly in line with uncertainty management theory, which notes that people who experience high levels of uncertainty are relatively more sensitive to the fairness of the enacted procedures (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos & Lind, 2002). Such increased sensitivity makes procedural fairness more effective in shaping employee responses (e.g., De Cremer & Sedikides, 2008) such as their OCB. Therefore, we expect that encouraging self-development makes procedural fairness more effective in promoting employee OCB. Furthermore, if our reasoning is correct, employees' self-perceived status should function as a mediator of the interactive effect of procedural fairness and encouraging self-development on employee OCB. This is because, as noted, self-perceived status, as informed by the fairness of the enacted procedures, directly addresses a desire for information about one's value to the organization (cf. De Cremer & Sedikides, 2008). This argument leads to Hypothesis 1:

The positive relationship between procedural fairness and employees' self-perceived status is stronger when the leader encourages employee self-development. Therefore the positive relationship between procedural fairness and employee OCB, via self-perceived status, is also stronger when the leader encourages self-development.

Encouraging independent action and procedural fairness

As for the empowering leadership style that involves encouraging independent employee action, we expect a markedly different interaction pattern with procedural fairness. This is because this empowering leadership style arguably decreases employees' desire for information about their value to the organization. A decreased desire for this type of information is a likely result from being stimulated towards independent action because this leadership type suggests that the supervisor trusts the employee's competencies (cf. Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). Furthermore, an emphasis on self-guided action demands a focused and selective orientation, which has been shown to make people less sensitive to information that does not contribute to

[1] Encouraging independent action differs from the procedural fairness rule of voice: Voice implies that people can give their opinion regarding decisions of authorities. Voice thus does not decrease the overall level of interdependence; it can even increase it. Independent action implies decreased interdependence between supervisors and employees.

immediate action, such as information about one's value to the organization (see Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995; VandeWalle, 2003). In line with this argument, a focus on self-guided action has been shown to reduce people's desire for social information that is diagnostic with respect to their competence and performance (see VandeWalle, 2003, for an overview).

As we noted earlier, one important reason why employees care about the fairness of the enacted procedures is that it informs them about their organizational status. Employees who are stimulated towards independent action arguably have a weaker desire for information about their value to the organization. Hence, these employees are likely to be less responsive to procedural fairness as a stimulus for engaging in OCB. To explicitly test the process underlying this interactive effect between stimulating independent employee action and procedural fairness on employee OCB, it is relevant to consider the mediating role of an employee's self-perceived status. Specifically, because stimulating independent action should reduce the desire for information about one's value to the organization, employees should also be less likely to infer their status from the fairness of the enacted procedures. This argument leads to Hypothesis 2:

The positive relationship between procedural fairness and employees' self-perceived status is weaker when the leader encourages employees to act independently. Therefore, the positive relationship between procedural fairness and employee OCB, via self-perceived status, is also weaker when the leader encourages employees to act independently.

Research overview

We tested our ideas in two studies. In Study 1—an experimental study—we tested an important assumption underlying our argument. That is, we wanted to know whether encouraging self-development increases people's desire for information about their value to the organization whereas encouraging independent action decreases the desire for this information. In Study 2, we tested our complete mediated moderation model (see Fig. 1) in a European and a US sample of employees in a variety of organizations.

Study 1

Method

Participants and design

Ninety-one Dutch undergraduate business students (54 females; M_{age} = 20.69 years, SD = 2.00) participated in exchange for course credit. They were randomly assigned to one of three levels of our empowering leadership manipulation (encouraging independent action, encouraging self-development, or a control condition).

Experimental procedure

Participants arrived at the laboratory and were seated in separate experimental cubicles, each containing a table, a chair, and a computer. All communication took place via the computer. The participants were asked to imagine the following situation "You have been working for quite some time now for the company "SpecialFurniture." This company specializes in designing and selling office furniture. Each year, all employees have a performance appraisal, during which their functioning, development, and future perspectives in the company are discussed with their supervisor. Today, you have this performance appraisal." Then, the empowering leadership manipulation was introduced (based on Pearce & Sims, 2002).

In the *encouraging self-development condition*, participants read the following: "During the performance appraisal, your supervisor stimulates you to develop certain skills and abilities. He indicates that he is convinced that it is a good idea for you to develop yourself. He also urges you to search for possibilities to develop new skills."

In the *encouraging independent action condition*, the participants read: "During the performance appraisal, your supervisor stimulates you to work in a more independent fashion. He indicates that he is convinced that you can search for solutions without his supervision. He thus stimulates you to take up responsibilities on your own."

In the *control condition*, the participants received no additional information.

Subsequently, we measured the dependent variables and manipulation checks. All items were assessed on seven-point scales (1 = *not at all*; 7 = *very much so*).

Manipulation checks

We asked whether participants felt that their direct supervisor stimulated them "to develop themselves" and "to work in a more independent fashion."

Dependent variables

We assessed the participants' desire for information about their value to the organization with the following items: "Does this performance appraisal make you seek information regarding your value to the organization?", "Do you feel that it is important for you to receive information on your contribution?", "Do you feel that it is important for you to receive information about your value to the organization?", and "Would you value information about your contribution to the organization?" (Cronbach's alpha = .75).

Results

Manipulation checks

ANOVA revealed a significant effect of empowering leadership on whether participants found that they were stimulated to act independently, $F(2,88) = 33.78$, $p < .001$). Post hoc tests showed that participants found that they were more strongly stimulated to act independently in the independent action condition (M = 6.42, SD = .75) than in the self-development condition (M = 4.75, SD = 1.14) and in the control condition (M = 4.60, SD = 1.04). The self-development and control condition did not significantly differ from each other.

ANOVA results revealed a significant effect of empowering leadership on whether participants found that they were stimulated towards self-development, $F(2,88) = 9.80$, $p < 001$). Post hoc tests showed that participants were more strongly stimulated towards self-development in the self-development condition (M = 6.18, SD = .92) than in the independent action condition (M = 5.16, SD = 1.12) and in the control condition (M = 5.10, SD = 1.18). The independent action and control condition were not significantly different.

Desire for information about one's value to the organization

Empowering leader type significantly influenced participants' desire for information about their value to the organization ($F(2,88) = 11.12$, $p < .01$). Post hoc tests showed that in the self-development condition (M = 4.07, SD = .97), participants desired information about their value to the organization *more* than in the control condition (M = 3.52, SD = .62, $p < .05$). In the independent action condition (M = 3.16, SD = .63) participants desired this information significantly *less* than in the control condition ($p < .05$). The difference between the self-development and independent action condition was also significant ($p < .01$).

