

ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF  
PERCEIVED FOLLOWER SUPPORT

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the C.T. Bauer College of Business

University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Salar Mesdaghinia

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All praise is due to God, the lord of the worlds. He who thought man what he did not know. Peace be upon the guides he chose for mankind.

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## ABSTRACT

This study extends organizational support theory and leadership theory by investigating antecedents and consequences of perceived follower support (PFS), defined as the leaders' perception of the extent their workgroups value their contributions and care about their well-being. Data collected from employees, supervisors, and managers of supervisors of 149 workgroups in a municipal organization provided evidence for validity of PFS in predicting important leader's outcomes. PFS was associated with reduced leader's psychological strain, increased leader's job satisfaction, and increased leadership effectiveness. In addition, several antecedents of PFS were identified. PFS was predicted by the follower workgroup's average self-monitoring (negatively) and conscientiousness (positively). The leader's conscientiousness (positively), reciprocation wariness (negatively), and narcissism (positively) predicted PFS. Contrary to my hypothesis, the follower workgroup's feedback-seeking behavior was negatively related to PFS. The workgroup's average ingratiation did not predict PFS. Leader personality variables did not moderate the relationships between the workgroup's behaviors and PFS. The results shed light on upward influence processes in organizations, by showing the role of PFS and, by implication, the role of followers in influencing the leader's outcomes.

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## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

Half a century ago, McGregor (1960) asserted that many managers view rank-and-file employees as unmotivated and uncreative human-beings who are driven primarily by a desire for security. According to McGregor, this mindset, which he termed Theory X, leads managers to assume that most employees must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to further the organization's objectives. McGregor, however, pointed to other managers who held a more positive view of rank-and-file employees, Theory Y, according to which most employees are talented and willing to contribute to the organization's objectives. He stated that such a view will result in a participative and supportive form of management (McGregor, 1960). In social cognition terminology, Theory X and Y are stereotypes that orient managers toward treating followers supportively or unsupportively (Moskowitz, 2005).

Even though McGregor's characterization of managers' viewpoints concerning employees was considered insightful by many observers, his account produced little empirical research (Miner, 2002, 2003). Instead, subsequent leadership theory mostly focused on effects of various styles of management/leadership (e.g., transformational leadership, servant leadership) or the quality of relationship between leaders and individual subordinates (e.g., leader-member exchange, LMX) on follower behaviors and outcomes. Although LMX theory (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Graen & Scandura, 1987) has long maintained that a leader's perceptions of qualities of individual followers can guide the leader in differential resource allocation, leadership research has not

yet identified a construct that captures the leaders' perceptions of their relationship with their subordinates as an entire group and that guides decisions concerning the group (e.g., workgroup, unit) as a whole, as envisioned by Theories X and Y.

Further, although some recent leadership theories such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) and servant leadership (Graham, 1991; Greenleaf, 1977) focus on leaders overall treatment of *collectives* of employees, these theories have not generally addressed antecedents of leadership (e.g., Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009) and in particular have not considered the *leaders' beliefs about the collectives of employees* that might influence leadership behaviors. As a result, McGregor's idea that the leaders' beliefs about the nature of followers in general influence their behaviors remains dormant in recent leadership theory.

One recent approach toward addressing this gap (Eisenberger, Wang, Mesdaghinia, Wu, & Wickham, 2013) builds on *organizational support theory* (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Eisenberger et al., (2013) suggested that to determine their workgroups' readiness to reciprocate increased favorable treatment and to meet their socio-emotional needs, leaders form general perceptions concerning the extent to which their followers as a group value their contributions and care about their well-being (*perceived follower support*, or *PFS*). Eisenberger et al., (2013) found that subordinates' perceptions of similar outlook with the supervisor (deep-level similarity, Harrison & Klein, 2007) were positively related to PFS and that PFS was positively associated with supportive leadership – i.e., leader behaviors that involve respect and caring for the welfare of followers – which, in turn, was related to workgroup job satisfaction and performance. Further, in a longitudinal replication,

