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Integrating leader-member exchange and organizational justice: Why justice depends on relationship quality

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Integrating Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Justice:

Why Justice Depends on Relationship Quality

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts
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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my parents, Terry and Tammy Jackson, who have provided me with constant faith, love and support,

To my late grandfather, Gerald Buquoi, whose belief in me throughout the years has been a perpetual source of strength,

And to all my friends and family, for their love and encouragement.

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Integrating Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Justice:
Why Justice Depends on Relationship Quality

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to integrate research on Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and organizational justice by proposing and evaluating plausible interactions between LMX and the various dimensions of organizational justice. In addition, this study contributes to the sparse literature on antecedents to LMX by including three previously unexamined antecedents, which consist of basic intra- and interpersonal motivations (i.e., attachment, identity, and regulatory focus), that are under-researched compared to personality and demographic variables. Data were collected from 150 supervisor-subordinate dyads. Results revealed several significant LMX by justice interactions and indicated that interdependent identity levels (relational and collective) and promotion regulatory focus are positively related to LMX quality. Implications and directions for future research are discussed.

Chapter One- Introduction

Leadership is a universal phenomenon that has been an important area of inquiry throughout history, addressed by scholars such as Plato, Aristotle, and Confucius. It is currently one of the most extensively researched topics in organizational psychology, and substantial empirical evidence has shown the importance of effective leadership for employee and organizational well-being (Bass, 1990). However, this abundance of attention has produced numerous definitions and models to describe and classify leadership. In his review of leadership theory and research, Bass (1990) broadly defines leadership as “an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members” (p. 19).

The majority of leadership research has focused on the characteristics and behaviors of leaders, with relatively less emphasis placed on relationships between leaders and followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Early trait theories focused on what characteristics were associated with effective leadership. Although some traits of effective leaders were identified (e.g., dominance and intelligence; Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986), they did not appear to be universal across all leaders (Stogdill, 1948; Mann, 1959). Thus, research began to focus on what leaders *do* rather than who they *are*. Several groups of researchers at Ohio State (Stogdill & Coons, 1957), University of Michigan (Kahn & Katz, 1953), and Harvard (Bales, 1954) attempted to define behavioral theories in order to prescribe certain actions leaders could enact to be

effective, such as displaying consideration and initiating structure. However, because of researchers' apparent inability to identify the universal characteristics and behaviors of effective leaders, attention turned to situations in which particular behaviors are needed. These contingency theories were more flexible because they took into account the interplay between the situation and the individual. Examples include Fiedler's (1967; 1971) contingency theory, House's (1971) path-goal theory, and Vroom and Yetton's (1973) decision process theory.

While the aforementioned streams of research provide valuable insight into how leaders are able to influence and structure the behaviors of their followers, the role of the follower has been largely ignored until more recently (Lord & Brown, 2004). Several theories have responded to this omission by addressing the importance of the role of the follower and the leader-follower relationship, including cognitive approaches (e.g., Lord, Foti, & DeVader (1984), identity-based approaches (e.g., Hogg, 2001; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993), and relationship-based approaches (e.g., Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). Cognitive approaches to leadership take both leader and follower cognitions into account by recognizing that each has their own implicit theory of leadership, which affects both whether leaders are seen as such by their subordinates (Eden & Leviatan, 1975) and leaders' perceptions of subordinate performance (Green & Mitchell, 1979). Identity-based approaches emphasize that the working self-concept, the activated portion of the self-concept that guides action and understanding on a moment-to-moment basis (Kihlstrom & Klein, 1994), is integral in the leadership process as leaders can activate, create, and influence aspects of the subordinate's working self-concept (Lord & Brown, 2004). Dansereau's Vertical Dyad

Linkage first addressed the importance of the leader-follower relationship by demonstrating that leaders do not employ an average leadership style, but instead develop differentiated relationships with their subordinates (Dansereau, et al., 1975). With evidence of variation in followers' perceptions of the same leaders, leader-member dyads instead of individual leaders became the focus of analyses, and the theory evolved into Leader-Member Exchange (LMX; Graen, et al., 1982). LMX postulates that the quality of leader-follower relationships is predictive of outcomes at the individual, group, and organizational levels of analysis (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The present study adopts LMX theory as a general model for understanding leadership. Leadership is a social process, and because of the important economic and social exchange processes within leader-member dyads it is useful to consider LMX. According to Graen and Scandura (1987) one of the requirements for development of high-quality relationships is that each party must see the exchange as reasonably fair and thus, organizational justice is also important when considering the leadership process. Hollander (1978) called for rethinking LMX, including what constitutes "fair exchange in leadership" (p. 71), and more recently Scandura (1999) highlighted how justice might operate within an LMX framework. Despite calls by researchers, little empirical research has examined LMX and organizational justice together (for exceptions, see Lee [2000], Pellegrini [2006], and Sanchez [2006]). The goal of the present research is to integrate research on LMX and organizational justice by proposing and evaluating different plausible models that incorporate both. Additionally, I also examine novel antecedents of LMX.

The proposed research is important for several reasons. First, in line with recent attempts, it contributes to the leadership literature by focusing on the role of the follower and leader-follower relationships, which have traditionally received little attention. Second, it addresses the need to integrate research on leadership and organizational justice. Third, it contributes to the sparse literature on antecedents to LMX by including three previously unexamined antecedents. These antecedents include basic intra- and interpersonal motivations, namely attachment, identity, and regulatory focus, which are under-researched compared to personality and demographic variables. It will later be argued that leader and follower congruence on these motivations contributes to relationship quality. Finally, data will be collected from both supervisors and subordinates, which serves two purposes. First, critics have pointed out that many so-called studies of LMX are conducted at the level of the individual rather than the dyad, yet it is the latter level that is most appropriate (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). By studying leader-follower congruence, I examine the dyad directly. Second, collecting data from multiple sources reduces threats of same source bias and self-generated validity (see Harrison & McLaughlin, 1996; Harrison, McLaughlin, & Coalter, 1996). In the following sections I first review the LMX and organizational justice literatures, and then propose ways in which they are expected to interact.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory

The fundamental assumption of LMX theory is that within work groups leaders form different types of relationships with their subordinates. The theory recognizes the importance of the follower by examining the quality of the leader-follower relationship as opposed to behaviors or traits of individual leaders or followers. In other words, dyads

are the basic unit of analysis in LMX theory rather than leader characteristics or behaviors. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) define LMX as a social exchange of psychological benefits or favors between leaders and members. According to LMX theory, followers can be part of the leader's in- or out-group, and relationships between leaders and followers can be characterized as being low or high quality based on the extent of mutual trust, respect, and obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

In the early stages leader-member relationships are transactional *quid pro quo* exchanges characterized by purely contractual economic exchanges, formal role relations, and reciprocal compensation. Dyads that do not progress past this stage are considered low quality LMX. These low quality relationships are characterized by downward influence, role-defined relations, and a lack of shared fates (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). Over time, leaders establish closer relationships with a few key members, who become part of the leader's in-group. Such dyads, which advance into more mature relationships, are characterized by partnership and focus on larger mutual interests rather than self-interest and are considered high quality LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). It is important to consider the leader-member dyad as this is a central relationship in the organizational context, and the quality of this relationship has been shown to relate to many important attitudinal and behavioral work outcomes. For example, in Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) review, they cite numerous examples of significant positive relationships between relationship quality and subordinates' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and citizenship behavior. However, equivocal results have been found with some outcomes, as discussed below.

LMX and Its Antecedents

Although several models of LMX antecedents have been proposed, Gerstner and Day (1997) noted that little cumulative knowledge exists and stated the need for additional empirical research on the development of LMX. Dienesch and Liden (1986) introduced a model of LMX development, wherein leader and member characteristics influence their initial interactions. In the early stages of relationships, leaders test their members by assigning difficult work assignments, and members make attributions about the leader's assignments (e.g., "I am being used" or "The leader is trying to help my professional development") and respond behaviorally. The leader then makes attributions about the member's behavior. Graen and Scandura (1987) proposed an alternative model of LMX development. Referred to as the role-making model, it describes the LMX developmental process as consisting of three phases. In the first phase, *role taking*, leaders communicate roles to their member by making requests and assigning tasks. Leaders assess members' motivation and potential based on their behavioral responses. In the second phase, *role making*, the nature of the relationship is defined. In this stage leaders usually provide members with opportunities to complete unstructured tasks. If members accept this opportunity, then relationships develop into high-quality exchanges. In the third phase, *role routinization*, the quality of the relationship stabilizes and both members of the dyad share clear mutual expectations. Based on these models a number of antecedent variables have been empirically tested, which have primarily centered around member characteristics and the fit between leader-member characteristics (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Member characteristics examined as LMX antecedents include member competence and performance, personality, and upward influence behavior. Substantial empirical evidence suggests that *member competence* predicts LMX quality. The estimated population correlation from Gerstner and Day's (1997) meta-analysis is .28 based on 15 independent samples. Bauer and Green (1996) proposed that member competence interacts with leader delegation, such that greater competence leads to more delegation, and lower levels of competence lead to less delegation. Over time, these interactions influence trust levels and the quality of exchange that develops between a leader and her or his subordinate. Empirical research has also shown support for member *personality* as an antecedent to LMX quality in that negative affectivity negatively relates to LMX (Day & Crain, 1992), whereas extraversion (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994) and locus of control (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994) have positive relationships with LMX quality. Support has also been found for member *upward influence behavior*, an attempt by the subordinate to secure a desired behavior from the supervisor, as an antecedent to LMX (e.g., Deluga & Perry, 1991; Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

In addition to member characteristics, the fit between leaders and members has been examined as an antecedent of LMX, including perceived and actual similarity and mutual liking. For example, research has shown that although simple demographic characteristics do not predict LMX quality, *relational demography* may (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Empirical support for relational demography—the degree to which leaders and subordinate are similar on demographic variables including age, gender, and ethnicity (Graen & Cashman, 1975)—as an antecedent to LMX has been mixed. Similarity in terms of *personality* variables including positive affectivity (Bauer & Green, 1996) and

extraversion (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994) has been shown to predict LMX. Bauer and Green (1996) suggest that when dyad members have similar outlooks due to similar personalities, leaders may view members more positively and trust them more, leading to a higher quality relationship. Likewise, Turban and Jones (1988) reported that subordinates who perceived their leaders as more similar to themselves had greater trust and confidence in their leaders. In addition, support has been found for liking (Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Liden et al., 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997) and perceived similarity (Liden et al., 1993; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994) as predictors of high-quality LMX. The present research extends previous findings on congruence-based variables as antecedents of LMX by focusing on basic motivation-based variables, which have received less attention than personality-based variables. Specifically, the three previously unexamined dimensions of similarity I will focus on are attachment style, identity level, and regulatory focus.

Leader and Follower Attachment Style. Although *attachment style* was originally proposed as a model to explain attachment in infant-parent relationships (Bowlby, 1979), researchers have since applied this framework to adult relationships (Hazan and Shaver, 1987), including those at work (e.g., Berson, Dan, & Yammarino, 2006; Hazen & Shaver, 1990; Sumer & Knight, 2001). According to attachment theory individuals interpret the behaviors of significant others by relying on internal working models of relationships, which vary in their degree of perceived security. A *secure* attachment style is characterized by having trust and comfort with closeness, a positive sense of worthiness, and expectations that others are accepting and supportive (Hazen & Shaver, 1987). Research has shown that in work contexts individuals with secure attachment styles have

a more positive approach to work, are more likely to develop satisfying relationships with coworkers, and are less likely to fear failure and rejection from coworkers (Hazen & Shaver, 1990). In contrast, those with insecure attachment styles (anxious-ambivalent and anxious-avoidant) have difficulty with interpersonal relationships. Workers with an *anxious-ambivalent* attachment style reported a desire to work with others. However, they were more likely to feel misunderstood and underappreciated and reported that interpersonal concerns interfered with work productivity (Hazen & Shaver, 1990). Workers with an *anxious-avoidant* attachment style reported more dissatisfaction with coworkers and were more likely to report that work interferes with their relationships and health (Hazen & Shavers, 1990). Although individuals with insecure attachment styles differ in their approaches to relationships, both insecure attachment styles are related to negative interpersonal outcomes as insecure individuals tend to be defensive and destructive in conflicts (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995).

Keller (2003) made several propositions about the effects of interactions between leader and subordinate attachment styles on the quality of their relationship. Consistent with extant literature on leader-member personality similarity, she proposed that outcomes would be optimal when leader and member attachment styles are congruent. Secure attachment on the part of both the leader and follower should lead to a high quality interaction because followers are receptive and attentive to the leader and the leader in turn is responsive and supportive of the follower. An anxious-ambivalent match between the leader and follower should also result in a high-quality exchange as both members of the dyad satisfy the dependency needs of the other. An anxious-avoidant match should result in satisfactory outcomes as members of the dyad allow each other to

coexist without unwelcome intrusions from the other. In addition, those who are a match on secure attachment style may be even more likely to form high-quality LMX because those with secure attachment styles tend to form satisfying interpersonal relationships. In contrast, because expectations and needs vary across different attachment styles, leader and follower mismatches are likely to negatively impact LMX outcomes. The present research utilizes Carver's (1997) framework, which distinguishes among four attachment styles, instead of the three addressed by Keller (2003). These are secure, anxious-avoidant, and two types of anxious-ambivalent (ambivalent-worry and ambivalent-merger). I expect a similar pattern of results for both anxious-ambivalent attachment styles. These arguments suggest the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Leader-member attachment style congruence will be positively related to LMX quality.

Hypothesis 1b: Leader-member congruence on secure attachment style will have more favorable effects than leader-member congruence on anxious-ambivalent or anxious-avoidant attachment styles.

