

2014

Leader Benefits: Exploring How Leaders Benefit from LMX

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LEADER BENEFITS:
EXPLORING HOW LEADERS BENEFIT FROM LMX

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Management

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August 2014

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have accrued a great many debts while working on the dissertation. First, I would also like to thank my committee, Hettie Richardson, Russell Matthews, Tim Chandler, and Jeremy Bernerth for their assistance. I would especially like to thank Hettie for helping me to see this through to completion I would also like to thank my friends Ben McLarty, Eric Liguori, Coty Hoover, and Erik Taylor for their willingness to read earlier drafts. I would like to give a special thank you to Ben McLarty, Josh Bendickson, and Kerry Sauley for the use of their classes for data collection purposes. I would also like to thank Kerry for being an outstanding friend and mentor these last few years. I would like to thank my parents, Jim and Barbara, for their constant financial, social, and emotional support during my years of schooling. I would like to send a big thanks to my wife, Marissa, whose love and support have sustained me during this process. Without her, this achievement would have not been possible. I would also like to thank the Lord whose aid and guidance has been instrumental in my completion.

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ABSTRACT

Leader Member Exchange (LMX) theory has emerged as one of the most prominent leadership theories over the last thirty years. Scholars found that subordinates with elevated levels of LMX experience higher degrees of job satisfaction and work motivation, experience lower levels of burnout and turnover intentions, and demonstrate stronger contextual and focal job performance. Yet the work outcomes for supervisors have not been heavily researched. Scholars assume, but have not demonstrated, that supervisors gain cognitive and affective benefits beyond job performance from their relationships with subordinates. These benefits are crucial because they are common to social exchange and differentiate supervisor/subordinate work relationships. Additionally, how supervisors gain these benefits is an important consideration. In this dissertation, I study some of the benefits supervisors receive from LMX relationships with subordinates and examine how those benefits are gained.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Supervisors perform certain managerial functions that make them essential to organizational success. Because effective management is the bedrock of organizational success and supervisors are difficult to replace, keeping supervisors satisfied is critical (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2005). According to some scholars, one of the keys to maintaining supervisor satisfaction is derived from the supervisor's relationships with subordinates. These relationships, then, are of high importance to many organizations (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Perry, Witt, Penney, & Atwater, 2010). In fact, the importance of supervisor/subordinate relationships within the organization is intensified in the current business environment due to the presence of reorganization, downsizing, and layoffs, all of which limit the social rewards and potential satisfaction individuals derive from the organization and making it necessary for these individuals to seek satisfaction elsewhere (Cappelli, Bassi, Katz, Knoke, & Osterman, 1997; Rousseau, 1998). Supervisor/subordinate dyads presumably enable both parties to gain satisfaction, thus encouraging them to exchange resources that aid the organization. Consequently, supervisors are urged to create quality relationships with their subordinates as a means of ensuring the proper functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988).

The most prominent theory examining the quality of the supervisor/subordinate dyad is Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX is defined as a social exchange relationship between a subordinate and his/her supervisor (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Erdogan & Liden, 2002), with social exchange being the "general expectation of some future return, [although] its exact nature is definitely not stipulated in advance" (Blau, 1964, p. 93). Unlike an economic exchange, the terms and repayment of a social exchange are not known upfront. Therefore, LMX is the expectation that a supervisor and subordinate have that a

behavior will be reciprocated. Rather than engaging in a spot transaction, this expectation leads to ongoing exchange of both tangible and/or intangible resources (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1972a, 1972b). Accordingly, LMX is either the supervisor's or subordinate's judgment that participation in such an exchange will have beneficial outcomes, either psychologically, socially, or economically (Homans, 1961).

Research has uncovered several subordinate benefits of social exchange, including higher levels of promotion and pay (Gerstner & Day, 1997), satisfaction (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982), commitment (Oliver, 1990; Eisenberger et al., 2010), psychological empowerment (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000), decreased burnout (Thomas & Lankau, 2009), and lower levels of turnover intentions (Scandura & Graen, 1984). In relationships that are high in LMX, subordinates and supervisors possess feelings of affection, respect, and trust for each other (Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles, & Walker, 2007b). Based on these feelings, subordinates are more willing to perform duties for their supervisor outside of their formal work contract (Scandura & Graen, 1984; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). To compensate subordinates for these additional efforts, supervisors offer more resources and/or more discretion (van Breukelen, Schyns, & Le Blanc, 2006; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In comparison, in relationships with lower LMX supervisors view subordinates as hired hands, and thus they play smaller roles in subordinates' job experiences (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Scandura, 1999; Zalesny & Graen, 1987).

Scholars typically approach LMX benefits from the subordinate side of the supervisor/subordinate dyad only, and as a result, research on the benefits supervisors obtain from LMX is largely underrepresented in the literature. Initially, LMX was based on role theory,

but over time it has shifted to social exchange theory (Bernerth et al., 2007). This shift highlights the opportunity for scholars to examine supervisor outcomes that derive from social exchange, such as trust, caring, and pride—outcomes that are not part of a transactional leadership approach (Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, & Giles, 2008).

Unlike social exchange relationships, transactional relationships tend to lack trust and mostly occur by defining what will be exchanged upfront (Emerson, 1981). Conversely, in social exchange relationships, appropriate benefits are determined by the involved parties' actions and are thus not negotiated upfront. The time of return of said benefits is merely some future promise (Homans, 1961; Foa & Foa, 1976; Blau, 1964). Consequently, outcomes are influenced through managerial actions, in this case the activity or exchange of resources that occurs between a subordinate and a supervisor. The supervisor makes investments with certain subordinates, and based on the success of these investments, the supervisor gains social benefits that are related to social exchange. Scholars assume that supervisors benefit by having better reputations, more promotional opportunities, improved health outcomes, and a more positive attitude about their own abilities (van Breukelen et al., 2006; Liden et al., 1997), yet there are few empirical studies testing these presumptive benefits. In fact, Liden et al. (1997, p. 73) argue that more “research is needed on outcomes of LMX for leaders.”

Furthermore, other scholars lobby for a better understanding of the favorable outcomes for supervisors as well as how supervisors are able to gain certain benefits from some followers but not others (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schyns & Day, 2010; van Breukelen et al., 2006; Wilson, Sin, & Conlon, 2010). By examining the exchange relationships between supervisors and subordinates from the supervisors' perspectives and identifying the benefits that supervisors

receive from these relationships, researchers can potentially propose ways to create more satisfied supervisors.

To summarize, there have been limited inquiries into the benefits supervisors gain from exchanges with subordinates, with scholars relying on assumptions about the benefits supervisors might receive. This shortage of empirical study limits the recommendations scholars can provide to organizations (Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & Yammarino, 2001) and raises several important theoretical questions related to supervisor benefits. For example, what behaviors do supervisors perform as part of their LMX relationship with subordinates? How do these behaviors influence what supervisors gain? What behaviors do subordinates perform to reciprocate the exchange? By answering these questions, scholars can more fully understand exchange relationships. House and Aditya (1997, p. 431) admit that LMX theory is largely “still in the making,” and subsequent scholars agree with this assessment (Schyns & Day, 2010; van Breukelen et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2010). Thus, understanding the exchange process from a supervisor’s perspective may better illuminate and define the reciprocal and extra-contractual exchange of resources between supervisors and subordinates (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). Furthermore, identifying resources that supervisors share with subordinates as well as identifying what supervisors perceive to gain (Wilson et al., 2010) will lead to the further development of LMX as a prescriptive theory (van Breukelen et al., 2006).

The History of LMX

Initially developed as the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) model and based on role theory (Dansereau et al., 1975), LMX theory changed how scholars view leadership by focusing on the heterogeneous relationships between supervisors and subordinates. Traditional leadership theorists assumed a supervisor’s influence is consistent among all of his/her subordinates

(Dienesch & Liden, 1986; House & Aditya, 1997; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2002), but this assumption contradicts what Dansereau and colleagues found in subordinates' ratings of their relationships with the same supervisor (Graen, 1976; Dansereau, Alutto, Markham, & Dumas, 1982; Dansereau, 1995; Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003). Specifically, some subordinate relationships score high on trust and respect, while others do not (Erdogan & Liden, 2002). Noting this, scholars sought to examine why the findings indicated the same supervisor has differential relationships with different subordinates.

To explain these findings, early LMX researchers used role theory as an explanatory mechanism. A supervisor's formal role is determined solely by the organization, including work assignments and performance monitoring, and therefore is not subject to differentiation between subordinates (Biddle, 1979, 1986). These supervisory roles, however, are expanded through the process of resource exchange, and thus supervisors may provide particular resources to and interact with only some subordinates (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The process of social exchange starts with a level of social attraction between supervisor and subordinate that is based on several antecedents including personality, ability, and perceived similarity (Scandura & Graen, 1984; Liden, Wayne, & Stillwell, 1993). The attraction a supervisor feels to his/her subordinate leads the supervisor to test the subordinate using various methods in an attempt to establish trust with those demonstrating high levels of competence (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Supervisors ultimately end up exchanging resources with competent and trustworthy subordinates (Graen & Scandura, 1987).

Extending role-based LMX research, recent work on LMX focuses on the social exchange aspect of LMX (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003; Liden et al., 1997; Wayne, Shore, & Sparrowe, 1997; Bernerth et al., 2007b; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). Initially developed in

the 1950s by sociologist George Homans, social exchange focuses on sub-institutional behaviors that lead to recurrent, reinforcing exchanges (Homans, 1984). Currently, scholars utilize social exchange to explain several other relevant organizational outcomes, including performance (Organ, 1988; Wayne et al., 1997; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), justice (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Homans, 1961), motivation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), and leadership (Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008). The core of social exchange is the idea that individuals offer inducements (March & Simon, 1958; Homans, 1958) to gain benefits from their exchange partners (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961) and ultimately maximize profits (Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Therefore, social exchange is more rewarding than costly (Homans, 1961). Mutual benefit does not have to apply only to work performance, however, as it may also include mutual feelings, commitment, and loyalty (Blau, 1964; Foa & Foa, 1976, 1980; Homans, 1961; Lawler, 2001; Wilson et al., 2010). Furthermore, unlike economic exchange, social exchange relationships can develop over time, allowing individuals to experience a longer period of payback (Berg & Wiebe, 1993).

One important consideration in social exchange, unlike economic exchange, is that social exchange benefits are acquired through diffuse future promises (Blau, 1964; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). In an economic exchange, both the nature of the return and when the return will happen are stated upfront and are negotiated between the parties. According to Blau (1964), the prototypical economic exchange would be a mortgage. Both the lender and the lendee negotiate the amount of money that will be lent, the amount of interest, and amount of time to repay. That is not to say that the lendee will pay the amount back—defaults frequently occur—but there is an agreement to pay back and penalties accrue if the lendee does not uphold the agreement. An example of a social exchange would be a worker asking an expert for advice. Whether the expert

will furnish the counsel is unknown, and whether the worker responds with an acknowledgement of gratitude is in question as well (Homans, 1961). The relationship will solidify if the expert provides advice and the worker reciprocates the services with an expression of gratitude, making it more likely future exchanges to occur since both parties have acquired benefits (Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1972a, 1972b).

Mutual acquisition of benefits occurs through reciprocity, which is a process theorized to solidify social exchange relationships. Reciprocal exchanges produce conditions (Gouldner, 1960) that allow strong feelings to develop due to concurrent increases trust and caring (Molm, 2003). Thus, reciprocity is a “vital principle of society” (Thurnwald, 1932, p. 106) because it is the key social process through which shared social rules “are enabled to yield social stability” (Gouldner, 1960, p. 161). Moreover, reciprocity is important since it is through reciprocal, repeated relationships (i.e., as opposed to transactional and economic exchanges) that individuals produce strong affective states (Homans, 1974; Molm, 2003). Based on their partners’ willingness to reciprocate, individuals receive symbolic rather than mere utilitarian benefits. Symbolic benefits lead to individuals having a sense of caring toward their exchange partner, as well as greater confidence in themselves because their partner cares about them (Homans, 1974; Molm, 2003). Reciprocity is therefore a vehicle through which supervisors gain social benefits from social exchange relationships with subordinates (Molm, Collett, & Schaefer, 2007).

In conclusion, social exchange theory assumes that exchanges occur based on voluntary actions by two involved parties, both of whose actions influence and reinforce the exchange. From Homans’s (1961, p. 2) perspective, “when a person acts in a certain way he is at least rewarded or punished by the behavior of another person.” Simply put, social exchange does not hinge upon whether a husband buys his wife a dress but, instead, whether the husband expects to

be praised or condemned by his wife for the purchase. Additionally, social exchange occurs neither through coercion nor formal rules (Blau, 1964). Furthermore, social exchange is concerned with actual behavior, not behavioral norms, because by definition all rules, laws, and standards tend to be limited or unclear and as such cannot consider every possible scenario. From a historical standpoint, Homans (1984) crafted social exchange as a means of explaining human interactions beyond basic norms or societal functions, and it is in this manner that scholars use it today.

Statement of the Problem

Scholars assume, but have yet to empirically demonstrate, that supervisors gain social benefits such as satisfaction, efficacy, and esteem from LMX relationships (Erdogan & Liden, 2002; van Brekuelen et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2010). Although scholars have uncovered evidence of work-related outcomes such as improved job performance, social exchange implies social as well as work benefits in social exchanges (Homans, 1950; Blau, 1964; Lawler, 2001). Research is needed, therefore, to determine whether, as is assumed, supervisors accrue social benefits such as satisfaction, esteem, and efficacy (Wilson et al., 2010). Because the complexity of social exchange surpasses that of simple transactional exchange (Liden & Maslyn, 1998), exploring social exchange and LMX from the supervisor's perspective will help open the black box that represents the process of LMX relationships (Liden et al., 1997; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Yukl & van Fleet, 1992).

As a result, tracking outcomes using a social, rather than transactional, approach will allow scholars to better understand the social exchange process from the supervisor's perspective and thus fulfill the pleas of scholars requesting better understanding of how the process works (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989; Graen, 1990; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Waldron, 1991). Using

such an approach is clearly overdue, especially since scholars repeatedly report finding only moderate supervisor/subordinate agreement in LMX (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999; Schriesheim, Wu, & Cooper, 2011; Sin, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2009). These lower levels of agreement could indicate that supervisors do not see their subordinate relationships as social exchange relationships, but as something more transactional in nature. We may better understand if social exchange, rather than one of its theoretical counterparts (such as transactional leadership), is the basis of LMX by tracking supervisor outcomes.

One approach to doing so involves examination of supervisor behaviors. Because behaviors (or resources) are conduits for providing material and non-material benefits, they are the currency of social exchange (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b). As such, van Breukelen and colleagues (2006), as well as Dulebohn and colleagues (2012), cite the need to examine the role of behaviors in LMX relationships, suggesting that supervisors' inducements influence the contributions they receive because the type of inducement provided will match the resulting contributions (van Breukelen et al., 2006; Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Illies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Liden et al., 1997; Wilson et al., 2010). For example, it would be inappropriate to trade love for money because love implies a close bond between people who are highly familiar with each other, whereas money easily can be exchanged between total strangers (Foa & Foa, 1976; 1980). Emerson (1981, p. 32) states this more succinctly, pointing out that "benefits obtained through a social exchange process are contingent upon benefits provided in the exchange." Thus, the benefits individuals receive in the exchange are based, in part, on the resources given because similar resources are more likely to be

exchanged (Foa & Foa, 1976, 1980). Also, from a basic operant standard, the more frequent and valuable the reward, the more likely a future exchange will occur (Homans, 1974).

Overall Model

The aforementioned issues outline a process through which supervisors gain benefits from LMX relationships. In essence, supervisors incur symbolic and instrumental benefits by providing inducements to subordinates. These inducements serve several purposes in the exchange. First, they influence the contributions the subordinate will provide to the supervisor. Second, they neutralize imbalances of power and are discretionary in that the supervisor can choose to enter into the exchange or not. As a result, inducements are costly to the supervisor but beneficial to the subordinate. The reverse is true for the resources subordinates provide to supervisors; they are costly for the subordinate but beneficial to the supervisor, and the subordinate can choose whether or not to enter into the exchange. Hence, a major assumption of social exchange is cost/benefit analysis (Homans, 1984).

The type and amount of inducements supervisors provide to subordinates ultimately influence the social benefits supervisors receive. Simply put, the more inducements supervisors provide to subordinates, the more contributions they receive until limited by the law of diminishing returns. These subordinate-provided contributions also serve as the conduit from which the supervisor gains social benefits like esteem, satisfaction, and efficacy. The subordinate's contributions will ultimately influence if and how the supervisor benefits from the social exchange, including whether or not he/she has positive cognitive and affective reactions. Overall, the social benefits supervisors receive are a function of the inducements they provide, as these inducements help determine the scope of subordinates' reciprocations.