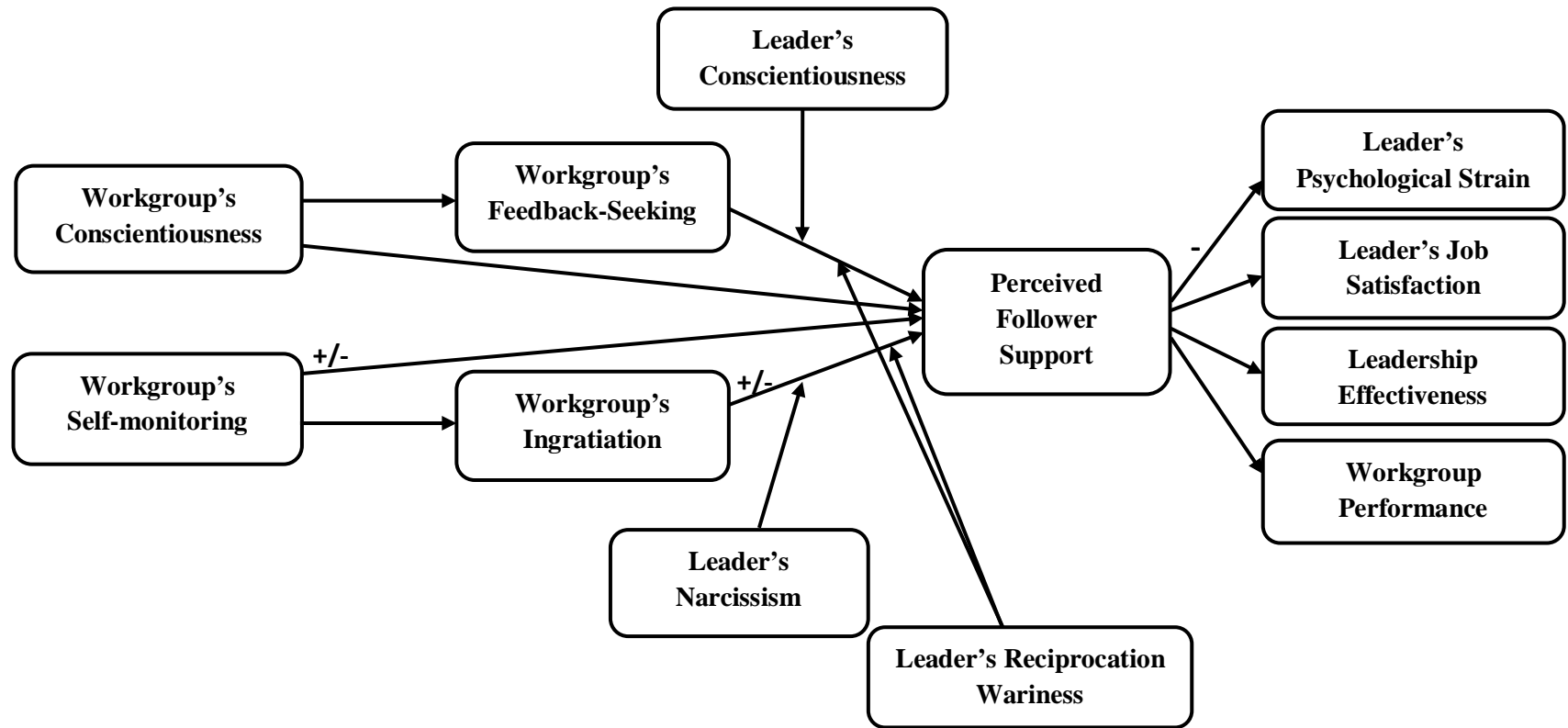
Eisenberger, Wang, Mesdaghinia, Wu, Kim, and Wickham (2014) found that supervisor's PFS predicted supportive leadership five months later and not vice versa.