Leader and Follower Identity. Similarity in terms of *self-identity* is also likely to be important in the development of LMX. Self-concept refers to the storehouse of individuals' knowledge about themselves, including their goals, values, and social roles. This self-relevant knowledge structure gives meaning to information, organizes memories, informs perceptions of oneself and others, and regulates cognition and behavior (Lord & Brown, 2004; Markus, 1977; Oyserman, 2001). Although the self-concept contains all self-relevant knowledge, humans are limited information processors, and therefore, only subsets of this information are available, depending on the identity level that is most important. In particular, researchers (e.g., Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Johnson, Selenta, & Lord, 2006; Sedikides & Brewer, 2001) have identified three levels

of identity: collective, relational, and individual.

People with strong *collective* identities define themselves in terms of organizational groups and pursue shared goals (Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006). Those with collective identities tend to view themselves in terms of the group prototype and evaluate themselves favorably on aspects of the self that are similar to the group (Lord & Brown, 2004). People with *relational* identities are concerned with how others perceive them and their relations with specific others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Employees with relational identities tend to use reflected appraisals, or perceptions of how others see them, as an indicator of belongingness and a proxy for access to social resources (Tice & Baumeister, 2001). People with *individual* identities differentiate themselves from others and pursue personal goals (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Their comparative abilities and outcomes are likely to be the critical factor in interpersonal regulation and the way in which they gain meaning (Lord & Brown, 2004).

Drawing on previous research suggesting that similarity in terms of personality is conducive to high quality relationships, it is likely that leaders and members who are similar in terms of their chronic identities will develop higher quality relationships. Such dyads are expected to have high quality relationships because both parties have overlapping goals and values. At a general level, when identities are congruent, each partner in the dyad verifies the identity of the other, which is psychologically comforting and satisfies the need for being correctly understood by others (Swann, 1999). For example, if both the leader and member share individual identities they are likely to be satisfied because they allow each other to focus on their individual outcomes. If the leader and member share relational identities they are likely to be satisfied because they

both place priority on the quality of their relationship and form a strong affective bond. If both share a collective identity they are also likely to be satisfied as they are likely to share a focus on contributing to the success of their work group or organization. In addition, those who share a relational- or collective-identity level may be even more likely to form high-quality LMX because of their heightened concern with interpersonal relationships.

In cases of mismatches, however, LMX quality is likely to suffer. For example, a member who has a relational-level identity and a leader who has an individual-level identity may lead to the development of a low quality relationship because the member may seek to form a strong affective bond with the leader while the leader will be focused on his/her own outcomes and unconcerned with developing a bond with the member. In this case, the member may be dissatisfied with the leader's lack of concern for the relationship, while the leader may be irritated perceiving that the member is interfering with his or her personal goals. As another example, a member who has an individual-level identity paired with a leader who has a collective-level identity may also lead to a low quality exchange. In this situation the member may perceive the leader as limiting his or her personal professional development, while the leader may be frustrated that the member does not share his or her commitment to the success of the organization. Based on the above reasoning I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2a: Leader-member identity-level congruence will be positively related to LMX quality.

Hypothesis 2b: Leader-member congruence on interdependent (i.e., relational and collective) identity levels will have more favorable effects than leader-member congruence on the individual level.

Leader and follower regulatory focus. Another congruence-based variable that is likely to have an impact on LMX quality is regulatory focus (Higgins, 1997; 1998). Regulatory focus concerns the type of regulatory goals an individual chooses to pursue. Those who are *promotion-focused* strive to achieve an ideal self and eagerly pursue success (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002). Promotion-focused individuals show high motivation for tasks framed in terms of promotion (Shah, Higgins, & Friedman, 1998) and focus on strategies aimed at achieving desired outcomes (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). In contrast, those who are *prevention-focused* strive to avoid negative outcomes and vigilantly avoid losses or failures. These individuals show high motivation when tasks are framed in terms of prevention (Shah et al., 1998) and focus on strategies that will prevent negative outcomes (Higgins et al., 1997).

Interestingly, there is increasing evidence for a phenomenon known as *regulatory fit*, whereby motivation, evaluations, and performance, among other things, are most favorable when a person's regulatory focus matches that of the environment or cues within the environment (e.g., Higgins, 2000; Higgins, Idson, Freitas, Spiegel, & Molden, 2003). Regulatory fit effects occur between people as well. For example, Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002) showed that individuals who are promotion-focused are most inspired by role models who exemplify an ideal self and highlight strategies for achieving success, whereas prevention-focused individuals are most inspired by role models who exemplify a feared self and emphasize strategies for avoiding failure. This evidence that individuals are most receptive to role models who fit their regulatory goals suggests that in exchanges between leaders and followers, leader-member regulatory-focus congruence may foster higher quality relationships than leader-member incongruence on regulatory

focus. However, it is unclear whether a match on promotion or prevention focus would have more favorable effects. Therefore, I propose the following hypothesis and research question:

Hypothesis 3: Leader-member regulatory focus congruence will be positively related to LMX quality.

Research Question: Does leader-member congruence on promotion or prevention focus have more favorable effects?

LMX and Its Outcomes

Consequences of LMX have received considerably more attention than its antecedents. Extant research has shown LMX to predict many work-related outcomes, both attitudinal and performance-related. Previously examined outcomes include subordinates' satisfaction with one's job and supervisor, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, citizenship behaviors, and performance ratings. However, equivocal relationships have sometimes been found with outcomes (Gerstner & Day, 1997), such as commitment, turnover intentions, and objective ratings of performance.

A meta-analysis by Gerstner and Day (1997) reported an estimated corrected correlation of .50 between LMX and *job satisfaction* based on 33 independent samples. However, several studies have not found strong support for a relationship between LMX and satisfaction. For example, using a multidimensional measure of LMX Liden and Maslyn (1998) found that only one of these dimensions (contribution) was significantly related to job satisfaction. In addition, Vecchio and Gobdel (1984) found that out-group members were less satisfied than in-group or middle-group members, but middle- and in-group members did not significantly differ in levels of job satisfaction.

Research has generally shown LMX to be positively related to *supervisor satisfaction*, and Gerstner and Day's (1997) meta-analytic estimate of this relationship was .71 based on 27 independent samples. However, several studies (e.g., Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986; Liden & Graen, 1980) found no significant relationship between LMX quality and supervisor satisfaction.

Empirical evidence demonstrates a positive relationship between LMX and *affective organizational commitment*. Meyer and Allen (1991) defined affective organizational commitment as an employee's "emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization." Those with high levels of affective commitment stay with their organization because they *want* to do so. Several studies have found a significant positive relationship between affective commitment and LMX quality (e.g., Duchon, et al., 1986; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). However, several studies employing structural equation modeling qualified this simple correlation. For example, Green, Anderson, and Shivers' (1996) model supported an indirect effect of LMX on organizational commitment through satisfaction, and both Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) and Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) found that perceived organizational support dominated LMX in the prediction of commitment.

Although *actual turnover* has not consistently been found to relate to LMX quality (Gerstner & Day, 1997), substantial research has shown *turnover intentions* relate to LMX quality. The corrected estimate from Gerstner and Day's (1997) meta-analysis based on 8 samples was -.31.

Empirical evidence generally shows a positive relationship between *supervisory ratings of performance* and LMX quality. Gerstner and Day (1997) report meta-analytic

estimates of .55 (k=12) and .30 (k=30) for the relationship between performance ratings and leader and member perceptions of LMX, respectively. However, findings regarding *objective performance* are less consistent, with some studies showing no relationship between LMX and objective performance indices (e.g., Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984), and others showing a significant positive relationship between the two (e.g., Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982).

Meta-analytic evidence strongly supports a positive relationship between *organizational citizenship behaviors* (OCBs) and LMX. Citizenship behaviors refer to those behaviors which are not formally a part of the task requirements of a job but support the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the critical catalyst for tasks to be accomplished (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In their meta-analysis Ilies, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (2007) estimate this relationship to be .37 for overall citizenship performance, and .38 and .31 for OCBI (OCB directed at specific others) and OCBO (OCB directed at the organization), respectively. In addition, using structural equation modeling techniques Wayne, et al. (1997) and Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) showed that LMX was positively related to OCB.

Based on previous research and the arguments stated above, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: LMX will be positively related to (a) satisfaction with one's job and (b) satisfaction with one's supervisor, (c) citizenship behaviors, (d) affective organizational commitment, and (e) task performance. LMX will be negatively related to (f) turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5: LMX quality mediates effects of leader-member attachment style congruence on work criteria.

Hypothesis 6: LMX quality mediates effects of leader-member identity level congruence on work criteria.

Hypothesis 7: LMX quality mediates effects of leader-member regulatory focus congruence on work criteria.

As previously stated, LMX has been found to relate to important outcome variables in some cases, but not others. In response to these mixed findings, Scandura (1999) stated the necessity of considering what constitutes “fair exchange in leadership” in order to account for the different findings. Because organizational justice communicates information about the quality of economic and social exchange relationships, and LMX concerns relationship-based exchanges between leaders and members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), integrating the two literatures enhances our understanding of both domains (Tyler & DeCremer, 2005).

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice refers to employees’ perceptions of fairness in the workplace (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Justice deals with how two or more actors relate to one another in exchange situations (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Exchange processes can be either economic or socioemotional, and because of the exchange processes integral to leader-member relationships it is important to consider subordinates’ perceptions of justice and their relationship with the quality of LMX and important work-related outcomes. Organizational justice generally encompasses three types of fairness: distributive, procedural, and interactional (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Early research involving organizational justice was primarily concerned with *distributive justice*. Distributive justice concerns whether or not the actual distribution of an outcome is perceived as fair. The concept of distributive justice is derived from Adam’s (1964) equity theory, in which individuals compare their ratios of inputs

(perceived contributions to the exchange) and outcomes (rewards received from the exchange) to those of others. Input-outcome ratios that are equivalent are associated with feelings of satisfaction. Conversely, situations perceived as inequitable are dissatisfying, and individuals are likely to experience distributive injustice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Extensive research has demonstrated that distributive justice is related to several important organizational outcomes. A meta-analysis by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) showed that distributive justice is significantly related to both behavioral and affective outcomes. Significant positive relationships were found between distributive justice and positive outcomes including work performance, citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, affective commitment, and leader-member exchange quality. Significant negative relationships were found between distributive justice and counterproductive behaviors and turnover intentions.

As the emphasis shifted from the results of reward allocation to processes by which rewards are allocated, greater attention was paid to *procedural justice*. Procedural justice deals with one's sense of whether or not the "methods, mechanisms, and processes" by which an outcome was determined were fair (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998, p. 26). Thibaut and Walker (1975) distinguished between two dimensions of procedural justice. Process control refers to the ability to voice one's views during a procedure, whereas decision control refers to the ability to influence the actual outcome itself. Leaders may have ultimate control over decisions; however, the process by which those decisions are made can affect perceptions of justice. Perceptions of procedural fairness have been found to mitigate the negative effects of unfavorable outcomes (Brockner & Weisenfeld, 1996). If rules and procedures are deemed fair, it is likely that subordinates

believe that although immediate outcomes may not be desirable, over the long run they should receive what they believe they deserve. Cohen-Charash and Spector's (2001) meta-analysis showed that procedural justice was positively related to many favorable organizational outcomes, including work performance, citizenship behaviors, job and supervisor satisfaction, affective and normative commitment, and leader-member exchange quality. In contrast, procedural justice was negatively related to counterproductive behaviors, continuance commitment, and turnover intentions.

Researchers have also examined *interactional justice* (e.g., Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional justice focuses on the quality of the interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented and the fair dissemination of information (Bies & Moag, 1986). Aspects of the communication process, such as politeness, honesty, and respect, are particularly important (Tyler & Bies, 1990). Meta-analytic evidence from Cohen-Charash and Spector's (2001) suggests that interactional justice is positively related to work performance, job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, affective commitment, and leader-member exchange quality, and negatively related to continuance commitment and turnover intentions.

Integrating Organizational Justice with LMX

Because of the economic and social exchange processes inherent in leader-member relationships, integrating research on LMX and organizational justice is important. Despite Hollander's (1978) call for rethinking LMX, including fair exchanges in leadership, and Scandura's (1999) more recent theorizing about how justice might operate within an LMX framework, little empirical research has attempted to integrate these two domains. The goal of the present research is to integrate research on LMX and

organizational justice by proposing and evaluating different plausible interactions between LMX and the various dimensions of organizational justice.

Scandura (1999) proposed a model of how LMX and justice are related. According to her model, in the early stages of a leader-member relationship distributive, procedural and interactional justice contribute to the decision to become part of the in-group or out-group. Once the in-group/out-group decision has been made, LMX positively affects outcomes through perceptions of procedural and distributive justice. Specifically, procedural justice is proposed to mediate the relationship between LMX and outcomes for those reporting high levels of LMX, while distributive justice is proposed to mediate the relationship between LMX and outcomes for those reporting low levels of LMX (see Figure 1). While this model calls attention to the concurrent examination of LMX and justice, a problem inherent in this conceptualization of the relationship between LMX and justice is the mediating role of justice. According to this model LMX quality *causes* perceptions of justice, such that high quality LMX causes perceptions of procedural justice and low quality LMX causes perceptions of distributive justice, which then impact more distal work outcomes. However, in contrast to her illustrated model, Scandura's reasoning that is presented in the text of her article actually specifies a moderated model rather than a mediated one. Therefore, rather than assessing a mediated model, I will test the more plausible moderated model, such that interactions between LMX and justice predict outcomes.

Justice by LMX Interactions

A more feasible conceptualization of the interface of LMX and justice is that the two constructs interact with one another (see Figure 2). It is possible that the emphasis

Figure 1. Scandura's (1999) proposed model.

