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The effect of empowering leadership on leader well-being: Leader related antecedents and consequences

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서 동 훈

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Abstract

The effect of empowering leadership on leader well-being: Leader related antecedents and consequences

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Extant literature on empowering leadership has already established its positive influence on employee outcomes. However, current literature lacks in answering two questions regarding empowering leadership: 1) what is the impact of empowering leadership on leaders' psychological well-being, and 2) why do leaders engage in empowering leadership? Integrating conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and job demands and resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), we examine the beneficial and costly effect of the empowering leadership for the leaders in a daily context. Specifically, we predict that on days when leaders are prosocially motivated, they will engage more in empowering leadership behaviors and in turn perceive higher challenge and hindrance job demands. We further predict that leaders experiencing higher challenge job demands will in turn experience higher job meaningfulness, but at the same time experience higher emotional exhaustion due to higher hindrance demands. To further understand the context, we theorize and test whether training and development practices moderates the relationship between prosocial motivation and empowering

leadership. With a sample of 81 American supervisors (Level 1 N = 773), we used experience sampling method and found that daily prosocial motivation was positively associated with empowering leadership, which in turn was positively associated with both challenge and hindrance job demands. The challenge job demands were positively associated with job meaningfulness and hindrance job demands were positively associated with emotional exhaustion. Training and development, however, did not moderate the relationship between prosocial motivation and empowering leadership.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Empowering leadership is defined as the process of developing competent and autonomously driven employees by sharing power, supporting their motivation and development (Ahearne et al., 2005; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Arnold et al., 2000). The empowering leadership has received more attention given that organizations continue to become flatter, and work becoming more complex (Arnold et al., 2000; Seibert et al., 2004; Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). This is because empowering leadership has shown to be effective in dealing with these organizational changes (Manz & Sims, 2001). Because of this, myriad of researchers has examined employee outcomes of empowering leadership such as performance, work engagement, creativity, job satisfaction, commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015; Cai et al., 2018; Fong & Snape, 2015; Jung et al., 2020; A. Lee et al., 2018; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Although extant research demonstrates the beneficial effect of empowering leadership in fostering positive follower outcomes, research on the impact of empowering leadership on leaders themselves has received less attention to date (Kaluza et al., 2020). Given that leaders are in a position to influence followers, their effectiveness is a critical component of firm success (Yukl, 2013). However, leadership is a challenging process that requires leaders' use of their resources (Hobfoll, 1989; Yukl, 2013). It is problematic not to take into account how empowering leadership affects leaders' psychological well-being because leaders' psychological well-being is a critical factor that affects not only the leaders but also their followers and entire organizations (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Sonnentag, 2015).

For example, research found that depleted leaders tend to demonstrate destructive forms of leadership (Byrne et al., 2014), which raises the severity of disregarding the impact of empowering leadership on leaders' psychological well-being.

To address this gap, we examine the effect of empowering leadership on leaders' psychological well-being by integrating conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and job demands and resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001). The theoretical backbone of this study is the resource investment principle of conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which suggests that individuals invest their resources to acquire resources. To demonstrate what resources are invested and consequently acquired, we integrate the health-impairment and motivational processes of job demands (Demerouti et al., 2001). The empowering leadership is likely to have both health-impairment and motivational processes that are described in the job demands and resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). From the motivational perspective, empowering leadership behaviors involve encouraging, supporting, and providing guidance that demand leaders' time and cognitive resources (resource investment). These behaviors likely drive leaders to perceive their job as demanding in a challenging way (challenge job demands). The positive gain expectancy of the challenge job demands in turn may drive leaders to dedicate more effort and ability (Crawford et al., 2010; Lepine et al., 2005), which ultimately may heighten their job meaningfulness (resource acquisition). On the other hand, health-impairment process of empowering leadership behaviors involves providing encouragements and inspiring behaviors that necessitate displaying of positive emotions (resource investment). The display of certain emotions may drive leaders to perceive their jobs as emotionally demanding, which in turn may strengthen their emotional

exhaustion (resource loss). Thus, we posit that engaging in empowering leadership is both motivational and health-impairing for the leader where leaders may eventually experience job meaningfulness and emotional exhaustion.

In addition to the aforementioned contributions aimed at understanding the benefits and costs of engaging in empowering leadership, we sought to shed light on why do leaders engage in empowering leadership behaviors. Extant research on antecedents of empowering leadership to date received scant attention (Cheong et al., 2019). A general consensus resides within the boundaries of person-situation interactionist approach where leader-related, follower-related, and context-related factors received most of the attention as antecedents of empowering leadership (Cheong et al., 2019; Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Recent research, however, indicates that leadership is a state of mind that one may enter and leave (Ashford & DeRue, 2012). In line with this perspective, conservation of resources theory states that individuals invest resources where they can maximize the fit with their environment (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 1988). Given that empowering leadership is supportive in nature, composed of supporting their followers' autonomy and development, we examine state prosocial motivation of leaders as an antecedent of daily empowering leadership behaviors. Prosocially motivated leaders are concerned with benefiting others and within their work environment, they will likely engage in proactive behaviors that can benefit their followers (Grant, 2008). Thus, prosocially motivated leaders may engage in more empowering leadership behaviors in a daily context. Furthermore, we posit that the resource investment process of the prosocially motivated leaders is contingent on the level of organizations' focus on employee training and development. When organizations focus on having a strong employee training and development

practices, it signals that the organizations place importance on employee growth (Sung & Choi, 2018). Hence, we predict that organizations with stronger training and development practices might amplify the relationship between leaders' prosocial motivation and empowering leadership behaviors.

In sum, we propose a single integrative model that describes a resource investment process of prosocially motivated leaders in a daily context. Specifically, we predict prosocially motivated leaders to engage in more empowering leadership behaviors as a resource investment process. Engaging in empowering leadership behaviors require cognitive resources and time (challenge job demands) that consequently enhances leaders' job meaningfulness. On the other hand, empowering leadership behaviors require emotional resources (hindrance job demands), which in turn emotionally drains the leaders. Further, we predict that employee training and development practices might amplify the positive effect of leader prosocial motivation on empowering leadership. Our hypothesized research model is depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Hypothesized Research Model.
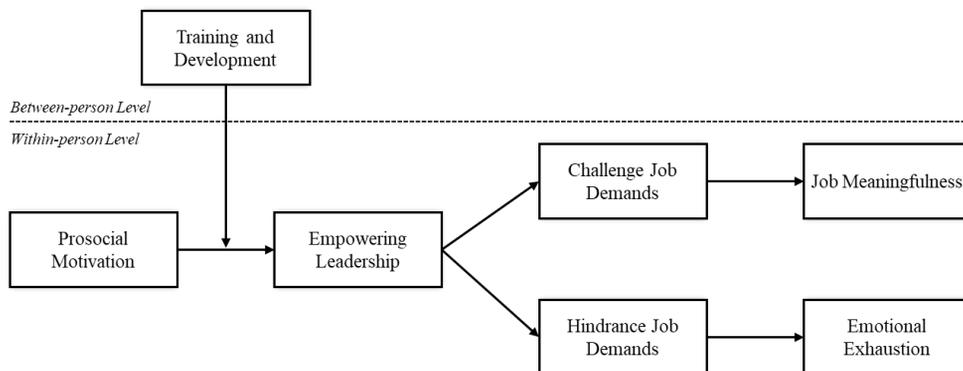
II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1.   Resource Perspective

Conservation of Resources Theory

The conservation of resources theory posits that individuals are motivated to protect current resources and acquire new resources (Hobfoll, 1989). The theory defines resources as anything perceived by individuals that assists in achieving goals (Halbesleben et al., 2014). This conservation and acquisition of resources provide a foundation for the principles of the theory. Among the various principles and corollaries, we focus on the second principle, which is the resource investment principle. The resource investment principle posits that individuals invest resources to protect from resource loss, to recover from resource losses, and to gain resources (Hobfoll, 2011). This conservation related tenet provides a theoretical backbone of this study given that we focus on empowering leadership behavior as a resource investments behavior, which is considered as both gaining and spending of resources.

The conservation of resources theory states that resources are valuable to the individuals because they can provide opportunities to gain more resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). For example, empathic employees who invest their emotional resources in turn gains self-efficacy (S.-H. Lin et al., 2022). Transformational leaders who invest personal resources to their followers by demonstrating positive affect in turn is more likely to build strong relationships with them (Lanaj et al., 2016). Although resource investments are necessary for gaining resources, Rothbard (2001) provides a depletion perspective of resources.

Rothbard (2001) states that individuals have fixed amount of resources thus, investing in one role at the requires an expense of another role. This resource depletion process suggests that resource investment is a complex process that involves both spending and gaining of resources.