Contribution of This Dissertation

The basis of social exchange lies in the assumption that both parties involved receive a net benefit in some way. Thus, a full understanding of social exchange requires a clear knowledge of the benefits supervisors receive from subordinates as well as the rationale for the benefits' reception. Tracing and examining leader benefits may explain LMX more thoroughly and may also give supervisors insights into prospective interventions (Wilson et al., 2010). Although the LMX model is rooted in the belief that the supervisor/subordinate relationship is based on social exchange (Liden et al., 1997; Wilson et al., 2010), a compelling argument can be made that the supervisor/subordinate relationship could be transactional in nature since exchange has occurred (Rousseau, 1998). By tracing the benefits supervisors accrue and how they accrue them, it may be possible to determine whether or not the supervisor enters an actual social exchange with the subordinate. If the supervisor/subordinate relationship is truly based on social exchange, then caring behaviors (Blau, 1964) and positive affective/cognitive states should occur (Lawler, 2001), especially as intrinsic benefits such as these and notions of caring separate social from transactional exchanges (Emerson, 1981; Lawler, 2001).

In this dissertation, I directly contribute to the literature in three ways. First, I describe the benefits supervisors gain from LMX relationships. Second, I examine the extent to which a single subordinate has the ability to influence whether or not a supervisor gains social benefits that have organizational implications. Third, since studies of LMX have mostly focused solely on subordinates (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim et al., 2001; Schyns & Day, 2010), my sampling of both subordinates and supervisors should allow for a fuller knowledge of the actual exchange process.

Summary of the Following Chapters

Chapter Two provides the theory and conceptual scheme of the dissertation in three sections. The first section focuses on the primary resources supervisors provide to subordinates and the importance of those resources in determining from which subordinate the supervisor gains benefits. The second section examines how the subordinate repays the supervisor. Finally, the third section of the conceptual scheme examines the benefits the supervisor may receive from LMX relationships. Chapter Two also contains theoretical supports for the hypotheses and is followed by Figure 1, which displays a visual map of the discussed relationships.

Looking forward, Chapter Three focuses on the methods, measures, and data analysis techniques employed in the study. Chapter Four presents model results, response rates, and other statistical considerations. Chapter Five includes the discussion, limitations, implications and recommendations for future research, and lastly, all relevant measures, IRB paperwork, and survey instruments are provided as appendices at the end.

CHAPTER 2: OVERVIEW

One of the primary approaches scholars use to examine the relationship between supervisors and subordinates is Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory. There are three fundamental pillars of LMX theory: leaders develop differential relationships with their subordinates, the quality of the subordinate's exchange relationship with the leader is based upon the degree of emotional support and exchange of valued resources, and the exchange relationship is critical in determining the member's fate within the organization (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997, p. 522).

In this chapter, I first present the overall model that explains how supervisors gain social benefits from social exchanges with subordinates. In the chapter's second section, I discuss the process of the exchange, including who initiates the exchange and with what resources. I trace the inducements that supervisors provide to subordinates, who in turn provide contributions in return. The type of supervisor inducement is important because it influences the subordinate's contribution response. Next, in the third section, I discuss how the exchange is reciprocated, including how subordinates' contributions influence the cognitive and affective benefits supervisors receive. Finally, in the fourth section, I analyze the benefits supervisors obtain from LMX relationships. Because the model is transitive, I provide a series of hypotheses that summarize the model from the supervisors' expectations regarding the supervisor/subordinate dyad to the final benefits the supervisors receive.

The Model

The presented model (Figure 1: pg. 47) lists some of the factors that affect the underlying process of social exchange and the perceived benefits obtained by supervisors from LMX relationships. In this section, I will briefly describe the model, which illustrates the exchange

from the supervisor's perspective.. As stated in Chapter One, each step of the model influences, either directly or indirectly, the social benefits that supervisors receive from LMX. Supervisors pursue social relationships with subordinates based on their expectations that such relationships will be more rewarding than costly (Homans, 1958, 1961). Supervisors exchange with certain subordinates based on social attraction (Blau, 1964) that relies on the supervisor's perception that the exchange partner will reciprocate (Bernerth et al., 2007b). Ultimately, this belief of reciprocation and resulting social attraction ensures the supervisor will extend the relationship by offering discretionary resources that increase beyond the supervisor's work contract (Biddle, 1979; Graen & Scandura, 1987).

As the model is conceptualized from the supervisor's perspective, it begins with his/her determination of whether the exchange with a subordinate will be positive. In the present case, this determination is represented by the extent to which the supervisor perceives his/her relationship with the employee to be high in LMX. If so, the supervisor provides inducements to the subordinate in the form of workplace social support (March & Simon, 1958; Homans, 1961; Wilson et al., 2010; Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). If the subordinate wishes to continue the exchange, he or she is pressured to reciprocate with a similar discretionary resource (Emerson, 1981; Gouldner, 1960). Ultimately, the resource the subordinate uses in his/her reciprocation benefits the supervisor both at work and on a social level (Emerson, 1981). Thus, supervisors gain benefits through a four-step process starting with their own evaluations regarding their subordinate, followed by their own actions (inducements), then by the subordinate's actions (reciprocations), and ending with the supervisor's own cognitive and affective reactions or benefits from the subordinate's actions. These outcomes with their strong affective components

mark the extent to which the LMX relationship is a social exchange or not, from the supervisor's perspective (Lawler, 2001).

Supervisors' Actions

In this section, I analyze the inducements supervisors provide to subordinates to gain contributions as well as the differential impact subordinates have on supervisors. If individuals seek social benefits from the exchange, they usually provide an inducement (Barnard, 1938; Gouldner, 1960; Emerson, 1981). These inducements are used to gain resources from their exchange partners (March & Simon, 1958). In social exchange, these resources go beyond the formal work contract. If the inducements benefit their recipients, the amount the recipients are willing to contribute is in equilibrium to perceived gain (Barnard, 1938; Homans, 1958). Thus, the social exchange process is a mutually reinforcing set of behaviors that leads to stable, long-term relationships in which both parties gain profits. For example, a social exchange occurs if a worker asks an expert for advice on a particular problem, the expert responds with an answer, and in turn the worker reciprocates with a sentiment of gratitude. The expert thus feels appreciated, causing him or her to be more likely to respond to the worker in the future and thereby establishing a social exchange relationship (Homans, 1961).

One assumption of social exchange is that individuals seek to maximize profits, and therefore, a personal goal will keep the exchange rewarding (Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). A second assumption is that social benefits gained from a social exchange will be in proportion to the activity exchanged between partners (Lawler, 2001; Homans, 1958). A third assumption is that the more positive the benefits gained from the exchange, the more likely the exchange will occur in the future (Homans, 1958). Accordingly, theorists note that strong exchange relationships do not exist with many subordinates, nor are supervisors likely to

exchange resources with every subordinate. Instead, strong exchange relationships typically only occur between supervisor/subordinate pairs engaged in tasks that are highly difficult and important (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Henderson et al., 2009) because the exchange of resources reduces status differences between exchange partners. Exchanging discretionary resources leads to a decline in supervisor power, since the power A has over B is relative to the resources that A controls (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b). By providing these resources, the power imbalance between supervisor and subordinate is lessened (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b). In addition, to gain direct subordinate contributions, the supervisor must offer direct subordinate inducements (March & Simon, 1958).

Supervisor Social Support

One type of inducement is social support. Social support is a broad concept that refers to behaviors that create a sense of well-being for the recipient (Beehr, 1995; Beehr, Bowling, & Bennett, 2010; House, 1981). More precisely, Blau (1964) defines social support as behavior that emerges through cohesive relationships between individuals and a group to which they belong. Frese (1996) provides a more concrete definition, writing that social support consists of interpersonal behaviors characterized by affect (e.g., love, liking, and respect), confirmation (e.g., of the moral and factual rightness of actions and statements), and direct help (e.g., giving aid in work, information, or money). The purpose of these material and immaterial behaviors is to aid individuals during times of distress, and they can consist of something from a simple well-wish to providing direct material help such as money (Beehr, Bowling, & Bennett, 2010). From the social exchange perspective, individuals provide social support within a group or dyad to protect themselves from outside factors that may damage the dyad or group (Blau, 1964, p. 61). Social support is one resource that can be traded in a social exchange relationship because social

support implies affiliation and care, which partners can transfer (Foa & Foa, 1976; Foa, 1993; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Previous theory (Blau, 1964; Foa & Foa, 1976; Wilson et al., 2010) and research (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008; van Mierlo, Rutte, Vermunt, Kompier, & Doorewaard, 2006; Tekleab & Taylor, 2003) find LMX to be distinct from social support. Specifically, LMX is a cognitive process surrounding an individual's expectation that his/her behaviors will be reciprocated (Bernerth et al., 2007b), while social support is the actual behavior that takes place. Thus, LMX is an antecedent to social support (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Wilson et al., 2010). In the supervisor/subordinate dyad, a supervisor analyzes the potential for reciprocation of his/her effort before providing the costly resource of social support. This cost/benefit analysis is a critical assumption of social exchange, and the relationship will only persist if the individual believes that his/her behaviors will be reciprocated (Homans, 1961). As a variable that captures the extent to which a supervisor believes his/her actions will be returned in an unspecified manner in the future (Blau, 1964), LMX should capture the supervisor's cost/benefit calculation regarding exchange. That is, social exchange, and by extension LMX, is a prerequisite of assumed reciprocation, otherwise known as social attraction, in which individuals believe they will benefit from exchanging with each other (Blau, 1964, p. 20). The term 'social exchange,' and by extension 'LMX,' therefore refers to the relationships that individuals form (Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). If the relationship is beneficial, the supervisor may provide social support to the subordinate.

Supervisors provide social support based on the quality of their LMX relationships because it is an expensive resource and, as a result the higher the LMX the more likely social

support will be exchanged (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Also, social support will be most likely provided in stable, mature LMX relationships due to the level of affiliation required (Foa & Foa, 1976; Graen & Scandura, 1987). Supervisors provide social support as a means of reinforcing and inducing certain behaviors from their subordinates and/or providing them with resources to complete certain tasks (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Supervisors do not grant social support to all subordinates because social support inherently involves a cost of caring, and as such, the supervisor may suffer from negative outcomes (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Instead, supervisors provide social support to obligate their subordinate to respond in the future with work resources beyond the supervisor's control, as well as to acquire social benefits (March & Simon, 1958; Wilson et al., 2010).

Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 1: Supervisor-rated LMX is positively related to subordinate-rated social support.

Subordinate Reciprocation

The social support inducement provided by the supervisor is considered an "offer" to further the exchange, and the subordinate must decide whether to reciprocate and continue the relationship or ignore the "offer" and bring about the extinction of the relationship's social exchange elements, leaving only the economic relationship as defined by the contract with the firm (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1974). The importance of the subordinate's reciprocation of the supervisor's actions lies in the fact that doing so causes the supervisor to acquire a social benefit through the resource the subordinate provides. This section focuses on this critical subordinate reciprocation. In examining the model

(Figure 1) the inducement that the supervisor provides will be reciprocated through a resource provided by the subordinate, which aids the supervisor.

The focus of this study are those behaviors that are exchanged socially, have high affective value to the receiver, and extend beyond the work contract, as it is through the exchange of such behaviors that supervisors gain social benefits from the relationship. For these reasons, I have selected organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) as the subordinate contribution of study (Organ et al., 2006). OCBs are appropriate subordinate-provided resource to consider because of their similarity to the social support provided by supervisors (Wilson et al., 2010). Like social support, OCBs are discretionary, and they provide aid and comfort to the individual receiving them. In other words, social support and OCBs constitute caring, a symbolic value that supersedes the work contract (Molm et al., 2007; Wilson et al., 2010). As a consequence of these similarities, OCBs are a likely resource to offer in exchange for social support (Wilson et al., 2010). I therefore anticipate a strong relationship between the two.

OCBs are discretionary, not explicitly rewarded, nor recognized behaviors that lead to the strengthening of an organization's psychological and social core (Organ, 1997). The previous definition highlights two important concepts related to OCBs: they have value and are discretionary. OCBs include helping behavior, which takes place when an individual takes on some of the responsibilities of another (Organ et al., 2006), and demonstrating higher levels of sportsmanship, civic virtue, and pride in the organization. OCBs are necessary for the social and psychological functioning of the organization because they aid in encouraging cooperation between various organizational agents, including supervisors and subordinates (Organ et al., 2006). For example, supervisors may use subordinates' OCB performance to decrease their own workload or demands. Organizations value OCBs because they encourage individuals to consider

what is good for the entire work unit rather than just themselves and also encourage cooperation among the organization's agents (Organ et al., 2006). In fact, subordinates who perform OCBs are often promoted or given raises (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009), demonstrating the value organizations place on these behaviors. Because OCBs are highly valued by both the organization and its agents, they are considered an outcome of successful exchange (Organ, 1988; Organ et al., 2006).

Although OCBs are valuable and go beyond expectations set in the work contract, they are more difficult to monitor and control due to their spontaneous and discretionary nature (Barnard, 1938; Organ, 1988; Organ, 1997; Williamson, 1975). Though workers may receive economic benefits for performing OCBs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Organ et al., 2006; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008), OCBs are typically part of social, rather than economic, exchanges. A social exchange occurs when individuals merely expect to be paid back. Even though money provided would imply an economic relationship, performance for pay is a social exchange, because one party expects the other to reciprocate, but when and how the reciprocation will take place is not specified in advance.

A recent review suggests that targets of OCBs range from agents of the organization (coworkers/supervisors) to the organization as a whole (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). Accordingly, OCBs are divided into two overarching categories: organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization (OCBO, which includes behaviors related to civic virtue and sportsmanship) and organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards individuals (OCBI, which include behaviors such as helping). Lavelle et al. (2007) report that the various OCBs, whether directed to the organization or its agents, have different antecedents and are

obtained through different processes because workers form perceptions of justice and commitment from different sources. Based on those sources, they in turn decide whether to perform OCBs. Thus, the different types of OCBs emerge from different exchanges.

Antecedents of the social relationship determine which type of OCB will occur (Organ et al., 2006; Lavelle et al., 2007). For example, if employees believe the organization is just, they will perform OCBOs as a means of rewarding the organization (Organ, 1988). On the other hand, if employees feel they have helpful supervisors and coworkers, they will perform OCBI. More specifically, OCBI occurs when the supervisor provides an inducement behavior that causes the subordinate to be obligated to respond and determines the target of said response. The subordinate who is the target and receives the inducement builds commitment toward the supervisor, which provides a reason for the OCB. Supervisors value both types of OCBs because they lead to higher functioning groups and organizations (Organ et al., 2006), and organizations consider OCBs to be a sign of effective leadership because leaders are gaining additional resources for their organizations (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Both types of OCBs are related to promotions and raises (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Besides the benefits that supervisors accrue, subordinates will feel obligated to aid those who help them, and thus OCBs are a reciprocated resource given back to the supervisor when he/she provides social support to the subordinate. This is due to the norm of reciprocity—we aid others who aid us (Gouldner, 1960). Scholars suggest supervisors gain subordinate OCBs by forming social exchange relationships, because by providing an extra benefit, supervisors should gain the same (Organ, 1988). Scholars find that LMX leads to OCBs on the part of the subordinate (Illies et al., 2007; Dulebohn et al., 2012), and Illies et al. (2007) report that the

relationship between LMX and OCBI is stronger than the relationship between LMX and OCBO because, in part, the LMX relationship is interpersonal and individuals will target their behaviors directly. Despite these findings, there is a lack of empirical understanding on what is reciprocated to the supervisor, namely the behaviors that produce trust or obligation (Illies et al., 2007; Dulebohn et al., 2011). Therefore, I will focus on OCBs that are targeted toward individuals, and more specifically, the subordinate's supervisor.

Other scholars might argue that supervisors receive subordinate OCBs transactionally by simply giving subordinate's higher performance ratings, rather than via the social exchange process described above (Rousseau, 1998; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). Yet OCBs require trust that one party will not take advantage of the other, as the individuals who perform these OCBs have expectations of being treated fairly (Organ, 1988). Thus, OCBs are most likely obtained in a social, not transactional, manner due to the fact that OCBs are discretionary and individuals cannot be sure they will receive a future benefit. Simply put, supervisors can acquire subordinates' OCBs through inducement behaviors such as social support that inspire trust and obligation in the subordinate (Organ et al., 2006).