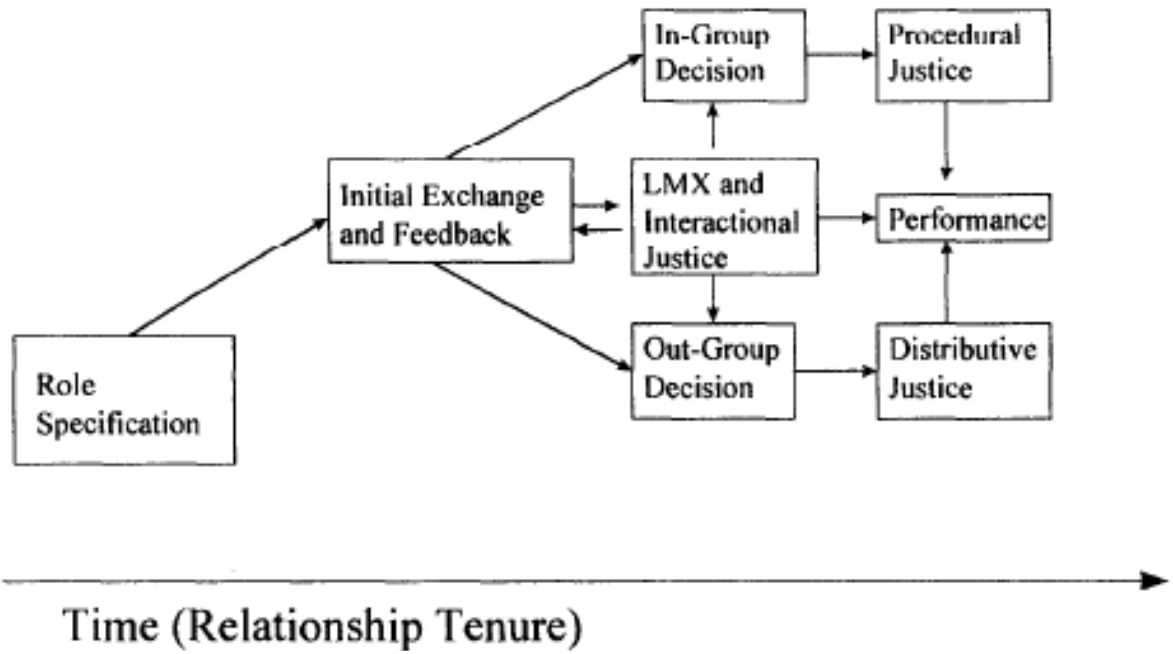
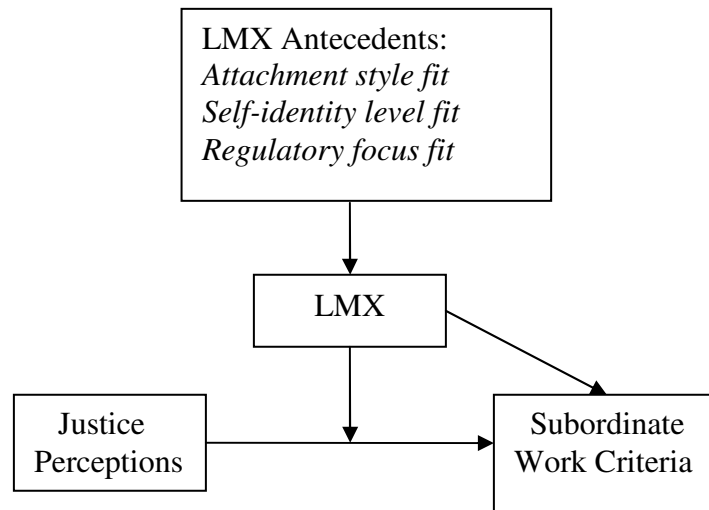


Figure 2. Proposed model of the interactive effects between LMX and justice on subordinates' work criteria.



that members place on different types of justice is a function of the quality of the relationship they share with their leader, a sentiment that is shared by Scandura (1999). Low quality LMX relationships are characterized as more transactional in nature. In these relationships interactions are centered around short-term *quid pro quo* exchanges, and subordinates are likely concerned about immediate outcomes. Subordinates do not necessarily believe that things will be fair in the long run and are most concerned about immediate fairness in exchange and unconcerned about the process by which outcomes are determined. In addition, for subordinates in low quality LMX relationships individual concerns are likely to be most salient. Interestingly, these concerns that exemplify low quality LMX relationships parallel those of distributive justice, which involves the fairness of the distribution of resources, such as promotions, rewards, and evaluations. Following this reasoning, perceptions of distributive justice should be most important for subordinates with low quality LMX.

High quality LMX relationships are more transformational in nature and are characterized by mutual trust, respect, and obligation. Because of the high quality of their relationship with their supervisors subordinates are likely to be less concerned with immediate results and more concerned with long term outcomes. Even if the immediate distribution of outcomes is perceived as unfair, their faith in the process should lead them to believe that in the long run outcomes will be fair. In the context of LMX, procedural justice would concern whether the process by which leaders determined the allocation of resources (e.g., promotions, rewards, evaluations) was fair. Therefore, perceptions of procedural justice should be more important when subordinates have high quality LMX.

In addition, in the context of LMX, interactional justice concerns how fair members deem the interpersonal treatment that they receive from their supervisor to be. Because individuals in high quality relationships are more sensitive to socioemotional outcomes, such as respect and dignity, it seems likely then that interactional justice will be most important for such individuals. On the other hand, issues pertaining to interactional justice should be less relevant for members who have low quality LMX. As long as economic outcomes are favorable (e.g., high distributive justice), socioemotional outcomes should be less salient for members with low quality LMX. Therefore, perceptions of interactional justice should be more important when subordinates have high quality LMX.

To summarize, distributive justice should have the most positive effects when LMX is low, whereas procedural and interactional justice should have the most positive effects when LMX is high (see Figures 3-5).

Hypothesis 8: Distributive justice and LMX interact, such that distributive fairness has stronger effects on the work outcomes of members with low quality (vs. high quality) LMX.

Hypothesis 9: Procedural justice and LMX interact, such that procedural fairness has stronger effects on the work outcomes of members with high quality (vs. low quality) LMX.

Hypothesis 10: Interactional justice and LMX interact, such that interactional fairness has stronger effects on the work outcomes of members with high quality (vs. low quality) LMX.

Chapter Two- Method

Participants

Participants comprised working undergraduate students at a large research university and their work supervisors. A concerted effort was made to recruit non-traditional students who are older and have more work experience than the typical undergraduate by distributing surveys in early morning and late night classes. Five hundred surveys were distributed, and 276 completed subordinate surveys and 164 completed supervisor surveys were returned, resulting in a response rate of 55% for subordinates and 33% for supervisors. Of these, there were 150 matched pairs (30% overall response rate). After examining data closely for cases in which the same person may have completed both the subordinate and supervisor surveys (e.g., similar handwriting), the sample was reduced to 140 dyads. Subordinates were mostly female (73.6%) and majority white (71.7%) and Hispanic (14.3%). The average age of subordinates was 23.55 ($SD = 6.26$), and they worked an average of 28.09 hours per week ($SD = 8.43$). Subordinates had worked in their current organization an average of 29.92 months ($SD = 31.06$) and an average of 19.44 months ($SD = 23.75$) with their current supervisor. Supervisors were majority male (54%) and white (78.6%), and they worked an average of 44.43 hours per week ($SD = 11.05$). The majority of supervisors ranged from 30-49 years of age. Participants worked in a variety of industries including retail or service, medical, government, professional, and technical industries.

Procedure

Participants were asked to complete a survey packet, which included measures of LMX quality, motivation (i.e., attachment, identity, and regulatory focus), justice perceptions, and the focal work outcomes (i.e., job and supervisor satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and turnover intentions). The survey also included demographic information, including age, gender, ethnicity, job tenure, and tenure with supervisor. Participants were also instructed to give their supervisor a survey packet to complete, which included demographic information (age, gender, ethnicity), measures of LMX, motivation, and ratings of task and citizenship performance. Supervisors returned completed surveys via a self-addressed and stamped envelope provided by the researcher.

Measures

All attitudinal constructs except leader and member LMX were measured with 5-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A complete list of items for the subordinate and supervisor surveys can be found in Appendices A and B, respectively.

Demographics

Demographic information was collected from both supervisors and subordinate including gender, age, ethnicity, and tenure.

Member LMX

The LMX-7 (Graen et al., 1982) was used to assess subordinate perceptions of LMX. Previous research has shown that it is highly correlated with lengthier measures (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and suggested that the LMX-7 provides the soundest psychometric properties of available LMX measures (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In their

meta-analysis Gerstner and Day (1997) reported a mean alpha of .89 for this measure. A sample item is “I have a good working relationship with my supervisor.” In the present study the coefficient alpha for this scale was .92.

Leader LMX

Because leader and member perceptions of LMX differ (average sample-weighted correlation between leader and member LMX from meta-analysis is .29 from Gerstner & Day, 1997), and previous research has emphasized the importance of measuring LMX from both leader and member perspectives (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994), leader perceptions of LMX were measured using a revised form of the LMX-7 (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). Gerstner and Day (1997) reported an average alpha of .78 for this measure. A sample item is “I have an effective working relationship with my direct report.” The coefficient alpha of this scale for the present study was .82.

Organizational Justice

Dimensions of organizational justice were measured using Colquitt’s (2001) scales. Distributive justice was assessed using four items, which address the extent to which subordinates perceive their work outcomes as fair. A sample item is “My pay and other work outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my work.” Procedural justice was assessed using seven items, which concern the extent to which subordinates perceive the system that determines pay and other work outcomes as fair. A sample item is “I have been able to express my views and feelings during those procedures.” Interpersonal justice was measured using Colquitt’s interpersonal scale, which consists of four items that assess the extent to which the leader treats the subordinate with respect and dignity. A sample item is “[My supervisor] treats me in a polite manner.” Johnson, Selenta, and

Lord (2006) reported coefficient alphas of .93, .87, and .91 for the distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice subscales, respectively. In the present study the coefficient alphas for these scales were .97, .88, and .90 for distributive, procedural and interpersonal justice, respectively.

Attachment Style

Adult attachment style was measured using Carver's (1997) measure. The five item avoidance scale assessed anxious-avoidant attachment. A sample item is "I get uncomfortable when someone wants to be very close." The three item ambivalence-worry and three item ambivalence-merger scales were used to measure anxious-ambivalent attachment. Sample items are "I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me" (ambivalence-worry) and "I have trouble getting others to be as close as I want them to be" (ambivalent-merger). The three item security scale was used to measure secure attachment. A sample item is "When I'm close to someone it gives me a sense of security about life in general." Carver (1997) reported alpha coefficients of .76, .69, .73, and .59 for these scales, respectively. In the present study the coefficient alphas for these scales were .83, .83, .72, and .80 for subordinate secure, anxious-avoidant, ambivalent-worry, and ambivalent-merger, respectively, and .89, .84, .75, and .87 for supervisor ratings, respectively. Scores on these scales were transformed into a categorical variable by standardizing participants' scores on all four attachment styles and assigning them to the attachment style with the highest z-score.

Self-Identity Level

Leaders' and subordinates' trait levels of self-identity were assessed using the Levels of Self-Concept Scale developed by Selenta and Lord (2005). Comparative

identity, which is comprised of five items emphasizing one's abilities, performance, and general standing above that of others, was used to measure the individual level. A sample item is "I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to my coworkers." Concern for others, composed of five items emphasizing sharing benevolent relationships with other individuals, was used to measure the relational level. An example item is "Caring deeply about another person such as a close friend or relative is important to me." Group achievement focus, which is comprised of five items emphasizing motivation based on the welfare of one's group, was used to measure the collective level. A sample item is "I feel great pride when my team or group does well, even if I'm not the main reason for its success." Johnson, et al. (2006) reported coefficient alphas of .82, .84 and .73 for the individual, relational and collective subscales, respectively. In the present study the coefficient alphas for these scales were, .81, .80, and .77 for subordinate ratings, and .84, .82, and .80 for supervisor ratings of individual, relational, and collective identity level, respectively.

Regulatory Focus

Promotion and prevention regulatory foci was measured using Johnson and Chang's (2007) work-based regulatory focus scale. Six items each are used to measure promotion ($\alpha = .82$; e.g., "In general, I think about positive aspects of my work") and prevention ($\alpha = .81$; e.g., "I am focused on failure experiences while at work") focus. In the present study the coefficient alphas for these scales were .83 and .82 for subordinate ratings and .86 and .83 for supervisor ratings of promotion and prevention focus, respectively.

Job Satisfaction

Subordinates' job satisfaction was measured using the three-item scale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979). A sample item is "All in all, I am satisfied with my job." Spector et al. (2006) reported a reliability coefficient of .90 for this scale. In the present study the coefficient alphas for this scale was .89.

Supervisor Satisfaction

Supervisor satisfaction was measured using four items from the supervision subscale of Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey. A sample item is "My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job." Spector (1985) reported a coefficient alpha of .82. In the present study the coefficient alphas for this scale was .78.

Organizational Commitment

Subordinates' levels of commitment to their organization were measured using Meyer and Allen's (1997) revised 6-item subscale for affective commitment. A sample item assessing affective commitment is "My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me." Gellatly, Meyer, and Luchak (2006) reported a coefficient alpha of .89 for this subscale. In the present study the coefficient alphas for this scale was .81.

Turnover Intentions

Employee intentions to leave the organization were measured using a three item scale from Camman, et al. (1979). A sample item is "I often think about quitting my job with my present organization." Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002) reported an alpha reliability of .79 for this scale. In the present study the coefficient alphas for this scale was .86.

Work Performance

Leaders' ratings of subordinate task performance were assessed using Williams and Anderson's (1991) seven item scale. A sample item is "[My subordinate] adequately completes assigned duties." Williams and Anderson (1991) reported an internal consistency reliability of 0.91 for this measure. Furthermore, ratings of OCB will also be collected using Williams and Anderson's (1991) measure, which includes seven items that assess OCBI (i.e., those directed at specific individuals) and six items that assess OCBO (i.e., those directed at the organization) subscales. A sample OCBI item is "I/my subordinate help(s) others who have been absent." A sample OCBO item is "I/my subordinate adhere(s) to informal rules devised to maintain order." Williams and Anderson (1991) reported internal consistency reliabilities of 0.88 and 0.75 for OCBI and OCBO, respectively. OCB ratings will be collected from both supervisors and subordinates. In the present study the coefficient alphas for these scales were .80, .71, and .89 for task performance, OCBOs, and OCBI, respectively.¹

¹ One item, "Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order," was not used in calculating the scale score for OCBO as deleting this item substantially improved scale reliability.