Job Demands and Resources Model

Another resource perspective that helps to understand the effect of empowering leadership on leader well-being is the Job demands-resource model (Demerouti et al., 2001). The job demands-resources model focuses on explaining the influence of the organizational context on employee well-being and performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The main assumption of the job demands-resource model is that all jobs have some sort of risk factors associated with job stress and that the risk factors are generally divided into two categories, which are job demands and job resources. Job demands refers to "physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). The job demands include work pressure, emotional demands from customers, workplace bullying, and dangerous physical environments (Crawford et al., 2010; Lepine et al., 2005). On the other hand, job resources refer to "physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, or stimulate personal growth, learning, and development" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Examples of job resources include autonomy, coaching, coworker support, and career opportunities (Crawford et al., 2010). Job

demands exhaust and deplete employees' mental and physical resources, resulting in a health-impairing process, whereas job resources result in a motivational process, which results in higher work engagement and performance. The recent development of job demands and resources literature states that situational factors may impact how individuals perceive their jobs (Foulk & Lanaj, 2021; M. A. LePine et al., 2016). In line with this recent development, we focus on how engaging in empowering leadership behaviors influence leaders' perception of their job demands.

However, not all job demands yield negative effects. The literature on job demands and resources found some job demands to induce exclusively negative effects, whereas some to induce both beneficial and detrimental effects (Crawford et al., 2010). The job demands that induce exclusively negative effects that drains employees' energy and induces negative emotions are called hindrance job demands, which includes emotional demands, interpersonal conflicts, role ambiguity, and job insecurity. Alternatively, there are job demands that induce both positive and negative effects on the employees. These job demands enhances employees' curiosity, competence, and thoroughness, thereby stimulating the focal employees. Because of these positive effects, they contribute towards employee achievements and growth. These job demands are labelled as challenge job demands, which includes time pressure, workload, and cognitive demands.

2.2. Challenge Job Demands

Based on the challenge-hindrance framework of job demands (Crawford et al., 2010), we refer to challenge job demands as obstacles at work to be overcome in order to learn and achieve. The challenge job demands, as was previously

mentioned, affect employees in both positive and negative ways. According to LePine's meta-analysis from 2005, challenging job demands have a direct positive impact on performance. The challenge job demands also showed a positive indirect influence on performance via motivation while demonstrating a negative indirect effect on performance via strains. This is because employees are motivated to participate in problem-focused coping in response to challenge demands because they perceive them as opportunities for personal improvement (J. A. LePine et al., 2004). The focal employees who experience these challenge job demands exert more effort to successfully handle the job requirements in order to satisfy their demands. Examples of challenge job demands categorized by Crawford et al. (2010) are high workload, time pressure, job complexity, job responsibility, and cognitive demands. Given that this study concentrates on the effect of empowering leadership on leader perceived job demands, we focus on quantitative and cognitive demands.

Quantitative demands (workload) refer to the amount of work given in certain period of time. Quantitative demands are influenced by many factors such as the number of tasks and the complexity of it, the amount of time given to complete the tasks, and the expectations associated with the job (Pejtersen et al., 2010). Quantitative demands have two main influence processes on the focal employees. For example, quantitative demands can be a source of stress that could eventually cause employee burnout (Greenglass et al., 2001; Sweeney & Summers, 2002). On the other hand, it has been identified as a source of motivation, having a positive effect on work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). This fits the description of a challenge job demands, which require some energy but stimulates employees to be engaged in their work.

Cognitive demands refer to burdens placed to the employees due to required concentration for information processing (Burmeister et al., 2022). Employees encounter cognitive demands when tackling novel activities, dealing with unanticipated incident developments, and managing everyday problems (Pejtersen et al., 2010). As previously mentioned, extant literature on cognitive demands found a positive effect on work engagement, vigor, and dedication (e.g., Christian et al., 2011; Crawford et al., 2010). Similar to quantitative demands (workload), cognitive demands also place a strain on employees since it requires resources and effort to successfully deal with them.

2.3.   Hindrance Job Demands

The hindrance job demands refer to "demands or work circumstances that involve excessive or undesirable constraints that interfere with or inhibit" job performance and well-being (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). These demands are often perceived negatively by employees as they hinder their ability to accomplish work-related goals and may contribute to job dissatisfaction and stress. Examples of hindrance job demands are organizational politics, role ambiguity, and conflict, administrative burdens, and excessive task constraints (Crawford et al., 2010). Overall, hindrance job demands reflect a lack of resources and can have detrimental effect of one's well-being and performance.

Emotional demands refer to "efforts involved in dealing with job inherent emotions and/or desired emotional responses" (Gevers et al., 2010, p.1574). Emotional demands fall into the categories of hindrance job demands in which they induce health-impairment process (Crawford et al., 2010). Individuals experience emotional demands when they engage in displaying certain emotions, are more

sensitive to others' emotions, and are required to express emotions that are not felt (Zapf & Holz, 2006). For instance, emotional demands drain mental and physical resources, creates sleeping problems that leads to exhaustion, and in turn incur health impairment (Awa et al., 2010). Although emotional demands have mostly been studied under the context of emotionally demanding interactions with clients or customers, we integrate emotional demands in the context of dyadic relationship where it may present similar difficulties for the leaders.

2.4. Prosocial Motivation

Prosocial motivation refers to an individual's desire to benefit or help others (Grant, 2008). It is a form of motivation that is based on altruistic behavior and a concern for the well-being of others. Prosocial motivation can manifest in various forms, such as providing support, showing kindness, cooperation, sharing resources, volunteering, and other altruistic behaviors aimed at benefiting others or society as a whole. The prosocial motivation has been linked to numerous positive outcomes, including increased job satisfaction, better mental health, enhanced social connections, and improved job performance (Bolino & Grant, 2016).

Vallerand (1997) states that all motivations can be both dispositional or situational. In line with Vallerand (1997), some extant research focused on examining prosocial motivation as a trait (Grant, 2008; Rioux & Penner, 2001), while few have examined prosocial motivation as a psychological state (De Dreu et al., 2000; Grant & Campbell, 2007). Following the recent review, which calls for the examination of how employees become prosocially motivated at work (Bolino & Grant, 2016), this study focuses on the state prosocial motivation of the leaders as a critical antecedent of empowering leadership.

2.5. Empowering Leadership

Empowering leadership refers to a form of leadership where leaders share power, delegate authority, involve followers in decision making and increase follower motivation. (Ahearne et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2014). Leaders embracing empowering leadership provide emotional support, information, feedback, and encouragement towards followers (Fong & Snape, 2015; Li et al., 2015) Followers who receive empowering leadership enhance their own self-control, participate in decision making, and act autonomously (Liu et al., 2003). The supportive behavior by the empowering leaders induce higher leaders-member exchange, and perceived leader effectiveness from the followers (Chen et al., 2007; Hassan et al., 2013; Kim & Beehr, 2017), strengthening the dyadic relationship. In addition, empowering leadership is associated with employees' motivational outcomes such as, empowerment (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011), intrinsic motivation (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), affective commitment (Hassan et al., 2013), and organization-based self-esteem (Kim & Beehr, 2018). Because of this, extant research provide evidence that followers who receive empowering leadership tend to be higher performers (e.g., Humborstad et al., 2014; Raub & Robert, 2010).

2.6. Job Meaningfulness

Employees find meaningfulness when they "feel worthwhile, useful, and valuable" in their job (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Kahn, 1990). On the other hand, when they feel their job is meaningless, employees tend to find their job as worthless and uninteresting (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Kahn (1990) describes meaningfulness as a return on investment, where investing cognitively, emotionally, and physically into work to feel worthwhile. Employees utilize sense-making

process to interpret their work within the cognitive self-schemata, which results in decision to engage in their work, and ultimately to meaningfulness (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). Research states that employees can increase their meaningfulness through having more autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), enhancing their sense of importance in role (Goffman, 1961; Hochschild, 1983), and developing positive work relationship (Alderfer, 1972). When employees feel their work lacks meaning, it leads to work disengagement (Aktouf, 1992). Thus, job meaningfulness is a important antecedent of individual motivation (Rosso et al., 2010).

2.7. Emotional Exhaustion

As a primary component of burnout, emotional exhaustion refers to the "feeling of emotional and physical resource depletion, overextension, and frustration" (Cooper et al., 2001; Maslach et al., 2001). At work, individuals experience emotional exhaustion when they feel tension and frustration due to fear of unable to provide previous levels of work performance (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Because of resource depletion, emotional exhaustion leads to absenteeism, turnover, and negative job performance (Maslach et al., 2001). Cropanzano and his colleagues (2003), state that exhausted employees show lower commitment, job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization and their supervisors, and higher turnover intentions. Based on these results, they argue that emotional exhaustion can be seen as a cost that lowers the value of employment.

Although there are many different causes of emotional exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001; Hobfoll, 1989), one way that individuals may prevent experiencing emotional exhaustions at work is by focusing on their personal

resources (i.e., status, social support, money, or shelter; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). These personal resources are crucial for employees as they allow employees to deal with various job demands. In this regard, employees strive to maintain their resources or recover from losses given that ongoing resource loss may result in a resource loss spiral (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Those who are required to regulate their emotions at work well are also known to experience higher emotional exhaustion (CÔTÉ et al., 2012). This is because displaying certain emotions requires effort during the interpersonal transactions and not being consistent with their true emotions leads to emotional exhaustion.

