RESEARCH REPORTS

The Interactive Effects of Belongingness and Charisma on Helping and Compliance

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This study tests the main and interactive effects of belongingness and perceived charismatic leadership on 2 forms of organizational citizenship behavior (helping and compliance). In line with expectations, a study of 115 manager–subordinate dyads demonstrates that employees show more helping (manager rated) when they have a stronger sense of belongingness at work and more helping as well as compliance when they perceive their leader to be more charismatic (subordinate rated). Belongingness partially mediates the relationship between charisma and helping. Also, as hypothesized, belongingness and charisma have interactive effects on employees’ helping and compliance. The impact of perceived charisma on these behaviors is stronger for employees with a low sense of belongingness at work than for individuals with a higher sense of belongingness.

Keywords: belongingness, charisma, organizational citizenship behaviors

Charismatic leader behavior has been identified as an antecedent of employees’ organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) such as helping and compliance. However, several authors have noted that the possible mechanisms through which charismatic leadership may influence OCBs are not yet sufficiently clear (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Research also suggests that employees may show more OCBs if they feel a sense of belongingness with their work group. For example, experimental research by De Cremer and Van Knippenberg (2002) showed that both charisma and belongingness enhance employees’ cooperative behavior, which they operationalized as compliance. They found that belongingness fully mediates the relationship between charisma and compliance. This suggests that charismatic leaders may (at least in part) have their influence on followers by heightening the employees’ awareness of the collective and strengthening a sense of belonging, which in turn enhances employees’ willingness to comply.

However, the aforementioned mediation effects have not yet been studied outside controlled laboratory settings. In the field study presented here, we tested whether belongingness mediates the relationship between charisma and OCBs, thereby adding more externally valid findings. We argue that partial rather than full mediation is likely in a field setting, as other mechanisms through which charismatic leadership influences OCBs are also likely to operate. Thus, our first aim was to test these relationships in a field setting using multisource data from a matched sample of employees rating belongingness and charisma and their managers rating helping and compliance.

In addition, more research is needed on when charisma has positive effects on OCBs such as helping and compliance. Our main aim in the current study was to expand existing literature by testing potential interactive effects of charisma and belongingness on helping and compliance. Several studies recently have suggested that the impact of charismatic leadership on followers is stronger in more challenging situations (e.g., De Hoogh et al., 2004; Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam, 2001). In line with this, we expected that charismatic leadership would have stronger effects on helping and compliance when people feel less connected to the group. In other words, we expected that charismatic leadership would have a stronger impact on helping and compliance when belongingness is low. To our knowledge, this interaction has not been tested before. Thus, this study adds to the literature by testing direct, indirect, and interactive effects of charisma and belongingness on helping and compliance in a multisource field study.

Helping and Compliance

OCB and contextual performance refer to employee activities that benefit others or the collective without necessarily or directly
benefiting the individual exhibiting the behaviors (see, e.g., Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmidt, 1997; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000). As stated, here we focus on two forms that such behavior can take, namely interpersonal helping and compliance with the rules and procedures of the collective.

Helping behavior (also labeled altruism, interpersonal facilitation, and courtesy) has been identified as a crucial form of OCB (e.g., George & Brief, 1992; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998). In the OCB literature, helping involves employees voluntarily helping others on work-related problems or preventing the occurrence of such problems (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Examples include an employee helping a new colleague settle in or taking over some tasks of an overburdened coworker without formal incentives. Interpersonal facilitation (or helping) as described in the contextual performance literature encompasses a range of interpersonal acts that help maintain the social context needed to support effective task performance in an organizational setting. In addition to spontaneous helping of coworkers, interpersonal facilitation includes deliberate acts that encourage cooperation, remove barriers to performance for others, or help others perform their task-oriented job activities (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Here, we follow this broader perspective on interpersonal helping behavior.