Although there are other managerial behaviors that lead to OCBI, I argue that social support is an important mediator between supervisor-rated LMX and subordinate OCBI for several reasons. First is the basic notion of reciprocity; people feel obligated to repay those who have helped them. Supervisors perform rewarding services for subordinates as a means of obligating the subordinates to perform beneficial actions in return (Blau, 1964), and this, in turn, forms bonds of trust and respect between the supervisor and his/her subordinate (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). These obligating and trusting behaviors lead individuals to exchange resources that are complementary (Foa & Foa, 1976, 1980); social support creates a

bond between supervisor and subordinate, not just a quid pro quo. Furthermore, the amount of OCBs the subordinate offers will be proportional to the amount of social support the supervisor initially provides. Partners will wish to maintain interaction equilibrium so the exchange remains positive for both parties (Homans, 1961). Although supervisors can gain OCBs through exploitation (Emerson, 1962), OCBs are most likely exchanged through reciprocity and social exchange given that OCBs imply trust and have a caring component (Gouldner, 1960; Organ, 1988). The foregoing suggests that supervisors who provide social support should receive more OCBs than those who do not. Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 2: Subordinate-rated social support partially mediates the relationship between supervisor-rated LMX and the supervisor-rated performance of organizational citizenship behaviors directed to the supervisor (OCBIs).

Supervisor Benefits

One of the key assumptions of social exchange theory is that both parties mutually benefit from social exchange (Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Scholars have demonstrated that these benefits take the form of resources transferred from one party to the next (Homans, 1950). From the supervisor's side, benefits from subordinates can range from instrumental benefits (e.g., tangible benefits like job performance) to symbolic benefits (e.g., intangible benefits like personal feelings), with both types being part of the social exchange relationship (Molm, 2003). The sharing of these resources leads to the supervisor experiencing affective and cognitive evaluations, as the resources are the convoy from which supervisors gain their social benefits (Homans, 1950; Lawler, 2001; Molm, 2003).

Other scholars argue that subordinate performance is the only benefit a supervisor needs. Rousseau (1998) claims that LMX relationships could exist simply as high pay for high

performance. In the latter case, LMX would be a transactional, or negotiated, exchange. According to Emerson (1981, p. 33), a negotiated exchange “involves mutually contingent contributions to the exchange with both contributions evolving together in some process.” A negotiated exchange could occur when a supervisor and subordinate negotiate over some issue, such as extra work for extra pay (Barbuto, 2005). Notably, neither party involved in a negotiated exchange fully trusts the other party to discharge the obligation without a prior agreement. Thus, exchange partners do not acquire social benefits in transactions because there is no trust or caring involved since neither partner is fully vested emotionally (Homans, 1974; Molm, 2003; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The level of care, transmitted through reciprocity, separates social exchange from transactional exchange.

The presence of a social exchange is a key assumption of LMX (and OCBs). Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995) suggest that full social exchanges emerge from transactions (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Organ, 1988; Liden et al., 1997; Bernerth et al., 2007b; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and include benefits and costs to both parties. Although scholars identify subordinate performance as a supervisor outcome in the exchange process, other supervisor social exchange benefits exist as well, including trust, affections, and esteem (Liden et al., 1997; Bernerth et al., 2007b). These alternative outcomes are significant because they help counterbalance the costs of social exchange and provide a rationale for why supervisors should socially exchange with certain subordinates (Homans, 1958; Lawler, 2001). Since these outcomes are *sui generis* to social but not transactional exchanges (Homans, 1974; Molm, 2003). If those benefits are thus, demonstrated, social exchange, rather than a transactional exchange, would be the theoretical basis of LMX.

Unlike a transactional exchange, social exchange leads to outcomes that include positive feelings and evaluations (van Breukelen et al., 2006). Individuals in the social exchange process develop feelings with both internal and external components to determine whether the exchange is profitable or costly (Lawler, 2001). If supervisors' inducements lead to contributions, supervisors (and their exchange partners) gain positive outcomes (Homans, 1950; Lawler, 2001; March & Simon, 1958). These outcomes may range from internal (e.g., evaluation of the supervisor's ability to fulfill his/her organizational role) to external (e.g., evaluation of the supervisor's exchange partners). Homans (1950) proposes that the development of positive relationships and the related positive feelings of liking, respect, trust, and pride are outcomes of individuals successfully engaging in social exchange. Homans also notes that members of established groups tend to spend a large amount of time with each other because they have a track record of successful social exchange and thus are reaping social benefits (Homans, 1950; Lawler, 2006).

Like groups, dyadic partners who have a close relationship will interact with each other more frequently. Individual dyads are often more influential and important in the exchange process than groups because exchanges within dyads produce stronger emotions (Homans, 1961). This phenomenon occurs partially due to increased closeness between dyad exchange partners in comparison to partners in a larger group, as individuals in a dyad cannot "free ride" as easily as they could in a group (Moreland, 2010). In addition, dyads produce stronger emotions because partners must directly relate to each other, leading to more frequent interactions as well as an increased ability to track what goes on in the relationship (Moreland, 2010). In reciprocal relationships, these feelings are quite strong since there is a great deal of trust and commitment involved (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1950; Lawler, 2001).

Feelings of trust will emerge because the individuals will have an understanding of two key attributes of the exchange. First, dyad exchange partners have a choice to exchange and, due to this choice, they influence outcomes from the exchange (Heider, 1958). In this case, social benefits will accrue due to the fact that supervisors and subordinates exchanged affiliation-type resources that are discretionary in nature. Second, because it is a dyad, each party is able to track the resources received from his/her partner and, from this tracking, feelings emerge (Heider, 1958). Thus, through this process individuals are able to develop attributions regarding the partner that signal to them whether the exchange is beneficial. In this case, because one party is providing affiliation for another, it should allow supervisors to track which subordinate is aiding them and which is not.

Influence of OCBs

My focus here on work outcomes for supervisors leads me also to focus on work-related behaviors among subordinates, not social-related or friendship-related behaviors. More specifically, I focus on OCBs rather than formal job performance because OCBs are more discretionary and thus more likely to generate an affective response (Organ et al., 2006). They are also more likely to have a clear target and clear antecedents (Lavelle et al., 2007). An additional reason for focusing on OCBs is that they are based on trust and cooperation and usually emerge from social exchanges. Yet, they remain something that matters to organizations (Organ, 1988; Organ et al., 2005). Simply put, OCBs more directly lead to attribution on the part of the supervisor, as they are “rewards” that come only from supervisors’ inducements, not from external elements like supervisors’ job performance or larger organizational inducements, which the supervisor may have difficulty tracking.

Discretionary behaviors, unlike job performance, are traceable and thus help individuals develop attributions (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1985, 1986). Homans (1950) and Emerson (1972a, 1972b) first describe and Lawler (2001) further develops a process in which resources must be exchanged for evaluations to be produced. According to Emerson's finding (1972a, 1972b), resources are behaviors that have value, and thus, commitment and job satisfaction are not considered resources as they are not distinctly behavioral (Lawler & Yoon, 1996; Lawler & Thye, 1999). Instead, they are the affective and cognitive responses to an exchange of resources/behaviors (Molm, 2003).

Satisfaction with subordinates

Job satisfaction is arguably the most researched concept in the organizational behavioral literature, with thousands of studies examining its importance (Spector, 1997) to a host of organizational outcomes, including increases in discretionary and pro-social behaviors, higher levels of motivation, and lower rates of tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover (Spector, 1997). By definition, job satisfaction is the general level of contentment and emotional satisfaction that individuals derive from their jobs (Spector, 1985). Job satisfaction inherently has affective, behavioral, and cognitive facets, and its multi-dimensionality includes factors such as promotion, pay, fringe benefits, communication, and more (Spector, 1985). In this case, I examine one particular domain of supervisor job satisfaction—satisfaction with the subordinate—because the subordinate's actions are a proximal antecedent to that domain.

Satisfaction with a subordinate is important because it helps determine the extent to which supervisors are willing to exchange in the future (Lawler, 2001). The more positive the response, the more likely that further exchange will occur in the future and be reinforced (Lawler, 2001). From the subordinate's perspective it provides the subordinate with an

inducement to exchange because satisfaction is signaled through body language and facial expressions (Frank, 1988). In a reciprocal exchange, A gives to B without immediately receiving anything other than a vague sense of gratification in return; reciprocation does not require immediate repayment (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). A ultimately carries out this exchange in the hope that he/she will receive something tangible from B in the future, but according to Frank (1988), the concept of gratitude or satisfaction that A feels nevertheless aids in the transaction. The satisfaction signaled to A is sufficient reward for A to continue the exchange because A receives symbolic value from this exchange (Molm, 2003). This signal can be as subtle as a simple look. This measure of gratitude produces pride on the part of the giver upon recognizing that he/she produced a positive impact on their partner, and this pride helps to produce future exchanges, since pride is a benefit that one can gain from the exchange (Lawler, 2001). Such pride would not be produced through a transactional exchange due to the fact that neither trust nor liking is part of the exchange (Homans, 1974).

Once a successful exchange has occurred—that is, once the reciprocal process has taken place—each individual involved in the exchange develops stronger evaluations of whether his/her partner is worthy of future exchanges (Homans, 1974). When the subordinate repays his/her supervisor with OCBs—the reciprocation of valued resources—the level of the supervisor’s satisfaction with his/her subordinate should increase (Lawler, 2001) because the supervisor has received a return on his/her initial investment. Since the supervisor may not be able to reciprocate immediately, this signal of satisfaction is sufficient to aid in the ongoing nature of the exchange (Lawler, 2001). In essence, this satisfaction completes a joint exchange. Similar to the exchange process described in Chapter One when the worker asks an expert for help, the worker does not have anything to exchange with the expert, outside of satisfaction and

compliments. In such an example, satisfaction aids in keeping the exchange positive (Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964).

Although scholars argue that supervisors interact with all subordinates, not all of these interactions are social exchanges. In fact, supervisors typically only engage in social exchanges with a choice few subordinates, with interactions with the remaining subordinates being purely economic in nature (Liden et al., 1997). This process occurs through positive exchanges that create positive feelings, which can be directed inwardly or outwardly. Positive feelings serve as an internal reinforcement mechanism that lets individuals know whether a relationship is important or beneficial enough to pursue (Lawler, 2006). Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 3: Supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) directed towards supervisors are positively related to supervisor-rated level of satisfaction with a subordinate.

Managerial self-efficacy (MSE)

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he/she is able to complete certain tasks, and it comes from an individual's perception of his/her environment (Bandura, 1977). Individuals undergo internal evaluations to estimate whether they can complete a task. Bandura (1986) states that individuals' self-efficacy should increase as they achieve success, as individuals change their internal evaluations based on this success. Managerial self-efficacy (MSE) is self-efficacy specifically pertaining to managerial duties (Robertson & Sadri, 1993). Simply put, MSE is the belief that supervisors can complete goals related to their role as supervisors (e.g., assigning work schedules) and is developed from supervisors' successful exchanges with subordinates. Although some scholars conceptualize self-efficacy as a trait, it also can be conceptualized as a state that emerges through interactions with the environment

(Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Locke, 2003). Because supervisors can increase their MSE through successful exchanges with subordinates (Robertson & Sadri, 1993), it is typically conceptualized as a state.

Supervisors develop their MSE through four mechanisms: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological factors (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1989). In social cognition theory, individuals interact with their environments and develop cognitions surrounding these activities (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1989). These cognitions are based on the concept of human agency. When individuals interact with their environments, their actions lead to generalizations regarding their ability to complete certain goals. If these generalizations are positive, individuals' motivation levels increase because they believe they are capable of completing certain tasks (Bandura & Locke, 2003). The primary and strongest mechanism of MSE development is mastery experience, which occurs when individuals achieve success (Mathieu, Martineau, & Tannenbaum, 1993). Repeated success increases MSE as supervisors consistently receive valued resources from social exchange (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1989). Success influences efficacy perceptions because long-term exchanges tend to be successful and because success is based on an individual's agency (Emerson, 1981; Molm, 2003).

Homans (1950) argues that individuals in groups often gain a sense of pride and confidence in their own abilities because exchanges between group members are successful and the individuals wish to maintain these successful relationships in the future. Accordingly, individuals often attribute success to their own actions (Weiner, 1985, 1986). Because OCBs go above and beyond basic job performance, they are, in essence, an enactive mastery for supervisors (Organ, 1988). Therefore, supervisors can partially attribute the OCB performance of

their subordinates to their own actions. Such attribution in turn leads supervisors to believe that they have achieved a success.

Supervisors' sense of pride is important because self-efficacy increases motivation. Specifically, self-efficacy motivates action in three ways (Bandura, 1997). First, individuals who have high self-efficacy believe they can take on added challenges, and thus it follows that supervisors are more likely to undertake behaviors for which they have a high level of MSE. Second, the higher the MSE of the supervisor, the more likely he or she is to participate in behaviors that are more difficult and challenging, thereby increasing their own performance. Third, high MSE leads supervisors to see more solutions for their problems, thereby reducing their stress. Overall, because they feel more confident that they can complete difficult tasks, supervisors with higher degrees of MSE set higher goals and take on challenging tasks.

Because supervisors and subordinates begin exchanging as soon as the relationship commences (Bernerth et al., 2007b), it is often difficult to determine whether the successful exchange (i.e., social support for OCBs) is due to actions of the supervisor or the subordinate. The actual behavior of the subordinate through the successful exchange of resources—not the perception of subordinate reciprocation—leads to an increase in MSE. Simply put, success increases self-efficacy. Because LMX measures the supervisor's perception that his/her subordinate will reciprocate, and because this perception is based on subordinate characteristics (van Breukelen et al., 2006; Dulebohn et al., 2012), it seems erroneous to suggest a direct relationship between supervisor LMX and MSE. Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 4: Supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) directed towards supervisors are positively related to the supervisor-rated level of managerial self-efficacy (MSE).

Organizational-based self-esteem (OBSE)

Organizational-based self-esteem (OBSE) is the extent to which organizational agents believe that the organization fulfills their needs through their roles in the organization (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989). It is important to clarify here that self-efficacy and self-esteem are not one and the same. Instead, self-efficacy refers to the ability of individuals to achieve certain goals, and self-esteem refers to the degree to which individuals perceive their worth within an organization. Applying these differences to the workplace, MSE is the extent to which supervisors believe they can achieve certain goals in carrying out their managerial duties (e.g., scheduling), and OBSE is the extent to which supervisors feel valued by the organization or its agents.

Supervisors with high levels of OBSE want to engage in valued workplace activities as a means of demonstrating their abilities (Pierce et al., 1989; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Furthermore, individuals with high levels of OBSE are more motivated, are better organizational members, and are more willing to stay within the organization due to their higher degree of self-confidence (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Scholars report that individuals with high levels of OBSE also have high levels of job performance, job satisfaction, citizenship behaviors, and organizational satisfaction (Pierce & Gardner, 2004) and, based on these findings, conclude that building OBSE within organizational members is desirable and necessary for the proper maintenance and functioning of organizations (Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

There are several important antecedents to OBSE: organizational structure, success-building conditions, organizational culture, and interpersonal relationships (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Scholars note that individual levels of OBSE rise when individuals exchange valued resources successfully. Therefore, the successful completion of exchanges leads to higher levels

of OBSE as individuals' esteem increases through their social interactions (Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Gardner & Pierce, 1998). This occurs in part as an internal reinforcement mechanism that encourages individuals to understand that the relationship is beneficial (Lawler, 2001). Ultimately, supervisors' OBSE increases because supervisors gain something of value (e.g., OCBs) from their exchanges with subordinates (Pierce et al., 1989). OBSE measures the supervisor's evaluation of how the organization treats them.

To determine how the organization treats employees, individuals scan for signals of appreciation and, when finding such signals, gain self-esteem (Korman, 1970, 1971, 1976). More specifically, the individuals then use signals of appreciation to gauge whether their actions have implications that can be attributed to their behavior. If so, then theoretically the individuals' belief in themselves (or self-esteem) increases because they have achieved a success. Accordingly, these "signals" come from social exchanges. Individuals derive a sense of pride from their group interactions in part because they find enjoyment in group membership (Homans, 1950; Lawler, 2001). As Korman (1976) suggests, the behaviors of an individual's significant other (i.e., someone that the individual values, such as the agents of the organization) can lead to an increase in the individual's self-esteem for at least two reasons. First, these behaviors suggest that the individual is a valued member of the organization, and second, these behaviors occur within the organizational context. Thus, the behaviors of subordinates similarly can lead to an increase in a supervisor's OBSE by letting the supervisor know that he/she is supported and appreciated. However, because supervisor-rated LMX measures the supervisor's perception of the social exchange relationship, it is a perception and not a behavior. And since Korman (1976) and Pierce and Gardner (2004) suggest that behaviors, not perceptions, lead to an

increase in OBSE, OCBs will be the behavior that informs supervisors that they are appreciated by their subordinates. I propose the following:

Hypothesis 5: Supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) directed towards supervisors are positively related to the supervisor-rated level of organizational-based self-esteem (OBSE).

Overall Model

In this section, I answer scholars' calls for a process approach to social exchange by delineating a model for tracking and analyzing the interaction between supervisor-subordinate dyads (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). I provide both a descriptive framework and explanation for the model. The model addresses the questions proposed in Chapter One regarding an understanding (or lack thereof) of supervisor benefits in social exchange, including what benefits supervisors gain, the source of benefits, and what is being exchanged for the benefits. In brief, the process described in this section begins with the supervisor's level of social attraction with their subordinate. Based on this attraction, the supervisor decides to exchange with the subordinate. When the subordinate reciprocates based on the resource received from the supervisor, the supervisor's receipt of the resource will lead to the experience of social benefits.