Chapter Three- Results

In order to identify leader-member dyads, leader and member responses were matched based upon identical numerical codes on both surveys in the dyad. Specifically, the leader and member responses were merged to create a dataset with each leader-member dyad representing one case in the dataset. This dataset was used for all subsequent analyses.

Data Screening and Descriptive Statistics

First, data were inspected for violations of assumptions of correlation and regression analyses. Data are assumed to be normally distributed when utilizing Pearson's product moment correlation. To check this assumption, normality was verified by examining skewness and kurtosis values of each variable. On the whole, variables had acceptable skewness and kurtosis values. The data was also examined for the presence of outliers. However, all outliers were plausible values for each scale and were therefore not removed. When conducting regression analysis independence, linearity, normality of residuals, and homoscedasticity of residuals are assumed. Because of the nature of this data collection independence is assumed. The data were checked for violations of these assumptions using the procedures outlined in Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003). Normality of residuals was tested using q-q plots. Visual inspection of these plots indicates normality of residuals for all variables. Linearity was examined by plotting the residuals against each measured independent variable and against predicted values. On the whole, scatterplots appeared linear, providing support for this assumption.

Homoscedasticity of residuals was assessed using a modified Levene test comparing each independent variable to member and leader LMX, and each of the work criteria. Given the robustness of regression analysis to this violation, analyses were conducted without transforming the data.

Scale scores were created for each of the study variables. After reverse scoring appropriate items, scale scores were created by taking the average response across items for each measure. For cases in which an individual item response was missing, the average scale score was computed excluding the missing item. Means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 1. Coefficient alpha reliabilities are displayed along the diagonal.

Control Variables

Although simple demographics have not been shown to predict LMX quality (Gerstner & Day, 1997) age, gender, ethnicity, and tenure were examined prior to focal analyses as potential control variables. Using the correlation matrices, each demographic variable was examined as a potential control variable. In order to preserve statistical power only demographic variables that were significantly related to study variables were controlled for during hypothesis testing. Table 2 displays these relationships. In addition, because similarity in terms of demographic characteristics has sometimes been shown to relate to exchange quality (e.g. Graen & Cashman, 1975) variables were created to indicate similarity in terms of gender and ethnicity. These variables were then correlated with supervisor and subordinate perceptions of leader member exchange quality, and none of the correlations were significant. None of the demographic variables were significantly correlated with supervisor perceptions of LMX, and only subordinate age

was significantly correlated with subordinate perceptions of LMX ($r = -.23, p < .05$).

However, while this correlation is statistically significant, it was not deemed practically significant, and therefore was not used as a control variable in subsequent analyses.²

Analysis Strategy

Hypotheses 1a and 1b, regarding the relationship between leader-member attachment style congruence and LMX quality, were tested using independent samples t tests. Hypotheses 2 and 3, regarding relationships between leader-member congruence on identity level and regulatory focus and LMX quality, were tested using Edwards' (1994) polynomial regression method to determine whether a congruence effect existed. This method involves regressing the outcome in question on the following variables: X (subordinate standing on congruence variable; e.g., relational identity), Y (supervisor standing on congruence variable; e.g., relational identity), W (dummy variable where $1 = X \geq Y$; and $0 = X < Y$), $W * X$ (product term of W and X), and $W * Y$ (product term of W and Y). Edwards outlines five assumptions that must be met in order to use absolute difference scores. First, the unstandardized beta weights for X and Y must be equal in magnitude and opposite in sign. Second, the unstandardized beta weights for $W * X$ and $W * Y$ must be equal in magnitude and opposite in sign. Third, all beta weights must be significant, except that of W . Fourth, the unstandardized beta weight for $W * X$ must be twice the magnitude and opposite in sign of that of X . Finally, the F value for the full regression model must be significant. To test these assumptions, both supervisor- and subordinate-rated LMX were each regressed on X , Y , W , $W * X$, and $W * Y$ in five separate models (one model for individual, relational, and collective identity, and promotion and

² Analyses conducted with subordinate age as a control variable produced the same pattern of results.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, alphas, and correlations among study variables.

| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|--------------------------------|----------|-----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| <i>LMX</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Leader | 4.42 | 0.56 | (0.82) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Member | 4.12 | 0.75 | .43** | (0.92) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Justice</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Procedural | 3.45 | 0.81 | .26** | .44** | (0.88) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Distributive | 3.29 | 1.29 | .25** | .30** | .62** | (0.97) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Interpersonal | 4.44 | 0.67 | .28* | .59** | .23** | 0.12 | (0.90) | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Member Attachment Style</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Secure | 4.08 | 0.65 | 0.06 | .25** | .30** | 0.15 | .18* | (0.83) | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Avoidant | 3.73 | 0.90 | .18* | .28** | .19* | 0.12 | .17* | .33** | (0.83) | | | | | | | |
| 8. Amb-Worry | 2.22 | 0.95 | -0.16 | -.19* | -.29** | -.25** | -0.13 | -0.07 | -.22** | (0.72) | | | | | | |
| 9. Amb-Merger | 2.02 | 0.80 | -.18* | -0.03 | -0.03 | 0.03 | -0.10 | 0.10 | -0.14 | .29** | (0.80) | | | | | |
| <i>Leader Attachment Style</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Secure | 4.06 | 0.84 | .23** | 0.08 | 0.08 | 0.10 | 0.12 | .21* | 0.01 | 0.01 | -0.14 | (0.89) | | | | |
| 11. Avoidant | 3.77 | 0.81 | .24** | -0.05 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.09 | 0.00 | -0.07 | -0.05 | 0.03 | .55** | (0.84) | | | |
| 12. Amb-Worry | 2.15 | 0.99 | -.25** | -0.10 | -0.02 | -0.10 | -0.05 | -0.09 | -0.01 | 0.14 | 0.01 | -0.05 | -.28** | (0.75) | | |
| 13. Amb-Merger | 1.95 | 0.86 | -0.13 | 0.03 | 0.10 | -0.06 | -0.07 | 0.02 | -0.01 | 0.05 | 0.16 | -.20* | -.34** | .41* | (0.87) | |
| <i>Member Self-Identity</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14. Individual | 3.40 | 0.86 | -0.02 | 0.07 | -0.07 | -0.07 | 0.10 | 0.16 | -0.13 | .22* | .28** | 0.02 | 0.10 | 0.09 | 0.02 | (0.81) |
| 15. Relational | 4.63 | 0.44 | .17* | .40** | .27** | 0.13 | .32** | .29** | .35** | -0.05 | -0.08 | 0.02 | -0.06 | -0.07 | -0.02 | -0.05 |
| 16. Collective | 4.31 | 0.55 | .17* | .39** | .29** | 0.13 | .34* | .21* | .18* | -0.06 | -0.13 | 0.09 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.07 |
| <i>Leader Self-Identity</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17. Individual | 3.14 | 0.98 | 0.05 | -0.03 | -0.12 | -0.13 | -0.05 | 0.06 | -0.04 | -0.04 | -0.02 | .17* | 0.07 | .20* | .21* | 0.14 |
| 18. Relational | 4.61 | 0.47 | .35* | 0.04 | 0.10 | 0.06 | 0.16 | 0.00 | 0.03 | -0.06 | -0.15 | .36** | .25** | 0.01 | -0.08 | 0.12 |
| 19. Collective | 4.53 | 0.48 | .34** | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.11 | -0.05 | -0.02 | -0.06 | 0.01 | 0.12 | .31** | -0.09 | -0.10 | 0.15 |
| <i>Member Reg Focus</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20. Promotion | 4.09 | 0.63 | -0.02 | .20* | .37** | .26** | 0.11 | 0.14 | 0.13 | -0.01 | -0.01 | -0.06 | -.21* | 0.14 | -0.02 | 0.01 |
| 21. Prevention | 2.47 | 0.85 | -0.02 | 0.07 | -0.09 | -0.03 | 0.09 | -0.11 | -0.16 | 0.16 | .26** | 0.01 | 0.02 | -0.08 | 0.05 | 0.14 |
| <i>Leader Reg Focus</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 22. Promotion | 4.47 | 0.57 | .25** | 0.09 | 0.07 | 0.15 | 0.07 | 0.02 | 0.10 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.11 | 0.15 | -.17* | -0.14 | 0.01 |
| 23. Prevention | 2.43 | 0.92 | -0.06 | 0.07 | 0.05 | -0.02 | -0.06 | -0.05 | -0.06 | 0.01 | -.18* | -0.16 | -0.16 | 0.14 | .33** | 0.00 |
| <i>Outcomes</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 24. Job sat | 4.00 | 0.98 | .26** | .49** | .65** | .48** | .31** | .19* | .25** | -0.14 | -0.01 | 0.06 | 0.02 | 0.08 | 0.10 | 0.04 |
| 25. Super sat | 4.40 | 0.67 | .34** | .64** | .28** | 0.16 | .73** | 0.16 | .20* | -.22* | -.17* | 0.03 | 0.01 | -0.06 | 0.01 | 0.12 |
| 26. Org commit | 3.11 | 0.85 | .34** | .36** | .59** | .47** | .25** | .20* | .23** | -0.13 | -0.13 | 0.07 | -0.05 | -0.13 | -0.04 | -0.07 |
| 27. Turnover int | 2.76 | 1.26 | -.17* | -.21* | -.33** | -0.32 | -.18* | -0.09 | -.23** | 0.07 | 0.13 | -0.02 | 0.03 | -0.04 | 0.07 | 0.09 |
| 28. Task perf (sup) | 4.51 | 0.60 | .51** | 0.16 | 0.11 | 0.11 | .24** | 0.07 | 0.01 | -0.08 | -0.12 | 0.10 | 0.06 | -0.10 | -0.10 | -0.12 |
| 29. OCBO (sup) | 4.42 | 0.65 | .32** | 0.14 | -0.03 | 0.01 | .25** | 0.00 | -0.05 | -0.01 | -0.10 | 0.02 | 0.10 | -.18* | -.22* | -.17* |
| 30. OCBI (sup) | 4.27 | 0.71 | .56** | .29** | .30* | 0.13 | .30** | 0.11 | 0.15 | -0.12 | -.19* | .20* | 0.09 | -0.14 | -0.14 | -0.13 |

Table 2. Correlations of demographic variables with LMX.

| | Member LMX | Leader LMX |
|------------------------|------------|------------|
| <i>Demographics</i> | | |
| 1. Member age | -0.07 | -0.23** |
| 2. Leader age | 0.00 | 0.06 |
| 3. Member gender | -0.13 | -0.16 |
| 4. Leader gender | 0.04 | 0.07 |
| 5. Member ethnicity | -0.04 | -0.07 |
| 6. Leader ethnicity | -0.04 | 0.03 |
| 7. Member org. tenure | 0.02 | -0.14 |
| 8. Relationship tenure | 0.10 | -0.07 |

Note: $N = 140$ matched supervisor-subordinate pairs; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

prevention foci). If Edwards' assumptions are met, then a congruence structure exists and the dependent variable can be regressed on the absolute difference of X and Y variables.

If they are not met, then the use of absolute difference scores is inappropriate and I examined the separate direct effects instead.

Hypothesis 4, regarding relationships between perceptions of LMX quality and work criteria, was tested by examining bivariate correlations of supervisor and subordinate perceptions of LMX with each work criterion.

Hypotheses 5-7, regarding the mediating role of LMX in the relationship between congruence on motivational variables and work criteria, were tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures for testing mediation. According to these guidelines, three assumptions must be met. First, the independent variable (motivational variable) is significantly related to the mediator (supervisor or subordinate LMX). Second, the independent variable (motivational variable) is significantly related to the criterion variable (work outcome). Third, the mediator (supervisor or subordinate LMX) is significantly related to the criterion variable (work outcome). Finally, the relationship

between the independent variable (motivational variable) and the criterion variable (work outcome) is significantly reduced when the effects of the mediator variable (supervisor or subordinate LMX) are controlled (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Hypotheses 8-10, regarding the interactive effects of LMX and justice perceptions on work criteria, were tested using moderated hierarchical regression. Separate sets of analyses were conducted using subordinates' and supervisors' perceptions of LMX. First, each of the work criteria was regressed on the justice type of interest (distributive, procedural, interpersonal) and LMX perception of interest (leader, member) in Step 1. In Step 2, the justice by LMX interaction term was entered. Main effect terms were centered, and the centered values were used to calculate interaction terms (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Where significant, interactions were plotted using values that were one standard deviation above and below the predictor means.

Hypotheses 1-3: Motivation-Based Congruence and LMX

Independent samples *t* tests were used to test Hypotheses 1a and 1b to determine whether a congruence effect existed for attachment style. Supervisors' and subordinates' attachment style scores were converted to *z* scores and each participant was assigned to the attachment style with the highest *z* score. Subsequently, dyads were categorized as either a match or a mismatch on attachment style. Results indicated that those who were mismatched on attachment style had higher quality member-rated LMX ($M = 4.20, SD = .70$) than those who were matched on attachment style ($M = 3.88, SD = .82$), $t(137) = -2.31, p < .05$. Results were similar for leader-rated LMX, where mismatched dyads reported higher quality LMX ($M = 4.48, SD = .53$) than matched dyads ($M = 4.26, SD = .60$), $t(137) = -2.04, p < .05$. Therefore, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were not supported.

Although attachment style congruence did not lead to higher quality LMX, I examined whether a match on secure attachment style led to higher quality relationships than a match on other attachment styles. There was no significant difference in member LMX for secure matches ($M = 4.16$, $SD = 1.02$) versus other matches ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .77$), $t(37) = 1.06$, *ns*, and no significant difference in leader LMX for secure matches ($M = 4.46$, $SD = .64$) versus other matches ($M = 4.21$, $SD = .59$), $t(37) = 1.06$, *ns*.