Compliance is also often mentioned in the OCB literature under different labels, including obedience and following rules (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Smith et al., 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Compliance describes employees’ internalization and acceptance of the organization’s rules and procedures as well as adherence to and loyal following of them, even when no one is monitoring their behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000). For example, compliance includes avoiding being tardy, working as efficiently as possible, and not wasting precious resources.

Charisma and Belongingness

Leader behavior has been studied as a potential antecedent of OCBs. For example, research shows that transformational leader behaviors are positively related to different OCBs (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Here we focus specifically on charismatic leadership.

Charismatic leaders articulate an attractive vision for the unit or organization and behave in ways that reinforce the values inherent in that vision. They display self-confidence and are able to inspire followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the collective (e.g., Bass, 1985; House, 1977, 1996; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Meta-analyses have shown that charismatic leadership correlates positively with a wide range of variables (e.g., Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996), including organizational commitment (e.g., Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995), personal identification (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998), and firm profitability (e.g., De Hoogh et al., 2004; Waldman et al., 2001). Previous research has also suggested that charismatic leadership elicits OCB from followers. For example, in their experimental study, De Cremer and Van Knippenberg (2002) found a positive impact of perceived charisma on cooperative behavior, which they operationalized as compliance. Our study adds to their work by offering a test of the relationship between charisma and both compliance and interpersonal helping behavior in a field setting. Thus, we hypothesized the following:

**Hypothesis 1:** Perceived charismatic leadership is positively related to employees’ interpersonal helping and compliance.

Besides charisma, a sense of belongingness is also likely to increase a person’s willingness to help others in the collective and to comply with the rules of the collective. Baumeister and Leary (1995) suggested that individuals have a fundamental need to belong to social groups. They drew on previous research that shows that people easily form and are reluctant to break social bonds and are willing to expend effort to form and maintain these enduring interpersonal attachments. In line with this, experimental research suggests that belongingness fosters the motivation to cooperate and comply with social groups. For example, Schoenrade, Batson, Brandt, and Loud (1986) found that having social relationships increased one’s motivation to help. Additionally, De Cremer and Van Knippenberg (2002) found that belongingness positively affected compliance. They suggest that belongingness may lead individuals to assign more weight to the group’s interest, which may in turn engender such behaviors. In other words, individuals with a high sense of belongingness may assign more importance to the collective and its goals, increasing their willingness to comply with its rules and help other members of the group.

To our knowledge, no field tests of the belongingness–OCB relationship are available. However, research on related constructs such as group cohesiveness and job embeddedness suggests a positive relationship. For example, Kidwell, Mossholder, and Bennett (1997) found that employees in more cohesive work groups showed more courtesy, and Podsakoff et al. (2000) reported positive relationships between group cohesiveness and helping and compliance. Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, and Holton (2004) found that job embeddedness was a significant and positive predictor of OCB. Job embeddedness is a broader construct than belongingness; it describes the extent to which people feel links to others or to their activities at work, the extent to which their jobs fit other aspects in their life space, and the ease with which such links could be broken. Thus, in line with these studies, we expected a positive relationship between employees’ sense of belongingness and their compliance and helping behavior. We hypothesized the following:

**Hypothesis 2:** Belongingness is positively related to employees’ helping and compliance.

Several authors have argued that behaviors such as interpersonal helping are in part contingent on group-oriented motivations (e.g., Tyler, 1999). Such group-oriented motivations are also seen as important in relation to charismatic leadership. For example, Shamir et al. (1993) held that charismatic leaders affect followers by making the social or collective identity more salient in followers’ self-concept. In turn, followers will be more willing to make sacrifices for the collective mission and will exhibit OCBs such as helping. In line with this, De Cremer and Van Knippenberg (2002) argued that charismatic leadership affects cooperative behavior by enhancing a collective orientation in groups, which in turn elicits employees’ cooperative behavior. A similar line of reasoning can be followed for compliance. An enhanced collective orientation
may make people more inclined to comply with rules of the collective. Thus, charismatic leaders are proposed to indirectly influence helping and compliance through developing employees’ sense of belonging to their group and increasing the value they attach to their group. This leads to a shift from the pursuit of individual interests to the pursuit of group or organizational interests, which in turn is likely to lead to helping and compliance. In line with this, De Cremer and Van Knippenberg (2002) found that group belongingness fully mediated the relationship between charismatic leadership and compliance.