The first step of the model is supervisor-rated LMX, which is simply the supervisor's expectation that the subordinate will reciprocate (Blau, 1964; Bernerth et al., 2007). If a supervisor has a high enough social attraction to the subordinate, the supervisor may wish to exchange with the subordinate to gain benefits that extend beyond the normal supervisor-subordinate relationship (Biddle, 1986). The supervisor then takes steps to provide a gift to the subordinate (e.g., social support) because he/she believes exchanging with the subordinate will

be more rewarding than costly (Homans, 1958). The benefits gained from the exchange will come either from benefits of association, such as social benefits (Homans, 1950), or the use of power to gain resources (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b).

One social benefit that managers may use to gain benefits is social support. Social support is a discretionary resource because it exists outside of the normal supervisor job requirement (Biddle, 1979). Thus, supervisors will not have this same relationship with each subordinate. Instead, supervisors will have close relationships with some subordinates and distant, formal relationships with others. In addition, like resources are more likely to be exchanged between supervisors and subordinates because some resources imply a degree of closeness or levels of feelings and others do not (Foa & Foa, 1976; 1980). For example, if a supervisor provides a resource that is work-based and possesses affective characteristics, the supervisor will then receive similar benefits in return when the resource is reciprocated from his/her subordinate (Foa & Foa, 1976, 1980; Emerson, 1981). Social support is also significant in a supervisor-subordinate exchange because it helps determine the source and type of resources a supervisor will receive in return, since the supervisor's resources are assumed to be valuable and rare (Foa, 1976, 1980). Resources confer power, so supervisors will only enter into relationships with certain subordinates because controlling (and, thus, selectively providing) resources determines power.

The notion that the level of benefits a supervisor receives is in some way a function of the benefits the supervisor provides is also a necessary consideration when evaluating supervisors' actions and subsequent benefits. This consideration arises from the inducements and contributions framework (March & Simon, 1958) and is also consistent with the social exchange framework (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). A subordinate's expanding of his/her work

responsibilities through gaining resources is important from the subordinate's perspective because a relationship should be rewarding, not costly (Homans, 1961). Further motivation for the subordinate to contribute arises from the amount of resources provided to the subordinate, as social exchange theory stipulates an increasing frequency between resources offered and benefits returned. In this case, the subordinate will provide more benefits so the relationship may be rewarding for the supervisor (Homans, 1961), and these extra benefits helps offset the cost the supervisor incurs from the exchange (Homans, 1961). Finally, high levels of interaction between supervisor and subordinate are critical to the extension of the relationship, as this interaction will produce more opportunities for both parties to evaluate the relationship and, as a result, develop strong feelings (Homans, 1950).

The benefit the subordinate provides to the supervisor plays a key role in the second step of the model. As mentioned above, behaviors serve as a source of psychological benefits for supervisors (Lawler, 2001; Molm, 2003). This is due in part to the process involved in the exchange, as reciprocity is associated with feelings of trust and care (Molm, 2003). Although some scholars may change the direction of the arrow between OCBs and supervisor-rated LMX (placing the former before the latter; Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Basu & Green, 1995; Erdogan & Liden, 2002), these traditional social exchange scholars note that the party with the least resources will be more likely to initiate the exchange in the hopes of gaining access to the superior resources of his/her partner (Emerson, 1972b; Homans, 1974). These theorists suggest that subordinate provided OCBs should be the conduit to social exchange, rather than supervisor-rated LMX. In my model, I place OCBs after LMX and social support for several compelling reasons, including evaluations of the exchange, reinforcement considerations, and power differences.

Social exchange requires both parties to exchange with each other and to reinforce each other's behavior (Homans, 1961). Thus, a social exchange occurs when behaviors are mutually reinforced through a series of contingent exchanges, making motivation and timing important elements of exchange. The first step in social exchange is a belief that behaviors will be reciprocated despite a lack of guarantee of this reciprocation (Blau, 1964). Thus, from the supervisor's perspective, he/she must decide if the subordinate truly desires a social exchange relationship or if instead the subordinate's behaviors are due to other motivations that will not prove beneficial to the supervisor.

As an example of motivations that lie outside of social exchange, some subordinates may provide OCBs due to norms of the organization or work group (Organ, 1988) because if they do not perform OCBs, they could face sanctions from other group members (Blau, 1964). Such an exchange would not constitute a direct social exchange relationship with the supervisor because there is no subordinate-supervisor interaction. In this context, an interaction is defined as a behavior that serves as a stimulus for receiving behaviors on the part of the exchange partner (Homans, 1961). Somewhat similarly, a man may give money to a homeless person due to a general societal norm that states that the strong should help the weak (Blau, 1964). Unless the homeless man reciprocates, this exchange would be considered an altruistic, not social, exchange because there is no mutually reinforcing behavior (Mises, 1998). In addition, social exchange is based on interactions between individuals and not norms, making it sub-institutional (Homans, 1961, 1974).

In addition, impression management is not a valid motivator for social exchange. Bolino (1999) argues that subordinates engage in impression management behaviors as a means of gaining access to resources, although he notes the similarity of impression management to OCB

measures. As Blau (1964) points out, such calculated impression management behavior does not engender social exchange because it implies that the subordinate does not actually care for the supervisor and thus cannot be counted on to exchange with unspecified benefits and with an unspecified end date. In addition, given the supervisor's level of power, the supervisor can gain resources through his/her position, which would not be social exchange since there may be coercion or negotiation involved (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1981).

In addition, Illies et al. (2007) found, via meta-analytic results, that OCBs directed toward the organization have a weaker relationship with LMX than OCBs directed toward the supervisor. An explanation for this finding comes from Emerson (1972a, 1972b), who theorizes that reinforcement on the part of one party creates both an obligation to reciprocate and develop a relationship. If one party is using reinforcement to ensure resources from another, the relationship between the parties is shifted from one of indifference to one of exchange (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b). In this case, the subordinate is obligated through receiving social support from their supervisor. In addition, Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) found that individuals separate the support they receive from supervisors from the support they receive from organizations, indicating they are able to track behaviors from different parties. One potential explanation is that in social exchanges (given their personal nature) partners have high degree of locus when it comes to resources (Lawler, 2001).

In the aforementioned example of the homeless person, social exchange would occur if the homeless person expressed gratitude to the man who helped him. Thus, it is the interaction between the subordinate and the supervisor where the social exchange occurs (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b), and furthermore, one party needs to determine that their behavior will be reciprocated before this interaction can even occur (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1972a, 1972b). It could be argued

that OCBs to the supervisor could be a method to improve LMX relationships. Yet, evidence on this regard is not as strong because performance does not seem to be an important indicator of LMX in comparison with other variables, such as similarity (Liden et al., 1993). When the theoretical basis of LMX migrated from role theory to social exchange, scholars understood that the exchange process could begin without role-making (Bernerth et al., 2006). In fact, evidence suggesting a direct relationship between OCBs and LMX is so broad that Basu and Green (1994) limit the scope of OCBs to only those carried out toward supervisors/coworkers. In addition, scholars argue that OCBs come from unique antecedents and have unique targets (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Lavelle et al., 2007), and antecedents such as personality and perceived similarity tend to be stronger predictors for LMX relationships (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Moving forward, supervisor behaviors both obligate the subordinate to respond and influence the type of response the supervisor will receive in return (Organ et al., 2006; Lavelle et al., 2007). A partial explanation for this phenomenon comes from expectancy theory, which states that people will perform behaviors that they believe will provide a reward (Vroom, 1964). In other words, a supervisor will reward a subordinate due to the subordinate's behavior, and that reward will signal to the subordinate what the supervisor values (Organ et al., 2006). Furthermore, social support from the supervisor provides the subordinate with a belief that their behaviors will be reciprocated, making it even more likely that the subordinate will exchange with the supervisor (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b).

Finally, given the hierarchical and resource powers that a supervisor possesses, the supervisor must be the party that changes the terms of the relationship (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b). When the supervisor and subordinate engage in an exchange, the nature of the relationship between the two parties shifts because the presence of rewards from the supervisor

communicates what he/she desires and creates a sense of closeness between the supervisor and the subordinate (Foa & Foa, 1976, 1980; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As Fiske (1991) notes, reciprocal exchanges of in-kind payments usually occur between equals rather than parties of unequal power or authority because coercion could be used to gain rewards in the latter situation (Molm, 1997). Thus, the relationship here is balanced reciprocity due to the exchange of like resources. The reason suggested is that such a relationship entails a degree of closeness in the relationship, which is a familiarity of consistent exchanging and the development of dyadic dependence (Emerson, 1972a, 1972b; Fiske, 1991; Napier, & Ferris, 1993; Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). In this case, the subordinate's granting of OCBs to the supervisor suggests a transformed, close relationship between the two parties (Foa & Foa, 1976 1980; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) in which the subordinate is aware of what the supervisor is experiencing and how to perform (Organ et al., 2006). As Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005) write, different resources are exchanged at different frequencies, with some resources only exchanged in close relationships and the social support offered by the supervisor changing the relationship.

Simply put, a subordinate's behavioral interaction with his/her supervisor determines the benefits the supervisor may receive from the relationship (Homans, 1950; Lawler, 2001). Behavioral interactions create non-separability between exchange partners, which allows the partners to form evaluations of the exchange (Lawler, 2001). Subordinates also demonstrate care and trust for their supervisor through reciprocation, because this reciprocation is the result of a conscious choice on behalf of the subordinate. Because transactional exchanges, such as higher pay for higher levels of work, do not inherently involve reciprocity on behalf of the subordinate, the relationships derived from these exchanges do not move beyond instrumentality (Molm, Schaefer, & Collett, 2007).

To summarize, since the exchange is positive, and since behaviors between parties can be tracked, if the supervisor has a positive exchange with their subordinate then they should have positive evaluations. Thus, I propose the following (see Figure 1):

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between supervisor-rated LMX and supervisor-rated satisfaction with subordinate is mediated through subordinate-rated social support and supervisor-rated OCBs directed towards the supervisor.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between supervisor-rated LMX and supervisor-rated MSE is mediated through subordinate-rated social support and supervisor-rated OCBs directed towards the supervisor.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between supervisor-rated LMX and supervisor-rated OBSE is mediated through subordinate-rated social support and supervisor-rated OCBs directed towards the supervisor.

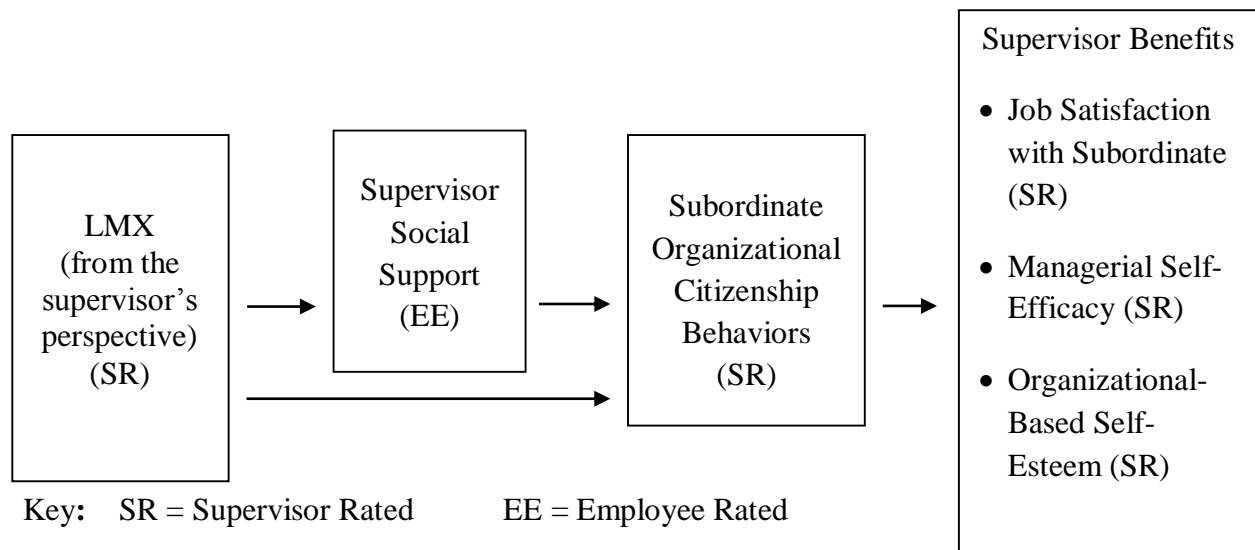


Figure 1 - How Supervisors Accrue Benefits in LMX – Proposed Relationships

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

I conducted a two-phase study to test the hypotheses. In doing so, I looked to the recommendations of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) to control for common method variance, and also sampled from multiple sources at different times. Participants were recruited by undergraduate students from management classes at a large southern public university. Students received extra credit in exchange for participating, and students who chose not to participate received alternative extra credit opportunities in the interest of equity. The students involved in the study provided contact information for supervisors with whom they were familiar. I then solicited data from the supervisors who worked greater than 30 hours per week and who currently supervised at least three employees. Self-employed supervisors were not included.

In the first phase of my study, I sent a survey to the aforementioned supervisors, asking them to provide, among other things, contact information for three subordinates of their choosing: one above average, one average, and one below average in performance. Each subordinate for whom a supervisor provided information was sent a separate email inviting him/her to participate in the study. Although I collected data from each subordinate, I ultimately used a random number generator to select only one subordinate to analyze for each supervisor. This approach enabled to avoid the possibility that supervisors would disproportionately select only one kind of employee to participate (e.g., their best performing employees), thereby increasing the likelihood that I would obtain variation in measures of variables such as LMX. In addition, this approach allowed me to avoid the issues associated with nested data that would have been present had I analyzed responses from multiple subordinates for each supervisor.

Whereas the initial survey sent to the supervisors also assessed supervisor-rated LMX for each subordinate, the subordinate surveys captured their ratings of supervisor-provided social support. In a second survey sent to the supervisors approximately two weeks after the first, I asked the supervisors to provide OCB ratings for each subordinate and assessed the outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, MSE, and OBSE). For all surveys, I followed up with reminder emails to increase the participation rates of those who did not respond to the initial contact messages.

In designing the study, I took several measures to ensure data quality, accuracy, and integrity. First, student recruiters did not contact the supervisors who were nominated to participate but, instead, strictly provided contact information for them. I also informed the subordinates and supervisors that their responses are kept confidential, and the student recruiters, subordinates, or supervisors who did not provide or verify their contact information were deleted from the data set before I conducted the final analysis. In addition, I did not employ “spamming” techniques in deploying each phase of the survey, but instead sent out personally addressed emails to all supervisor participants.

For privacy purposes, I deleted identifying characteristics such as names and contact information of student recruiters, subordinates, and supervisors from the dataset at the conclusion of the study. All respondents were also notified that individual data points will be accessible only to my dissertation co-chairs and myself. No one else, including students, subordinates, or supervisors, will have access to this information. In addition, only aggregate data will be reported in any publication or presentation, and I will delete all data after seven years.

Appropriateness of the Sample

To adequately measure variables like OCBs, data from multiple organizations is needed because organizational demands or individual similarities may influence whether subordinates perform such behaviors (Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998; Organ & McFall, 2004; Organ et al., 2006). Obtaining a large data sample encompassing a wide variety of jobs aids in examining whether behaviors are truly discretionary or are influenced by the organization. The use of a targeted sample is appropriate when a large, diverse sample is needed and also helps avoid issues such as nesting and non-independence (Watters & Biernacki, 1989). Accordingly, targeted sampling is commonplace in the LMX literature either as a primary or secondary study (Schriesheim et al., 2011; Zhou & Schriesheim, 2010; Sin et al., 2009; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Deluga, 1994; Deluga & Perry, 1994; Deluga, 1998; Judge & Bono, 2000; Bernerth et al., 2007a). Each of these studies involves the collection of a wide diversity of dyads (or individuals) from multiple organizations, ranging from professional sports organizations to energy corporations.

Targeted sampling is commonly used to examine differences between supervisor and subordinate LMX agreement and divergence as well as personality and LMX. This is particularly important for several reasons. First, as Blau (1964) notes, social conditions can have a significant influence on behaviors. Research indicates that both organizational and job characteristics influence the exchange of OCBs between subordinates and the organization or supervisors (Organ et al., 2006). Second, the collection of data from multiple subordinates of the same supervisor will create independence issues. Furthermore, targeted sampling has been used to obtain sufficient data samples for a variety of organizations and industries (Ashforth, Kreiner, Clark, & Fugate, 2007; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). In addition, the estimates provided will be

conservative since those with higher quality relationships will be more likely to participate (Deluga & Perry 1994). As such, the likelihood of type I error is decreased because the data should have a slight negative skew and a truncated data range (Deluga & Perry, 1994). In sum, given the large sample requirements and that the model works best by examining a wide variety of jobs, targeted sampling is the appropriate methodology for this study.