To test Hypotheses 2a and 2b, Edwards' polynomial regression method was used to determine whether a congruence effect existed for each identity level (individual, relational, collective). Specifically, separate analyses were conducted for each identity level and for supervisor and subordinate perceptions of LMX. Edwards' criteria for using absolute difference scores were not met. Therefore, Hypotheses 2a and 2b were not supported. However, there did appear to be direct relationships between identity level and LMX. Results indicated that subordinate ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$) and supervisor ($\beta = .42$, $p < .01$) relational identity level were significant predictors of supervisor perceptions of LMX. In addition, supervisor collective identity ($\beta = .39$, $p < .01$) was a significant predictor of supervisor perceptions of LMX. Subordinate relational identity ($\beta = .68$, $p < .01$) significantly predicted subordinate perceptions of LMX. Subordinate collective identity ($\beta = .53$, $p < .01$) also significantly predicted subordinate perceptions of LMX. Results of these analyses are shown in Table 3.

To test Hypothesis 3a and the research question, Edwards' polynomial regression method was used to determine whether a congruence effect existed for each regulatory focus type (promotion, prevention). Unfortunately, Edwards' criteria for using absolute difference scores were not met. Although Hypothesis 3a was not supported, it does

appear that regulatory focus contributes to LMX because supervisor promotion focus ($\beta = .26, p < .01$) significantly predicted supervisor perceptions of LMX, and subordinate promotion focus ($\beta = .23, p < .05$) significantly predicted subordinate perceptions of LMX. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.

Relationships between LMX and Work Criteria

Hypotheses 4a-f, regarding relationships between perceptions of LMX quality and seven work criteria, were tested by examining bivariate relationships between supervisor and subordinate perceptions of LMX and each of the work criteria. Supervisor ($r = .26, p < .01$) and subordinate ($r = .49, p < .01$) perceptions of LMX were both significantly, positively related to subordinate job satisfaction, providing support for hypothesis 4a. Supervisor ($r = .34, p < .01$) and subordinate ($r = .64, p < .01$) perceptions of LMX were both significantly, positively related to subordinates' satisfaction with their supervisor in support of Hypothesis 4b. Supervisor ($r = .56, p < .01$) and subordinate ($r = .29, p < .01$) perceptions of LMX were significantly, positively related to supervisor rated citizenship behaviors directed toward individuals, and supervisor perceptions of LMX were significantly, positively related to supervisor rated citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization ($r = .32, p < .01$), partially supporting Hypothesis 4c. Supervisor ($r = .34, p < .01$) and subordinate ($r = .36, p < .01$) perceptions of LMX were both significantly related to subordinate affective organizational commitment, supporting Hypothesis 4d. Supervisor perceptions of LMX were significantly, positively related to supervisor rated task performance ($r = .51, p < .01$), in partial support of Hypothesis 4e. Supervisor ($r = -.17, p < .05$) and subordinate ($r = -.21, p < .05$) perceptions of LMX

Table 3. Test of Edwards' assumptions for identity level.

| | Individual Identity | | Relational Identity | | Collective Identity | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|
| | Member LMX | Leader LMX | Member LMX | Leader LMX | Member LMX | Leader LMX |
| <i>Step 1</i> | | | | | | |
| Member ID level (X) | .06 | -.02 | .68** | .24* | .63** | .15 |
| Leader ID level (Y) | -.03 | .03 | .09 | .42** | .03 | .39** |
| <i>F</i> | .40 | .24 | 13.03** | 12.55** | 12.41** | 10.68** |
| <i>R</i> ² | .01 | .00 | .16 | .16 | .15 | .14 |
| <i>Step 2</i> | | | | | | |
| X | .18 | -.10 | 1.15* | .23 | .76** | -.03 |
| Y | -.09 | -.08 | -.27 | .45** | -.11 | .42** |
| W | -.22 | -.23 | .28 | -.45 | .13 | -.16 |
| W*X | -.37 | -.06 | -.50 | -.09 | -.24 | .16 |
| W*Y | .33 | .42** | .64 | .21 | .17 | .23 |
| ΔF | 1.77 | 4.21** | 1.74 | .52 | .37 | .79 |
| ΔR^2 | .04 | .09 | .03 | .01 | .01 | .02 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

Table 4. Test of Edwards' assumptions for regulatory focus.

| | Promotion Regulatory Focus | | Prevention Regulatory Focus | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|------------|-----------------------------|------------|
| | Member LMX | Leader LMX | Member LMX | Leader LMX |
| <i>Step 1</i> | | | | |
| Member reg focus (X) | .23* | -.06 | .06 | -.01 |
| Leader reg focus (Y) | .06 | .26** | .05 | -.04 |
| <i>F</i> | 2.94 | 5.03** | .59 | .27 |
| <i>R</i> ² | .04 | .07 | .01 | .00 |
| <i>Step 2</i> | | | | |
| X | .36 | -.24 | .01 | .12 |
| Y | .01 | .43* | .16 | .11 |
| W | .23 | .09 | -.30 | .17 |
| W*X | -.06 | .36 | -.17 | .18 |
| W*Y | -.21 | -.53* | -.05 | .14 |
| ΔF | .53 | 1.77 | .87 | .07 |
| ΔR^2 | .01 | .04 | .02 | .00 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

were significantly, negatively related to subordinate intentions to turnover, supporting Hypothesis 4f.

Mediation of LMX on Motivational Variable-Work Criteria Relationship

Hypothesis 5, that LMX would mediate the relationship between attachment style congruence and work criteria, was not supported because attachment style congruence was not significantly related to any of the work criteria. Hypotheses 6 and 7, that LMX would mediate the relationship between congruence on self-identity/regulatory focus and work criteria, were not tested because Edwards' (1994) assumptions for Hypotheses 1-3 were not met. However, I examined the mediating role of LMX for relationships between the direct effects of motivation variables and work criteria. Following Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures I determined cases in which the independent variable (leader and member motivational variable) is significantly related to the mediator (supervisor or subordinate LMX), the independent variable (leader and member motivational variable) is significantly related to the criterion variable (work outcome), and the mediator (supervisor or subordinate LMX) is significantly related to the criterion variable (work outcome). I used regression to determine whether the relationship between the independent variable (leader and member motivational variable) and the criterion variable (work outcome) is significantly reduced when the effects of the mediator variable (supervisor or subordinate LMX) are controlled (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Results indicated that LMX mediated the relationship between member relational identity supervisor satisfaction. See Tables 5-7 for results.

Table 5. Mediating role of LMX in the relationship between attachment style and work criteria.

| | Job sat | | Super sat | | Aff org commit | | Turnover intent | | Task performance | | OCBO | | OCBI | |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> |
| Member secure | .07 | | .11 | | .08 | | -.05 | | .04 | | .01 | | -.02 | |
| Member avoidant | .23** | | .06 | | .15 | | -.26 | | -.03 | | -.03 | | .11 | |
| Member amb-worry | -.09 | | -.10 | | -.03 | | .00 | | -.03 | | .03 | | -.02 | |
| Member amb-merger | .03 | | -.70 | | -.08 | | .11 | | -.06 | | -.07 | | -.09 | |
| Leader secure | .04 | | -.03 | | .09 | | .01 | | .04 | | -.04 | | .14 | |
| Leader avoidant | .07 | | .03 | | -.12 | | .02 | | -.01 | | .04 | | -.04 | |
| Leader amb-worry | .09 | | -.03 | | -.13 | | -.09 | | -.04 | | -.07 | | -.09 | |
| Leader amb-merger | .09 | | .04 | | .02 | | .12 | | -.03 | | -.10 | | -.03 | |
| <i>F</i> | 1.96 | | 2.00 | | 2.04* | | 1.25 | | .60 | | 1.22 | | 2.01* | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .11 | | .11 | | .11 | | .07 | | .04 | | .07 | | .11 | |
| Member secure | | .00 | | .05 | | .06 | | -.03 | | .07 | | .01 | | -.01 |
| Member avoidant | | .13 | | -.02 | | .09 | | -.21 | | -.08 | | -.07 | | .03 |
| Member amb-worry | | -.02 | | -.03 | | .01 | | -.03 | | -.02 | | .05 | | .01 |
| Member amb-merger | | .01 | | -.11 | | -.06 | | .10 | | -.01 | | -.05 | | -.05 |
| Leader secure | | -.04 | | -.09 | | .04 | | .06 | | -.01 | | -.08 | | .08 |
| Leader avoidant | | .12 | | .08 | | -.12 | | .01 | | -.06 | | .02 | | -.08 |
| Leader amb-worry | | .15 | | .03 | | -.07 | | -.14 | | .04 | | -.02 | | .00 |
| Leader amb-merger | | .06 | | .02 | | .00 | | .14 | | -.05 | | -.11 | | -.05 |
| Member LMX | | .61** | | .54** | | .24* | | -.22 | | -.07 | | .07 | | .06 |
| Leader LMX | | .12 | | .07 | | .33* | | -.23 | | .63** | | .34** | | .66** |
| ΔF | | 19.36** | | 38.74** | | 8.77** | | 2.26 | | 23.47** | | 7.32** | | 25.96** |
| ΔR^2 | | .21 | | .34 | | .11 | | .03 | | .26 | | .10 | | .26 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

Table 6. Mediating role of LMX in the relationship between identity level and work criteria.

| | Job sat | | Super sat | | Aff org commit | | Turnover intent | | Task performance | | OCBO | | OCBI | |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> |
| Member individual | .00 | | .09 | | -.12 | | .14 | | -.11 | | -.14* | | -.16* | |
| Member relational | .34 | | .29* | | -.10 | | -.09 | | -.14 | | -.16 | | .06 | |
| Member collective | .51* | | .29* | | .58** | | -.40 | | .19 | | .12 | | .23 | |
| Leader individual | -.05 | | -.02 | | -.02 | | .10 | | .02 | | -.05 | | -.02 | |
| Leader relational | .33 | | .26* | | .50** | | -.59 | | .00 | | -.18 | | .10 | |
| Leader collective | -.06 | | -.03 | | -.15 | | .30 | | .09 | | .21 | | .20 | |
| <i>F</i> | 4.40** | | 4.79** | | 4.46** | | 1.89 | | .99 | | 1.78 | | 2.39* | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .17 | | .18 | | .17 | | .08 | | .04 | | .08 | | .10 | |
| Member individual | | -.03 | | .06 | | -.12 | | .14 | | -.06 | | -.12 | | -.12* |
| Member relational | | .09 | | .05 | | -.26 | | .04 | | -.21 | | -.24 | | -.07 |
| Member collective | | .31 | | .11 | | .44** | | -.30 | | .11 | | .04 | | .10 |
| Leader individual | | -.06 | | -.03 | | -.03 | | .10 | | .01 | | -.06 | | -.03 |
| Leader relational | | .26 | | .19 | | .38** | | -.51 | | -.21 | | -.33* | | -.13 |
| Leader collective | | .04 | | -.02 | | -.20 | | .33 | | -.07 | | .11 | | .04 |
| Member LMX | | .55* | | .50* | | .27* | | -.22 | | -.05 | | .05 | | .06 |
| Leader LMX | | .02 | | .05 | | .14 | | -.16 | | .66** | | .44** | | .71** |
| ΔF | | 13.31** | | 29.89** | | 8.57** | | 1.71 | | 27.54** | | 10.70** | | 29.76** |
| ΔR^2 | | .14 | | .26 | | .10 | | .02 | | .29 | | .13 | | .28 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

Table 7. Mediating role of LMX in the relationship between regulatory focus and work criteria.

| | Job sat | | Super sat | | Aff org commit | | Turnover intent | | Task performance | | OCBO | | OCBI | |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> | <i>Step 1</i> | <i>Step 2</i> |
| Member promotion | .61** | | .11 | | .51** | | -.23 | | -.06 | | -.06 | | .11 | |
| Member prevention | .02 | | -.02 | | .03 | | .21 | | -.02 | | -.06 | | -.01 | |
| Leader promotion | -.06 | | .06 | | .19 | | -.09 | | .14 | | .14 | | .21 | |
| Leader prevention | -.10 | | .01 | | -.06 | | .04 | | -.06 | | -.15* | | -.07 | |
| <i>F</i> | 6.22** | | .61 | | 7.63** | | 1.72 | | 1.24 | | 3.14* | | 2.18 | |
| <i>R</i> ² | .16 | | .02 | | .18 | | .05 | | .04 | | .09 | | .06 | |
| Member promotion | | .48** | | -.03 | | .48** | | -.17 | | -.01 | | -.05 | | .14 |
| Member prevention | | -.03 | | -.09 | | .02 | | .24 | | -.01 | | -.06 | | .00 |
| Leader promotion | | -.17 | | -.03 | | .06 | | .00 | | -.01 | | .05 | | .02 |
| Leader prevention | | -.14 | | -.04 | | -.08 | | .07 | | -.06 | | -.16** | | -.08 |
| Member LMX | | .53** | | .56** | | .20* | | -.27 | | -.05 | | .05 | | .04 |
| Leader LMX | | .19 | | .09 | | .39** | | -.22 | | .57** | | .31** | | .69** |
| ΔF | | 20.56** | | 46.79** | | 12.35** | | 3.40* | | 22.12** | | 6.60** | | 29.28** |
| ΔR^2 | | .20 | | .41 | | .13 | | .05 | | .24 | | .08 | | .29 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

LMX by Justice Interactions

Moderated hierarchical regression was used to test hypothesis 8, that distributive justice and LMX interact, such that distributive justice has stronger effects on the work outcomes of members with low quality (vs. high quality) LMX. First, each of the work criteria was regressed on distributive justice and the LMX rating of interest (leader or member) in Step 1, followed by the distributive justice by LMX interaction term in Step 2 (see Tables 8 & 9). Results indicated that the distributive justice by member LMX interaction was significant only when supervisor satisfaction was the criterion, $\Delta F(3,136) = 4.41, p < .05 (\Delta R^2 = .02)$. Consistent with expectations, distributive justice seemed to have stronger effects when member LMX was low versus high (see Figure 3). The distributive justice by supervisor LMX interaction was not significant for any of the work criteria.