However, such mediation of the relationship of charisma and OCBs by belongingness may be partial rather than full in an organizational context. Leaders may in part have their effect on OCBs such as helping and compliance through making the collective more salient and emphasizing the importance of contributing to the collective through different forms of OCB. However, direct effects of leader behavior and the individual exchange relationships supervisors have with each of their subordinates on OCBs are also likely to exist. Thus, employees may also help or comply because they expect this behavior will be rewarded or in other ways benefit them in the future, or they may even show such behavior to please a respected and admired charismatic leader. In other words, both direct and indirect influences of perceived charisma on helping and compliance may exist. Thus, besides testing the main effects of both charisma and belongingness on helping and compliance, we also test whether the impact of charisma on these behaviors is mediated by belongingness. As stated, full mediation was found in experimental research (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002). However, this had not yet been tested in a field setting, where we expected this mediation to be partial rather than full. We thus hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between perceived charisma and employees’ helping and compliance will be partly mediated by employees’ sense of belongingness.

Moreover, there is also reason to believe that charisma and belongingness have an interactive effect on helping and compliance in organizational contexts. This has not been tested so far. Employees may help or comply for different reasons. For example, from an exchange perspective, people may help others in return for an expected favor in the future (explicitly agreed or vaguely promised). Also, people may help or comply because they expect this behavior will be rewarded or in other ways benefit them in the future, or they may even show such behavior to please a respected and admired charismatic leader. In other words, both direct and indirect influences of perceived charisma on helping and compliance may exist. Thus, besides testing the main effects of both charisma and belongingness on helping and compliance, we also test whether the impact of charisma on these behaviors is mediated by belongingness. As stated, full mediation was found in experimental research (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002). However, this had not yet been tested in a field setting, where we expected this mediation to be partial rather than full. We thus hypothesized the following:

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Hypothesis 4: Charisma and belongingness interact, such that the effects of a leader’s perceived charisma on helping and compliance are stronger when belongingness is low.

Method

Sample and Procedure

The core tasks of the division of the government organization in which we conducted the study are technically oriented, skilled, and knowledge intensive (e.g., purchasing highly specialized, expensive machinery). The division had both more traditional teams where employees reported to supervisors without a fixed time-frame and several large projects where employees reported to project managers on a more temporary basis (fixed time-frame). However, due to the duration and nature of these projects, reporting relationships were typically relatively long term (i.e., more
than 1 year, often around 2 years). The tasks and background of these employees did not differ. Half the sample was drawn from the pool of employees reporting to project managers and half from those reporting to supervisors. In the analyses presented below, we controlled for potential differences between these groups. No mean differences on any of the variables in the study were found for employees reporting to supervisors or project managers.

The human resource (HR) manager of the organization, who was in close contact with the researchers, distributed the questionnaires to 180 employees (one fifth of the division’s core employees) and their 40 direct supervisors (project or line team managers). A letter was sent with the questionnaires that announced the study and requested participation, explained the voluntary nature of participation in the study, and assured confidential treatment of the data. Respondents were able to contact the researchers or HR manager confidentially for questions. After 2 weeks, the researchers sent a general e-mail reminder. Two weeks after the initial reminder, managers who had not yet participated received an additional reminder with similar general and anonymous wording asking them to voluntarily participate and send in their rating forms, as the deadline for participation was coming up. After that, only 3 unmatched manager forms remained. Only complete sets were included in the dataset (i.e., when both the manager and the employee questionnaires were returned).