Measures

Supervisor-rated LMX

For supervisor-rated LMX, I adopted the Bernerth et al. (2007b) measure, which is based on the social exchange between a supervisor and subordinate (Schyns & Day, 2010). Whereas previous measures were based on role theory, Bernerth et al. (2007b) employs a measure rooted in social exchange theory, and especially Blau (1964) (Schyns & Day, 2010). A recent meta-analysis by Dulebohn et al. (2012) argues that the Bernerth et al. measure is the best option because it reflects a social exchange perspective better than other measures of LMX. In addition, following previous methods (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim et al., 2011), I have adapted the Bernerth measure to fit the supervisor's perspective. A sample item is as follows: "My subordinate and I have a two-way exchange relationship." The rating is on a seven-point Likert scale, with 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree."

Employee-rated social support

I used Abbey, Abramis, and Caplan's (1985) measure of social support, which is comprised of six items. A sample item is as follows: "treated you with respect." The response scale for this measure is a seven-point Likert-type scale, with 1 being "A Few Times a Year or Less" and 7 being "Every Day."

Supervisor-rated OCBI

Williams and Anderson (1991) report that OCBs load on two separate factors representing citizenship directed toward individuals (OCBI) and citizenship directed toward the organization (OCBO). OCB researchers (Lavelle et al., 2007) argue that OCBI consist of three targets: coworkers, customers, and supervisors. For the present study, a measure of OCBI directed at the supervisor is needed. I used Rupp and Cropanzano's (2002) five-item measure of supervisor-directed OCBs. A sample item is as follows: "takes a personal interest in you." The rating scale for this measure is a seven-point Likert scale, with 1 being "A Few Times a Year or Less" and 7 being "Every Day."

Supervisor-rated OBSE

I used Pierce et al.'s (1989) ten-item measure of organizational-based self-esteem. A sample item for this measure is as follows: "I count around here." The rating scale used in this measure is a seven-point Likert scale, with 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree."

Supervisor-rated MSE

I used Robertson and Sadri's (1993) eleven-item measure of MSE. A sample item for this measure is as follows: "When making your best effort, would you have time to schedule work for subordinates?" The rating scale used in this measure is a seven-point Likert-type scale, with 1 being "To a Very Small Extent" and 7 being "To a Very Great Extent."

Supervisor-rated subordinate satisfaction

I modified Spector's (1985) four-item measure of job satisfaction with the co-worker to examine the satisfaction that supervisors gain from their subordinates. A representative item

from this measure is as follows: “I like my subordinate.” The rating is on a seven-point Likert scale, with 1 being “Strongly Disagree” and 7 being “Strongly Agree.”

Controls

It is important to note that the supervisor/subordinate dyad is merely a relationship within a larger network within a chain of relationships. Becker (2005) and Breugh (2008) urge that relevant theoretical arguments and empirical evidence should be used to eliminate potential nuisance or confounding factors. Because I examine social exchange relationships, it is necessary for me to consider what such relationships entail. Emerson (1972a, 1972b) defines a social exchange relationship as an ongoing interaction between actors A and B, in which this interaction is a mutually reinforcing series of exchanges that is profitable for both actors. Furthermore, Emerson also notes that this exchange relationship occurs within a larger exchange network, which is a series of opportunities for exchange between more than two actors. An exchange network will be present when actors A, B, C, etc. are present, rather than just A and B. In this case, the benefits that a supervisor would gain from a subordinate would be based on his other exchange partners, which would include his/her other subordinates as well as his/her relationship with his/her supervisor.

Among the theoretical influences on social exchange theory are economics and reinforcement (Homans, 1958). The interplay of supply and demand can clarify how supervisors and subordinates exchange because supply and demand helps to determine the relative value of objects by determining the scarcity of a given resource (Homans, 1974). For instance, the lower the supply of resources, the higher the relative value; conversely, the greater the demand, the higher the relative value. Other exchange partners will influence what supervisors can gain from the exchange, since they are simultaneously sources and recipients of resources from the

supervisor as well (Major & Morganson, 2011; Day, Sin, & Chen, 2004; Wilson et al., 2010; Sondak, Neale, & Pinkey, 1995). As the availability of exchange partners increases, the frequency of exchange with any one partner will be lower, and because lowering the frequency of the exchange influences what benefits supervisors can gain either instrumentally or personally from a source, the frequency creates problems tracking the resource to a single source (Lawler, 2001; Homans, 1950).

As a result, scholars cite the need to further examine how social factors influence supervisor/subordinate dyads in the exchange of resources, as this exchange influences benefits (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Some recent research, such as the findings of Tangirala, Green, and Ramanujan (2007), suggests that supervisor/subordinate dyads are influenced by external relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al., 1997; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Specifically, Tangirala et al. (2007) uncover that the relationship between LMX and perceived organizational support (POS), organizational identification, and depersonalization is moderated by the supervisor's relationship with their supervisor (the supervisor's LMX) such that the relationships were stronger when the supervisor's LMX was higher. This finding can be explained by the likelihood that the supervisor has access to greater resources due to his/her high-quality relationship with his/her own supervisor.

Although I do not specifically examine how these factors influence the dyad, I nonetheless control for factors related to them to have a better understanding of the dyad itself. Specifically, I control for supervisor span of control, average LMX across the three subordinates, and leader-leader exchange (LLX). Span of control is defined as the number of subordinates for whom the supervisor is responsible (Schriesheim & Murphy, 1976; Hill & Hoskisson, 1987).

Average LMX is the average rating of the three subordinates and as such influences the extent to which a supervisor can exchange with other subordinates. In addition, the focal supervisor exchanges with his/her supervisor (the leader of the leader) to create a LLX relationship. Naturally, this relationship assumes that the supervisor has a supervisor. If the supervisor has no supervisor, then the supervisor him/herself would determine available resources.

To summarize, LMX requires time (Dansereau et al., 1975), effort (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001), and other resources since relationships need investments to develop (Liden et al., 2000; Homans, 1950, 1961), and a supervisor with a large span of control may have less time and energy to offer each individual. Based on these exchanges, individuals will gain certain positive feelings because social exchanging leads to positive notions, which in turn leads to future exchanges. A person with a high LLX may have more opportunities to exchange because he/she has greater resources or may spend more time with his/her supervisor. In addition, LMX relationships within the group suggest that the influence of a single subordinate will be lessened due to greater opportunities for exchanging with other subordinates.

Supervisor-rated LLX. Because I defined LMX as the social exchange between leader and member, I used Bernerth's (2007b) eight-item measure of LMX to assess LLX as well. This measure is one of the few measures of LMX to examine the relationship from a social exchange perspective (Bernerth et al., 2007b; Schyns & Day, 2010). A sample item from the measure is as follows: "My supervisor and I have a two-way exchange relationship." The measure uses a seven-point Likert rating scale, with 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree."

Supervisor-rated span of control. To assess the supervisor's span of control, I used the method employed by Spreitzer (1996) and Hill and Hoskisson (1987), namely asking supervisors how many subordinates they currently supervise.

Average LMX. For average supervisor-rated LMX, I adopted the Bernerth (2007b) measure, which is based on the social exchange between a supervisor and subordinate (Schyns & Day, 2010). In addition, following previous methods (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim et al., 2011), I have adapted the measure to fit the supervisor's perspective. A sample item is as follows: "My subordinates and I have a two-way exchange relationship." The measure employs a seven-point Likert rating scale, with 1 being "Strongly Disagree" and 7 being "Strongly Agree."

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSES AND RESULTS

In this study, 391 students nominated 481 supervisors from a variety of industries and corporations, and of those nominated, 438 (91.06%) provided complete information for the first supervisor survey as well as contact information for 3 subordinates (above average, average, and below average). Two weeks later, 390 supervisors (89.04% of 438) responded to the second supervisor survey. At the same time (two weeks), a subordinate survey was sent to 1444 subordinates, and 867 (60.04%) responded with useable data. 784 complete supervisor/subordinate dyads were obtained. Of the dyads, 282 included subordinates identified by the supervisor as above average, 258 were with average subordinates, and 244 included those who were below average.

The program used to collect data (Qualtrics) is designed to provide unique survey links to each survey participant. Despite this constraint, a number of respondents (n=257) completed the survey from identical IP addresses. Since a variety of industries were surveyed, not all participants had access to private personal computers. Identical IP addresses may be due to survey links accessed via a shared network or shared computers. Computers within the same network (likely in the same workplace) may have the same IP address depending on how the network was designed. Due to the volume of respondents using the Qualtrics online system, it was not uncommon for the survey to freeze during the survey instrument creating duplicate IP addresses when respondents restarted the survey. If the respondent starts the survey and then later reopens the same survey link to finish the survey, multiple survey entries may be created from the same IP address. Before identifying characteristics were removed, each duplicate IP address was examined to determine if the survey entry was an actual duplicate or a valid survey entry by examining the respondents' email addresses, first and last names, and survey responses.

Survey entries with duplicate IP addresses and duplicate email addresses were examined to determine if the respondent's first name, last name, and survey data were identical. Survey entries from duplicate IP and email addresses with different respondent email addresses, first and last names, and different survey data were considered valid. Survey entries from duplicate IP and email addresses containing duplicate data were deleted (n=197), and unique survey entries (n=60) contributed to the 784 complete dyads.

Data was then examined for data integrity, general errors, and careless responding. To ensure data integrity, 34 respondents reported that they either did not work 30 hours a week, managed less than three employees, or were less than 18 years of age and therefore removed from the study. Frequency analysis was performed for general errors on age, organization tenure, and job tenure to identify clearly wrong responses (e.g., age = 7000). As a result, 51 additional respondent surveys were removed from the dataset. The data set was then examined for careless responding to see if respondents provided the same response for all the items. Meade and Craig (2012) argued for the use of one or more "instructed response items" (e.g., Please answer "all of the above" to this question). Eliminating cases in which respondents answered instructed response items incorrectly resulted in another 101 respondents deleted from the dataset. In total, 186 respondent surveys were deleted for data integrity, general errors, and careless responding (23.72% of 784).

Qualtrics allows researchers access to the email addresses of the supervisors and subordinates. A small sample of the emails (less than 5 percent) was examined to determine whether the emails came from legitimate sources. For instance, email addresses were verified through the internet to ensure they were from valid organizations. It was determined whether legitimate email addresses were provided for both the supervisors and subordinates. Although

there is no foolproof way to fully confirm whether surveys were completed by the correct respondents, the following sample is considered clean and consists of individuals who provided useful and useable information. The checks of IP addresses, careless and inaccurate responding, as well as checking email addresses provides some rigor in determining the viability of the sample. Cleaning the data and removing cases with missing or careless responding produced a useable sample of 598 supervisor-subordinate dyads (76.28% of 784).

Because supervisors had multiple subordinates, problems of dependence between respondents were possible. To deal with this issue, a random number generator was used to select one subordinate for each supervisor to create a reduced number of dyads that would be used for hypothesis testing. Once a subordinate was selected from a supervisor, the rest of the supervisor's respondents were eliminated from consideration. The final number of supervisor-subordinate dyads that were selected was 232, consisting of 82 above average, 64 average, and 86 below average subordinates. The subordinates selected were found to be trisected comparably between the three ranges of subordinates. I ran t-tests to determine if there was a statistical difference between the demographics of those who were not selected and those who were selected, no statistical difference was found.

Nonetheless, both supervisors and subordinates seem more willing to respond when the subordinate is of better quality. During the subordinate nomination process several supervisors declined to nominate below average subordinates, claiming they had no below average subordinates or the below average employees had been dismissed. In turn, below average subordinates were less likely to respond and complete the survey than above average subordinates. As such, the estimates provided will be conservative and will decrease the chances

of Type I error, since the data should have a slight negative skew and a truncated data range (Deluga & Perry, 1994). Table 1 provides relevant information regarding supervisor and

Table 1 - Sample Characteristics

	Subordinates		Supervisors	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age (years)	37.13	13.89	46.13	11.32
Position tenure (years)	5.81	6.73	13.35	10.11
Relationship (tenure)	4.57	5.42	4.27	4.64
Average hours worked per	38.70	11.50	47.36	8.96
Gender (%)				
Male (1)	44.0		59.1	
Female (2)	56.0		41.0	
No Response	0		0	
Race (%)				
White	78.9		85.8	
Non-white	21.1		14.2	
No response	0		0	

Note. *n*=232

subordinate dyads in terms of demographics. The majority of supervisors in the useable sample were male (59.1%) and white (85.8%). Of note here is that the supervisors tend to be male, but the subordinates female. Perhaps this finding could be the result of a sex bias in promotion of managers. Supervisors had a mean age of 46.13 years, worked for the organization an average of 13.35 years, and managed their present subordinate for an average of 4.27 years. The average subordinate was female (56.0%) and white (78.9%). Subordinates had a mean age of 37.13 years, worked for the organization 5.81 years on average, and had worked for their current supervisor 4.57 years on average.

Examination of the respondents' demographics demonstrates that the average supervisor tended to be older and have longer tenure within the organization than the average subordinate. This is not surprising since supervisors tend to be promoted in the organization or potentially have had careers in other organizations. Table 1 indicates there is minor incongruence in

supervisor and subordinate reported tenure within the dyad (4.57 years for the subordinate and 4.27 years for the supervisor). Supervisors and subordinates may have remembered differently when either was hired or joined the dyad. For instance, does the probationary period count for a worker or supervisor? In this case, the difference was a small one and suggestive of a relationship where both parties have established ongoing patterns of interaction.

Respondents worked in a wide variety of fields and professions as indicated in Table 2. Healthcare, sales, and finance were the three most common field categories. There likewise were

Table 2 - Job Classifications

		Subordinates		Supervisors	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1.	Architecture and Engineering	10	4.3	16	6.9
2.	Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and	10	4.3	11	4.7
3.	Building and Grounds Cleaning and	0	0.0	0	0.0
4.	Business and Financial Operations	22	9.5	26	11.
5.	Community and Social Services	4	1.7	2	0.9
6.	Computer and Mathematical	3	1.3	1	0.4
7.	Construction and Extraction	9	3.9	13	5.6
8.	Education, Training, and Library	12	5.2	15	6.5
9.	Farming, Fishing, and Forestry	0	0.0	0	0.0
10.	Food Preparation and Serving Related	15	6.5	13	5.6
11.	Healthcare Practitioners and Technicians	24	10.3	24	10.
12.	Healthcare Support	10	4.3	10	4.3
13.	Installation, Maintenance, and Repair	4	1.7	2	0.9
14.	Legal	15	6.5	15	6.5
15.	Life, Physical, and Social Science	1	0.4	1	0.4
16.	Management	10	4.3	13	5.6
17.	Military Specific	0	0.0	2	0.9
18.	Office and Administrative Support	8	3.4	3	1.3
19.	Personal Care and Service	3	1.3	5	2.2
20.	Production	14	6.0	10	4.3
21.	Protective Service	1	0.4	1	0.4
22.	Sales and Related	36	15.5	35	15.
23.	Transportation and Material Moving	14	6.0	10	4.3
	No Response	7	3.0	4	1.7

Note. n=232

some slight differences in the job classification table between supervisors and subordinates. An explanation could be careless responding or that supervisors/subordinates perceive the industry differently. For example, a financial analyst at a hospital could have appropriately responded that he/she was employed in either financial operations or healthcare. In addition there was little difference in terms of job classifications between those subordinates who were selected for analysis and those who were not.

Tests of Construct Validity

AMOS 21 (Arbuckle, 2013) was used to estimate separate confirmatory factor models for both supervisor- and subordinate-rated constructs. To assess overall fit, I used the three measures of SEM fit recommended by Kline (2005). This advice is consistent with the advice of Hair et al. (2006), who argued that fit should be assessed by adopting a holistic approach. Kline (2005) and Hair et al. (2006) recommended a selection of one goodness of fit measure, one badness of fit measure, an absolute measure of fit, and an incremental measure of fit. First, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was selected because it has a known distribution that corrects for the chi-square distribution's sensitivity to large sample sizes and large numbers of variables. RMSEA is an absolute badness of fit measure. Following conventional norms (Hair et al., 2006), I considered a model with a RMSEA of less than .10 to have acceptable fit, with an RMSEA of less than .08 preferred. Second, the comparative fit index (CFI) is both a goodness of fit measure and an incremental measure of fit. The CFI compares the relative improvement in fit of the hypothesized model with that of a baseline model, the latter of which assumes zero population covariances among the observed variables. A CFI greater than .90 is considered acceptable fit (Hair et al., 2006). Third, the standardized root mean residual (SRMR) is a standardized measure of the mean residual correlation, and it assesses the difference between the

observed and the predicted outcomes. SRMR is a badness of fit measure. A SRMR less than .08 indicates acceptable fit (Hair et al., 2006).