Hypothesis 9, that procedural justice and LMX will interact, such that procedural fairness has stronger effects on the work outcomes of members with high quality (vs. low quality) LMX, was also tested using moderated hierarchical regression. First, each of the work criteria was regressed on procedural justice and the LMX rating of interest (leader or member) in Step 1, followed by the procedural justice by LMX interaction term in Step 2 (see Tables 10 & 11). Results indicated that the procedural justice by member LMX interaction was significant when supervisor satisfaction, $\Delta F(3,136) = 9.08, p < .01 (\Delta R^2 = .04)$, and OCBO, $\Delta F(3,136) = 5.90, p < .05 (\Delta R^2 = .04)$, were the criteria. Contrary to expectations, however, procedural justice had a stronger relationship with supervisor satisfaction and OCBO when member LMX was

Table 8. Interactive effects of leader LMX and distributive justice on work criteria.

| | Subordinate ratings | | | | Supervisor ratings | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------|--------|
| | Job sat | Super sat | Aff org commit | Turnover intent | Task performance | OCBO | OCBI |
| <i>Step 1</i> | | | | | | | |
| Leader LMX | .26 | .38** | .36** | -.22 | .55** | .39** | .72** |
| Distributive Justice | .33** | .04 | .27** | -.29** | -.01 | -.04 | .00 |
| <i>F</i> | 22.5* | 9.45** | 25.24** | 8.63** | 24.48** | 8.23** | 31.58* |
| <i>R</i> ² | .24 | .12 | .27 | .12 | .26 | .11 | .32 |
| <i>Step 2</i> | | | | | | | |
| Leader LMX x DJ | -.10 | .04 | .13 | -.16 | .01 | -.03 | -.02 |
| ΔF | 1.05 | .12 | 2.57 | 1.35 | .03 | .14 | .07 |
| ΔR^2 | .006 | .00 | .01 | .01 | .00 | .00 | .00 |

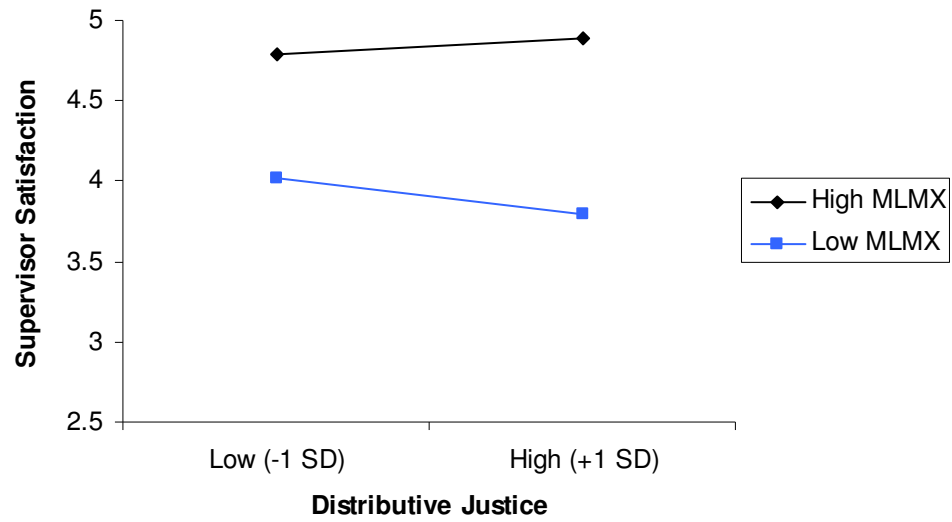
Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Table 9. Interactive effects of member LMX and distributive justice on work criteria.

| | Subordinate ratings | | | | Supervisor ratings | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|------|--------|
| | Job sat | Super sat | Aff org commit | Turnover intent | Task performance | OCBO | OCBI |
| <i>Step 1</i> | | | | | | | |
| Member LMX | .51** | .58** | .27** | -.20 | .11 | .13 | .26** |
| Distributive Justice | .27** | -.02 | .26** | -.28** | .03 | -.02 | .03 |
| <i>F</i> | 38.72** | 46.56** | 25.11** | 8.98** | 2.08 | 1.51 | 6.23** |
| <i>R</i> ² | .37 | .41 | .28 | .12 | .03 | .02 | .08 |
| <i>Step 2</i> | | | | | | | |
| Member LMX x DJ | -.08 | .08 | .09 | -.08 | .01 | -.05 | .01 |
| ΔF | 1.66 | 4.41* | 2.35 | .68 | .04 | 1.15 | .01 |
| ΔR^2 | .01 | .02 | .01 | .00 | .00 | .01 | .00 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Figure 3. LMX by distributive justice interaction.



Note. MLMX refers to member rated LMX, whereas LLMX refers to leader rated LMX.

Table 10. Interactive effects of leader LMX and procedural justice on work criteria.

| | Subordinate ratings | | | | Supervisor ratings | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------|--------|
| | Job sat | Super sat | Aff org commit | Turnover intent | Task performance | OCBO | OCBI |
| <i>Step 1</i> | | | | | | | |
| Leader LMX | .16 | .34** | .30** | -.20 | .55** | .41** | .66** |
| Procedural Justice | .76** | .17* | .56** | -.48** | -.02 | -.10 | .15* |
| <i>F</i> | 51.98** | 12.53 | 42.20** | 9.16** | 24.49** | 9.00** | 35.33* |
| <i>R</i> ² | .43 | .14 | .38 | .12 | .26 | .12 | .33 |
| <i>Step 2</i> | | | | | | | |
| Leader LMX x PJ | -.15 | .15 | .19 | -.52* | .18 | .23 | -.04 |
| ΔF | .98 | 1.35 | 1.83 | 4.59* | 2.72 | 3.38 | .10 |
| ΔR^2 | .00 | .01 | .01 | .03 | .01 | .02 | .00 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

Table 11. Interactive effects of member LMX and procedural justice on work criteria.

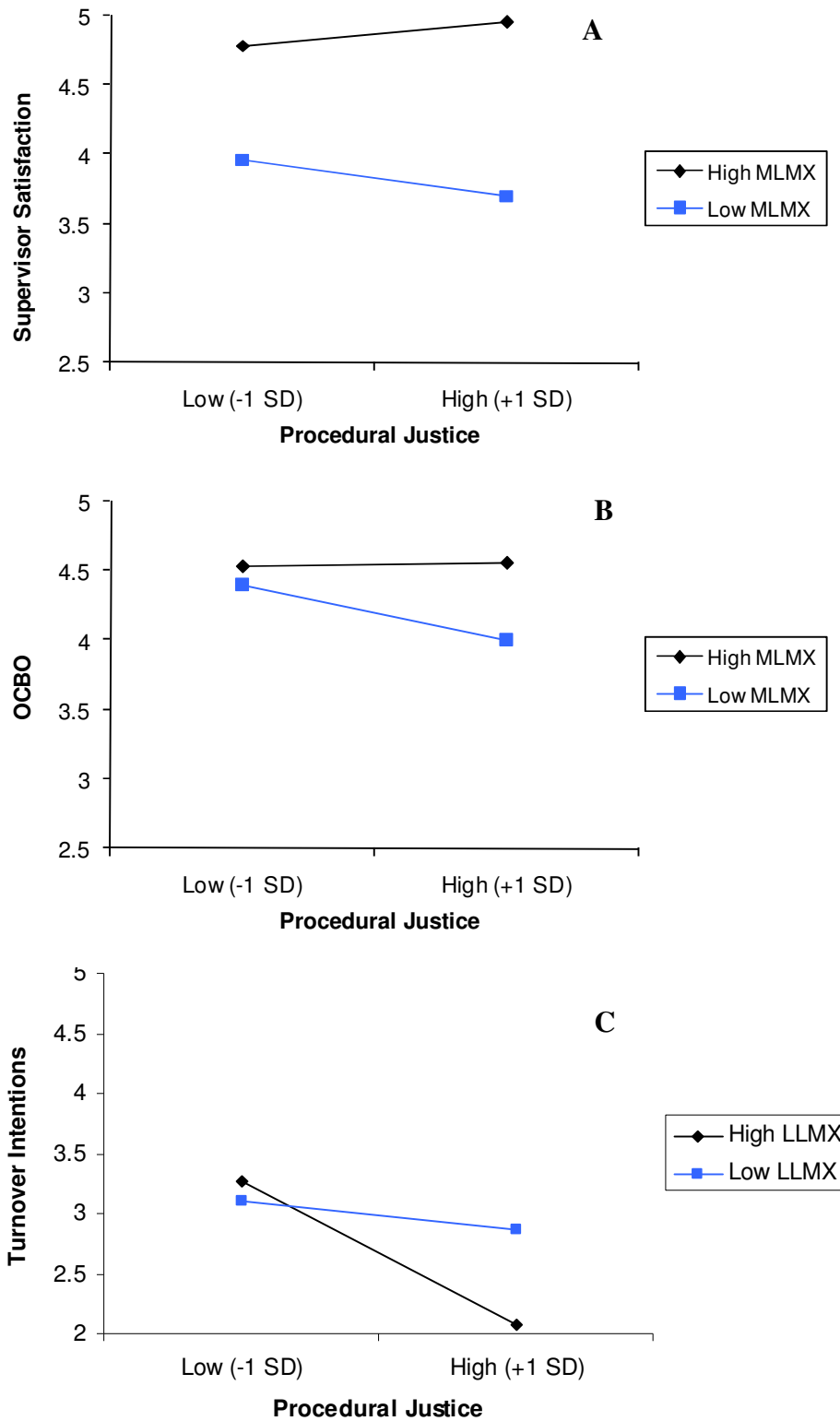
| | Subordinate ratings | | | | Supervisor ratings | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| | Job sat | Super sat | Aff org commit | Turnover intent | Task performance | OCBO | OCBI |
| <i>Step 1</i> | | | | | | | |
| Member LMX | .34** | .57** | .14 | -.12 | .11 | .17* | .18* |
| Procedural Justice | .65** | .00 | .56** | -.47** | .04 | -.09 | .19* |
| <i>F</i> | 62.18** | 46.31** | 37.90** | 8.86** | 1.95 | 2.16 | 9.42** |
| <i>R</i> ² | .48 | .40 | .36 | .12 | .03 | .07 | .12 |
| <i>Step 2</i> | | | | | | | |
| Member LMX x PJ | -.11 | .18* | .05 | -.20 | .11 | .17* | -.05 |
| ΔF | 2.00 | 9.44** | .43 | 2.26 | 2.74 | 5.90* | .50 |
| ΔR^2 | .01 | .04 | .00 | .01 | .02 | .04 | .00 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

low versus high (see Figure 4). Results indicated that the procedural justice by leader LMX interaction was significant only when turnover intentions was the criterion, $\Delta F(3,136) = 4.59, p < .05 (\Delta R^2 = .03)$. In line with the Hypothesis 9, the relationship between procedural justice and turnover intentions was stronger when leader LMX was high versus low.

Hypothesis 10, that interpersonal justice and LMX interact, such that interpersonal fairness has stronger effects on the work outcomes of members with high quality (vs. low quality) LMX, was also tested using moderated hierarchical regression. First, each of the work criteria was regressed on interpersonal justice and the LMX rating of interest (leader or member) in Step 1, followed by the interpersonal justice by LMX interaction term in Step 2 (see Tables 12 & 13). Results indicated that the interpersonal justice by member LMX interaction was significant only when OCBO was the criterion, $\Delta F(3,136) = 9.08, p < .01 (\Delta R^2 = .04)$. Contrary to expectations, interpersonal justice had a stronger relationship with OCBO when member LMX was low versus high. The interpersonal justice by leader LMX interaction was significant only when task performance was the criterion, $\Delta F(3,136) = 9.08, p < .01 (\Delta R^2 = .04)$. Contrary to expectations, relationships between interpersonal justice and the outcomes were stronger when LMX was low versus high (see Figure 5).

Figure 4. LMX by procedural justice interactions.



Note. MLMX refers to member rated LMX, whereas LLMX refers to leader rated LMX.