2.8.　Training and Development

Employee training and development are crucial components of a firm that is key to organizational effectiveness (Kraiger & Ford, 2007). Training refers to "the systematic approach to affecting individuals' knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to improve individual, team, and organizational effectiveness," while development refers to an "systematic efforts affecting individuals' knowledge or skills for purposes of personal growth or future jobs and/or roles" (Aguinis et al., 2013 p.452). Research suggests that extensive training and development programs can benefit organizations by enhancing employee skills, engagement, participation, and motivation, all of which affect job performance (Colquitt et al., 2000). Research shows that training and development can be delivered in various forms, such as on-the-job training, mentorship, or coaching (Jacobs & Park, 2009).

Aside from the more obvious benefits of training and development on employees' job performance, training and development also has implicit influence such as signaling a commitment to investing in its workforce and developing its

human capital (Baldwin & Magjuka, 1991). This signaling of organizational support leads to higher employee commitment (Brum, 2007) because employees' perception of organizational commitment creates an reciprocal obligation to the employers based on social exchange perspective (Shore & Wayne, 1993). In line with how training and development practices can encourage organizational identification (Edwards, 2009), this study focuses on the contextual effect of training and development on the leader behaviors.

III. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

3.1. Leader Prosocial Motivation and Empowering Leadership: Resource Investment

Cognitive and Quantitative Resource Investment of Prosocially Motivated Leaders

The core function for leaders is to psychologically support and provide task directions to their followers (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Such core aspect of leadership are closely related to prosocial motivation given that prosocial motivation refers to the desire to benefit or demonstrate concern for others (Grant, 2008). According to the motivation literature, all motivations can be described as either a stable dispositional tendencies or temporary desires driven by contextual factors (Vallerand, 1997). Although extant research has mostly examined prosocial motivation as a stable trait (see review in Bolino & Grant, 2016), recent research provides evidence that prosocial motivation can fluctuate on a daily basis (Zhong et al., 2022). Hence, this study examines day-to-day fluctuation of leaders' prosocial motivation.

Conservation of resources theory states that individuals strive to maintain

and acquire things they centrally value (Hobfoll, 1989). In particular, individuals invest their resources to gain additional resources, protect against losing their existing resources, and recover from resource losses. Given the nature of finite resources, individuals focus on allocating their resources to maximize the fit with their environment (Halbesleben et al., 2014). In other words, the value of resources fluctuate depending on various context (Halbesleben et al., 2014). As such, leaders with high prosocial motivation might engage in more empowering leadership behaviors because prosocially motivated leaders would prioritize benefiting their followers and the core aspect of empowering leadership consists of behaviors that are oriented to support the autonomy and development of their followers (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Prosocially motivated individuals tend to engage in prosocial behaviors (Bolino & Grant, 2016) that benefit the welfare of others. According to Bolino and Grant (2016), empowering leadership behaviors fit the description of prosocial behavior because it is performed by a leader in the organization, is directed to their followers, and are performed with the intention of benefiting their followers. The autonomy support, coaching and mentoring behaviors of the empowering leaders facilitate learning of the followers and enhance their performance. (Deci et al., 1989; Redshaw, 2000). Extant research suggests that prosocially motivated individuals demonstrate concerns and provide support for others (Grant & Mayer, 2009). These behaviors reflect goal focus and efficacy support dimensions of empowering leadership, which aim to support the autonomy of the followers (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Encouraging followers to work toward their goals and providing positive emotional support can enhance followers' self-efficacy beliefs, which in turn contributes to their motivation and autonomy (Bandura, 1997; Locke et al., 1984). Furthermore, prosocially motivated

leaders initiate structure by providing guidance on how to successfully complete ones' tasks (S.-H. Lin et al., 2021). This task oriented guidance is another reflection of empowering leadership behavior that enhances employee motivation (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Locke et al., 1984). Hence, on days when leaders are more prosocially motivated, they might show concern for their followers, provide psychological support, and demonstrate how to improve the way of working. These reasonings suggest that on days when leaders experience heightened prosocial motivation, they will engage in more empowering leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 1. Daily leader prosocial motivation is positively associated with empowering leadership.

Most of extant literature on empowering leadership has focused on its impact on the followers (Cheong et al., 2019). However, leaders deal with their own challenges when they supervise their followers. For example, studies have identified job demands as a proximal consequence of leader role occupancy (Hambrick et al., 2005). In line with the empirical evidence, the conservation of resources theory states that certain leader behaviors require resources, which eventually affects their own well-being (Hobfoll, 1989). Empowering leadership is one of many leadership styles where leaders share power to their followers (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Thus, to understand how engaging in empowering leadership requires leaders' resources, we examine eight different empowering leader behaviors that is defined by Amundsen and his colleague (2014).

Empowering leadership consists of two influence processes, which are autonomy support and development support (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). To support their followers' autonomy, the empowering leaders *coordinate and share*

information with their followers so that followers have a clear understanding of what their goals are and how goals at different levels are aligned. Sharing information however requires actor's time (Hew & Hara, 2007) and social interactions are necessary (Ghahtarani et al., 2020). The social interactions required in the information sharing process involves cognitive functioning and effort (Wascher et al., 2018; Yeh & Liu, 2003), which may drive leaders to perceive empowering leadership behaviors as cognitive job demands. To further support their followers' autonomy, empowering leaders *encourage taking initiative, goal focus*, and provide *efficacy support*. These encouragements and support behaviors are communicative actions that aims to induce autonomous motivation of followers (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Manz & Sims, 1991, 2001). The interactive nature of these empowering behaviors may also require leaders' effort (Shinn et al., 1984). Furthermore, the development supporting process of the empowering leadership includes *leading by example* and *providing guidance*. The followers learn through vicarious learning by observing leaders on how they successfully accomplish tasks. Coaching and guidance facilitates learning (Hamlin et al., 2006) and empowers followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). However, providing support and coaching is time consuming (McLean et al., 2005), given that coaching is considered a behavior that goes beyond leaders' formal job duties (Ellinger et al., 2003) and providing support requires social interactions. Furthermore, coaching involves leaders to learn and train at the same time requiring leaders to use their cognitive resources (Geber, 1992).

On the other hand, major aspect of empowering leadership is related to *delegation* of authority and responsibility (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Through delegating formal authority to followers, empowering leaders induce real

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autonomy within the followers. The delegation literature suggests that delegation can ease leader work overload (Leana, 1987). Relieving work overload of leaders may reduce time and cognitive demands required to perform the delegated work. However, delegation can cause fear among leaders as followers can deviate towards working for their own specific goals (Baliga & Jaeger, 1984). Empowering leaders can mitigate this fear via encouraging goal focus and aligning leaders' goal with their followers via coordination. This implies that although delegation of tasks can free up time and cognitive demands of the leaders, leaders are responsible for maintaining their followers' performance on track by encouraging goal focus and providing guidance. Further, given that leaders tend to delegate less important decisions to their followers (Leana, 1987), it is likely that the cognitive demands and additional time necessary to coach, socially interact with, and support followers may outweigh the cognitive demands and time saved by delegation . Thus, we posit that leaders engaging in empowering leadership may perceive their job as high in challenge job demands based on increased workload and cognitive demands.

Hypothesis 2a. Daily empowering leadership is positively associated with challenge job demands.

Taken together Hypotheses 1 and 2, we suggest that on days when leaders engage in more empowering leadership due to heightened prosocial motivation, they may perceive higher challenge job demands. This is because prosocially motivated leaders are guided by their desire to benefit others (Bolino & Grant, 2016), and supporting followers often requires investing of cognitive and quantitative resources (Dudley & Cortina, 2008; Lanaj & Jennings, 2020).

Consistent with these arguments, we propose the following:

   Hypothesis 3a. Daily leader prosocial motivation is positively related to

   challenge job demands via empowering leadership.

Emotional Resource Investment of Prosocially Motivated Leaders

As reviewed previously, examining perceived challenge job demands as an outcome of engaging in empowering leadership is in line with the resource investment perspective in that we argued engaging in empowering leadership requires investment of cognitive and quantitative resources. At the same time, another resource that can be invested to the followers are emotional demands. Emotional demands refer to "the exposure to, experience, and expression of emotions in interpersonal encounters with clients, coworkers, or supervisors" (Wieck et al., 2021, p.38). Occupations with low emotional job demands include IT services, whereas occupations with high emotional job demands include occupations that provides services or care to others (e.g., lawyers, teachers, nurses). In this study, we contend that empowering leaders perceive higher emotional demands given its interactional and relational nature with their followers (Burke, 1988; R. T. Lee & Ashforth, 1991).