Since the subordinate-rated measurement model is a single measure, the determination of construct validity is easier. As demonstrated in Table 3A, the initial estimation of the model

Table 3A - Fit Statistics for Subordinate-related Measurement Models						
	# constructs	X^2	Df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Model 1	1	98.71	9	.21	.87	.07
Model 2	1	9.20	5	.06	.99	.02
Model 1 $p < .001$						
Model 2 $p > .05$						
Model 1: Subordinate-rated social support only						
Model 2: Identical to Model 1, but without item 3						

demonstrated unacceptable fit [$\chi^2(9) = 98.71$, $p < .05$, CFI = .87, RMSEA = .21, SRMR = .07]. I therefore examined the factor loadings associated with the individual items to determine why the fit was poor. Researchers recommend that loadings be both significant and at least .50 or higher (with .70 or higher being preferable, since a significant factor loading could still be fairly weak in strength when sample sizes are large; Hair et al., 2006: 777).

I also examined the modification indices to determine whether items exhibited correlated error terms. An examination of the modification indices found that the error term for item 3 (“Care about you as a person?”) was highly correlated with those for item 2 (“Treated you with respect?”) and 5 (“Helped out when too many things needed to get done?”). An examination of the written item found that item 3 was more affective in nature than the rest, which were more behavioral in nature. Because item 3 is affective in nature, its error terms might have been correlated with those of the other two items because it is actually an outcome or antecedent to treating individuals with respect or providing aid during difficult time. For instance, if I helped someone, they would have reason to believe that I care about them (Homans, 1950). As the

definition of social support used in this dissertation focuses on behaviors, item 3 did not fit the construct and was removed from the model. Although the final measure consisted of only five items of the original Abbey et al. (1985) measure, I believe the current measure still represents the entire domain of social support as defined previously. Deleting this item produced acceptable fit for the subordinate-rated measurement model [$\chi^2(5) = 9.20, p > .05, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .02$].

The supervisor-rated measurement model was specified to include five supervisor-rated latent constructs (i.e., LMX, OCBs, satisfaction, OBSE, and MSE). Table 3B includes the fit

Table 3B - Fit Statistics for Supervisors-related Measurement Models

	# constructs	X^2	Df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Model 1	5	1532.79	584	.08	.83	.07
Model 2	5	1286.78	512	.08	.86	.06
Model 3	5	1200.48	485	.08	.86	.06
Model 4	5	1116.01	424	.08	.87	.06
Model 5	5	599.24	265	.07	.92	.05
Model 6	6	950.20	472	.07	.93	.05
Model 7	7	1354.81	734	.06	.92	.05
Model 8	7	398.79	242	.05	.97	.04
Model 9	8	484.49	310	.05	.97	.04

Model 1: All measures with all items—no controls

Model 2: MSE items 2,5 OBSE 10 deleted

Model 3: OBSE 9 deleted

Model 4: OBSE 8,7,6 deleted

Model 5: MSE into three factors

Model 6: LLX added

Model 7: ALMX added

Model 8: All measures parceled

statistics from the various supervisor-rated models as well as an overview of the deletions performed. I initially ran the model with all items included. In doing so, I found that I had poor fit [$\chi^2(584) = 1532.79, p > .05, CFI = .83, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .07$]. I found that MSE and OBSE had several loadings below the acceptable threshold of .50). After running a model where I deleted problematic items (all deleted items are marked with an asterisk in the

Appendix) from both MSE and OBSE, I then focused on OBSE to eliminate troubled items. I ran a series of measurement models (Table 3B), deleting items that had poor loadings. Each of the items deleted in OBSE had loadings well below the acceptable threshold. One possible explanation for these items' poor loadings is that they actually assessed the extent to which individuals accomplish their jobs (e.g., "I am efficient around here") rather than their self-esteem. I continued removing items with unacceptable loadings until OBSE was reduced to only five items. Yet, as the table indicates, fit still remained a problem.

MSE presented similar challenges. I deleted two items due to poor loadings (below .50). Fit remained unacceptable, however. After reviewing the literature, I examined whether MSE was a multi-factor construct. In describing the initial scale for MSE, Sadri and Robertson (1993) noted that the construct had many facets, but it was unclear as to what these facets would be. I ran an exploratory factor analysis and found that the items grouped into three distinct, but intuitive, factors (initiating structure, conflict resolution, and controlling), which appeared to tap the domain of management. I then added MSE with 3 factors into the structural model and found that fit improved to acceptable levels ($\chi^2(734) = 1354.81, p > .05, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .05$).

Once I determined the fit of the overall model with my endogenous and exogenous variables was sufficient, I added in the two latent control variables (LLX and average LMX, i.e., ALMX). I initially did not include these variables to determine the extent to which my endogenous and exogenous variables had sufficient fit. One particular issue is that LLX, LMX, and ALMX are measured using similar items (i.e., LLX and LMX differed only in terms of their targets). As such, equivalent items across these measures can reasonably be expected to have correlated error terms. Following convention, I correlated errors of equivalent items (e.g., the

error terms for item 1 were allowed to correlate across LLX, LMX, and ALMX; Bollen & Lennox, 1991). The resulting model exhibited adequate fit. [$\chi^2(265) = 599.24$, $p > .05$, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .05].

Another approach to assessing construct validity is to examine the extent to which constructs have discriminant validity, which means that each construct is truly distinct from the others. Achieving discriminant validity is especially important given that my measure of LMX, LLX, and ALMX are all intended to capture the degree of exchange between a supervisor and subordinate(s). Following Podsakoff and MacKenzie's (1994) recommendations, I examined average variance extracted (AVE) estimates to determine discriminant validity. AVE is a measure of whether a construct is sufficiently distinct, capturing phenomena that other constructs do not. I followed Fornell and Lacker's (1980) advice that AVEs should be above .50 for a construct to be distinct. I also established discriminant validity using the conservative estimate recommended by Hair et al. (2006, 808) which "compares the variance-extracted estimates for each factor with the squared interconstruct correlations with that factor." If the variance-extracted percentages are higher than the squared interconstruct correlations with that factor, the constructs are sufficiently different. Again, each of the constructs was found to be sufficient and distinct from each other. I also fixed correlations between subsequent pairs of constructs (until all possible pairs had been compared) equal to one and compared fit when the constructs are free to vary. If model fit is significantly higher when the correlation between a pair of constructs is free to vary than when it is constrained to one, discriminant validity is present. Again, each of the constructs was found to be sufficient and distinct from each other.

Estimation of the model with the individual items as indicators included a total of 46 indicators in the model. Given concerns regarding the sample size-to-input matrix ratio (232/127

= a little more than 1.86 observations per free parameter), I used multi-item composites as indicators (i.e., parcels, Landis, Beal, & Tesluk, 2000). Landis et al. (2000) recommend several parceling techniques. I used item factor parceling to create composites. This technique consists of starting with the items exhibiting the highest and lowest loadings, averaging the items, and continuing this process until each item is included in a parcel. After completing the parceling process, all constructs were comprised of no more than five and no less than three parceled indicators. For constructs with four items or less, I did not parcel. Thus, subordinate satisfaction remained as four items. In addition, since I created three indicators for MSE by taking the average of multiple items, MSE was kept as three indicators. Given the similarity of the controls, ALMX and LLX, with LMX and given that they were measured in a similar way, I correlated the errors. I obtained adequate fit for the parceled model ($\chi^2(242) = 398.79, p > .05, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .04$).

As no further changes were indicated, I used the final measurement model to assess construct reliability. To assess internal consistency for each construct, I used Cronbach's alpha (1951). Although Cronbach's alpha remains the standard test for the internal consistency of measures, it has several notable shortcomings, including that it assumes tau-equivalence. The assumption of tau-equivalence is that path estimates from the latent construct are assumed equal. This means that Cronbach's alpha does not consider standard errors and thus does not allow confidence intervals to be constructed. To overcome this limitation, I followed Duhachek and Iacobucci's (2004) suggestion and calculated Raykov's composite reliability. Raykov's composite reliability considers measurement models that violate the assumption of tau-equivalence and loosens the restrictive assumption that factors explain an equal amount of variance in each of the items reflecting the factor. Composite reliabilities should be above .70 to

be considered acceptable (Bernstein, 1994). As shown in Table 4, each of the constructs demonstrated sufficient composite reliabilities well above the .70 threshold.

Overall, the results indicate that the constructs demonstrated sufficient validity and reliability to warrant testing the relationships hypothesized in chapter 2. Table 4 presents the means, standard deviations, and zero order correlations for the study variables. A brief examination finds that the means of LMX, social support, and OCBs are relatively high (M LMX = 5.25, M social support = 5.43, M OCBs = 4.38) but with sufficient variation (SD LMX = 1.20, SD social support = 1.39, SD OCBs = 1.78). A potential explanation is that supervisors are more likely to recommend better subordinates, and better subordinates are more likely to respond. Another interesting issue is that the standard deviations of ALMX, OBSE, and MSE are below 1.0. There are several potential explanations for this outcome. First, an argument could be made that some variance in ALMX is lost when averaging across employees. Second, the minimal variance exhibited by OBSE and MSE could be because only supervisors who are high in these traits responded to the study (also the means are high) or because only part of the population of supervisors was invited to participate. That is, perhaps supervisors who were nominated and responded were more confident in their role and believed that the organization valued them. Given the low standard deviations and high means, my ability to find meaningful relationships may have been limited.

An examination of the bivariate relationships reveals some interesting outcomes. First, the relationship between LLX and MSE is not significant. Scholars could theoretically argue that supervisors gain self-efficacy through their social exchange relationship with their own supervisors but that is not the case in the present sample. Second, ALMX is significantly related to MSE. It would seem that LMX relationships with subordinates, but not supervisors, covary.

Table 4 - Descriptive Statistics and Correlations between All Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Span of Control									
2. Leader-leader Exchange (LLX)	.17*	(.94)							
3. Average LMX	.01	.46**	(.86)						
4. Leader-member Exchange (LMX)	.04	.16*	.41**	(.91)					
5. Social Support	-.03	.01	-.03	.17**	(.83)				
6. Organizational Citizenship	-.04	.08	.24**	.63**	.26**	(.91)			
7. Satisfaction with the Subordinate	.03	-.04	.12	.17**	.16*	.55**	(.75)		
8. Managerial Self-Efficacy	.19**	.03	.16*	.15*	.10	.16*	.14*	(.77)	
9. Organization Based Self-Esteem	.07	.33**	.24**	.09	.06	.06	.06	.34**	(.83)
Means	10.81	5.50	5.60	5.25	5.43	4.38	5.90	5.77	6.32
Standard Deviation	6.01	1.30	.82	1.20	1.39	1.78	1.13	.85	.54
Composite reliability (CR)		.97	.92	.95	.87	.94	.83	.81	.86
Average variance extracted (AVE)		.88	.73	.82	.70	.83	.56	.60	.68
Maximum shared squared variance		.22	.22	.48	.08	.45	.48	.09	.11

Note. $n=232$. Alpha reliabilities are in the parentheses.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

with MSE. It is possible that supervisors may focus on actual performance from their subordinates, rather than on supervisor relationships, for their self-efficacy development. Third, LLX is more strongly related to OBSE than are either average LMX or focal subordinate LMX. Several scholars have argued that since the supervisor is the principal agent for the organization from the perspective of the subordinate (i.e., the supervisor trains, evaluates, promotes and punishes subordinates); it is through the supervisor that the subordinate develops perspectives on the organization (Williamson, 1984). Hence, it makes sense that the LLX relationship with OBSE is more likely to be influential than LMX with a single subordinate. The supervisor will be more likely to exchange resources that are organizational in nature. Perhaps subordinates exchange resources that could be extra-organizational, such as befriending the supervisor or performing extra-organizational tasks (e.g., getting the supervisor's dry cleaning). These and other implications will be discussed in the conclusion and discussion of results.

Hypothesis Tests

To test hypotheses, I used path analysis featuring a partially latent structural model specified in AMOS 21 (see Figure 1). For the endogenous and exogenous variables, I retained the parcels described in the previous section. Due to concerns regarding parameter-to-sample-size ratio, I created single indicators (comprised of a single item representing the average score across all relevant items) for two of the controls: ALMX and LLX (Table 5 lists these and other control variables). Following the recommendations of Kline (2005), I also fixed the loadings of the single ALMX and LLX indicators to the square-roots of their respective reliabilities. In addition, I allowed the error terms for the ALMX and LLX indicators to be correlated with that of the LMX indicator, due to the similarity of the constructs. The error terms for the single item constructs were respectively set to the value of 1.0 minus alpha, times the variance, for each

Table 5 - Control Variables

Relationship	Path Estimate	Standard Error
SPAN → Social Support	-.07	.01
LLX → Social Support	.02	.06
ALMX → Social Support	-.02	.09
SPAN → OCBS	-.06	.02
LLX → OCBS	.06	.08
ALMX → OCBS	.23	.13
SPAN → MSE	.21**	.01
LLX → MSE	-.04	.07
ALMX → MSE	.14	.09
SPAN → SAT	.06	.01
LLX → SAT	-.08	.04
ALMX → SAT	.01	.08
SPAN → OBSE	.02	.01
LLX → OBSE	.30**	.03
ALMX → OBSE	.14**	.05

* Estimate is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Estimate is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

variable. Because the third control variable included in the model (span of control) was measured with only a single item, its factor loading was set to a value of 1.0 and its error term to a value of zero. In paths for the control variables (Table 5) standardized path coefficients ranged from .63 for LMX and OCB respectively, to -.01 for OCB and OBSE.

Partial mediation path model results indicate that the model has acceptable fit ($\chi^2(203) = 348.09, p < .05, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .07$). Although the partially mediated model exhibited fit, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested the need to compare with an alternate model; therefore, I estimated a model with social support fully mediating the relationship between LMX and OCBs (i.e., eliminating the direct path between LMX and OCBs). This fully mediated model exhibited poorer fit ($\chi^2(204) = 479.86, p < .05, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .17$), suggesting I retain the initially proposed model. The chi-square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2 = 131.77, \Delta df = 01, p < .05$) demonstrates that the first model fits the data significantly better. After reviewing the modification indices and standardized residuals, I noticed a strong relationship between LMX and

satisfaction with the subordinate. I then ran a model with a direct path from LMX to satisfaction, making the mediation partial rather than full. This partially mediated model exhibited better fit ($\chi^2(202) = 322.73, p < .05, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .06$). The chi-square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2 = 25.36, \Delta df = 01, p < .05$) demonstrates that the latter model fits the data significantly better. I decided to keep this final model. The unhypothesized path between LMX and satisfaction had a standardized parameter estimate of .46 ($p < .01$). Table 6 has the direct relationships for the hypothesized variables, effect sizes, and p-values.

Table 6 - LMX and OCB Relationship

Relationship	Estimate	CI	p value
LMX → OCB mediated by Social	.03	.01, .07	$p < .05$
LMX → OCB total	.66	.58, .73	$p < .01$

Note: Estimates based on a 1000 bootstrapped samples. Lower and upper confidence 95 percent intervals based on a 1000 bootstrapped samples.

Table 7 depicts the direct relationships of the model and reports statistical details of the direct relationships. Six of the eight proposed hypotheses were supported—i.e., four of the five direct associations and two of the three indirect associations.

Table 7 - Direct Associations

Hypothesis	Relationship	Path Estimate	Standard Error
1	LMX → Social Support	.19**	.07
2	Social Support → OCB	.16*	.10
2	LMX → OCB	.63**	.09
3	OCB → SAT	.34**	.05
4	OCB → MSE	.16*	.05
5	OCB → OBSE	-.01	.03

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Of the five direct associations tested, four were supported. Hypothesis 1 predicted correctly that LMX had a positive effect on subordinate rated social support ($\beta = .19, p < .01$). Supervisors who had better LMX relationships with their subordinates provided higher degrees

of social support. Hypothesis 2 stated subordinate-rated social support would have a positive relationship with supervisor-rated OCBs and was supported ($\beta = .16, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 3, 4, and 5 looked at the relationships between OCBs and supervisor satisfaction with the subordinate, OBSE, and MSE. Hypothesis 3, which stated there would be a positive relationship between OCBs and supervisor satisfaction with the subordinate, was supported ($\beta = .34, p < .01$). Hypothesis 4 stated that there was a positive relationship between OCBs and supervisor-rated MSE. This hypothesis was also supported ($\beta = .16, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 5, which stated there would be a positive relationship between OCBs and OBSE, was not supported ($\beta = -.01, NS$). An explanation for this finding will be discussed in the following chapter. In addition to the direct relationship proposed by Hypothesis 2 and discussed above, the second hypothesis suggested that the relationship between LMX and OCBs would be partially mediated through social support. I also predicted that OCBs would mediate the relationship between LMX and the supervisor outcomes in Hypotheses 6 - 8. I was able to approximate indirect effects, which are defined as the product of the $X \rightarrow M$ path (a), the $M \rightarrow Y$ path (b), or $X \rightarrow Y$ path (ab), for each independent variable X as stated in Figure 1. In this case, path (a) is the total effect of LMX on OCB, which includes a direct path as well as a mediated path (through social support). Path (b) is the relationship between LMX and my three outcome variables (subordinate satisfaction, OBSE, and MSE).