Matched questionnaires of employees (who rated perceived charismatic leadership and belongingness) and their direct managers (who rated helping and compliance) were obtained for 115 employee–manager dyads. The response rate was 64% at the dyad level. This matched dyad sample includes 115 employees, rated by 32 direct managers (i.e., on average, managers rated 3.6 employees). Only 5% of the respondents were women, reflecting the population of this organization. Respondents’ average age was 45, and average tenure was 14 years; 52% had a college or university degree, and 40% had lower level professional qualifications or specialized technical training. No differences between the sample and overall population were found on the distribution of age, tenure, or education.

Measures

Employees filled out items on their perceptions of leader charisma and their sense of belongingness at work (see Appendix). Seven items based on previous literature measured perceptions of leader charisma (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1989). Items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much so). Cronbach’s α was .92. Three items (based on Godard, 2001) were used to measure belongingness at work. All items were answered on the same 5-point scale. Cronbach’s α was .72.

We used confirmatory factor analyses to confirm the underlying factor structure of the two employee-reported measures. Results showed a good fit for a two-factor model, in which the charisma items loaded on one factor and belongingness on the other, two-factor model $\chi^2(34, N = 115) = 41.79, p < .01$; nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = .99, comparative fit index (CFI) = .99; standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = .04; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .04. The two-factor model fits the data significantly better than a one-factor model, in which both charisma and belongingness loaded on a single factor, one-factor model $\chi^2(35, N = 115) = 107.06, p < .01$; NNFI = .92; CFI = .93; SRMR = .11; RMSEA = .14; $\chi^2_{diff} = 65.27, p < .001$ (cf. Hu & Bentler, 1999). To check the discriminant validity of the two employee-reported measures, we tested whether the variance extracted estimates from the items in the scales exceed the square of the correlation between the two constructs. If this is the case, evidence for discriminant validity exists (see Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The variance extracted estimates are .64 for charisma and .49 for belongingness. These values clearly exceed the square of the correlations between the constructs (.05), which offers support for their discriminant validity.

Supervisors rated their subordinates on helping and compliance. Items were based on the previous literature (e.g., MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983). All responses were given on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all characteristic) to 5 (very much so). We used 6 items to measure employees’ interpersonal helping behavior (see Appendix). Cronbach’s α was .86. Compliance was measured using three items (see Appendix). Cronbach’s α was .70.

Confirmatory factor analyses supported a two-factor structure, with helping and compliance items loading on separate factors. This two-factor structure fits the data significantly better than a one-factor model (all items loading on one OCB factor), two-factor model $\chi^2(26, N = 115) = .55.49, p < .01$; NNFI = .95; CFI = .96; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .09, versus one-factor model $\chi^2(27, N = 115) = 84.12, p < .001$; NNFI = .90; CFI = .92; SRMR = .08; RMSEA = .13; $\chi^2_{diff} = 29.18, p < .001$. The average variance extracted estimates (.51 for helping and .49 for compliance) exceed the squared correlation between the two factors (.30). This suggests sufficient discriminant validity for these measures (cf. Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Control Variable

To test our hypotheses, we conducted two hierarchical regression analyses (see below). Two different types of managers were involved in the study (project and line). In our analyses, we controlled for potential differences in the way these types of managers rate their employees. A dummy code was assigned to each type of manager providing OCB ratings and was entered into the regression equation in the first step.

Results

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the scales used in the study are presented in Table 1. Consistent with our expectations, the correlation between belongingness and perceived charismatic leadership is positive and significant, and charisma also correlates positively and significantly with helping and compliance. Belongingness, however, only correlates significantly positively with helping. The correlation of belongingness with compliance is positive but low and not significant.