Table 12. Interactive effects of leader LMX and interpersonal justice on work criteria.

| | Subordinate ratings | | | | Supervisor ratings | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|---------|--------|
| | Job sat | Super sat | Aff org commit | Turnover intent | Task performance | OCBO | OCBI |
| <i>Step 1</i> | | | | | | | |
| Leader LMX | .33* | .18* | .44** | -.30 | .52** | .31** | .66** |
| Interpersonal Justice | .38** | .69** | .22* | -.27 | .09 | .17* | .16* |
| <i>F</i> | 10.04** | 86.13** | 11.39** | 3.43* | 25.59** | 10.43** | 34.79* |
| <i>R</i> ² | .13 | .56 | .14 | .05 | .27 | .13 | .34 |
| <i>Step 2</i> | | | | | | | |
| Leader LMX x IPJ | .02 | -.01 | .22 | .12 | -.26* | -.23 | -.01 |
| ΔF | .01 | .01 | 1.85 | .23 | 6.15* | 3.44 | .00 |
| ΔR^2 | .00 | .00 | .01 | .00 | .03 | .02 | .00 |

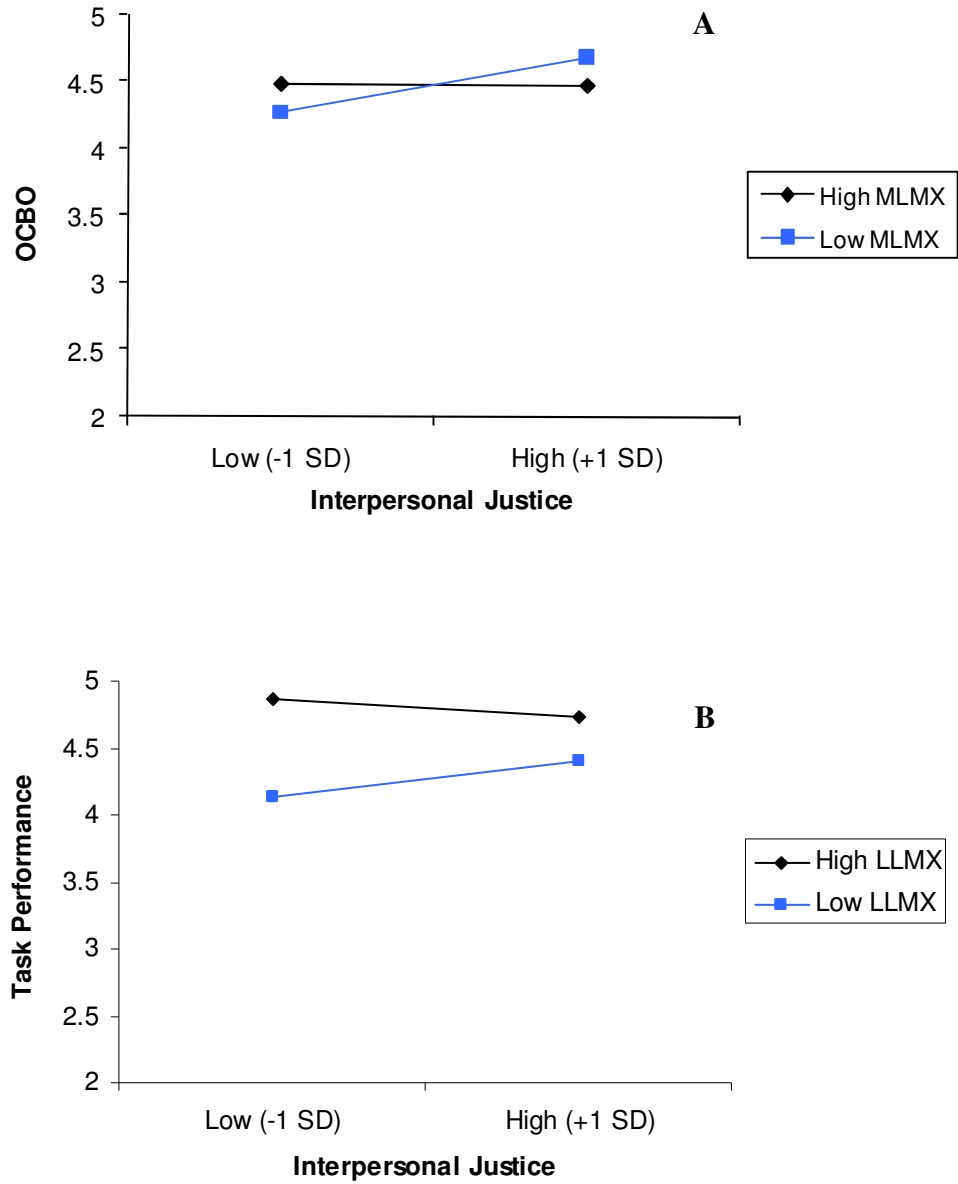
Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

Table 13. Interactive effects of member LMX and interpersonal justice on work criteria.

| | Subordinate ratings | | | | Supervisor ratings | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| | Job sat | Super sat | Aff org commit | Turnover intent | Task performance | OCBO | OCBI |
| <i>Step 1</i> | | | | | | | |
| Member LMX | .63** | .28** | .36** | -.26 | .03 | -.01 | .16 |
| Interpersonal Justice | .04 | .55** | .08 | -.16 | .19* | .25* | .21 |
| <i>F</i> | 22.00** | 102.13** | 10.23** | 3.36* | 4.05* | 4.71* | 8.17** |
| <i>R</i> ² | .24 | .60 | .13 | .05 | .06 | .06 | .11 |
| <i>Step 2</i> | | | | | | | |
| Member LMX x IPJ | -.13 | -.05 | .23 | .14 | -.11 | -.21* | .02 |
| ΔF | .93 | .59 | 3.63 | .53 | 1.48 | 4.98* | .05 |
| ΔR^2 | .01 | .00 | .02 | .00 | .01 | .03 | .00 |

Note. *N* = 140 matched supervisor-subordinate pairs. Values reported in the table correspond to unstandardized regression coefficients. * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01.

Figure 5. LMX by interpersonal justice interactions.



Note. MLMX refers to member rated LMX, whereas LLMX refers to leader rated LMX.

Chapter Four- Discussion

The purpose of this study was two-fold as it examined motivation-based antecedents of LMX as well as interactions between LMX and justice. First, this study contributes to the sparse literature on antecedents to LMX by including three previously unexamined variables—attachment style, identity and regulatory focus—as antecedents to LMX. These antecedents include basic intra- and interpersonal motivations, which are under-researched compared to personality (e.g. positive affectivity and extraversion) and demographic variables. Second, this study answers calls to integrate research on leadership and organizational justice by examining interactive effects of these variables in predicting important work criteria.

Importance of LMX

The present study used LMX as a framework for understanding leadership because leadership is a social process, and LMX theory recognizes the importance of the leader-follower relationship by examining the quality of this relationship as opposed to behaviors or traits of individual leaders or followers. LMX is an important construct as extensive research has demonstrated the relationship between LMX quality and several important work criteria (for a review see Gerstner & Day, 1997). Results of the present study are consistent with extant research in that both leader and member perceptions of LMX were favorably related to important work criteria, including member-rated job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and turnover intentions, and leader rated task and citizenship performance. However, the relationship

between member-rated LMX and leader-rated task performance was only marginally significant ($r = .16, p = .06$). The relationship between member-rated LMX and leader-rated organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization was only marginally significant as well ($r = .14, p = .09$). This may partly reflect a discrepancy between members' actual behaviors and leaders' inability to observe all behaviors exhibited by their subordinates. In addition, Ilies, et al. (2007) found that LMX was more strongly related to citizenship behaviors directed toward individuals than organizations.

Antecedents of LMX

Attachment Style

Based on Gerstner and Day's (1997) statement of the need for additional empirical research on the development of LMX I proposed that congruence on three motivation-based variables—attachment style, self-identity level and regulatory focus—would lead to higher quality LMX. Keller (2003) proposed that outcomes would be optimal when leader and member attachment styles are congruent. Surprisingly, results of the current study indicated that those who were *mismatched* on attachment style had higher quality member- and leader-rated LMX than those who were matched on attachment style. This finding suggests that leader-member fit is complementary rather than supplementary. Supplementary fit occurs when an individual “supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals” (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987), whereas complementary fit occurs when an individuals' characteristics add to a situation what is missing. In the case of attachment style, supplementary fit would occur if similar leader and member attachment styles led to higher relationship quality, whereas complementary fit would occur if different leader

and member attachment styles contributed something missing from the situation, thereby strengthening the relationship. One possible explanation for this complementary fit effect is that leaders and members expect different things from each other. For example, members may prefer secure leaders and find it difficult to work with leaders who have anxious-ambivalent attachment styles because this dependency on the part of the leader is inconsistent with the notion that leaders should offer guidance and support to followers, not vice-versa. Conversely, leaders may desire members with anxious-ambivalent attachment styles because it allows them to fulfill their leadership role by providing guidance and support to followers.

In the workplace, dyads whose attachment styles best complement each other should have the highest quality relationships. Leaders may tend to evaluate these members more favorably as Engle and Lord (1997) demonstrated that leaders evaluate those consistent with their prototype of a good follower more favorably. However, awareness of this phenomenon may prevent leaders from allowing personal preferences for member attachment styles to influence their judgments. One limitation of attachment style as an antecedent of relationship quality is that it is believed to be a relatively stable trait as it is formed early in life. Thus, it is difficult to alter attachment styles. However, the variables discussed next – identity and regulatory focus – are more malleable. Thus, desirable levels can be fostered.

Self-Identity Level

Self-identity level congruence was also expected to relate positively to LMX quality because in congruent dyads both parties have overlapping goals and values. When identities are congruent, each partner in the dyad likely verifies the identity of the other,

which is psychologically comforting and satisfies the need for being understood by others (Swann, 1999). Results indicated that although the data did not satisfy an absolute difference congruence structure, identity level had significant main effects on members' and leaders' LMX quality. Relational identity in particular appeared to be important for LMX. Member and leader relational identity were significant predictors of leader perceptions of LMX, and member relational identity significantly predicted member perceptions of LMX, such that LMX quality was higher for those with strong relational identities. This falls in line with the self-identity literature because those with relational identities are concerned with their relations with specific others, place priority on the quality of their relationships and form strong affective bonds with specific others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). This also confirms recent calls by researchers to devote greater attention to the relational level (e.g., Sluss & Ashforth, 2007), which tends to be under-researched compared to the individual and collective identity levels. Relational identity is particularly important when considering dyadic exchanges between leaders and their followers.

In addition, leader collective identity was positively related to leader perceptions of LMX, and member collective identity was positively related to member perceptions of LMX. This also falls in line with extant self-identity research as those with collective identities are concerned with entities outside themselves. Because they define themselves in terms of organizational groups and pursue shared goals, and because supervisors are important means through which subordinates are connected with the larger organization, those with collective identities are likely concerned with developing relationships that will enable them to feel as though they are an important part of a larger collective. These

findings regarding collective identity are intriguing because, to date, researchers have examined how leaders impact the collective identities of their followers (e.g., Lord & Brown, 2001; van Knippenberg et al., 2004). My results suggest that the reverse relationship may also be possible: collective identity influences perceptions and reactions to leaders.

Although identity did not show a congruence effect, it is clear that having an interpersonal orientation (i.e., have relational or collective identity levels) is beneficial for high-quality LMX. Relational and collective identity also appeared to have favorable effects on work criteria, including satisfaction with one's job and supervisor, affective organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviors directed toward the individual. Notably, individual identity was significantly negatively related to citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization. Thus, practitioners would be wise to enhance interdependent motivations in employees. Selecting employees based on identity would be impractical and potentially unethical. However, identity has chronic (trait-like) as well as state-like qualities. Thus, organizational features, such as culture and leadership, could be established with an eye on fostering interdependent identities. For example, prior research suggests that employee self-concepts are malleable (Johnson, Chang, & Rosen, 2006; Lord & Brown, 2004), and so leaders could encourage employees to focus on interdependent identity levels.

Regulatory Focus

Leader-member regulatory focus congruence was also expected to positively relate to LMX quality. Although Edwards' criteria for using absolute difference scores to assess congruence effects were not met, it does appear that regulatory focus contributes to

LMX. Specifically, leader promotion focus was significantly, positively related to leader perceptions of LMX, and member promotion focus was significantly, positively related to member perceptions of LMX. Promotion-focused individuals eagerly pursue success (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002) and focus on strategies aimed at achieving desired outcomes (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994). It is likely that these same behaviors are employed in interpersonal relationships as well, where promotion-oriented individuals eagerly pursue high quality interpersonal relationships at work and focus on strategies aimed at achieving that desired outcome.

Similar to interdependent identity levels, regulatory focus has both trait- and state-like qualities. Practitioners might foster promotion focus in employees as prior research suggests that regulatory focus can be primed (e.g., Lockwood, et al., 2002). Prevention focus was not significantly related to LMX. One reason may be the nature of the criteria examined as existing research suggests that prevention focus may be most useful for issues concerning safety and vigilance tasks (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Thus, prevention focus may be more relevant when workplace safety is the focus. For example, Wallace and Chen (2006) showed that prevention focus was positively related to safety performance at work, whereas promotion focus was positively related to supervisor-rated productivity. Future research might further explore situations in which promotion or prevention focus may be preferable.

Mediating Role of LMX

Results of mediation analyses produced only one significant result. Specifically, LMX mediated the relationship between member relational identity and supervisor satisfaction. This suggests that leaders with relational orientations tend to focus on

fostering high quality relationships with their followers, and these high quality relationships lead to increased supervisor satisfaction for followers. However, this finding should be interpreted with caution as with the number of mediation analyses conducted it may be due to chance.

LMX and Justice

Based on Scandura's (1999) model, I hypothesized that distributive justice would have stronger effects on work outcomes when LMX is low versus high because low LMX relationships are transactional in nature and members would likely be more concerned with fairness of immediate outcomes in such cases. This was true only when supervisor satisfaction was the criterion. However, for members with low LMX, high distributive justice actually had negative effects on supervisor satisfaction. In these cases positive perceptions of other aspects of work, such as fairness of outcomes, may highlight for members the undesirable relationship they have with their supervisors, leading to lowered satisfaction with their supervisors. In addition, members might also question the authenticity of what appears to be fair behaviors when performed by leaders with whom they share low LMX relationships. When leaders act out of character – high LMX leaders act in an unfair manner or low LMX leaders act in a fair manner – it may be off-putting for followers.

High LMX relationships are transformational in nature, and members are likely to be more concerned with long-term procedural and interpersonal fairness rather than immediate distribution of outcomes in such cases. Therefore, I hypothesized that procedural and interpersonal justice would have stronger effects on work outcomes when LMX is high versus low. Significant interactions were found for procedural justice when

supervisor satisfaction, OCBO, and turnover intentions were the criteria. For members with low LMX, high procedural justice seemed to have negative effects on both supervisor satisfaction and OCBO. One possible explanation is that members with low quality LMX are suspicious of their supervisors and may perceive procedurally just behaviors as insincere or hiding ulterior motives. Thus, low LMX members may respond in a negative way. In addition, self-verification theory (Swann, 1987) predicts that individuals respond most favorably when the treatment they receive is consistent with their perceptions. Thus, if members perceive low quality LMX, they should prefer unfair treatment. When turnover intentions was the criterion, procedural justice had stronger effect for those with high (vs. low) quality relationships. It seems that having a high quality relationship and perceptions of procedural fairness are necessary to produce lowered intentions to turnover.