One of the typical ways to examine mediation is through Baron and Kenny's (1986) three step procedure. Other scholars, however, have suggested limitations to this approach and recommend alternative methods be used (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). MacKinnon et al. (2002) suggested that the best method of testing for mediation is through formal tests of

significance of the indirect effect. More specifically, Shrout and Bolger recommend (2002) bootstrapping the sampling distribution of the indirect effects to avoid power problems introduced through asymmetric and other forms of non-normality in the sampling distribution. Since bootstrapping generates multiple samples, it does not assume large-sample theory, and thus, it may be better for small samples (MacKinnon, 2004). For present purposes, I bootstrapped 1000 samples to construct a 95% confidence interval around each specific indirect effect. When the confidence interval does not include zero, there is a significant indirect relationship.

Based on these analyses, Hypothesis 2 was supported ($ab = .03$, CI [.01, .07], $p < .05$). The total relationship of LMX on OCB was .66 (CI [.58, .73], $p < .01$). In Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8, I predicted that LMX would have an indirect relationship with supervisor benefits (subordinate satisfaction, OBSE, and MSE) through both social support and OCBs. In terms of the mediation, the total effect of the relationship between LMX and OCBs will mediate the relationship between LMX and the outcome variables. Two of these additional indirect associations (Table 8) were supported. Hypothesis 6 proposed that the relationship between supervisor-rated LMX and subordinate-rated satisfaction is mediated through subordinate-rated social support and

Table 8 - OCB Mediated Indirect Associations

Hypothesis	Outcome Variables	Decomposed Effects		Indirect Effects			
		A	B	ab	Lower	Upper	p value
6	SAT	.66	.34	.23	.11	.38	$p < .01$
7	MSE	.66	.16	.11	.01	.21	$p < .05$
8	OBSE	.66	-.01	-.01	-.10	.21	NS

Note: Estimates based on a 1000 bootstrapped samples. a is the total (direct and indirect) relationship between LMX and OCBs. b is the relationship between OCBs and the outcome variable. ab is the mediated relationship of LMX to the outcome variable. Lower and upper confidence 95 percent intervals based on a 1000 bootstrapped samples.

supervisor-rated OCBs. By breaking down the indirect effects, I found that the indirect relationship of LMX with supervisor-rated satisfaction is transmitted through OCBs and social support ($ab = .23$, 95% CI [.11, .38], $p < .01$). As the bootstrap bias corrected 95% confidence

interval did not contain zero, Hypothesis 6 was supported. Hypothesis 7 stated that the relationship between supervisor-rated LMX and supervisor-rated MSE would be transferred through social support and supervisor-rated OCBs. I found that is LMX indirectly related to supervisor-rated MSE ($ab = .11$, 95% CI [.01, .21], $p < .05$). As the confidence interval did not contain zero, I found support for Hypothesis 7. In Hypothesis 8, I proposed that supervisor-rated is LMX indirectly related to OBSE via social support and OCBs. I did not find support for Hypothesis 8 ($ab = -.01$, 95% CI [-.10, .21], *NS*), since the confidence interval contained a zero. This lack of finding will be discussed in the following chapter. Figure 2 displays the standardized parameter estimates and their significance levels.

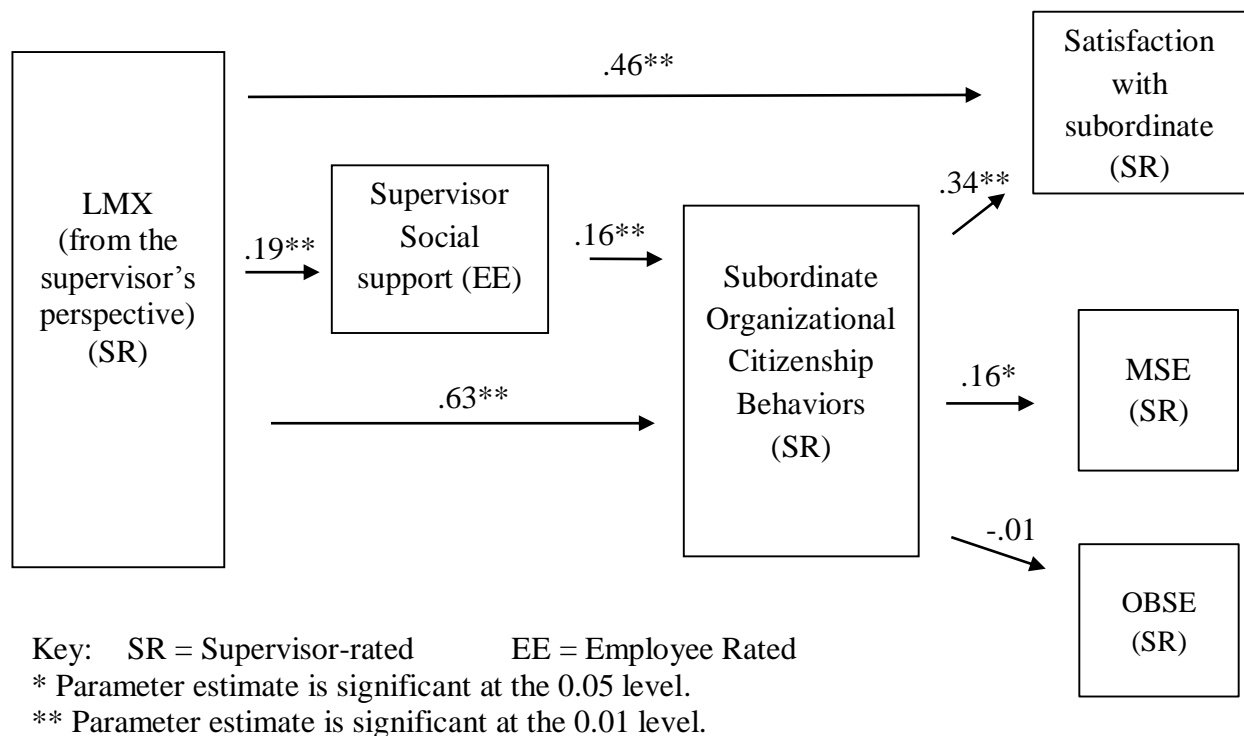


Figure 2 - How Supervisors Accrue Benefits in LMX – Found Relationships

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The following chapter contains the theoretical and practical implications of this dissertation, as well as limitations and future research. I sought to examine how and what benefits supervisors gain from exchange relationships with their subordinates and the extent to which a single subordinate can have a differential impact on his or her supervisor. I tested one of the core assumptions of LMX theory: that both supervisors and subordinates have mutually beneficial relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Although scholars have explored the subordinate side of the relationship, the supervisor side remains under-researched (Wilson et al., 2010). To examine the relationships between LMX and the benefits supervisors accrue, I broke down the exchange process into several steps. Specifically, I hypothesized that supervisors would provide social support to select subordinates based on the supervisor's evaluation of their social exchange relationships. In turn, the selected subordinates would then respond with organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the supervisor. Finally, based on the OCBs received, supervisors would experience increased satisfaction with their subordinates, organizational based self-esteem, and managerial self-efficacy. Overall, I found evidence suggesting that supervisors gain benefits (satisfaction with their subordinates and increased managerial self-efficacy) from social exchange with their subordinates as hypothesized. I proposed and found that social support partially mediated the relationship between supervisor-rated LMX and OCBs. This finding seems logical as social support is one of multiple resources a supervisor possesses. For instance, supervisors could provide other leadership behaviors or encouraging sentiments (Organ et al., 2006). Each inducement might elicit further OCB contributions and, in turn, enhance the benefits the supervisors receive from the exchange relationship. Therefore, a supervisor's behavior plays a role in influencing the benefits they gain.

Also, given that the supervisor enjoys outcomes such as satisfaction and managerial self-efficacy, he/she develops feelings that are similar to those experienced by subordinates. When supervisors like their subordinates, they seem to get better social outcomes.

I found that OCBs mediate the relationships between supervisor-rated LMX and subordinate satisfaction and MSE. I did not find a relationship, however, between OCBs and OBSE. A potential explanation for this null finding could be measurement-related. OBSE, unlike satisfaction and MSE, assesses organizational domains and not areas specific to the supervisor/subordinate relationship. Satisfaction, in this case, actually measures the supervisor's relationship with the subordinate; MSE is the supervisor's belief that he/she can effectively manage the subordinate. OBSE, on the other hand, assesses the extent to which the supervisor feels like he/she is valued in the organization. Hence, a single employee may not be sufficient to influence an organization-oriented construct such as OBSE. This idea will be expanded in the theoretical implications.

Theoretical Implications

Preliminary results support the notion that supervisors gain psychological benefits from their social exchange relationships with subordinates. More specifically, supervisors experience higher satisfaction and higher managerial self-efficacy. Interestingly, the OCBs of a single subordinate have a positive influence on the supervisor, which supports the idea that supervisors and subordinates have differential relationships. The model in Figure 1 provides general support for the idea that supervisors can have an agency role in determining what benefits they receive and from whom. Although greater work is needed to understand the exact dynamics in the exchange relationship, the role supervisors play cannot be discounted given that it impacts both the process and content of the exchange. Future research is needed to determine the “when” and

“where” of this process. For example, greater research needs to be directed toward determining the specific resources of the exchange, the timing of the exchange, and the factors that describe the context in which the exchange occurs—such as whether the organization is going through a period of high uncertainty.

An important theoretical implication arises from the lack of a relationship between LMX (indirectly) or OCBs (directly) and OBSE in both the bivariate correlations and the general model. Prior work has found that subordinate-rated LMX (i.e., LMX as perceived by the subordinate) has a significant relationship with OBSE (Pierce & Gardner, 2004), yet no relationship was found in the present study relative to supervisor-rated LMX. Although measurement error could explain the null finding, differences in the structure and rewards that both subordinates and supervisors receive may also impact the relationship.

Supervisors are the prime agent of the organization since they train and socialize subordinates from the time they enter the organization until they leave (Liden, Bauer, & Erdogan, 2004). Additionally, supervisors are often gateways to a wide range of organizational resources from support to promotion and compensation (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Wilson et al., 2010). Thus, from the subordinates’ perspective, social exchange relationships with supervisors can cause subordinates to develop reactions toward the organization (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Eisenberger et al. (2010) went as far as to claim that the supervisor can be the embodiment of the organization for the subordinate. Williamson (1984) noted that organizations encourage managers to see themselves as the personification of the firm. Hence, this could be a reason why organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, OBSE, and psychological empowerment all are strongly related to subordinate-rated LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Unlike a subordinate who may have only one boss, a supervisor likely has multiple subordinates. The theoretical implication is that the process and structure of social exchange may be different from the supervisor's perspective. Thus, supervisors may not be able to gain organization-based outcomes (i.e. OBSE) from the relationship with a single subordinate. This different exchange pattern could explain why scholars have found that LMX ratings of supervisors and subordinates to differ (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Sin, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2009).

Practical Implications

Although the saying "it is lonely on top" may often be true, a practical implication from this study is that it does not need to be. For several years, leadership scholars separated leadership into task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviors (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2002). Yet the findings of this study suggest that supervisors can use relationship-oriented behaviors as a means of facilitating task-oriented behaviors. For instance, supervisors can use their relationships with subordinates to gain resources that help them do their jobs. Such a finding is not surprising, as Homans and other early scholars suggest that workers are willing to take on additional work when they find their social relationships to be rewarding (Homans, 1950; Roethlisberger & Dixon, 1938). One way to encourage individuals to cooperate is through pro-social techniques that bond and strengthen individual relationships. It seems logical that this concept would also apply to subordinates within the supervisor/subordinate relationship.

This study's results demonstrate that supervisors should perform certain behaviors as a means of ensuring cooperation from their subordinates. Barnard (1938) stated that the primary function of the executive was to ensure consent from the governed; cooperation does not emerge from one's position in the organization alone, but rather comes from the behaviors that

supervisors perform. Therefore, supervisors should aid subordinates to promote a more pro-social environment. By providing “gifts,” supervisors can ensure cooperation from their subordinates (Malinowski, 1932). In a time when satisfaction, trust, and commitment to supervisors and organizations are in free-fall and incivility and harassment are rising, providing resources to subordinates can enable cooperation (Pfeffer, 2007). Such an understanding might go a long way toward curbing some of the worst tendencies that supervisors exhibit—such as bullying, incivility, or abusive supervision.

In conclusion, this study found that supervisors gain social benefits from certain subordinates that may, in turn, aid supervisors at work. The benefits range from extra behaviors (such as OCBs) to positive personal outcomes like satisfaction and self-efficacy. Supervisors—especially those in difficult positions or those who are new on the job—may often find themselves prone to stress and other threats to their well-being (Skakon et al., 2010). As Hobfoll (1989) noted, the use of resources as a means of preventing stress and other difficult outcomes can occur through developing convoys of resources. Supervisors and certain subordinates can continue exchanging with each other as a means of reducing stress and burnout (Halbesleben & Buckley 2004; Halbesleben & Bowler, 2004). Positive resources, such as satisfaction (i.e. counting on someone) or self-efficacy (counting on one's self), can aid supervisors in reducing stress or other negative outcomes.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. First, neither an experimental nor longitudinal design was employed. Therefore, causal conclusions cannot be drawn (Hair et al., 2006). Although the theoretical grounding for this study is firm, causality may be reversed. For example, subordinate OCBs may precede supervisor rated LMX. This reversal in causality is a

common criticism of social exchange research (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) note, the exchange may change the relationship, or the relationship may change the exchange. In order to determine the direction of causality, the specific acts that form the exchange and their occurrence over time require further investigation.

One potential explanation for the direction of causality comes from Foa and Foa (1974, 1980), who argue that different resources get exchanged at different times in relationships. In other words, casual and universal (e.g. cash) resources can be exchanged between strangers, but resources like affiliation and support are typically exchanged in close relationships. In the latter case, behaviors such as “taking an interest” or “aiding in work” are suggestive of a strong, stable and mature relationship (Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Wilson et al., 2010). It may be that exchange starts with a universal resource that is not be indicative of a close relationship, but as exchange continues, the resources become affiliation/support-oriented, which are more indicative of a close relationship. Therefore, the act of initiating the exchange may not only create an exchange relationship but also lead to a close relationship between the exchange partners. In essence, neither comes first, but once one is present, the relationship builds on a positive course. Nonetheless, to better understand the exchange process, future research should utilize a longitudinal method to further explicate the process described here.

A second limitation of this study is the use of a diverse sample consisting of many types of jobs and organizations which may have produced other biases. Although there are reasons to use the technique employed in this study, another type of sample should be used to replicate the findings. For example, only individuals with strong relationships with their supervisor may have completed the survey, potentially creating range restriction (Sin et al., 2009). Future research is

advisable to duplicate the findings in different environments and contexts, perhaps in another country or in a single company or industry.

The third limitation of this study is that some of the effect sizes found are quite high (e.g., above .7). These results can be explained in several different ways. First, LMX, OCBs, and subordinate satisfaction results were assessed from a common source; therefore, common method variance could be an issue. In this regard, Illies et al. (2007) assert that there is a difference when supervisors and subordinates evaluate OCBs. A potential reason is that subordinates may overstate OCBs or supervisors may understate them. Second, one of the erroneous assumptions of common method variance inflation is that multi-method correlations are more accurate than mono-method correlations, but it is also possible that a multi-method design may understate correlations as well, and as such, may not be fully accurate (Frese & Zapf, 1988; Spector, 2006). The question therefore is how to balance the risks between mono-method to multi-method design. As Spector (2006) suggested, the empirical question should drive the selection of the sources. Theoretically, I examined the benefits supervisors gain as well as the behaviors that lead to those benefits. This is the appropriate perspective because the supervisor's perception of those behaviors is what leads to those benefits. Although CMV warrants consideration, the measurement of LMX and OCBs at different times and the range of relationships included likely limit the impact of CMV in this study.

A second possible explanation for the strong effect sizes could be that the measures are tapping into some larger construct that is attitudinal or affective in nature, such as liking a subordinate. An examination of the items of the LMX, OBSE, and subordinate satisfaction constructs do reveal overlap. As a counter to that, though, I have used recommended and established measures for each construct. Yet, it still remains a question that should be undertaken

in future research using other measures of the constructs (e.g. Liden & Maslyn's 1998 LMX measure) or developing more accurate measures. Finally, in terms of the measures, both OBSE and MSE demonstrated problems, with several items of OBSE and MSE being deleted due to psychometric issues. Although I adhered to accepted protocols, these psychometric issues limit the generalizability of the results, and they raise questions about the extent to which the measures employed capture the intended constructs. As a result, the findings related to MSE and OBSE especially should be judged with a degree of caution.