Due to its relational nature, the core of empowering leadership behaviors is rooted in social interactions. Empowerment requires an ongoing effort, awareness, and commitment, which implies that social interactions within the empowering leadership behaviors are a continuous effort rather than being one-time effort (Blanchard et al., 1999). Hence, the dyadic context can influence leaders to perceive more emotional demands (CÔTÉ et al., 2012). As mentioned, individuals experience emotional demands when they engage in displaying certain emotions,

are more sensitive to others' emotions, and are required to express emotions that are not felt (Zapf & Holz, 2006). Among the three aspects of emotional demands, empowering leader behaviors such as *encouraging to take initiative and focus on goals* may require leaders to display positive emotions. Although displaying positive emotions is not explicitly stated in leaders' job descriptions, through professional experience leaders learn that displaying positive emotions when providing encouragement and support are more effective (Tuxford & Bradley, 2015). *Inspiring* behavior of empowering leaders are also involved with displaying certain emotions, given that inspiring their followers require demonstrating enthusiasm. Thus, empowering leaders are required to exhibit positive emotions and demonstrate enthusiasm while undergoing empowering leadership behaviors. This requirement of displaying positive emotions could drive leaders to perceive their job as emotionally demanding. Thus, we expect the following:

Hypothesis 2b. Daily empowering leadership is positively associated with

hindrance job demands.

Integrating Hypotheses 1 and 4, we propose that prosocially motivated leaders who engage in empowering leadership will perceive higher hindrance job demands because the social interactions evident that are required in the context of empowering leadership behaviors induce emotionally demanding situations. Based on this argument, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 3b. Daily leader prosocial motivation is positively related to

hindrance job demands via empowering leadership.

3.2.   The Moderating Role of Training and Development

Practices

Conservation of resource theory posits that individuals allocate resources to maximize their environmental fit (Hobfoll, 1988). Given that environments change, the value of a resource vary depending on the context (Halbesleben et al., 2014). One organizational context that can vary is the HR practices pertaining to training and development. Training and development refer to an organizations' continuous effort to enhance job-relevant knowledge and skills of their employees (Baldwin & Magjuka, 1997). Wright and Hobfoll (2004) posited that employees may emotionally attach to their work if organizations were perceived as fostering necessary work environment that supports their needs. In other words, employees perceive and interpret signals sent by the organizations. Given that leaders are also members of the organization, leaders may be influenced by the organizational signals if the signals support their need. In line with this theorizing, we expect training and development practices to amplify the relationship between prosocial motivation and empowering leadership.

Research states that organizations send signals and cues that can influence employee motivation (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). In particular, an organization's investment in training and development sends a strong signal that the firm cares about employees' growth (Sung & Choi, 2018). This is because organizational structure and practices give employees cues about what is important and expected within the organization (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994). Thus, organizations focusing on employee training and development practices have the potential to create a strong situation that promotes convergence and homogeneity in interpretation and behaviors (Mischel, 1973). As such, when leaders perceive that their organizations

are placing importance on employee training and development, it might create a strong situation where leaders may conform their behavior towards focusing more on employee training and development. This organizational context may have a stronger effect on the prosocially motivated leaders because they are already predisposed to engaging in behaviors that support their followers. Thus, on a day-to-day basis, the relationship between daily leader prosocial motivation and empowering leadership behavior might be stronger for leaders who are in organizations that places more emphasis on employee training and development. On the other hand, organizations that demonstrate less emphasis on employee training and development may signal less importance in developing their employees. In this context, prosocially motivated leaders might experience ambiguity in what behaviors are expected, valued, and rewarded. Given that prosocial motivation refers to a concern for others, not necessarily at the expense of self-interest (Grant & Berry, 2011), the relationship between daily leader prosocial motivation and empowering leadership behavior might be weaker for leaders residing in organizations that emphasize less on employee training and development. Hence, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 4. The effect of daily leader prosocial motivation on empowering leadership is stronger for leaders who perceive their organization to have stronger (vs. weaker) employee training and development practices.

Thus far, we have argued that on a day-to-day basis, prosocially motivated leaders engage in more empowering leadership and that empowering leadership requires investment of cognitive and emotional resources. Because of the interactive and relational nature of empowering leadership, leaders who engage in

more empowering leadership behaviors perceive higher challenge and hindrance job demands. In light of this argument, there are theoretical reasons to expect that the effect of prosocial motivation on job demands via empowering leadership are amplified by organization's focus on employee training and development. Research on mentoring suggests that management support for mentoring enhances the likelihood of managers taking on a mentee (Eby et al., 2006). Although such behavior benefits the mentees, it also comes at a cost to the mentors in terms of time and effort (Mann et al., 2023). This indirect evidence implies that leaders might align their behaviors with what is expected by the organization albeit the costs. Thus, leaders in organizations that focuses on employee training and development might experience higher job demands (challenge and hindrance) via empowering leadership on days when they are highly prosocially motivated. This is because prosocially motivated leaders may engage in more empowering leadership behaviors that require social interactions, demonstrating genuine concern, time, and effort. These behaviors require leaders' cognitive, quantiative, and emotional resources, which in turn are reflected as job demands. Thus, we expect the following:

> *Hypothesis 5.* The effect of daily leader prosocial motivation on (a) challenge job demands and (b) hindrance job demands via empowering leadership is stronger for leaders who perceive their organization to have stronger (vs. weaker) employee training and development practices.

3.3. The Downstream Impact of Leader Prosocial Motivation and Empowering Leadership on Leader Well-being

Conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989) posits that leader behaviors require resources. This implies that leader behaviors represent a resource investment activity that aims to acquire, protect, or recover resources. Taken together with job demands and resources model, which posits that demands at work can cause strain to the focal individual, our theoretical framework suggests that job demands perceived by the leaders at work will have both beneficial and harmful effects on leaders' well-being. As for the beneficial effects, we predict that empowering leaders who perceive higher challenge job demands will experience more job meaningfulness at the end of the workday. Job meaningfulness refers to finding time and effort invested in work worthwhile (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Given that empowering leadership is a relationship-oriented leadership, it can have a positive impact on leaders' motivational process by fulfilling leaders' need for relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Furthermore, employees who experience challenge job demands attribute importance and meaning to the tasks by activating positive outcome expectancy (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Extant research states that difficult situations enhance focal employee's motivation and engagement (e.g., May et al., 2004). In sum, we predict that prosocially motivated leaders' desire to help their followers will initiate more empowering leadership because empowering leadership represents a form of prosocial behavior that provides psychological and task related support to the followers. These leaders will perceive higher challenge job demands because engaging in empowering leadership requires leaders' cognitive and quantitative resources. At the end of the day, leaders who experienced challenge job demands at work will experience higher job meaningfulness given that solving challenging situations incur a sense of achievement (Crawford et al., 2010). Combined, we predict the following

hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6. Empowering leadership is positively related to job

meaningfulness via increased challenge job demands.

Hypothesis 7. Empowering leadership and challenge job demands serially

mediate the effects of daily leader prosocial motivation on job meaningfulness.

Although we previously predicted a beneficial effect of engaging in empowering leadership on leaders' well-being, job demands and resources model states that job demands also activate a health impairment process that exhausts individuals' mental and physical resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This depletion process incurs state of exhaustion, which then leads to burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001; Shirom, 2003). Rudow (1999) argued that emotional workload induce fatigue and burnout because individuals experiencing job demands require increased effort to cope with the demands. In this regard, emotional demands are classified as hindrance job demands, which has potential to harm personal growth (Crawford et al., 2010). As mentioned, individuals experience emotional demands when they engage in displaying certain emotions, when they are more sensitive to others' emotions, and when they are required to express emotions that are not felt (Zapf & Holz, 2006). The empathy and emotional involvement required to deal with emotional demands lead to psychological strain (e.g., Abraham, 1998; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Myriads of extant research supports the notion that emotional demands induce emotional exhaustion (e.g., van den Tooren & Rutte, 2016; Zapf, 2002). Thus, prosocially motivated leaders who engage in more empowering leadership will perceive higher hindrance job demands (emotional demands) because empowering leadership behaviors such as

providing encouragements, and inspiring behaviors require leaders' display of positive emotions during their social interactions with their followers. This display of certain emotions drains resources of the leader, which in turn induces emotional exhaustion (Lewig & Dollard, 2003). Taken together Hypothesis 4 and 5, we contend that leaders who engage in higher empowering leadership will perceive themselves as experiencing higher emotional job demands, which in turn will lead to higher emotional exhaustion. Combined, we predict the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8. Empowering leadership is positively related to emotional

exhaustion via increased hindrance job demands.

Hypothesis 9. Empowering leadership and hindrance job demands serially

mediate the effects of daily leader prosocial motivation on emotional exhaustion.