Discussion

This study supports the notion that being stimulated towards self-development increases people's desire for information about their value to the organization whereas being stimulated towards independent action decreases the desire for this information. Having provided support for this important assumption underlying our argument regarding the interactions between the two types of empowering leadership and procedural fairness on employee OCB, via an employee's self-perceived status, we proceeded to test the complete mediated moderation model (see Fig. 1) in two field samples.

Study 2a: US sample

Method

Sample

We invited 402 undergraduate business students from a South-Eastern university in the United States who worked at least 20 h a week to participate in the study. If they did not, they were asked to invite a family member or close other to complete the survey. We relied on a snowballing method (see e.g., Lee & Allen, 2002; van Dijke et al., 2010, for a similar approach) whereby the respondents were asked to fill out an online questionnaire on a web page and ask their supervisor to do the same. The respondents were required to provide information to their supervisor regarding the research project, including a link to the online survey. We received 173 focal employee responses (for a response rate of 43%). Of the invited supervisors, 141 responded. We could only include data from participants who had matched supervisor data. This resulted in 137 matched leader–follower dyads. Each respondent received a unique identification number to ensure anonymity and to make sure that we could match the focal employee and supervisor data.[2]

We took a number of steps to ensure that the surveys were completed by the correct sources. In introducing the study, we emphasized the importance of integrity in the scientific process. We told the students that it was essential for the focal employee and the supervisor to fill out the correct surveys. Further, when respondents submitted their on-line surveys, time stamps and IP addresses were recorded to ensure that the surveys were submitted at different times and with different IP addresses. We found no irregularities in the responses.

Respondents came from organizations in a variety of different industries such as technology, government, insurance, financial, food service, retail, manufacturing, and medical. Of the focal employees 50% were female. Two percent of our respondents had a high school education, 65% had some college education, 27% had a college degree (i.e., a bachelor), 3% had gotten some graduate education, 1% had a master degree, and 2% had a doctoral degree. The mean age was 24.31 (SD = 7.24). The respondents worked, on average, for 3.22 years in their current organization (SD = 2.96). Forty-four percent worked part time, 56% worked full time.

Of the supervisors, 43% were female, 53% were male; and 4% did not provide this information. The mean age was 38.45 (SD = 10.79) and they worked on average for 8.33 years in their current organization (SD = 6.14).

Measures

All items were responded to on seven-point scales (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Focal employees responded to the measures of procedural fairness, the leader's encouragement of independent action and self-development, and their own status. The focal employee's supervisor indicated this employee's level of OCB.

We assessed *procedural fairness* with the seven-item scale developed by Colquitt (2001). This scale measures the procedural justice rules proposed by Leventhal (1980) and Thibaut and Walker (1975). The items were introduced as follows: "Indicate the extent to which each of the following items describe the procedures your supervisor uses to arrive at decisions regarding your job." Example items include, "To what extent are you able to express your views and feelings," and "To what extent are procedures applied consistently?"

We assessed the leader's *encouraging self-development* with the six-item scale developed by Pearce and Sims (2002). The items were introduced as follows: "For each item, indicate how well it describes your supervisor." Example items include, "My supervisor encourages me to develop myself" and "My supervisor encourages me to seek out opportunities to learn."

We assessed the leader's *encouraging independent action* with the four-item scale developed by Pearce and Sims (2002). Example items include, "My supervisor encourages me to search for solutions to my problems without supervision" and "My supervisor urges me to assume responsibilities on my own."

We measured employee's perceptions of their own status with Tyler and Blader's (2002) eleven items to measure autonomous status. The items were introduced as follows "For each of the following statements, indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree." Example items include, "I make a good impression on other organization members" and "I have a good reputation in this organization."

We measured employee OCB (indexed by the supervisor) using Lee and Allen's (2002) eight-item OCB interpersonal scale. These items were introduced as follows "Please respond to the following statements regarding the employee who asked you to complete this survey. For each item, indicate how well it describes your employee." Sample items include: This employee... "helps others who have been absent" and "shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations."

Results

Table 1 presents correlations between the scales, means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients.

Because encouraging self-development, encouraging independent action, procedural fairness, and self-perceived status were indexed by the same person (i.e., the focal participant) we conducted CFAs to test whether these four scales are empirically distinct. The initial model had four latent factors and 28 indicators (i.e., procedural fairness, encourage independent action, encourage self-development, and self-perceived status). The resulting model had an adequate fit ($\chi^2(342) = 761.26$, $p < .001$; $SRMR = .07$; $IFI = .90$; $CFI = .90$), and all indicators had significant ($p < .001$) factor loadings. We subsequently estimated a three-factor model, which had the same structure as the previous model except that all encourage independent action and encourage self-development items loaded on the same factor. This model had insufficient fit ($\chi^2(345) = 917.90$, $p < .001$; $SRMR = .08$; $IFI = .84$; $CFI = .84$). We also estimated a two-factor model, which had the same structure as the previous model except that empowering leadership and procedural fairness items loaded on the same factor. This model had insufficient fit ($\chi^2(347) = 1254.60$, $p < .001$; $SRMR = .12$; $IFI = .73$; $CFI = .73$). Finally, we tested a model with all items loading on one factor. This model had inadequate fit ($\chi^2(348) = 1642.70$, $p < .001$; $SRMR = .13$; $IFI = .60$; $CFI = .59$). Chi-square difference tests

[2] Employees whose supervisor did versus did not respond to the questionnaire did not significantly differ in terms of the demographic variables nor in terms of correlations between the study variables.

Table 1
Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients of Study 2a variables (US sample).

	Mean (*SD*)	PF	ESD	EIA	SPS	OCB
Procedural fairness (PF)	4.74 (1.36)	.88	.37	.24	.44	.16
Encourage self-development (ESD)	5.53 (1.35)		.94	.58	.63	.46
Encourage independent action (EIA)	5.11 (1.29)			.86	.47	.49
Self-perceived status (SPS)	5.34 (1.08)				.82	.44
OCB	5.54 (1.03)					.91

Notes: Cronbach's alpha coefficients are on the main diagonal. All correlations are significant, at least at $p < .05$.

showed that each model fit the data significantly better than all simpler models ($p < .001$).[3]

Hypotheses testing[4]

Initial OLS regression analyses revealed that without self-perceived status as a mediator in the analyses, OCB was significantly related to the procedural fairness × encourage self-development interaction ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = .01$) and also to the procedural fairness × encourage independent action interaction ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .03$).