Future Research

There are several paths for future research in terms of the benefits supervisors gain from social exchange relationships with subordinates. First, scholars could examine additional benefits that supervisors may gain, such as promotion, compensation, or psychological benefits. Scholars should explore potential problems that might arise from socialization and friendship between supervisors and subordinates. Although this dissertation researched three types of supervisor benefits (satisfaction, OBSE, and MSE), there is a wide range of other relationships that impact supervisor performance. For example, do supervisors gain increased empowerment or lower perceptions of politics from interactions with subordinates? Answers to these questions may reveal a different exchange relationship from the supervisor's side, perhaps explaining why LMX agreement between supervisor and subordinate tends to be low (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Another potential line of research would be to examine the relationships from a multi-level or network perspective. LMX has traditionally utilized a dyadic approach to relationships, ignoring outside factors, such as relationships with either other subordinates or supervisors. By using network analysis, scholars may discover other benefits supervisors gain and from where those benefits come. For instance, such an approach may allow us to further understand the relative

influence of a single subordinate upon a supervisor. These benefits and sources may allow us to apprehend the extent to which a relationship has a positive net benefit to the supervisor.

Another question that scholars should investigate is at what point the relationship between supervisor and subordinate ceases to remain profitable for the supervisor. Harris and Kacmar (2006) found a curvilinear relationship between subordinate-rated LMX and stress. Supervisor LMX could also suffer from too much of a good thing. The logic underlying this finding is that strong exchange relationships impose obligations on the partners and those obligations can turn the relationship from a net gain to a net loss. One of the laws in social exchange is of declining marginal utility (Homans, 1961; Homans, 1984). Applied specifically to an LMX relationship, supervisors should receive diminishing returns as they provide more and more resources to a given subordinate. Favoring a particular subordinate may lead to higher social costs, off-setting the benefits they receive (Henderson et al., 2009). For instance, subordinates with low LMX may feel upset that their supervisor does not favor them and may lower their levels of performance or increase their counter-productive work behaviors (Bolino & Turnley, 2009).

One of the common assumptions within LMX theory is that exchange is conducted through reciprocal relationships (Bernerth et al., 2007). Yet a perceptive, intelligent supervisor may gain performance in poor LMX relationships by using indirect exchange, which occurs when an agent provides resources to one actor, but gets resources from another (Emerson, 1981). A supervisor may use a chosen subordinate with whom he/she has an excellent exchange to gain benefits from other subordinates, suggesting a potentially more dynamic exchange sequence than scholars have previously speculated. In conducting a network analysis, scholars can track each

subordinate's resource exchange to determine what he/she gives to the supervisor to further examine how supervisors use resources to gain the support and cooperation of their subordinates.

Another issue that scholars will need to examine is the extent to which supervisor LMX relationships have negative consequences for the firm. Although a great many positive outcomes for subordinates have been established (job satisfaction, empowerment, and job performance), supervisors can use LMX relationships to gain resources that do not benefit the organization. A troubling example would be the idea that subordinates may lie or fabricate data to protect a supervisor whom they prefer. Likewise, supervisors (and subordinates) may use LMX relationships as a means of protecting themselves by providing each other with resources to prevent the proper fulfillment of organizational policies. Scholars have been aware of this problem since the Hawthorne studies—what was then dubbed “the man in the middle” problem (Roethlisberger & Dixon, 1939). Exploring this perspective has the potential to demonstrate that LMX relationships have a degree of opportunism to them, meaning that both the supervisor and subordinate within the dyad may seek to pursue their own interests at the expense of the organization (Williamson, 1975). Since the organization is limited in how much it can monitor, both sides may combine to damage the organization.

Final Remarks

In conclusion, I found that supervisors gain subordinate satisfaction and MSE through their own behaviors. I did not find a significant relationship pertaining to OBSE. These findings suggest that the structure of relationships between supervisors and subordinates is varied. That is, both supervisors and subordinates have different resources and levels of power in the organization. It is possible that supervisors are more likely to gain resources that are more personal in nature. Future research was proposed and the limitations stated.

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APPENDIX A: SURVEY ITEMS

Supervisor-Rated LMX

Stem: To what extent do you agree with the following items?

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

- My subordinate and I have a two-way exchange relationship.
- I do not have to specify the exact conditions to know my subordinate will return a favor.
- If I do something for my subordinate, he or she will eventually repay me.
- I have a balance of inputs and outputs with my subordinate.
- My efforts are reciprocated by my subordinate.
- My relationship with my subordinate is composed of comparable exchanges of giving and taking.
- When I give effort at work, my subordinate will return it.
- Voluntary action on my part will be returned in some way by my subordinate.

Supervisor-Rated Leader-Leader Exchange

Stem: To what extent do you agree with the following items?

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

- My supervisor and I have a two-way exchange relationship.
- I do not have to specify the exact conditions to know my supervisor will return a favor.
- If I do something for my supervisor, he or she will eventually repay me.
- I have a balance of inputs and outputs with my manager.
- My efforts are reciprocated by my supervisor.

- My relationship with my supervisor is composed of comparable exchanges of giving and taking.
- When I give effort at work, my supervisor will return it.
- Voluntary action on my part will be returned in some way by my supervisor.

Subordinate-Rated Social Support

Stem: How often has your supervisor done the following actions?

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = A Few Times a Year or Less, 7 = Every Day)

- Acted in ways that show they appreciate what you do?
- Treated you with respect?
- Cared about you as a person?*
- Given you useful information and advice when you wanted it?
- Helped out when too many things needed to get done?
- Listened when you wanted to confide about things that were important to you?

Supervisor-Rated Span of Control

Stem: How many employees do you supervise currently?

Supervisor-Rated OCB to Supervisor

Stem: To what extent has your subordinate performed the following actions?

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = A Few Times a Year or Less, 7 = Every Day)

- Accepts added responsibility when you are absent
- Helps you when you have a heavy work load
- Assists you with your work (when not asked)
- Takes a personal interest in you
- Passes along work-related information to you

Supervisor-Rated Organizational-Based Self-Esteem

Stem: To what extent do you agree with the following items?

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

- I count around here.
- I am taken seriously around here.
- I am important around here.
- I am trusted around here.
- There is faith in me around here.
- I can make a difference around here.*
- I am valuable around here.*
- I am helpful around here.*
- I am efficient around here.*
- I am cooperative around here.*

Supervisor-Rated Managerial Self-Efficacy

Stem: Try to recall your activities over the past month and how you felt in the situations described below. When making your best effort, would you be able to...

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = To a Very Small Extent, 7 = To a Very Great Extent)

- Schedule work for subordinates?
- Orientate new employees?*
- Resolve conflicts among subordinates?
- Negotiate with others in order to reach an agreement or solution?
- Make decisions on simple problems without prior approval of superiors?*

- Make decisions on complex problems without prior approval of superiors?
- Plan for implementation of new contracts, policies, and procedures?
- Prepare or supervise the preparation of objectives and goals for the unit?
- Set priorities for work assigned to various work units?
- Maintain or supervise the maintenance of records, or files of work flow, output, or other data to measure performance?
- Develop controls or control procedures (e.g., procedures for ensuring adherence to schedules)?

Supervisor-rated Subordinate Satisfaction Items

Stem: To what extent do you agree with the following items? Note: (R) equals reversed scored items.

Response: Seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

- I like my subordinate.
- I find I have to work harder at my job than I should because of the incompetence of my subordinate. (R)
- I enjoy working with my subordinate.
- There is too much bickering and fighting with my subordinate. (R)

APPENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL

ACTION ON PROTOCOL APPROVAL REQUEST



Institutional Review Board
Dr. Robert Mathews, Chair
131 David Boyd Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
P: 225.578.8692
F: 225.578.6792
irb@lsu.edu | lsu.edu/irb

TO: Hettie Richardson
Management

FROM: Robert C. Mathews
Chair, Institutional Review Board

DATE: February 22, 2013
RE: IRB# 3360

TITLE: Supervisor Benefits in LMX

New Protocol/Modification/Continuation: New Protocol

Review type: Full ☐ Expedited ☒ Review date: 2/25/2013

Risk Factor: Minimal ☒ Uncertain ☐ Greater Than Minimal ☐

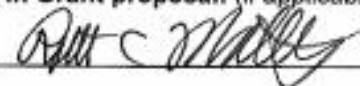
Approved ☒ Disapproved ☐

Approval Date: 2/25/2013 Approval Expiration Date: 2/24/2014

Re-review frequency: (annual unless otherwise stated)

Number of subjects approved: 1200

Protocol Matches Scope of Work in Grant proposal: (if applicable) _____

By: Robert C. Mathews, Chairman 

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING –
Continuing approval is **CONDITIONAL** on:

1. Adherence to the approved protocol, familiarity with, and adherence to the ethical standards of the Belmont Report, and LSU's Assurance of Compliance with DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects*
2. Prior approval of a change in protocol, including revision of the consent documents or an increase in the number of subjects over that approved.
3. Obtaining renewed approval (or submittal of a termination report), prior to the approval expiration date, upon request by the IRB office (irrespective of when the project actually begins); notification of project termination.
4. Retention of documentation of informed consent and study records for at least 3 years after the study ends.
5. Continuing attention to the physical and psychological well-being and informed consent of the individual participants, including notification of new information that might affect consent.
6. A prompt report to the IRB of any adverse event affecting a participant potentially arising from the study.
7. Notification of the IRB of a serious compliance failure.
8. SPECIAL NOTE:

**All investigators and support staff have access to copies of the Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance with DHHS, DHHS (45 CFR 46) and FDA regulations governing use of human subjects, and other relevant documents in print in this office or on our World Wide Web site at <http://www.lsu.edu/irb>*

Application for Approval of Projects Which Use Human Subjects

This application is used for projects/studies that cannot be reviewed through the exemption process.



Institutional Review Board
Dr. Robert Mathews, Chair
131 David Boyd Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
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– Applicant, Please fill out the application in its entirety and include two copies of the completed application as well as parts A-E, listed below. Once the application is completed, please submit to the IRB Office for review and please allow ample time for the application to be reviewed. Expedited reviews usually takes 2 weeks. Carefully completed applications should be submitted 3 weeks before a meeting to ensure a prompt decision.

– A Complete Application Includes All of the Following:

(A) Two copies of this completed form and two copies of part B thru F.

(B) A brief project description (adequate to evaluate risks to subjects and to explain your responses to Parts 1&2)

(C) Copies of all instruments to be used.

*If this proposal is part of a grant proposal, include a copy of the proposal and all recruitment material.

(D) The consent form that you will use in the study (see part 3 for more information.)

(E) Certificate of Completion of Human Subjects Protection Training for all personnel involved in the project, including students who are involved with testing or handling data, unless already on file with the IRB. Training link: (<http://php.nihtraining.com/users/login.php>)

(F) IRB Security of Data Agreement: (<http://research.lsu.edu/files/Item26774.pdf>)

1) Principal Investigator* Hettie Richardson

Rank Associate Professor

*PI must be an LSU Faculty Member

Dept: Rucks Management

Ph: (225) 578-6146

E-mail: Hricha4@lsu.edu

2) Co Investigator(s): please include department, rank, phone and e-mail for each

Jeffrey Muldoon, Rucks Management, Graduate student, (203) 859-1023, jmuldo1@lsu.edu

3) Project Title: Supervisor Benefits in LMX

4) Proposal Start Date: January 2013

5) Proposed Duration Months: Five

6) Number of Subjects Requested: 1200

7) LSU Proposal #: None

8) Funding Sought From: None

ASSURANCE OF PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR named above

I accept personal responsibility for the conduct of this study (including ensuring compliance of co-investigators/co-workers) in accordance with the documents submitted herewith and the following guidelines for human subject protection: The Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance (FWA0003892) with OHRP and 45 CFR 46 (available from: <http://www.lsu.edu/irb>). I also understand that copies of all consent forms must be maintained at LSU for three years after the completion of the project. If I leave LSU before that time, the consent forms should be preserved in the Departmental Office.

Signature of PI Hettie Richardson Date 1-30-13

ASSURANCE OF STUDENT/PROJECT COORDINATOR named above. If multiple Co-Investigators, please create a "signature page" for all Co-Investigators to sign. Attach the "signature page" to the application.

I agree to adhere to the terms of this document and am familiar with the documents referenced above.

Signature of Co-PI (s) Jeffrey Muldoon Date 1-25-13

IRB # 3360 LSU Proposal #

☐ Full

☒ Expedited

☒ Human Subjects Training

☒ Complete Application

Study Approved By:
Dr. Robert C. Mathews, Chairman
Institutional Review Board
Louisiana State University
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall
225-578-8692 | www.lsu.edu/irb
Approval Expires: 2/24/2014

Q7 Student Consent Form Study Title: Leader Benefits: Exploring how Leaders Benefit from Subordinates Principle Investigator: Jeffrey Muldoon jmuldo1@lsu.edu Purpose of the study: Our purpose is to examine the interactions between supervisors and subordinates. The subordinate's relationship with the supervisor influences the subordinate's job satisfaction, work motivation, and turnover intentions, but little is known about how these relationships influences the supervisor's own work experiences. This study intends to develop greater understanding of supervisor-subordinate relationships from the supervisor's perspective. Inclusion Criteria: LSU students enrolled in a business course that is participating in the management class during the spring 2013 semester, plus adults (i.e., 18 years old or older) working outside the home (i.e., for at least 30 hours each week, on average) who directly supervise at least three immediate subordinates. Number of Subjects: Approximately 300 Study Procedures: A total of 5 online surveys will be conducted. In the initial recruitment survey, you will be asked to provide the name and email address of an adult who is working full time outside the home in a supervisory capacity. The supervisor whose name and email address you submit will be invited to participate in two online surveys, which will be administered approximately one week apart. The two surveys will include questions gauging the supervisor's perceptions of his/her subordinates and his/her job. Each survey is estimated to take approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Additionally, the supervisor will be asked to provide contact information (names and email addresses) for three of his/her immediate subordinates (one above average employee, one average employee, and one below average employee). The employees will not know into which category they fall. The subordinates, whose names and email addresses the supervisor provides, will be invited to participate in a brief online survey that will include questions about their job and perceptions of their supervisor. Benefits: Supervisor and subordinate participants will contribute to knowledge about the benefits supervisors gain from subordinates. For each survey completed by the supervisor you nominate and his/her subordinates, you will receive one extra credit point to be applied to a participating business course in which you are currently enrolled. Thus, if the nominated supervisor completes the two supervisor surveys and all three of his/her subordinates complete the subordinate survey; you will earn a maximum of five extra credit points from this study. However, if neither the nominated supervisor nor his/her subordinates completes any of the surveys, you will earn no extra credit points from this study. Risks/Privacy: By agreeing to participate in this study and submitting a supervisor's name and email address, you authorize the researchers to contact him/her and collect confidential information for research purposes only. The data will be stored on password protected computers in a locked/secure location. The data will not be accessible to anyone other than the researchers. You will never have access to either the invited supervisor's or his/her employee's responses. Once data collection is complete, any information identifying you, the supervisor, or his/her employees will be permanently deleted. Only aggregate data will be reported in any presentation or publication resulting from the research. All data will be strictly confidential unless release is legally compelled. Right to Refuse/Withdrawal: Participation in the study is voluntary, and you, the supervisor, or his/her employees may withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of any benefit to which you or they are

otherwise entitled. Electronic Signature: The study has been discussed with me and all my questions have been answered. I may direct additional questions regarding study specifics to the researchers. If I have questions about my rights or other concerns, I can contact Robert C. Mathews, Chairman, LSU Institutional Review Board, (225)578-8692, irb@lsu.edu. I agree to participate in the study described above, and I acknowledge the researchers' obligation to provide me with an electronic or a paper copy of this consent form if requested by me.

First Name: (1)

Last Name: (2)

VITA

Jeffrey Muldoon, a native of Hamden, Connecticut, received his bachelor's degree in History from Gettysburg College in 1999. Thereafter, he received his master's degree in Business Administration from the University of Connecticut in 2005. As his interest in business administration grew, he made the decision to enter the William W. and Catherine Rucks Department of Management in the E.J. Ourso College of Business at Louisiana State University.

His research interests include social exchange, leadership, and management history. His research has appeared in such journals as *Stress and Health*, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, *Career Development International*, and the *Journal of Management History*. During his time at Louisiana State University, he has won numerous awards including Best Student Paper at the Academy of Management, Most Outstanding Paper Award for the *Journal of Management History*, Best Student Teacher for both the William W. and Catherine Rucks Department of Management and the E.J. Ourso College of Business. He expects to receive his doctor of philosophy degree in August 2014 and plans to begin teaching Business Administration in the field of Management in the fall.