IV.   METHODS

4.1.   Sample and Procedure

In total, we recruited 90 participants from Prolific platform. The prescreening criteria for the participants were that they held a supervisory role, worked a 9 to 5 job, and lived in the United States (Eastern Standard Time and Central Standard Time). One week prior to administering the daily surveys, baseline survey was distributed that asked for participants' demographics and between-person level differences. The daily surveys were administered once in the morning (around 8:00 AM EST), once in the afternoon, (around 4:00 PM EST), and once at the evening (around 8:00 PM EST). The participants were given $0.80 for each daily survey they have completed. From the baseline survey, we removed 3 individuals who did not pass the attention check. Of the 87 individuals with a

total of 811 cases, we removed 38 cases who were either absent from work during the survey period or failed to provide more than three cases. Thus, our final sample consisted of 81 participants with 773 response cases.

The participants were 61.7% male, on average 37.8 years old (SD = 9.61) with a job tenure of 15.5 years (SD = 9.20). The participants consisted of 70.4% Caucasian, 19.8% Asian, 7.4% Hispanic, 1.2% African American and 1.2% Native American. The participants were from various industries: service (30.9%), finance (16.0%), manufacturing (13.6%), IT (11.1%), retail and logistics (9.9%), construction (6.2%), healthcare (6.2%), and others (6.2%).

4.2. Measures

We measured prosocial motivation in the morning (T1); empowering leadership, cognitive demands, workload, and emotional demands in the afternoon (T2); and job meaningfulness and emotional exhaustions in the evening (T3). Most of the measures otherwise mentioned are measured in 5-point Likert scale (1, "Strongly disagree"; 5, "Strongly agree"). The reliability measures were estimated using methods recommended by Geldhof, Preacher, and Zyphur (2014).

Level 1 Measures

Prosocial Motivation. The leaders self-rated their own prosocial motivation using four-item scale by Grant (2008). A sample item includes, "I want to help others through my work." The average coefficient α for this scale was 0.98.

Empowering Leadership. The leaders rated their own empowering leadership with eight-item scale adopted from Amundsen and Martinsen (2010). From the original 18-items, we have selected items with highest factor loadings from each behavioral manifestation to reduce fatigue of the participants. A sample

item includes, "I gave my subordinate authority over issues within my department." The average coefficient α for this scale was 0.94.

Challenge Job Demands. Using two-item scale by De Jonge et al. (2007), leaders were asked to rate their own perceived *cognitive job demands*. A sample item includes, "Today, during my work, I have had to display high levels of concentration and precision." The leaders rated their own *quantitative job demands* using three-item scale from Janssen (2001). Three items were selected based on whether the items were appropriate in a daily context and extant literature (Ilies et al., 2007). A sample item includes, "Today, during my work, I have had too much work to do for my job." The average coefficient α for this scale was 0.92.

Hindrance Job Demands. Using two-item scale by De Jonge et al. (2007), leaders were asked to rate their own perceived emotional job demands. A sample item includes, "Today, during my work, I have had to do a lot of emotionally draining work." The average coefficient α for this scale was 0.94.

Job Meaningfulness. Using three-item scale by Spreitzer (1995), leaders were asked to rate their own job meaningfulness. A sample item includes, "the work I did today is very important to me." The coefficient α for this scale was 0.99.

Emotional Exhaustion. We used three-item scale by Wharton (1993) that assesses leaders' immediate state of their emotional exhaustion (Trougakos et al., 2015). A sample item includes, "I feel emotionally drained." The average coefficient α for this scale was 0.99.

Level 2 Measures

Training and development. We assessed leaders' perception of their organizations' employee training and development in the baseline survey with three items adapted from Huselid and Rau (1997). A sample item includes, "My

company provides training in company-specific skills for my subordinates." The average coefficient α for this scale was 0.87.

Control variables. We measured and controlled morning positive and negative affect to make sure that the effects of prosocial motivation was not due to affective states (Gabriel et al., 2019; Podsakoff et al., 2003). We measured positive and negative affect with three-items each, which asked about how they were feeling at the moment. Sample items include "excited" for positive (average coefficient α = .88) and "nervous" for negative affect (average coefficient α = .94). As recommended by the ESM best practice, we controlled for day of the week, cosine and sine of the week to rule out cyclical variation (Gabriel et al., 2019). Further, we controlled for the day of the study (Beal & Weiss, 2003) and lagged measure (T-1) of each endogenous variables (Beal, 2015).

4.3. Analytical Strategy

Table 1

Within and Between Variance in Study Variables

Construct	Within-person Variance (e^2)	Between-person Variance (r^2)	Within-person Variance (%)
Prosocial Motivation	.731	.962	24.0%
Empowering Leadership	.474	.656	27.7%
Challenge Job Demands	.463	.808	42.7%
Hindrance Job Demands	.752	1.206	37.6%
Job Meaningfulness	.961	1.264	24.0%
Emotional Exhaustion	1.153	1.664	30.7%

Note. Within-person variance percentage was calculated as $e^2/(e^2 + r^2)$.

Given that our data involves both within-person and between-person observations, we performed multilevel path analysis with random slopes via Mplus 8.8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). As shown in Table 1, substantial within-person variance in our constructs were found, which confirms the use of ESM study method. We conducted multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA) to ensure construct validity. Level 1 predictors of prosocial motivation, empowering leadership, challenge job demands, hindrance job demands, job meaningfulness, and emotional exhaustion was modeled as within-person variables. On the between-person level, we modeled training and development on one construct. Our seven-factor model demonstrated an acceptable fit ($\chi^2_{(497)} = 1163.78$, $p < 0.001$, comparative fit index [CFI] = .92, Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = .91, root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .07, standardized root mean squared residual [SRMR$_{within}$] = .04, [SRMR$_{between}$]= .11). We then compared this to other models using Satorra-Bentler chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2010). As shown in Table 2, the results of six different CFA models and the Satorra-Bentler chi-square difference test results show the construct distinctiveness of our seven-factor model.

Table 2

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Variables	χ^2, *df*	CFI	TLI	RMSE	SRMR within, between	$\Delta\chi^2$, *df* ↕
Six-factor model (P; EP; C + H; E; J; T)	1319.07, 507***	.90	.89	.05	.07, .12	176.44, 10***
Five-factor model (P; EP; C+ H; E + J; T)	2618.96, 517***	.75	.72	.07	.16, .21	592.22, 20***
Four-factor model (P; EP + C + H; E + J; T)	3611.87, 523***	.64	.60	.09	.18, .29	1590.02, 26***
Three-factor (P + EP + C + H; E +J; T)	4832.97, 525***	.49	.44	.10	.16, .28	2479.92, 28***
Two-factor model (P + EP + C + H + E + J; T)	5854.67, 526***	.37	.31	.11	.15, .25	3954.20, 29***
One-factor model (P + EP + C+H + E + J + T)	5932.43, 527***	.36	.30	.12	.15, .26	3847.38, 30***

Notes. P = prosocial motivation; EP = empowering leadership; C = challenge job demands; H = hindrance job demands; E = emotional exhaustion; J = job meaningfulness; T = training and development; χ2 = Chi-square statistic; *df* = degrees of freedom; CFI = the comparative fit index; TLI = the Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = the root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = the standardized root mean square residual.
*** $p < 0.001$

Before conducting multilevel path analysis with random slopes, level 1 predictor of prosocial motivation was group-mean centered, and level 2 variable of training and development was grand-mean centered (Aguinis et al., 2013). Following the extant literature, the paths were modeled in random slopes, whereas control variables were modeled with fixed slopes to reduce model complexity (J. Wang et al., 2011). To test for indirect effects and conditional indirect effects, we used Monte Carlo bootstrapping method with 20,000 replications to construct 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) in R (Bauer et al., 2006; Preacher et al., 2010; Preacher & Selig, 2012).

V. RESULTS

5.1. Hypotheses Testing

Figure 2

Conceptual Model of Multilevel Path Analytic Results
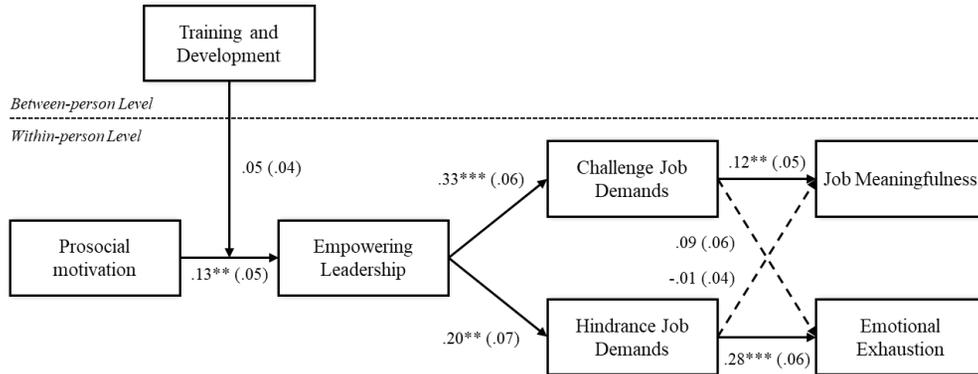
Notes. Level 2 N = 81, Level 1 N = 773. Values in parentheses represent standard error. Although not present in the conceptual model, the analysis includes all direct effects from predictors to outcomes as well as control variables that include morning positive affect, negative affect, day of the study, day of the week, sine and cosine waves, and prior day endogenous variables (t-1). Control variables were modeled as fixed to reduce model complexity. All effects are unstandardized. For parsimony, the results of control variables are not included in this figure. The dotted line represents paths that were not hypothesized but tested.
** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3 shows mean, standard deviation, and correlation results. Results of our multilevel path analysis are presented in Table 4 and Figure 2. Table 5 shows the bootstrap results of indirect and conditional indirect effects. As shown in Table 4, Hypothesis 1 supported given that daily prosocial motivation was positively associated with empowering leadership behavior ($\gamma = .13$, $p = .005$).