We tested our hypotheses using mediated moderation analyses. In accordance with our theoretical model, we treated self-perceived status as the mediator and OCB as the dependent variable. To test for mediation, scholars recommend directly testing the significance of the mediated effect (e.g., Shrout & Bolger, 2002). This implies estimating whether the product of the relevant regression coefficients (from the independent variable to the mediator and from the mediator to the dependent variable) significantly departs from 0. However, this approach (often incorrectly) assumes that this product is normally distributed. We therefore used a bootstrap procedure developed by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) to assess the (moderated) indirect relationships because this procedure does not rely on assumptions about underlying distributions. In this procedure, the initial effect values (*B* coefficients) are derived from multiple regression analyses. Bootstrapping then generates a sampling distribution of the product term of the *B* coefficients by randomly sampling sets of cases from the original sample and computing the product term. This procedure was followed 5000 times in our study. Further corrections were applied to adjust for differences between the product term derived from the original sample and the median product terms of the bootstrap estimates, resulting in bias corrected confidence intervals.[5]

Table 2 presents the results of the mediated moderation analyses. In line with our predictions, self-perceived status was positively related to the procedural fairness × encourage self-development interaction ($\beta = .20$, $t = 2.20$, $p < .03$, $f^2 = .01$) but negatively to the procedural fairness × encourage independent action interaction ($\beta = -.24$, $t = -2.79$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = .02$).

Fig. 2a represents the relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status, as moderated by encouraging self-development. Simple slopes analyses (Cohen et al., 2003) revealed that when supervisors encouraged employee self-development (one *SD* above the mean), procedural fairness was significantly positively related to self-perceived status ($\beta = .38$, $t = 3.88$, $p < .01$, $f^2 = .08$). However, when self-development was not encouraged (one *SD* below the mean), procedural fairness was not related to self-perceived status ($\beta = .12$, $t = 1.07$, *ns*, $f^2 = .01$).

Fig. 2b represents the relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status, as moderated by encouraging independent action. Simple slopes analyses revealed that when supervisors encouraged independent employee action (one *SD* above the mean) procedural fairness was not significantly related to self-perceived status ($\beta = .08$, $t = .75$, *ns*, $f^2 = .00$). However, when encouragement of independent action was low (one *SD* below the mean), procedural fairness was significantly related to self-perceived status ($\beta = .41$ $t = 3.78$, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .08$).

OCB was significantly related to encouragement of independent action ($\beta = .27$, $t = 2.74$, $p < .01$, $f^2 = .05$) and to self-perceived status ($\beta = .20$, $t = 2.07$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = .04$).

Fig. 3a represents the indirect procedural fairness—OCB path, as moderated by encouraging self-development and mediated by self-perceived status. Bootstrap tests of the simple indirect effects showed that procedural fairness and OCB had a stronger indirect relationship, via self-perceived status, when the leader stimulated

Table 2
Mediated moderation results of Study 2a (US sample).

Dependent variable	Self-perceived status	OCB
Procedural fairness	.19*	−.08
Encourage self-development	.50**	.22#
Encourage independent action	.06	.27**
Procedural fairness × encourage self-development	.20*	.09
Procedural fairness × encourage independent action	−.24*	−.15
Encourage self-development × encourage independent action	.11	.02
Procedural fairness × encourage self-development × encourage independent action	.08	.06
Self-perceived status	–	.21*

Notes: Table presents β coefficients derived from OLS regression.
For self-perceived status, table presents coefficients for main and interactive effects of procedural fairness and the two types of empowering leadership as predictors in the equation. For OCB, table presents coefficients for main and interactive effects of procedural fairness and the two types of empowering leadership as well as the main effect of status as predictors in the equation.
# $p < .10$.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

[3] We also performed CFAs that included OCB as a factor. These analyses revealed results similar to those presented in the main text: only the model with each scale represented by a distinct factor showed acceptable fit. The fit of all simpler models was inferior to that of the full model and their fit was below accepted norms for fit indices.

[4] Our desire to disentangle the effects of two empowering leadership styles resulted in some high correlations between these variables (see Tables 1 and 3). Scholars warn for high correlations between independent variables in regression type analyses for two reasons (e.g., Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken, 2003). First, one can usually expect only a limited increase in understanding of the explanatory value of independent variables when they are highly correlated. Second, very high correlations can make assessed coefficients unstable. Our results, however, clearly show that both variables have a distinct moderating role in explaining procedural fairness effects and thus both increase our understanding of empowerment and procedural fairness processes. Further, in line with suggestions that only very highly correlated predictors (i.e., from .9; Cohen et al., 2003) present model estimation problems, regression diagnostics indicated no reason to worry about the interpretation of these findings. Most Variance Inflation Factors were <2. The highest VIF in Study 2a was 2.55 for the procedural fairness × encourage independent action × encourage self-development interaction on status. In Study 2b, the highest VIF was 4.48, for the procedural fairness × encourage independent action interaction. Even this value falls well below acceptable VIF coefficients (<10) that most scholars recommend (Fox, 1991). These findings combined with the findings in the CFAs that both empowering leadership types are empirically distinct from each other and from procedural fairness, enhance our confidence in the validity of our findings.

[5] For both samples, we present analyses without second-stage effects (i.e., without the interaction between self-perceived status and the empowering leadership types on OCB) because initial analyses showed that these interactions were not significant.

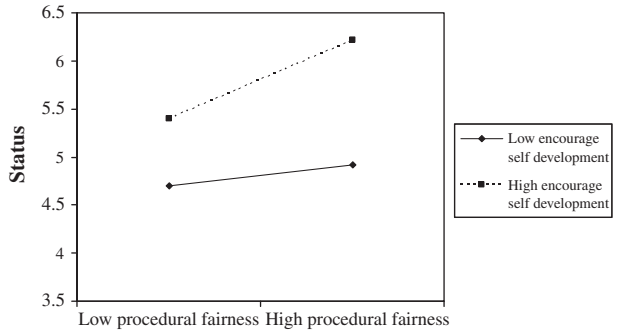

Fig. 2a. The relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status as moderated by encourage self-development (US sample).