To test our hypotheses, we then conducted hierarchical regression analyses for both helping and compliance. Following the suggestions of Aiken and West (1991), we entered charisma and belongingness on their respective mean by subtracting the mean from each score. In Step 1, we entered our control variable (dummy code for type of manager). Charisma and belongingness were entered in Steps 2 and 3. In the analyses presented in the
Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Between the Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Belongingness</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Charisma</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Helping behavior</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Compliance</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.55**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Manager (dummy)</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 115. The 5-point scales range from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much so).
*p ≤ .05. **p ≤ .01.

Table 2
Hierarchical Regression Analyses Testing the Impact of Belongingness and Charisma on Helping and Compliance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>dfs</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R²</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>adj</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Helping behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Manager (dummy)</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.00 (.00)</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1,105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Charisma</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.17 (.15)</td>
<td>10.53**</td>
<td>2,104</td>
<td>.17**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Belongingness</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.22 (.20)</td>
<td>9.75**</td>
<td>3,103</td>
<td>.05**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Belongingness × Charisma</td>
<td>-.18*</td>
<td>-.25 (.22)</td>
<td>8.59**</td>
<td>4,102</td>
<td>.03**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compliance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Manager (dummy)</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.01 (.02)</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>1,106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Charisma</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.10 (.12)</td>
<td>6.83**</td>
<td>2,105</td>
<td>.10**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Belongingness</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.10 (.13)</td>
<td>5.00**</td>
<td>3,104</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Belongingness × Charisma</td>
<td>-.19*</td>
<td>.16 (.13)</td>
<td>4.91**</td>
<td>4,103</td>
<td>.03**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 115. Standardized regression coefficients are shown. Both R² and adjusted R² are reported. ΔR² refers to unadjusted R².
*p ≤ .05. **p ≤ .01.

Table, we first entered charisma in Step 2 and belongingness in Step 3 to allow testing for the main effects of charisma and the potential mediation of belongingness. In separate analyses (reported in the text, but not in the table), we also tested the independent main effects of belongingness on helping and on compliance by entering belongingness in Step 2 without charisma.

In line with the procedures suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation can be inferred if both charisma and belongingness have a significant relationship with helping and compliance and if the relationship between charisma and helping and compliance is significantly lower (partial mediation) or no longer significant (full mediation) when belongingness is entered into the equation. Finally, we entered the interaction term (Charisma × Belongingness) in Step 4 of the regression (see Table 2). The interaction term was based on the centered scores for charisma and belongingness. If the interaction term added to the regression equation significantly increases the amount of variance explained in the criterion variable (i.e., ΔR² is significant), then belongingness is identified as a moderator of the relationship between charisma and the criterion variable.

Table 2 shows the regression results for both helping and compliance. The table reports standardized beta weights in the four steps of the analysis, the R² and adjusted (adj.) R², the F value for each step, and the amount of change in R² for each step (ΔR²).

More variance is explained in helping behavior than in compliance (see Table 2). The control variable did not account for a significant percentage of the variance in helping behavior. Consistent with Hypothesis 1, charisma was positively related to helping (Step 2, Table 2). A separate regression analysis (not reported in the table) using the same control variable (ns) showed that, in line with Hypothesis 2, belongingness was also positively related to helping (β = .32, p < .01, adj. R² = .10, F(2, 104), F = 6.08, ΔR² = .10). Thus, both charisma and belongingness account for a significant proportion of the variance in helping when entered separately. Although the main effect (beta weight) of charisma decreases when belongingness is added to the equation (Step 3, z = 1.94, p = .05; cf. Sobel, 1982), it remains significant. Thus, both variables have an independent main effect and only partial (rather than full) mediation can be inferred (Hypothesis 3).

Consistent with Hypothesis 4, the results of the last step of the regression for helping behavior show a significant interaction effect. The interaction term adds significantly to the explained variance in helping and has a negative weight. Both perceived charismatic leadership and belongingness have a significant positive effect on helping behavior, whereas their interaction has a negative effect. The nature of the interaction for individuals with a high and low sense of belongingness is depicted in Figure 1. Following the procedure recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983), high and low regression lines (+1 and −1 standard deviation from the mean) were plotted. In line with expectations, the relationship between perceived charisma and helping is stronger for individuals low on belongingness than for individuals high on belongingness.