Hypothesis 2, which predicted empowering leadership to have a positive association with challenge job demands (H2a, $\gamma = .33$, $p < .001$) and hindrance job demands (H2b, $\gamma = .20$, $p = .007$) was supported. As can be seen in Table 5, prosocial motivation had a significant positive indirect effect on challenge job demands (H3a, estimate = .042, 95% CI [.011, .085]) and hindrance job demands

(H3b, estimate = .025, 95% CI [.004, .057]) via empowering leadership. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported. Hypothesis 4 proposed that the effect of daily prosocial motivation on empowering leadership will be stronger when organizations have stronger training and development practices. As shown in Table 4, the cross-level interaction (γ = .05, p = .256) was not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported. Hypothesis 5 predicted training and development to moderate the indirect effect of prosocial motivation on job demands via empowering leadership. However, this was not supported because the cross-interaction was not significant in Hypothesis 4, and the differences between the indirect effects of high (vs. low) training and development shows that training and development did not moderate the indirect effect of prosocial motivation on challenge job demands (H5a, Δ indirect effect = .029, 95% CI [-.020, .088]) and hindrance job demands (H5b, Δ indirect effect = .017, 95% CI [-.014, .054]) via empowering leadership. Hence, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

As for the downstream effects, empowering leadership exerted a positive effect on job meaningfulness via challenge job demands (H6, estimate = .038, 95% CI [.007, .077]), whereas exerted a positive effect on emotional exhaustion via hindrance job demands (H8, estimate = .056, 95% CI [.012, .117]). Thus, Hypotheses 6 and 8 were supported. As shown in Table 5, Hypothesis 7 was supported as empowering leadership and challenge job demands serially mediated the relationship between prosocial motivation and job meaningfulness (estimate = .005, 95% CI [.000, .013]). Further Hypothesis 9 and was supported since empowering leadership and hindrance job demands serially mediated the relationship between prosocial motivation and emotional exhaustion (estimate = .007, 95% CI [.001, .018]).

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations of Study Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Level 1 Variables													
1. Sine	.17	.75	-	.36***	.00	-.04	-.44***	-.94***	.02	.01	.02	-.04	.00
2. Cosine	-.32	.56	.31**	-	.02	.02	-.29***	-.60***	-.01	-.07	.00	-.03	.01
3. Positive Affect	2.83	.56	.16	.13	-	-.12***	-.10**	.00	.30***	-.01	.02	-.05	.16***
4. Negative Affect	1.57	.56	.04	.52***	-.28*	-	.11**	.02	-.14***	.02	.02	.02	-.02
5. Day of the Study	5.46	2.84	-.83***	-.66***	-.06	-.31**	-	.48***	-.03	.08*	-.02	.07*	.02
6. Day of the Week	2.97	1.41	-.99***	-.41***	-.17	-.08	.88***	-	-.01	.01	-.02	.04	.00
7. Prosocial Motivation	3.60	.48	-.08	-.37***	.58***	-.38***	.33**	.10	-	.14***	.16***	.09*	.29***
8. Empowering Leadership	3.37	.43	-.18	-.27*	.56***	-.41***	.33**	.19	.56***	-	.29***	.16***	.15***
9. Challenge Job Demands	3.09	.59	-.17	-.07	.06	.15	.16	.20	.02	.27*	-	.48***	.20***
10. Hindrance Job Demands	2.57	.67	.04	.19	-.17	.49***	-.18	-.05	-.16	-.01	.69***	-	.08*
11. Job Meaningfulness	3.27	.55	-.32**	-.20	.68***	-.39***	.37***	.31**	.79***	.63***	.22*	-.08	-
12. Emotional Exhaustion	2.44	.71	.24*	.36***	-.43***	.70***	-.41***	-.25*	-.44***	-.33**	.34**	.67***	-.44***
Level 2 Variables													
13. Age	37.78	9.61	-.19	-.11	.09	-.12	.25*	.20	.00	-.05	-.16	-.33**	.07
14. Tenure	15.46	9.20	-.20	-.28*	.09	-.28*	.32**	.22*	.03	.04	-.21	-.39***	.07
15. Gender	1.38	.49	-.06	-.16	-.15	-.01	.05	.05	.06	-.07	.03	.13	.01
16. Race	2.90	.71	-.03	-.21	-.08	.06	.23*	.07	-.19	-.22*	-.01	-.07	-.19
17. Industry	4.48	2.32	.43***	.03	.10	-.10	-.29**	-.41***	.07	-.13	.07	.16	.13
18. Education	3.27	.90	.20	.52***	.07	.04	-.36**	-.24*	-.06	.04	.06	.10	.05
19. Training and Development	3.43	.95	.21	-.08	.38***	-.06	-.03	-.18	.42***	.37***	.01	-.03	.39***

Notes. Level 2 N = 81, Level 1 N = 773. Below diagonal are between-person correlations and above diagonal are within-person correlations. Age (years). Gender (1 = male, 2 = female). Education was measured 1 = high school, 2 = Associate degree, 3 = Bachelor's degree, 4 = Master's degree or higher. Ethnicity was measured 1 = African American, 2 = Asian, 3 = Caucasian, 4 = Hispanic, 5 = Native American. Industry was measured 1= manufacturing, 2 = finance, 3 = retail and logistics, 4 = construction, 5 = IT, 6 = Service, 7 = healthcare, 8 = others.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Level 1 Variables							
1. Sine	.01						
2. Cosine	.00						
3. Positive Affect	-.08*						
4. Negative Affect	.12***						
5. Day of the Week	.08*						
6 Day of the Study	-.02						
7. Prosocial Motivation	-.19***						
8. Empowering Leadership	.04						
9. Challenge Job Demands	.16***						
10. Hindrance Job Demands	.26***						
11. Job Meaningfulness	-.17***						
12. Emotional Exhaustion	-						
Level 2 Variables							
13. Age	-.21	-					
14. Tenure	-.34**	.88***	-				
15. Gender	.09	.00	-.02	-			
16. Race	.08	.14	.08	.25*	-		
17. Industry	.03	-.10	-.10	-.02	.10	-	
18. Education	.15	-.03	-.09	-.12	-.21	.32**	-
19. Training and Development	-.11	-.01	.00	-.08	-.03	-.07	-.14

Notes. Level 2 N = 81, Level 1 N = 773. Below diagonal are between-person correlations and above diagonal are within-person correlations. Age (years). Gender (1 = male, 2 = female). Education was measured 1 = high school, 2 = Associate degree, 3 = Bachelor's degree, 4 = Master's degree or higher. Ethnicity was measured 1 = African American, 2 = Asian, 3 = Caucasian, 4 = Hispanic, 5 = Native American. Industry was measured 1= manufacturing, 2 = finance, 3 = retail and logistics, 4 = construction, 5 = IT, 6 = Service, 7 = healthcare, 8 = others.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

5.2.   Supplemental Analyses

Although we temporally separated the study variables and included control variables (i.e., positive and negative affect, t-1 endogenous variables) to alleviate the potential for method bias, the use of self-report measures could raise some concerns (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To address this concern, we used unmeasured latent method factor technique suggested by Williams and his colleagues (1989) to examine the effect of common method variance in our study. The inclusion of the unmeasured latent method factor yielded an acceptable fit ($\chi^2_{(462)} = 1432.19$, $p < .001$, CFI = .89, TLI = .86, RMSEA = .05, $SRMR_{within}$ = .50, $SRMR_{between}$ = .66). This model demonstrated a better fit ($\Delta\chi^2(40) = 169.12$, $p < .001$) when compared with the fully constrained model, indicating an existence of method variance. However, the estimated variance explained by the common method variance was 3.5% in Level-1, and 3.3 % in Level-2. Thus, our analysis indicates that common method variance was of little concern.