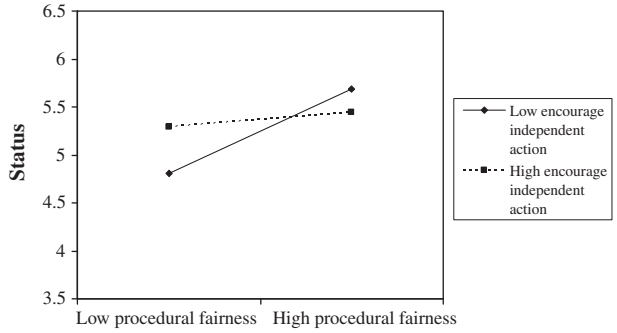

Fig. 2b. The relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status as moderated by encourage independent action (US sample).

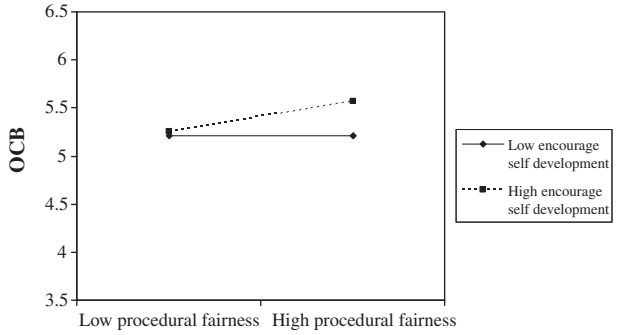

Fig. 3a. The indirect relationship between procedural fairness and OCB as moderated by encourage self-development and mediated by self-perceived status (US sample).

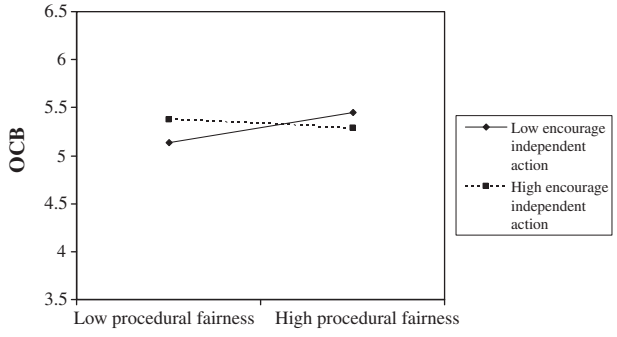

Fig. 3b. The indirect relationship between procedural fairness and OCB as moderated by encourage independent action and mediated by self-perceived status (US sample).

employee self-development (one *SD* above the mean; indirect effect = .08, 95% *CI* .01–.20, f^2 = .02) than when the leader did not stimulate employee development (one *SD* below the mean; indirect effect = −.01, 95% *CI* −.07–.7, f^2 = .00).

Fig. 3b represents the indirect relationship between procedural fairness and OCB, as moderated by leader's encouragement of independent action and mediated by self-perceived status. Bootstrap simple effects tests showed that procedural fairness was more weakly related to OCB (via self-perceived status) when the leader stimulated independent action (one *SD* above the mean; indirect effect = −.01, 95% *CI* −.09–.05, f^2 = .00) than when the leader did not stimulate independent employee action (one *SD* below the mean; indirect effect = .08, 95% *CI* .01–.21, f^2 = .02).

Discussion

These results support our predictions: By stimulating their employees to develop themselves, leaders *strengthen* the procedural fairness—OCB relationship. However, by stimulating their followers to engage in independent action, leaders *weaken* the procedural fairness—OCB relationship. Moreover, employee's self-perceived status mediates these moderated effects on OCB: The stronger relationship between procedural fairness and OCB when the leader encouraged employees to develop themselves, resulted *because* this empowering leadership type increased the relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status. In contrast, the weaker relationship between procedural fairness and OCB when the leader encouraged employees to act independently resulted *because* this leadership type decreased the relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status.

Study 2b: European sample

The second sample was in many ways similar to first sample but also introduced a number of relevant changes. Our OCB measure in the first sample focused exclusively on interpersonal citizenship behaviors (i.e., helping coworkers). Although this is a core element of citizenship, many researchers acknowledge that OCB is a broader construct and also encompasses behaviors that are more directly related to supporting the organization (e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1991). In the second sample, we therefore relied on an OCB instrument that assesses four distinct OCB dimensions (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

We also took three methodological steps to further bolster our confidence with regard to the external validity of our findings: First, because our first sample was drawn from the US, we subsequently relied on a European (i.e. German) sample. Second, the US sample relied on supervisor judgments of the focal employee's OCB. Although such supervisor judgments are strongly preferred to self-reports, it is nevertheless possible that relying on one specific source introduces systematic biases. In our German sample, we therefore relied on coworker judgments to assess the focal employee's OCB. Third, the US sample primarily utilized working students as respondents, albeit students who worked for at least 20 h a week. The European sample therefore relied on a non-student population of working adults.

Sample

In order to reach a broad sample of the working population, we recruited respondents via a professionally managed German survey panel (Sozioland). We invited only respondents with at least one year of work experience who worked under a direct supervisor. By clicking on a link in an email invitation, participants anonymously entered the survey. A total of 117 focal employees

Table 3
Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients of Study 2b variables (German sample).

	Mean (*SD*)	PF	ESD	EIA	SPS	II	IH	PI	LB	OCB
Procedural fairness (PF)	4.79 (1.20)	.94	.67	.65	.44	.36	.36	.42	.40	.34
Encourage self-development (ESD)	4.76 (1.52)		.97	.69	.28	.24	.23	.31	.27	.25
Encourage independent action (EIA)	4.99 (1.24)			.93	.30	.28	.23	.29	.28	.25
Self-perceived status (SPS)	4.56 (.87)				.86	.45	.28	.34	.45	.45
Individual initiative (II)	5.17 (1.25)					.92	.70	.70	.64	.89
Interpersonal helping (IH)	5.80 (1.07)						.86	.75	.56	.88
Personal industry (PI)	5.47 (1.12)							.85	.57	.86
Loyal boosterism (LB)	5.07 (1.19)								.90	.82
OCB	5.32 (1.00)									.95

Notes: Cronbach's alpha coefficients are on the main diagonal. Correlations > .20 are significant at $p < .05$. Correlations > .26 are significant at $p < .01$.

agreed to participate. The respondents were told that they could participate only if they also found a coworker who was willing to participate in the study. We received complete data from 102 coworkers. We offered all completing respondents participation in an online book store gift voucher lottery. Additionally, we offered the respondents the opportunity to sign up in a separate database to be informed about the results. The respondents were required to provide information to a co-worker regarding the research project, including a link to the survey. We took the same steps as in the US sample to ensure that the focal employee and coworker surveys were filled out by the correct source.