These initial findings pave the way for other important questions. Ever since the human relations movement, management and organizational psychology researchers have paid attention to top-down influences on subordinates' attitudes, well-being, and performance. However, bottom-up influences of followers on leader outcomes have received limited attention (Chen, Brockner, & Greenberg, 2003; Blader & Chen, 2011). In particular, the initial findings concerning PFS raise the following questions. 1) What behaviors by followers are considered by leaders as indicating support? 2) What dispositional factors motivate followers to support their leaders? 3) What leader characteristics influence the leaders' interpretation of the followers' behaviors as supportive? 4) What are the consequences of PFS for the leaders' work related behaviors and well-being?

The first question concerns identifying observable follower behaviors that indicate support to leaders. In this study, as shown in Figure 1, I consider the followers' feedback-seeking behavior – i.e., the frequency with which they seek opinions of leaders on their performance (Ashford, Blatt, & Vande Walle, 2003) – and ingratiation – i.e., assertive tactics that are used by followers to gain the approbation of their leaders (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991) – as antecedents of perceived follower support. I argue that follower feedback-seeking would indicate high regard and caring for the leaders and his or her objectives in the organization and thereby increase PFS. In case of ingratiation, on the other hand, while the literature shows some positive outcomes for ingratiators such as favorable performance evaluation, leaders may believe that ingratiation represents more a

self-serving motivation than a regard for the accomplishments and welfare of the leaders. Thus, I argue for the possibility of a positive as well as a negative association between ingratiation and PFS, and seek to clarify the relationship empirically.

The second question asks “what dispositional factors motivate followers to support their leaders?” To answer this question, as shown in Figure 1, I consider the contributions of two individual differences: conscientiousness – i.e., the extent to which a person regulates behavior and controls impulses to facilitate task performance and goal-achievement (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008) – and self-monitoring – i.e., the extent to which a person regulates his/her expressive self-presentation to achieve desired public appearances (Snyder, 1974) – to feedback-seeking and ingratiation, and consequently, PFS. I will argue that conscientious employees seek feedback from their leaders to increase the quality of their work and to fulfill their duty whereas self-monitoring employees ingratiate to improve their standing with the leader. Hence, conscientiousness should influence PFS through feedback-seeking and self-monitoring should influence PFS through ingratiation.



**FIGURE 1**

**The Model: Antecedents and Consequences of Perceived Follower Support<sup>a</sup>**

<sup>a</sup> Only the predicted (not the control) associations are shown.

The third question concerns identifying leader characteristics that influence the leaders' interpretation of the followers' behaviors as supportive. To answer this question, I draw on person-environment fit and organizational support theories. First, I argue that to conscientious leaders, who value quality of work and conscientiousness of their followers, follower feedback-seeking indicates caring for the leader and his or her objectives. Therefore, conscientious leaders perceive more support from feedback-seeking than non-conscientious leaders. Furthermore, I argue that narcissistic leaders, who yearn for admiration, perceive more support from follower ingratiation than leaders who are not narcissistic. In addition, I argue that leaders with high reciprocation wariness, who tend to fear being exploited in exchange relationships (Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987), may be less inclined to interpret feedback-seeking and ingratiation as indicating follower support due to their mistrust than leaders with low reciprocation wariness.

Finally, the last question concerns consequences of PFS for leaders and workgroups. Due to a lack of research on bottom-up influences in organizations (Chen, Brockner, & Greenberg, 2003; Blader & Chen, 2011), very little attention has been paid to antecedents of leader well-being (Wilson, Sin, & Conlon, 2010). Building on organizational support theory, I argue that PFS improves well-being of leaders by: 1) meeting the leaders' socio-emotional needs 2) signaling that the followers will be trustworthy and supportive in the future. This study investigates the role of PFS in improving the leader's job satisfaction and reducing the leader's psychological strain as two indicators of the leader's well-being.

Furthermore, to show that PFS leads to other important outcomes for leaders and organizations, this study investigates the role of PFS in improving leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance, two criterion variables that are commonly assessed in leadership research (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Relying on organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) and McGregor's (1960) insights about the consequences of the leaders' beliefs, I argue that PFS influences the leaders' treatment of followers and thereby leads to leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance.