Table 4

Path Analysis and Cross-level Interaction Results

Predictors	Empowering leadership		Challenge job demands		Hindrance job demands		Job meaningfulness		Emotional exhaustion	
	γ	SE	γ	SE	γ	SE	γ	SE	γ	SE
Intercept	3.31***	(.17)	1.94***	(.27)	1.90***	(.30)	2.13***	(.33)	2.10***	(.37)
Level 1										
Positive affect	-.04	(.04)	-.02	(.03)	-.08	(.05)	.11*	(.06)	.04	(.07)
Negative affect	.02	(.02)	.04	(.04)	.01	(.07)	-.00	(.04)	.07	(.04)
Study day	.02*	(.01)	-.01	(.01)	.01	(.01)	.01	(.01)	.02	(.01)
Day of the week	-.01	(.05)	.03	(.06)	-.01	(.06)	-.00	(.06)	-.14	(.08)
Prior day empowering leadership	.06	(.10)								
Prior day challenge job demands			.01	(.04)						
Prior day hindrance job demands					.00	(.06)				
Prior day job meaningfulness							.00	(.05)		
Prior day emotional exhaustion									.03	(.05)
Prosocial motivation	.13**	(.05)	.14*	(.06)	.11	(.06)	.23***	(.06)	-.30***	(.08)
Empowering leadership			.33***	(.06)	.20**	(.07)	.22**	(.08)	-.12	(.09)
Challenge job demands							.12**	(.05)	.09	(.06)
Hindrance job demands							-.01	(.04)	.28***	(.06)
Level 2										
Training and development	.27**	(.09)								
Cross-level interaction										
Prosocial motivation ✕ Training and development	.05	(.04)								
Level 1 residual variance	.16***	(.03)	.33***	(.04)	.45***	(.06)	.30***	(.04)	.52***	(.05)
Level 2 residual variance	.41***	(.10)	.30***	(.11)	.43***	(.24)	.40***	(.16)	.27***	(.22)
Pseudo R^2	.03		.09		.01		.04		.10	

Notes. Level 2 N = 81, Level 1 N = 773. *SE* = standard error. Control variables were modeled as fixed to reduce model complexity. All effects are unstandardized. Pseudo R^2 is calculated based on the formula presented by Raudenbush and Bryk (2002).

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

Table 5

Indirect and Conditional Indirect Effects of Multilevel Path Analysis

Indirect effect	Training and development	Estimate	*SE*	LLCI	ULCI
Prosocial motivation → Empowering leadership → Challenge job demands		.042	.019	.011	.085
	High	.057	.030	.006	.123
	Low	.028	.014	.005	.058
Prosocial motivation → Empowering leadership → Hindrance job demands		.025	.025	.004	.057
	High	.034	.019	.002	.081
	Low	.017	.010	.001	.041
Empowering leadership → Challenge job demands → Job meaningfulness		.038		.007	.077
Empowering leadership → Challenge job demands → Emotional exhaustion		.003		-.008	.071
Empowering leadership → Hindrance job demands → Job meaningfulness		-.002		-.017	.016
Empowering leadership → Hindrance job demands → Emotional exhaustion		.056		.012	.117
Prosocial motivation → Empowering leadership → Challenge job demands → Job meaningfulness		.005		.000	.013
	High	.007		.000	.019
	Low	.003		.000	.010
Prosocial motivation → Empowering leadership → Challenge job demands → Emotional exhaustion		.004		-.001	.010
	High	.005		-.002	.015
	Low	.003		-.001	.007
Prosocial motivation → Empowering leadership → Hindrance job demands → Job meaningfulness		-.000		-.003	.002
	High	-.000		.004	.003
	Low	-.000		-.002	.001
Prosocial motivation → Empowering leadership → Hindrance job demands → Emotional exhaustion		.007		.001	.018
	High	.010		.001	.025
	Low	.005		.000	.014

Notes. Level 2 N = 81, Level 1 N = 773. *SE* = standard error. LLCI and ULCI = represents lower (-1 SD) and upper (+1 SD) bounds of the 95% confidence interval.

We performed a supplemental analysis to further understand the associations between our study variables. We examined whether end-of-day job meaningfulness and emotional exhaustion had a significant effect on next morning prosocial motivation, positive affect, and negative affect. Prior day job meaningfulness was positively associated with next morning prosocial motivation ($\gamma = .14$, $p = .005$). However, prior day emotional exhaustion was not significantly associated with next morning prosocial motivation ($\gamma = -.01$, $p = .789$). In addition, prior day job meaningfulness was not significantly related to next morning positive affect ($\gamma = .06$, $p = .268$) or negative affect ($\gamma = .04$, $p = .447$). On the other hand, prior day emotional exhaustion was significantly related to next morning negative affect ($\gamma = .16$, $p < .001$) but not to next morning positive affect ($\gamma = -.08$, $p = .10$). These findings show that job meaningfulness and emotional exhaustion experienced by prosocially motivated leaders may affect their next morning prosocial motivation and affect.

VI.DISUCSSION

6.1. Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Extant literature on empowering leadership has mainly examined its impact on the followers (see review in Cheong et al., 2019). There is little empirical attention on why leaders engage in empowering leadership and what are the outcomes of engaging in empowering leadership for the leaders. By focusing on the resource perspective, especially resource investment principle of the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1988), we demonstrate that prosocially motivated leaders engage more in empowering leadership behaviors, which yields both costs and benefits for the leaders. The empowering leadership behaviors are

perceived as challenge job demands, which in turn benefits the leaders by heightening their end-of-day job meaningfulness. On the other hand, empowering leadership behaviors are also perceived as hindrance job demands that enhance leaders' end-of-day emotional exhaustion.

6.2.   Theoretical Implications

This study makes several meaningful theoretical contributions. First, conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) states that individuals invest in resources to acquire, maintain, or prevent losses of resources. In this study, we found that empowering leadership behaviors were positively associated with perceived challenge job demands and hindrance job demands. This finding suggests that engaging in empowering leadership requires leaders' cognitive resources, quantitative resources, and emotional resources. Through investing cognitive and quantitative resources, leaders experience heightened job meaningfulness, which is a known individual psychological resource that boosts energy and motivation (Soane et al., 2013; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Thus, one of our key contributions is to answer the question of what resources (time and cognitive resources) leaders invest as they engage in empowering leadership behaviors and what resources (job meaningfulness) are acquired as a result in a daily setting.

Second, this study contributes to the empowering leadership literature by highlighting the detrimental effect of engaging in empowering leadership. To date, only one research has examined the impact of empowering leadership on leaders' psychological well-being (C.-C. Han et al., 2023). In their study, they found that engaging in empowering leadership led leaders to feel more psychological well-

being via leader recovery in a longitudinal setting. Our findings suggest that this might not always be the case, especially in a daily setting. The emotional resource investment process of engaging in empowering leadership behaviors is in line with the resource perspective and leadership literature, which contends that leadership is a challenging process (Hobfoll, 1989; Yukl, 2013). In line with the job demands and resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001), leaders felt more emotionally exhausted on the days when they engaged in more empowering leadership behaviors. This finding highlights the potential cost of engaging in empowering leadership. Taken together with our first theoretical contribution, our findings demonstrate an integrative resource gain and loss paths associated with leaders' daily empowering leadership behaviors.

Another contribution to the conservation of resources theory is examining the process of gaining personal resources. Our findings add to the evidence that individuals invest their resources to gain resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Though this perspective has been examined by few researchers (e.g., Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2011, 2015; S.-H. Lin et al., 2022; Sheridan & Ambrose, 2022), it has not been examined within a leadership context as a single integrative model. Through demonstrating that prosocially motivated leaders engage in empowering leadership to gain job meaningfulness, our findings confirm the presence of resource investment cycle that occurs daily. Furthermore, the finding of our supplemental analysis showed that end-of-day job meaningfulness further strengthened the next-day prosocial motivation. Given that prosocial motivation fuels leaders to engage in more empowering leadership behavior, this finding provides further insight on how daily resource gain cycle occur.

Third, the extant literature on empowering leadership has mainly focused

on follower related (e.g., S. Han et al., 2019; Shin & Lee, 2023; Tang et al., 2020; S. Wang et al., 2022) or upper management related (e.g., Byun et al., 2020; M. Lin et al., 2019) antecedents of empowering leadership. The existing consensus is that leaders' decision to engage in empowering leadership depends on the person (i.e., leader humility) and situation (i.e., follower prosocial motivation, follower performance and integrity, upper managements' support in empowering leadership). Although Sharma and Kirkman (2015) urged researchers to examine leader factors that can answer the question of why do empowering leadership occur, only a handful of research has been dedicated to finding leader related factors (Ahluwalia, 2020; van Knippenberg et al., 2021). Identifying leaders' state prosocial motivation as an antecedent of empowering leadership further sheds light on why do leaders engage in empowering leadership. Thus, we go beyond the extant literature and provide evidence that leaders engage in empowering leadership with their purpose to benefit their followers. This finding is important because it is in line with the recent leadership research, which suggests that leadership is a state of mind that individuals can enter and exit (Ashford & DeRue, 2012). Demonstrating how empowering leadership fluctuates based on one's daily state prosocial motivation strengthens this perspective.