We could only include data from respondents who had matched and complete coworker data. This resulted in 102 matched employee-coworker dyads.[6] Respondents came from organizations in a variety of different industries such as information and communication technology, government, biotechnology, insurance, financial, food service, retail, manufacturing, and medical. Of the focal employees 49% were female. Six percent of the respondents had no high school education, 27% had high school education, 31% had some college education (not leading to a bachelor or master), 5% had a bachelor degree, 25% had a master's degree and 4% had a doctoral degree. The mean age was 36.02 ($SD = 10.13$). The respondents worked, on average, for 6.66 years in their current organization ($SD = 6.81$) and for 3.99 years in their current job ($SD = 4.13$).

Of the coworkers 52% were female. The mean age was 36.10 ($SD = 9.14$) and they worked on average 3.61 years in their current job ($SD = 3.92$).

Measures

Like in the US sample, we measured *procedural fairness* using Colquitt's (2001) scale, *encouraging independent action* and *encouraging self-development* using Pearce and Sims' (2002) scales and *self-perceived status* with eleven items from Tyler and Blader (2002). The items were introduced in the same way as in the US sample. Responses were made on a Likert scale with ratings from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

We measured employee *OCB* using Moorman and Blakely's (1995) 19 items OCB scale (provided by a coworker). This scale measures four OCB dimensions: "individual initiative" (e.g., "For issues that have serious consequences, this employee expresses opinions honestly even when others may disagree"), "interpersonal helping" (e.g., "This employee goes out of his/her way to help coworkers with work-related problems"), "personal industry" (e.g., "This employee rarely misses work, even when (s)he has legitimate reasons to do so"), and "loyal boosterism" (e.g., This employee actively promotes the organization's products and services to potential users").

[6] Comparison of respondents with and without matched coworker data revealed no significant differences in the demographic make-up of these two subsets of employees and also no difference in correlations between the study variables.

Prior work studying the relationship between procedural fairness and employee OCB has sometimes relied on scales that combine various OCB dimensions (e.g., Blader & Tyler, 2009). However, others have argued that it is important to distinguish between specific OCB dimensions (e.g., Brebels, De Cremer, & van Dijke, in press; Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). We therefore present results for the subscales as well as for the overall OCB scale (i.e., the averaged score on all nineteen items).

Results

Table 3 presents correlations between the scales, means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients.

Like in Study 2a, we first conducted CFAs to assess the uniqueness of the constructs that were provided by the focal employee. The initial model had four latent factors and 28 indicators (i.e., procedural fairness, encourage independent action, encourage self-development, and self-perceived status). The resulting model had an adequate fit ($\chi^2(342) = 799.53.26$, $p < .001$; $SRMR = .09$; $IFI = .90$; $CFI = .90$), and all indicators had significant ($p < .001$) factor loadings. We subsequently estimated a three-factor model, which had the same structure as the previous model except that all encourage independent action and encourage self-development items loaded on the same factor. This model had insufficient fit ($\chi^2(345) = 957.98$, $p < .001$; $SRMR = .11$; $IFI = .83$; $CFI = .84$). We also estimated a two-factor model, which had the same structure as the previous model except that empowering leadership and procedural fairness items loaded on the same factor. This model had insufficient fit ($\chi^2(347) = 1269.97$, $p < .001$; $SRMR = .13$; $IFI = .73$; $CFI = .72$). Finally, we tested a model in which all items loaded onto the same factor. This model had inadequate fit ($\chi^2(348) = 1555.23$, $p < .001$; $SRMR = .17$; $IFI = .61$; $CFI = .61$). Chi-square difference tests showed that each model fit the data significantly better than all simpler models ($p < .001$).

Hypotheses testing

We tested our hypotheses using the same procedures as in Study 1. Table 4 presents the overall results. Importantly, both the procedural fairness × self-development interaction and procedural fairness × independent action interaction significantly predict self-perceived status.

Fig. 4a represents the relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status, as moderated by encouraging self-development. Simple slopes analyses revealed that when leaders did not encourage self-development (one *SD* below the mean), procedural fairness was not significantly related to self-perceived status ($\beta = .23$, $t = 1.26$, *ns*, $f^2 = .01$). However, when leaders did encourage self-development (one *SD* above the mean), procedural fairness was positively related to self-perceived status ($\beta = .82$, $t = 4.31$, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .19$).

Table 4
Mediated moderation results of Study 2b (German sample).

Dependent variable	SPS	II	IH	PI	LB	OCB
Procedural fairness	.53***	−.01	.17	.21#	.05	.09
Encourage self-development	.05	−.09	.01	.05	.02	−.01
Encourage independent action	.06	.11	−.02	.02	−.06	.02
Procedural fairness × encourage self-development	.40*	.01	.02	−.05	.12	.03
Procedural fairness × encourage independent action	−.35*	−.04	−.17	.02	−.04	−.07
Encourage self-development × encourage independent action	.28*	.03	.19	.22#	−.03	.10
Procedural fairness × encourage self-development × encourage independent action	−.10	.07	.08	.05	.10#	.09
Self-perceived status	–	.41***	.18*	.16#	.39***	.34**

Notes: table presents β coefficients derived from OLS regression. For self-perceived status (SPS), table presents coefficients for the main and interactive effects of procedural fairness and empowering leadership as predictors in the equation. For the OCB dimensions, table presents coefficients for the main and interactive effects of procedural fairness and empowering leadership and also the main effect of self-perceived status as predictors in the equation. II = individual initiative; IH = Interpersonal helping; PI = personal industry; LB = loyal boosterism.

# $p < .10$.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.
*** $p < .001$.

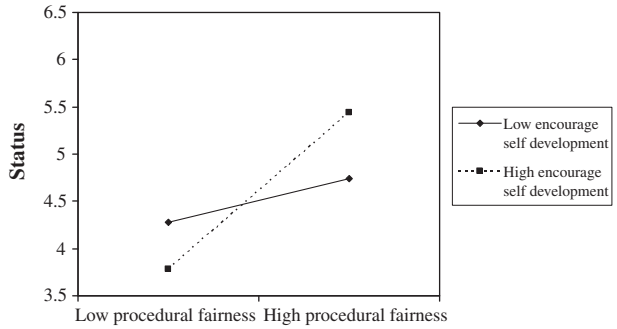

Fig. 4a. The relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status as moderated by encourage self-development (German sample).