The same hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for compliance. As can be seen in Table 2, the control variable did not explain a significant portion of the variance of compliance. Again, in line with Hypothesis 1, charisma (Step 2, Table 2) is significantly positively related to compliance. However, a separate re-
gression analysis (not reported in the table) showed that belongingness was positively, but not significantly, related to compliance, $\beta = .18, p = .07$, adj. $R^2 = .05, F(2, 105), F = 2.85, \Delta R^2 = .03$. When belongingness is entered in the regression equation in Step 3 (Table 2), the main effect of charisma found in Step 2 does not drop significantly, $z = 1.05, p = .29$ (cf. Sobel, 1982). Thus, unlike helping, belongingness was not found to mediate the relationship between charisma and compliance.

In Step 4, the interaction term is added into the regression equation. It is significant and has a negative beta weight. The shape of the interaction is depicted in Figure 2. Regression lines were plotted for high and low levels of belongingness (+1 and −1 standard deviation from the mean). Consistent with Hypothesis 4, the relationship between perceived charisma and compliance is stronger for individuals with a lower sense of belongingness than for individuals with a higher sense of belongingness.

**Discussion**

Our study examined the direct, indirect, and interactive effects of charismatic leadership and belongingness on two forms of OCB—helping and compliance—in a multisource field study. In line with expectations, we found that both perceived charismatic leader behavior and employees’ sense of belongingness are positively related to helping behavior. Specifically, we found that
employees are more willing to expend effort to help others in the organization when they have a stronger sense of belongingness at work or when they perceive their leader as more charismatic. They are also more likely to comply with the rules of the organization when their leader is charismatic, which is in line with expectations. However, inconsistent with our hypotheses, the main effect of belongingness on compliance did not reach significance.

Extending previous work, we hypothesized and found support for an interaction between charisma and belongingness in their impact on both helping and compliance. This interaction had not been tested previously. The finding that charismatic leadership has more impact on helping and compliance when the sense of belongingness was low suggests that the impact of such workplace variables on helping and compliance is not necessarily additive. Employees can have different reasons to comply or help, but once such behavior is ensured through one factor, such as a sense of belongingness, the impact of the other (charisma) is less strong. This may also hold more generally such that once a favorable situation has triggered a high level of OCB, the added benefit of other triggers of such behavior may decrease.

We found that whereas perceptions of charisma were positively related to employee helping and compliance, this relationship weakened as the level of belongingness felt by the individual increased. Thus, charismatic leadership has stronger effects on helping and compliance for people who feel more isolated from, and less connected to, the group. Feeling disconnected and isolated may provide less incentive to help coworkers and perhaps also, more generally, less incentive to undertake other actions that benefit the collective or to comply with its rules. In such less favorable conditions, charisma seems to have more impact on helping and compliance than it has in cases in which employees already have a strong sense of belongingness and connection. In that sense, individuals who feel more isolated may also be more receptive to the impact of charismatic leaders. As stated, research suggests that the impact of charisma on followers is stronger in what can be seen as less favorable or more challenging situations (e.g., De Hoogh et al., 2004; De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Kooiman, 2005; Waldman et al., 2001). Our study suggests that a lack of belongingness may also form a condition in which charismatic leadership affects subordinates more. Experimental research could help further test this idea and the causal mechanisms that underlie it.

As stated, we found a relationship between charismatic leadership and followers’ helping as well as compliance. Several authors have noted that the possible mechanisms through which charismatic leadership influences employee attitudes and behavior are not yet sufficiently clear (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2000). One proposed mechanism in work on identity and charisma (e.g., Shamir et al., 1998; Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004) involves the leader’s role in creating a group identity, which makes people more willing to expend effort on behalf of the group. Previous experimental research suggests such full mediation may indeed occur (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002).