Fourth, before Crawford and his colleagues (2010) have applied challenge and hindrance stress framework to the job demands and resources model, the general consensus on the literature was that job demands were usually responsible for burnout. However, they found that some job demands, known as challenge job demands, were appraised as stressful demands that lead to personal growth and future gains, which in turn leads to positive outcomes such as job engagement. In line with their study, our study shows that challenge job demands were positively

associated to job meaningfulness, whereas hindrance job demands were positively associated to emotional exhaustion. This finding has value given that there are some debates about how appraisal of job demands varies depending on ones' occupation (Bakker & Sanz-Vergel, 2013). Because we set our context in empowering leadership, we provide evidence that supports the perspective of the extant literature on job demands, which states that dynamic and situational factors may impact how demanding individuals perceive their jobs (Foulk & Lanaj, 2021; M. A. LePine et al., 2016).

Last, our research has implications for theory related to prosocial motivation. Research suggested that prosocial motivation can exist as a state form (Bolino & Grant, 2016). However, little is known about the outcomes of leader's daily state prosocial motivation. To date, only a handful of research has examined how prosocially motivated leaders enact leadership behaviors (S.-H. Lin et al., 2021). We extend the current theory by identifying empowering leadership behavior as a key proximal outcome of leaders' prosocial motivation that represents a form of leader prosocial behavior.

6.3. Practical Implications

Our research provides useful implications for practice. The leaders should first recognize that the on a daily basis, engaging in empowering leadership can have negative consequences. Because empowering leadership requires emotional resources of the leaders, which in turn might cause end-of-day exhaustion, leaders should make sure that they replenish their resources after work. Possibly, detachment from work is an option to recover from emotional exhaustion (Fritz et al., 2010; Sonnentag et al., 2010). In line with the leaders' own efforts to replenish

their resources, organizations should engage in leadership training programs that could raise awareness regarding this beneficial and costly effect of engaging in empowering leadership. Learning how to effectively manage their emotional resources may help leaders to experience less emotional exhaustion at the end of their workday.

6.4.   Limitations and Future Research

Our study is not without limitations. In this study, we measured our study variables from the same source. Our rationale behind this is that leaders are best suited for reporting their own experience (Gabriel et al., 2019). However, concerns for method bias still exists. We attempted to minimize these concerns by person-mean centering our predictor variable, which removes response desirability bias (Gabriel et al., 2019). Furthermore, our unmeasured latent method factor analysis indicates that variance explained by method factor in both within- and between-level were 3.5% and 3.3% respectively, suggesting that common method variance was of little concern. Moreover, we measured job demands and empowering leadership at the same time, which raises concern for causality. To minimize this concern, we controlled for prior measures (t-1) of the mediators (Podsakoff et al., 2012). However, we urge researchers to temporally separate these variables in the future to avoid such biases.

Another limitation of this study is that we did not examine how leaders deal with end-of-day emotional exhaustion after work. Though we have identified job meaningfulness as an outcome of resource investment, which is positively associated with next-day prosocial motivation, we have lack of understanding on how end-of-day emotional exhaustion translate to next-morning. Our findings in

the supplemental analyses provides one possible outcome that could be meaningful. The end-of-day emotional exhaustion was positively associated with next-morning negative affect which implies that the health-impairment process was affecting leaders' next-morning well-being. Although negative affect in the morning did not predict afternoon empowering leadership or job demands, it would be interesting to research the impact of end-of-day emotional exhaustion on next-morning work engagement.

In line with the conservation of resources theory, we focused on examining the short-term resource investment cycle. However, it is imperative to understand the long-term effects of engaging in empowering leadership for the leaders. For example, it is possible that in long-term, the leaders may experience less emotional exhaustion. This is because leaders might get more used to engaging in such leadership behaviors and the social interactions required within the empowering leadership behaviors. Thus, future research should examine the effect of empowering leadership on leaders' long-term well-being and their coping mechanisms.

Furthermore, training and development did not moderate the relationship between prosocial motivation and empowering leadership. To provide further theoretical and practical contribution, it is imperative to seek out boundary conditions of our theorized model. Based on the resource perspective, leaders' personal resources such as leader compassion could buffer the negative effect of perceive hindrance job demands (Tremblay & Messervey, 2011). Another interesting area of research could be examining other motives that drives empowering leadership. For example, leadership literature suggests that leadership motivation consists of altruistic and egoistic motives (Avolio & Locke, 2002). In

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line with this perspective, it would be interesting to examine how leaders' egoistic motives shape leaders' leadership behaviors and its downstream effect on their well-being.

6.5. Conclusion

We advance the research on empowering leadership by answering the questions of why do leaders engage in empowering leadership behaviors and what are the effects of empowering leadership on leaders' psychological well-being. Based on conservation of resources theory and job demands and resources model, we found evidence that prosocially motivated leaders engage in empowering leadership, which has both beneficial and costly outcomes for the leaders on a daily basis. In particular, empowering leaders perceive higher job meaningfulness as they perceive more challenge job demands. On the other hand, empowering leaders also experience higher emotional exhaustion because they perceive higher hindrance job demands. We hope that our findings will further motivate researchers to examine the antecedents and psychological outcomes of empowering leadership.

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APPENDIX

Prosocial Motivation

Today,

1. I want to help others through my work,"
2. I want to have positive impact on others,"
3. I care about benefiting others through my work
4. it is important to me to do good for others through my work

Empowering Leadership

Today,

1. I gave my subordinate authority over issues within my department
2. I encouraged my subordinate to take initiative
3. I was concerned that my subordinate reach their goals
4. I listened to my subordinate
5. I conveyed a bright view of the future to my subordinate
6. I discussed shared affairs with my subordinate
7. Planning of my work was visible to my subordinate
8. I told my subordinate my way of organizing my work

Cognitive Job Demands

Today, during my work, I have had…

1. To display high levels of concentration and precision"
2. To do a lot of mentally taxing work

Quantitative Job Demands

Today, during my work, I have had…

1. Too much work to do for my job
2. To work under time pressure today
3. To deal with a work backlog

Emotional Demands

Today, during my work, I have had…

1. To do a lot of emotionally draining work"
2. To display emotions (e.g., toward employees, colleagues, suppliers, or clients) that are inconsistent with my current feelings."

Prosocial Motivation

Today,

1. I want to help others through my work,"
2. I want to have positive impact on others,"
3. I care about benefiting others through my work
4. it is important to me to do good for others through my work

Emotional Exhaustion

1. I feel emotionally drained
2. I feel used up
3. I feel burned out

Job Meaningfulness
1. the work I did today is very important to me
2. my job activities today are personally meaningful to me
3. The work I did on my job today is meaningful to me

Training and Development

Does your firm provide
1. training in company-specific skills for my subordinates (e.g. task or firm-specific training)?
2. training in generic skills for my subordinates (e.g. problem-solving, communication skills, etc.)?
3. specific training to my subordinates as a direct result of their performance appraisal?

Positive and Negative Affect

Today I feel
1. "inspired," "alert," and "excited"
2. "afraid," "upset," and "nervous"

KOREAN ABSTRACT

임파워링 리더십이 리더 웰빙에 미치는 영향:
리더 관련 선행요인과 결과

서울대학교 대학원
경영학과 경영학전공
서 동 훈

기존 연구결과를 살펴보면 임파워링 리더십은 구성원에게 다양한 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타났다. 다만 현재의 문헌은 임파워링 리더십 관련 두 가지 질문에 대한 답이 부족하다: 1) 임파워링 리더십이 리더의 웰빙에 미치는 영향은 무엇이며, 2) 리더는 언제 임파워링 리더십을 발휘하는가? 본 연구는 자원 보존 이론(Hobfoll, 1989)과 직업 요구 및 자원 모델(Demerouti et al., 2001)을 통합하여 일상적인 맥락에서 임파워링 리더십이 리더에게 유익한 효과 및 부정적 효과를 발생시키는 것을 탐색한다. 특히, 본 연구는 리더가 친사회적 행동 동기가 높은 날에 임파워링 리더십을 더욱 많이 행하고, 결과적으로 더 높은 도전적, 방해적 직무요구를 인식할 것이라고 예측한다. 또한 더 높은 도전적 직무요구를 경험하는 리더는 더 높은 직무 의미를 경험하는 반면, 더 높은 방해적 직무 요구를 경험하는 리더는 감정적으로 리더를 지치게 할 것이라고 예측한다. 맥락을 더 잘 이해하기 위해 훈련 및 개발 관행이 친사회적 동기 부여와 임파워링 리더십 간의 관계를 조절하는지 여부를 확인하고 검증한다. 본 연구는 81명의 미국 리더 샘플(Level 1 N = 773)을 활용하

여 경험 샘플링 방법 기반 친사회적 행동 동기가 임파워링 리더십에 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것을 확인하였고, 이는 차례로 도전적 및 방해적 직무요구에 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타났다. 도전적 직무요구는 직무의미와 정적인 상관관계를 보였고, 방해적 직무요구는 정서적 고갈과 정적인 상관관계를 보였다. 그러나 훈련과 개발은 친사회적 동기와 임파워링 리더십의 관계를 조절하지 않는 것으로 나타났다.

주요어 : 임파워링 리더십, 직무요구, 직무의미, 정서적 고갈, 자원 보존 이론

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