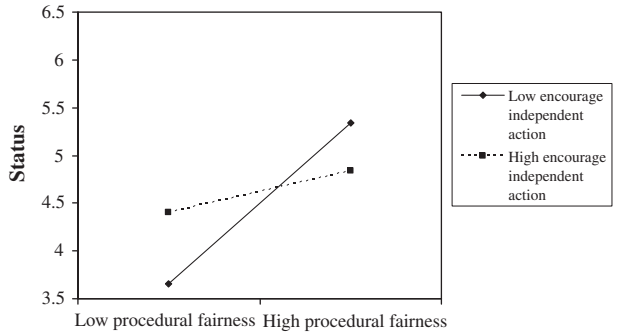

Fig. 4b. The relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status as moderated by encourage independent action (German sample).

Fig. 4b represents the relationship between procedural fairness and self-perceived status, as moderated by encouraging independent action. Simple slopes analyses revealed that when leaders did not encourage independent action (one *SD* below the mean), procedural fairness was positively related to self-perceived status ($\beta = 84$, $t = 4.06$, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .18$). When leaders did encourage independent action (one *SD* above the mean), procedural fairness was not significantly related to self-perceived status ($\beta = .22$, $t = 1.06$, *ns*, $f^2 = .01$).

Table 5 shows the indirect effects of procedural fairness on OCB and its dimensions, as mediated by status and moderated by the two types of empowering leadership.

Fig. 5a represents the relationship between procedural fairness and OCB, as moderated by encouraging self-development and mediated by self-perceived status. Procedural fairness was significantly related to OCB, via self-perceived status, when the leader stimulated followers to develop themselves but not when the leader refrained from stimulating followers towards self-development.

Fig. 5b represents the relationship between procedural fairness and OCB, as moderated by leader's encouraging independent action and mediated by self-perceived status. Procedural fairness and OCB had a weaker indirect relationship, via self-perceived status, when the leader stimulated employees to act independently than when the leader did not stimulate independent employee action.

Table 5 also shows that, with the exception of the personal industry dimension, the indirect effects for each OCB dimension were similar to those of the overall OCB scale.[7]

General discussion

We showed in an experimental study that the empowering leadership style of encouraging self-development makes people desire information about their value to the organization more. Encouraging independent action, on the other hand, makes people desire this type of information less. Building on this, we showed across a US and a European field sample that both empowering leadership styles uniquely (and even oppositely) moderate procedural fairness effects on a self-definitional (i.e., self-perceived status) as well as a behavioral outcome variable (i.e., OCB). Whereas encouraging self-development *strengthens* the relationship between a leader's procedural fairness and employee's OCB, via self-perceived status, encouraging independent action *weakens* this relationship.

Theoretical implications

Our findings are, first of all, relevant for relational models like the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2003) and the self-based model of cooperation (De Cremer & Tyler, 2005a) that were developed to explain the relationship between procedural fairness and employee OCB. Although these models are very influential in the procedural fairness literature, they have thus far ignored the role of leader behaviors other than their fairness. Our findings validate these models, but more importantly, they also broaden their

[7] For space considerations, we do not present the figures for the simple indirect relationships between procedural fairness and each specific OCB dimension, as mediated by self-perceived status and moderated by the empowering leadership types. However, the pattern of these indirect relationships was very similar to that for the overall OCB scale.

Table 5
Analyses of simple slopes for Study 2b (German sample).

	II	IH	PI	LB	OCB
Encourage self development					
Low	.10 (−.06–.34)	−.03 (−.49–.19)	.04 (−.02–.20)	.09 (−.03–.33)	.08 (−.03–.31)
High	.34 (.14–.62)	.18 (.00–.42)	.13 (−.05–.35)	.32 (.13–.56)	.28 (.09–.52)
Encourage independent action					
Low	.35 (.11–.69)	.15 (.00–.39)	.14 (−.05–.39)	.33 (.10–.69)	.29 (.06–.54)
High	.09 (−.08–.33)	.04 (−.02–.19)	.04 (−.02–.17)	.09 (−.07–.30)	.07 (−.09–.27)

Notes: table presents indirect effects and, in brackets, bias corrected 95% confidence intervals derived from 5000 bootstrap samples. Simple slopes are indirect relationships with procedural fairness, as mediated by self-perceived status and moderated by the two types of empowering leadership. Low and high on a specific moderator refers to 1 *SD* below and above the mean of this moderator, respectively. II = individual initiative; IH = interpersonal helping; PI = personal industry; LB = loyal boosterism.

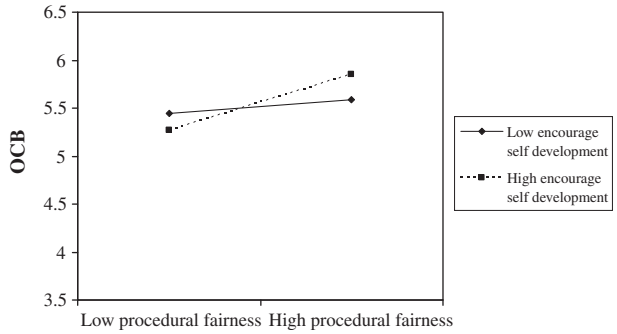

Fig. 5a. The indirect relationship between procedural fairness and OCB as moderated by encourage self-development and mediated by self-perceived status (German sample).

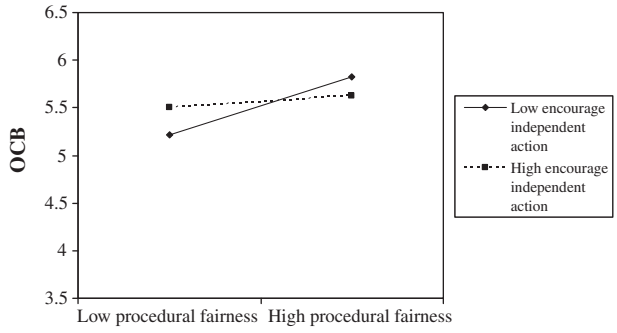

Fig. 5b. The indirect relationship between procedural fairness and OCB as moderated by encourage independent action and mediated by self-perceived status (German sample).

scope by explicitly integrating specific empowering leadership types into these models. This integration thus allows us to understand better: (1) exactly when employees respond to procedural fairness with OCB, (2) which specific leader behaviors influence the effectiveness of procedural fairness in promoting OCB, and (3) why this is the case.