Here, we argued and found that the relationship between charisma and helping is partly rather than fully mediated by belongingness. Thus, our research further supports the idea that some, but not all, of the effects of charismatic leaders on followers’ willingness to show helping behavior involve making the work group more salient and fostering a sense of belongingness among members of work groups. This sense of belongingness in turn increases helping. However, although we found significant evidence for partial mediation, a direct impact of charisma on helping beyond the effect of belongingness clearly remained, and no mediation was found for compliance. This suggests that other mechanisms through which charismatic leaders affect followers also play a role. For example, Shamir et al. (1998) suggest that followers may also feel a sense of personal identification with and trust in charismatic leaders. Such personalized trust and personal identification may directly increase followers’ willingness to undertake the cooperative actions their leader requests of them (such as helping others in the group) as well as their willingness to comply with the leader’s rules and requests, irrespective of the leader’s impact on group identity.

Strengths of the present study include that it was carried out in a field setting involving different rater sources. Previous studies, such as those reported by De Cremer and Van Knippenberg (2002), often either used student samples in an experimental design or used self-reported behavior or intentions as outcome measures (e.g., self-rated willingness to engage in OCB). The present study also has its limitations. Whereas our study was done within an organization, which helps external validity, experimental research is of course stronger on internal validity. Also, the direction of causality (where assumed in this article) is inferred from previous experimental work, as our cross-sectional design precludes testing for directionality of results. Thus, although based on previous literature we would argue that charisma likely affects individuals’ sense of belongingness rather than vice versa (feelings of belongingness affect perceptions of charisma), we cannot test this direction of causation. The study was carried out with a relatively small sample in a single organization, which presents a specific context, and thus findings need to be replicated in other organizational contexts. Also, we relied on a single and specific operationalization of charismatic leadership.

Future research could involve a broader range of perceived leader behaviors as well as variables such as perceived organizational support. For instance, the relationship between leader and follower (e.g., leader–member exchange theory; cf. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), as well as employees’ feelings of perceived organizational support (e.g. Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), may be at least as important in creating a sense of group belongingness and triggering helping behavior as perceived leader charisma. Extending this research with other forms of desirable employee behavior also seems interesting. Besides helping and compliance, future research could, for instance, address the impact of leadership and belongingness on employees’ proactive, flexible, and innovative behavior. Most organizations nowadays need flexible and responsive employees who approach work proactively and take the initiative to go beyond narrow task requirements (e.g., Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001; Parker, 1998; Sonnenstag, 2003). Charisma and belongingness may also interact to affect such other forms of employee behavior, and studying these will further our understanding of when and how charismatic leadership and belongingness have their effects on followers.
References


Appendix

Items Used in the Study

**Charisma (employee rated)**

- My leader creates a shared sense in the group that we are working together on an important mission
- My leader acts in ways that make me proud to work with him
- My leader sets a good example
- My leader has a clear vision on the future opportunities of the group
- My leader demonstrates high levels of competence in work behaviors
- My leader projects a convincing, powerful, and dynamic presence in his actions at work
- My leader provides a good role-model for me to follow

**Belongingness (employee rated)**

- When at work, I really feel like I belong
- I feel quite isolated from others at work (reverse coded)
- I don’t seem to “connect” with others in the work group (reverse coded)

**Interpersonal helping behavior (supervisor rated)**

- Helps others when it is clear their workload is too high
- Takes the initiative to help orient newcomers in the organization even though it is not required
- Lends a helping hand to coworkers when needed
- Willingly assists others in meeting deadlines or requirements
- Thinks of ways to improve collaboration within the organization
- Works with others wherever possible to help improve the image of the group and organization

**Compliance (supervisor rated)**

- Does not take unnecessary breaks
- Goes beyond what is officially required in attendance
- Works as quickly and efficiently as possible