Significant interactions were found for interpersonal justice when OCBO and task performance were the criteria. Interpersonal justice had a stronger relationship with OCBO when member LMX was low versus high. It seems that in cases of low LMX, strong perceptions of fair interpersonal treatment can lead to OCBOs regardless of relationship quality. When task performance was the criterion, interpersonal justice had stronger effects when LMX was low versus high. Leaders' perceptions of poor LMX and member perceptions of unfair interpersonal treatment may signal a breakdown in communication. This lack of communication may lead to confusion on the part of the subordinate about how best to perform their job and poor task performance.

Overall, it seems that high LMX quality serves a protective role, such that as long as leaders and members have a high quality relationship, perceptions of justice do not

affect work criteria (supervisor satisfaction, OCBO, turnover intentions, and task performance). However, justice perceptions seem to play a more important role in determining these work criteria when LMX is low. In addition, for most work criteria, justice had strong positive effects independent of LMX quality. Thus, regardless of the quality of leader-member relationships, leaders should strive to promote fair outcomes, procedures, and treatment.

Limitations, Future Research, and Conclusion

Several important limitations of this study should be noted. One limitation is the use of an undergraduate student sample as it may not be representative of the general working population. However, this sample worked an average of 28 hours per week and also included supervisors who worked full time. Another limitation is the cross-sectional nature of the data collection, which limits the ability to draw causal conclusions from this research. However, the motivation-based variables studied here tend to be stable over time, and the relationship between LMX and work criteria has been well established in previous research, which limits the possibility of reverse causality. In addition, given the procedure for distributing surveys, predictor data were collected prior to performance data in the majority of cases. Many subordinates completed their portion of the survey in class or in the lab before distributing the supervisor's portion. Future research may benefit from the use of a longitudinal design using participants who are more representative of the working population. A third limitation is that data was collected through self-report measures. However, data was collected from employees and their supervisors, and collecting data from multiple sources reduces threats of same source bias and self-generated validity (see Harrison & McLaughlin, 1996; Harrison, McLaughlin, &

Coalter, 1996). Another limitation of this research is the relatively small sample size (150) to detect mediating and moderating effects. However, the fact that some significant relationships were found strengthens the findings. A final limitation is the inability to detect congruence effects using polynomial regression, which tends to be a conservative method for doing so (Edwards, 2001). Future research may utilize other methods of examining congruence effects, such as response surface modeling (Edwards, 1994).

To summarize, the present study addressed whether leader-member congruence on motivational variables led to higher quality LMX. Although no support was found for the effects of motivational congruence on LMX quality, interdependent identity levels (relational and collective) and promotion regulatory focus had favorable direct effects on LMX quality. Secondly, this study examined interactive effects of justice and LMX in predicting important work criteria, based on Scandura's (1999) model. Most LMX by justice interactions were not significant, and results indicate that justice has strong effects regardless of LMX quality. However, significant LMX by justice interactions suggest that high LMX quality serves a protective function, such that justice perceptions do not affect work outcomes where high quality relationships exist.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Subordinate survey

Please answer the following questions about yourself:

What is your race/ethnicity?

- a) White, non-Hispanic
- b) African American
- c) Hispanic
- d) Asian, Pacific Islander
- e) Native American
- f) Other _____

What is your gender?

- a) Male
- b) Female

How old are you? _____

On average, how many hours do you work at your job per week? _____

How long have you been with your current organization? _____ MONTHS *or* YEARS

How long have you been with your current supervisor? _____ MONTHS *or* YEARS

Please rate the extent to which each of the following statements is characteristic of YOU on the scale below:

| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither Disagree nor Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|----------|----------------------------|-------|----------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. I often think about quitting my job with my present organization. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I will probably look for a job within the next year. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I thrive on opportunities to demonstrate that my abilities or talents are better than those of other people. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to my coworkers. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I often compete with my friends. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I feel best about myself when I perform better than others. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I often find myself pondering over the ways that I am better or worse off than other people around me. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither Disagree nor Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree | |
|--|----------|----------------------------|-------|----------------|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| 9. Making a lasting contribution to groups that I belong to, such as my work organization, is very important to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. When I become involved in a group project, I do my best to ensure its success. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I feel great pride when my team or group does well, even if I am not the main reason for its success. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. I would be honored if I were chosen by an organization or club that I belong to, to represent them at a conference or meeting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. When I am part of a team, I am concerned about the group as a whole instead of whether individual team members like me or whether I like them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. If a friend was having a personal problem, I would help him/her even if it meant sacrificing my time or money. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I value friends who are caring, empathic individuals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. It is important to me that I uphold my commitments to significant people in my life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Caring deeply about another person such as a close friend or relative is important to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Knowing that a close other acknowledges and values the role that I play in their life makes me feel like a worthwhile person. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. All in all, I am satisfied with my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. In general, I don't like my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. In general, I like working here. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with my current organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to my organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. I help others who have been absent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. I help others who have heavy work loads. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. I assist my supervisor with his/her work (when not asked). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither Disagree nor Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|----------|----------------------------|-------|----------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. I go out of my way to help new employees. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 33. I take a personal interest in other employees. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 34. I pass along information to coworkers. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 35. My attendance at work is above the norm. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 36. I give advance notice when unable to come to work. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 37. I take undeserved work breaks. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 38. I spend a great deal of time with personal phone conversations. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 39. I complain about insignificant things at work. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 40. I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 41. My goal at work is to fulfill my potential to the fullest in my job. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 42. I am focused on successful experiences that occur while working. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 43. In general, I tend to think about positive aspects of my work. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 44. I see my job as a way for me to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 45. I think about the positive outcomes that my job can bring me. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 46. I feel happy when I have accomplished a lot at work. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 47. I am focused on failure experiences that occur while working. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 48. I am fearful about failing to prevent negative outcomes at work. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 49. In general, I tend to think about negative aspects of my work. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 50. I think about the negative outcomes associated with losing my job. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 51. I feel anxious when I cannot meet my responsibilities at work. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 52. I sometimes feel anxious at work. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 53. When I'm close to someone it gives me a sense of comfort about life in general. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 54. It feels relaxing and good to be close to someone. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 55. Being close to someone gives me a source of strength for other activities. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 56. I have trouble getting others to be as close as I want them to be. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 57. I find others often are reluctant to get as close as I would like. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 58. My desire to merge sometimes scares people away. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |

| Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Disagree nor Agree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|--|---------------|---------------------------------|------------|---------------------|
| 59. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me. | | | | |
| 60. I often worry my partner will not want to stay with me. | | | | |
| 61. I don't worry about others abandoning me. | | | | |
| 62. I get uncomfortable when someone wants to be very close | | | | |
| 63. I find it easy to be close to others | | | | |
| 64. I prefer not to be close to others | | | | |
| 65. I am very comfortable being close to others | | | | |
| 66. Others want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being | | | | |

The following items refer to *YOUR SUPERVISOR*.

| Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Disagree nor Agree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|--|---------------|---------------------------------|------------|---------------------|
| 67. He/she treats me in a polite manner. | | | | |
| 68. He/she treats me with dignity. | | | | |
| 69. He/she treats me with respect. | | | | |
| 70. He/she refrains from improper remarks or comments. | | | | |

The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your *PAY AND OTHER WORK OUTCOMES*.

| Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Disagree nor Agree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|--|---------------|---------------------------------|------------|---------------------|
| 71. I have been able to express my views and feelings during those procedures. | | | | |
| 72. I have had influence over the pay and other work outcomes arrived at by those procedures. | | | | |
| 73. Those procedures have been applied consistently. | | | | |
| 74. Those procedures have been free of bias. | | | | |
| 75. Those procedures have been based on accurate information. | | | | |
| 76. I have been able to appeal the pay and other work outcomes arrived at by those procedures. | | | | |
| 77. Those procedures have upheld ethical and moral standards. | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 78. My pay and other work outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 79. My pay and other work outcomes are appropriate for the work I have completed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 80. My pay and other work outcomes reflect what I have contributed to the organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 81. My pay and other work outcomes are justified, given my performance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Please rate the extent to which each of the following statements is characteristic of *YOUR SUPERVISOR* on the scale below:

| Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Disagree nor Agree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 | |
|---|---------------|------------------------------------|------------|------------------------|---|
| 82. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 83. My supervisor is unfair to me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 84. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 85. I like my supervisor | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Please answer the following questions about your relationship with *YOUR SUPERVISOR*.

| | | | | | |
|--|------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|
| 86. I usually know where I stand with my supervisor. | Rarely | Occasionally | Sometimes | Fairly Often | Very Often |
| 87. My supervisor understands my problems and needs. | Not a Bit | A Little | A Fair Amount | Quite a Bit | A Great Deal |
| 88. My supervisor recognizes my potential. | Not at All | A Little | Moderately | Mostly | Fully |
| 89. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, my supervisor would be personally inclined to help me solve problems in my work. | None | Small | Moderate | High | Very High |
| 90. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, I can count on my supervisor to "bail me out," even at his or her own expense, when I really need it. | None | Small | Moderate | High | Very High |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|--------------------|---------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 91. My supervisor has enough confidence in me that he/she would defend and justify my decisions if I were not present to do so. | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| 92. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader? | Extremely Ineffective | Worse Than Average | Average | Better Than Average | Extremely Effective |

Appendix B

Supervisor survey

Please answer the following questions about yourself:

What is your race/ethnicity?

- a) White, non-Hispanic
- b) African American
- c) Hispanic
- d) Asian
- e) Other _____

What is your gender?

- a) Male
- b) Female

How old are you? _____

How long have you been with your current organization? (Months, years, etc.)

Please rate the extent to which each of the following statements is characteristic of YOU on the scale below:

| Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Disagree nor Agree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|--|---------------|------------------------------------|------------|------------------------|
| 1. I thrive on opportunities to demonstrate that my abilities or talents are better than those of other people. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to my coworkers. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. I often compete with my friends. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. I feel best about myself when I perform better than others. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. I often find myself pondering over the ways that I am better or worse off than other people around me. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. Making a lasting contribution to groups that I belong to, such as my work organization, is very important to me. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. When I become involved in a group project, I do my best to ensure its success. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. I feel great pride when my team or group does well, even if I am not the main reason for its success. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. I would be honored if I were chosen by an organization or club that I belong to, to represent them at a conference or meeting. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. When I am part of a team, I am concerned about the group as a whole instead of whether individual team members like me or whether I like them. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |

| Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Disagree nor Agree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|---|---------------|------------------------------------|------------|------------------------|
| 11. If a friend was having a personal problem, I would help him/her even if it meant sacrificing my time or money. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 12. I value friends who are caring, empathic individuals. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 13. It is important to me that I uphold my commitments to significant people in my life. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. Caring deeply about another person such as a close friend or relative is important to me. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 15. Knowing that a close other acknowledges and values the role that I play in their life makes me feel like a worthwhile person. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 16. My goal at work is to fulfill my potential to the fullest in my job. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 17. I am focused on successful experiences that occur while working. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 18. In general, I tend to think about positive aspects of my work. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 19. I see my job as a way for me to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 20. I think about the positive outcomes that my job can bring me. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 21. I feel happy when I have accomplished a lot at work. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 22. I am focused on failure experiences that occur while working. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 23. I am fearful about failing to prevent negative outcomes at work. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 24. In general, I tend to think about negative aspects of my work. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 25. I think about the negative outcomes associated with losing my job. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 26. I feel anxious when I cannot meet my responsibilities at work. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 27. I sometimes feel anxious at work. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 28. When I'm close to someone it gives me a sense of comfort about life in general. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 29. It feels relaxing and good to be close to someone. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 30. Being close to someone gives me a source of strength for other activities. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 31. I have trouble getting others to be as close as I want them to be. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 32. I find others often are reluctant to get as close as I would like. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 33. My desire to merge sometimes scares people away. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |

| Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Disagree nor Agree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|--|---------------|------------------------------------|------------|------------------------|
| 34. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 35. I often worry my partner will not want to stay with me. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 36. I don't worry about others abandoning me. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 37. I get uncomfortable when someone wants to be very close | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 38. I find it easy to be close to others | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 39. I prefer not to be close to others | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 40. I am very comfortable being close to others | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 41. Others want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |

Please rate the extent to which each of the following statements is characteristic of *YOUR SUBORDINATE* on the scale below:

| Strongly Disagree 1 | Disagree 2 | Neither Disagree nor Agree 3 | Agree 4 | Strongly Agree 5 |
|---|---------------|---------------------------------|------------|------------------------|
| 42. Helps others who have been absent. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 43. Helps others who have heavy work loads. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 44. Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked). | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 45. Takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 46. Goes out of way to help new employees. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 47. Takes a personal interest in other employees. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 48. Passes along information to coworkers. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 49. Attendance at work is above the norm. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 50. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 51. Takes undeserved work breaks. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 52. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 53. Complains about insignificant things at work. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 54. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 55. Adequately completes assigned duties. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 56. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 57. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |
| 58. Meets formal performance requirements of the job. | | | 1 | 2 3 4 5 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 59. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 60. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 61. Fails to perform essential duties. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Please answer the following questions about your relationship with *YOUR SUBORDINATE*.

| | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|--------------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 62. I usually let my subordinate know where he or she stands with me. | Rarely | Occasionally | Sometimes | Fairly Often | Very Often |
| 63. I think that I understand my subordinate's problems and needs. | Not a Bit | A Little | A Fair Amount | Quite a Bit | A Great Deal |
| 64. I think that I recognize my subordinate's potential. | Not at All | A Little | Moderately | Mostly | Fully |
| 65. Regardless of how much formal authority I have built into my position, I would be personally inclined to use my power to help my subordinate solve problems in his/her work. | None | Small | Moderate | High | Very High |
| 66. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority I have, I would be willing to "bail out" my subordinate, even at my own expense, if he or she really needed it. | None | Small | Moderate | High | Very High |
| 67. I have enough confidence in my subordinate that I would defend and justify his or her decisions if he or she were not present to do so. | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| 68. How would you characterize your working relationship with your member? | Extremely Ineffective | Worse Than Average | Average | Better Than Average | Extremely Effective |