Our findings also have implications for the empowerment literature. Instruments that have been developed to assess empowering leadership (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Konkczak et al., 2000; Pearce & Sims, 2002) distinguish between various empowering leadership styles. Research using these instruments generally shows that these dimensions positively relate to outcomes such as employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and also performance (e.g., Konkczak et al., 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002). However, theory has not significantly developed in distinguishing different processes that explain the effectiveness of different empowerment types. Studies show that empowerment results in altered subjective states such as heightened self-efficacy (e.g., Ahearne et al., 2005), or a sense of impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice (Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer, 1996). Yet, no research to date has, as far as we know, shown that two types of empowering leadership result in different psychological states. We show that stimulating independent employee action increases people's desire for information about their value to the organization whereas stimulating employee self-development decreases the desire for this information. Consequently, these two core empowerment types interact with procedural fairness in opposite ways.

Our focus on interactive relationships between procedural fairness and empowering leadership may also be relevant for attempts at more general integration of the procedural fairness and empowerment literatures. These literatures have clear connections: They both originate from scientific interest in democratizing influences in work and other contexts in western societies of the twentieth century, making that both literatures focus on employees' rights and contributions (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2007; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Yet, both literatures have developed with very little cross-fertilization. Procedural fairness essentially refers to an assessment of employees' relationship with their supervisor and with the organization, speaking in particular to the issue of whether authorities can be trusted not to abuse their power by exploiting employees and damaging their identity (Tyler & Blader, 2002; Lind, 2001). Empowerment, on the other hand, speaks to *changing* these relationships. In line with this conceptualization, the only attempt to start viewing these two literatures in a more integrated manner that we know of is a theoretical paper by Mishra and Spreitzer (1998). This paper argues that employees use procedural fairness to appraise the threats involved in the situation whereas empowerment shapes their subsequent appraisal of how they can cope with these treats. Future research should examine the relevance of the distinction in types of empowerment that our research suggests. In other words, is it relevant to differentiate capabilities to cope with and change the situation directly (i.e., when employees are stimulated towards independent action) from a more future-oriented outlook, when employees are stimulated towards self-development?

Our findings may also be relevant to other literatures than those on empowerment and procedural fairness. For instance, it is well documented in the job design literature that allowing employees to work in independently increases opportunities for learning and development (e.g., van Ruysseveldt & van Dijke, 2011). Interestingly, in his commentary on the job design literature, Johns (2010, p. 366) notes that researchers have a relatively clear understanding of the relevance of these variables and also their relationship with outcome variables such as job satisfaction. However, he also notes that "there is clearly a missing generation of information on how job design might affect important criteria that have been studied more recently, including OCB". Our findings suggest that stimulating employee independence does not directly affect employee OCB but it does make leaders less effective in stimulating (or harming) employee OCB via the fairness of the enacted procedures.

Practical implications

Procedural fairness is widely recognized as an important tool for organizational leaders to positively influence employee well-being and functioning. Similarly, the empowerment literature notes that empowering leadership results in a number of positive consequences for the employee and the organization. One important practical implication of our research is that managers need to recognize that this seemingly simple picture becomes much more complex when looking at these various leadership behaviors in tandem. The effectiveness of empowering employees is dependent on the leader's procedural fairness. Similarly, the benefits of being procedurally fair depend on the leader's specific empowerment efforts. In other words, our findings complicate practical implications from prior research because our findings suggest different types of leader behaviors are interpreted together by employees—not in isolation. This, in turn, implies that managers should also refrain from considering the enactment of these behaviors in isolation.

It furthermore appears important for leaders to understand that their efforts to empower their followers may have some unintended side effects. That is, stimulating self-development makes employees desire information about their value to the organization more, whereas stimulating independent action makes people desire such information less. Ultimately this influences whether employees are sensitive to social information about their value to the organization. Leaders should be aware of this, and when they encourage their employees towards self-development, they should recognize that they may also fuel employees' concerns about their value to the organization. If leaders want to avoid fueling such concerns, they may be well advised that they should at the same time communicate that they are stimulating employees to develop themselves because they believe in the employee and want him or her to grow.

Our focus on empowering leadership styles as variables that make procedural fairness more or less effective in stimulating employee OCB should not be mistaken as a plea that procedural fairness is irrelevant when leaders stimulate their followers to act in an independent manner (or when leaders do *not* stimulate followers to develop themselves). In fact, one might consider our results as indicating that leaders who stimulate their employees to act independently (or leaders who refrain from stimulating employee development), receive less feedback from their employees regarding the consequences of their unfairness, and thus regarding their effectiveness as a leader. Managers should recognize that this can have serious negative consequences because other actors besides direct subordinates, such as job applicants or clients of the organization, may react negatively to such leaders' procedural unfairness as such decreasing the organization's image and attractiveness.

Strengths and limitations

A clear strength of the present research is that we explicitly tested the processes that served as the basis for our predictions involving the two empowering leadership types in relational fairness models. That is, we showed, first of all, in an experiment that encouraging employee self-development increases employees' desire for information about their value to the organization whereas encouraging independent employee action decreases this desire. We subsequently found support for both moderated effects while also focusing on an employee's self-perceived status in the organization as a critical mediator that drives our effects. Hence, our theoretical claim that we extend relational fairness models is strengthened by the fact that we explicitly measure the theoretical mechanisms we propose in this research.

Another strength of our research is that we found support for our mediated moderation model (see Fig. 1) in two independent samples. There were three relevant differences between the samples. First, employees' level of OCB was provided by their supervisor in the first sample but by their coworker in the second sample. Second, we used a one-dimensional OCB scale in the US sample, but a multidimensional OCB scale in the European sample. Third, whereas the first sample relied on US employees, the second sample relied on European (i.e., German) employees. In fact, our choice of country where we replicated our US findings is directly relevant for our research question. Germany is a Western culture but, in contrast to the US corporate culture, leaders are generally not expected to empower their followers in Germany (Brodbeck, Frese, & Javidan, 2002). Hence, showing that our results generalize from the well-researched US setting to a setting in which empowerment is much less expected enhances the validity of our conclusions. More generally, the constructive replication using different data sources, respondents from different countries, and different outcome measures makes us more confident in claiming support for our theoretical model.

Like all research, our studies have their limitations. One limitation derives from the fact that focal employees invited their supervisor (in the US sample) or coworker (in the German sample) to indicate the focal employee's OCB. Hence, particularly employees who felt that their supervisor or coworker thought highly of them may have participated. Selection biases can lead to range restriction, which decreases the power of statistical test. Hence, a selection bias would have resulted in a conservative test of the interactive effects across both of our samples (see Cohen, 1988). Yet, range restriction also makes it more difficult to draw conclusions from the sample about the full population. However, in defense of the external validity of our conclusions, it should be noted that the main effects in our studies replicate prior studies, including experimental and longitudinal work showing that procedural fairness influences people's self-perceived status and also cooperative behaviors like OCB (see Blader & Tyler, 2009, for an overview).

Although our research replicates well-established main effects of procedural fairness and consistently reveals opposite interactions of procedural fairness with the two empowering leadership types, the specific shape of one of these interactions was not completely the same in the two samples. That is, the shape of the procedural fairness $\times$ encouraging independent action interaction on status, and via status on OCB was similar across both samples. However, the shape of the procedural fairness $\times$ encouraging self-development interaction differed between both samples. This results because the German sample revealed a negligible positive main effect of encouraging self-development on status whereas this main effect was stronger and significant in the US sample. This main effect of stimulating self-development likely results because the US sample consists mostly of students (albeit students who worked for at least 20 h a week). Hence, leaders encouraging self-development potentially implied often that respondents took up a business study at a university (from which we recruited them), something that may have elevated their self-perceived status. This difference between the main effects in the two samples forms a potential limitation to the conclusions that can be drawn from our research. On the other hand, the moderating roles of encouraging self-development and encouraging independent action, which were of primary interest for our argument, were similar across both samples, attesting to the robustness of our findings.

We recognize that the interactive effects in our field study were relatively small in size. However, such effects are usually small in field studies and therefore hard to detect. There are methodological reasons for this (e.g., lack of control) as well as statistical reasons (i.e., measurement error in the independent variable and the moderator is compounded when both variables are multiplied to obtain the interaction term; McClelland & Judd, 1993). Hence, a number of

authors (e.g., Evans, 1985) note that because moderator effects are suppressed in this type of methodology and analysis, even small effect sizes should be considered important.

The present research focused on the fairness of decision making procedures as enacted by the supervisor only, while disregarding more formal sources of procedural fairness (i.e., the rules of the organization; see e.g., Blader and Tyler (2003) and Lavelle et al. (2007), for this distinction). This choice does not conflict with our focus on extending relational fairness models. As Tyler (1999, p. 7) noted "A central source of status information is one's immediate supervisor who communicates the norms and values of the group as well as expressing the group's view about the person's status in the group." Relational models thus view the supervisor as representing the organization to employees (see De Cremer et al., 2010; Smith et al., 1998). Yet, future research may examine whether the fairness of formal organizational rules interacts in similar ways with the empowering leadership types that we focused on, or that other processes also play a role here. For instance, one might argue that, in contrast to our findings, the fairness of formal procedures is more important for employees to make sense of their situation (i.e., instead of to make sense of their own value to the organization) when they are stimulated to function independently from their supervisor.

Furthermore, our findings regarding the various OCB dimensions that are affected by procedural fairness differ from what would be expected from social exchange based models like the target similarity model (Lavelle et al., 2007). This model notes that employees are likely to reciprocate their cooperative efforts towards the source of fairness (e.g., to the supervisor when (s)he is the source, or to the organization when this is the source). Finding procedural fairness effects on OCB that are not directly targeted at the source are referred to as "spillover effects" in this model. None of the OCB dimensions in our research focused directly at the source of fairness (i.e., the leader). We measured employees' helping behaviors directed at their coworkers (US and German sample), and also promoting the organization as a whole and showing initiative (German sample). It should, however, be noted that our findings are not only meaningful from the perspective of relational fairness models, they are also in line with much prior work showing "spillover effects" (e.g., De Cremer et al., 2010; van Dijke et al., 2010). Nevertheless, future research should focus directly on supervisor-directed OCB as a response to fairly enacted procedures (as contingent on empowering leadership types), to test if such effects are even more pronounced than the effects we obtained.

A final limitation that we discuss is that we did not include the role of employees' pride in their organization (i.e., their perception of the status *of* their organization) and their identification with the organization in our analyses. Both variables are relevant in explaining the procedural fairness-OCB link from the perspective of relational fairness models. Specifically, self-perceived status and pride both stimulate identification with the organization. Identification then instills an intrinsic motivation to support the organization (e.g., Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2003). We restricted our model to self-perceived status because including pride and identification would considerably increase model complexity. For instance, in addition to mediating procedural fairness effects, identification also moderates these effects (i.e., making procedural fairness effects particularly pronounced among high identifiers; Tyler & Degoey, 1995). Moreover, in contrast with identification and pride, status forms a critical mediator to test the rationale underlying our hypotheses: Different types of empowering leadership should promote or eliminate the relationship between procedural fairness and OCB because these empowering leadership types were argued to induce variations in employees' desire to evaluate their value to the organization. However, it should be noted that procedural fairness and empowerment also operate at the level of the team and the organization (e.g., Chen et al., 2007; Naumann & Bennett, 2000). To paint a more complete picture of the interactive effects of procedural fairness and empowering leadership, future research may explore the mediating role of pride when studying interactions between collectively experienced procedural fairness and empowerment.

Concluding remarks

In their overview of research addressing relationships between fairness and leadership, van Knippenberg et al. (2007) noted that "Remarkably little research has been done on the interactive effects of leader fairness and other aspects of leadership [...] and here potentially lies the greatest challenge for research in leadership and fairness." Our research shows that encouraging independent action and encouraging self-development are leadership styles that uniquely impact whether procedural fairness promotes employee OCB because they affect whether procedural fairness heightens employees' self-perceived status. We thus explicitly integrate empowering leadership types in relational fairness theories that have been developed to explain why employees respond to fairly enacted procedures with OCB. In doing this, we believe, we have also taken a step that is often overlooked in the leadership literature: Employees look at leader behaviors not in isolation, but in concert.

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