## Chapter 2

### THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Organizational support theory maintains that organization members form perceptions on how much various organization entities (e.g., organization, supervisor, coworkers) value their contributions and care about their well-being (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Such overall perceptions, called perceived support (e.g., perceived organizational support or POS), serve two purposes for employees. First, employees' perception that their contributions are valued meets their socio-emotional needs (e.g., approval, esteem, achievement). Second, based on such overall perceptions, employees determine organization's readiness to reward increased effort. While most studies on organizational support theory have investigated support from the organization as a whole, POS, employees have been found to form general perceptions about the support they receive from their organizational division (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990, Study 2), supervisors (Kottkea & Sharafinski, 1988; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002), and their fellow coworkers as a group (Vardaman, Hancock, Allen, & Shore, 2009). Recently, Eisenberger et al., (2013) suggested that leaders form perceived follower support to determine their workgroups' readiness to reciprocate increased favorable treatment and to meet socio-emotional needs.



## **Perceived Follower Support**

Many leadership decisions depend on a leader's overall perception of workgroup support and commitment. In their dealing with outside constituencies (e.g., in making promises to superiors and peers,) leaders need to anticipate their workgroup's willingness to cooperate. Similarly, in decisions concerning intra-workgroup issues (change initiatives, use of various control mechanisms, investing resources), leaders need to know how much they can trust their workgroups. In addition to decision making necessities, socioemotional needs of leaders make them sensitive to whether followers care for them and think highly of them. All these cause leaders to form overall perceptions about their followers' support for them.

Research on social cognition has shown that much like social categories (e.g., races), perceivers form stereotypes about workgroups (Spencer-Rodgers, Hamilton, & Sherman, 2007). Such stereotypes function similarly to stereotypes about social groups – i.e., guide judgment and behavior by creating expectancies about behaviors of workgroups (Moskowitz, 2005). Thus, leaders may form stereotypes about their subordinates as a collective as well as recognizing distinctive individual differences.

Eisenberger et al., (2013; 2014) defined PFS as the leaders' beliefs that their followers value their contributions and care about their well-being. They found a positive association between PFS and supportive leadership. The relationship was stronger when POS was low indicating that PFS can compensate for lack of support from the organization. PFS might have other interesting consequences. PFS guides the leaders' anticipations of followers support in different situations. Such anticipations can influence the leaders' psychological well-being and effectiveness. The leader's psychological

strain, job satisfaction, effectiveness, and workgroup performance will be considered as outcomes of PFS in this study.

Similarly, little is known about antecedents of PFS. Eisenberger et al., (2013) found that the followers' perceived deep-level similarity with the leader predicted PFS. More research is needed to identify characteristics and behaviors of followers that influence PFS. To identify antecedents, this study relies on leadership theory's traditional division of leadership into relationship-based and task-based dimensions (Bass 1990; Judge et al., 2004). The relationship-based dimension of leadership, or consideration, has been defined as the degree to which leaders show concern and respect for followers, look out for their welfare, and express appreciation and support (Bass 1990; Judge et al., 2004). The task-based dimension of leadership, or initiating structure, has been defined as the degree to which leaders define and organize their roles and the roles of followers and are oriented toward goal attainment (Bass 1990; Fleishman, 1973; Judge et al., 2004). Meta-analyses have found both of these leadership dimensions positively related to the followers' satisfaction with the leader and the job (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2004). I argue that similar dimensions of follower behaviors can exert a bottom-up influence on the leaders' perception of support from the followers. In other words, followers can show their support for the leader through relationship-based and task-based favorable behaviors. However, given the differences between leaders and followers in terms of role and power, not the exact same behaviors are usually performed by the followers. For example followers cannot define the leaders' task roles. This study investigates the influence of the followers' ingratiation as a relationship-based behavior, which might communicate caring and respect for leaders, and the followers' feedback-seeking as a

task-based behavior, which might communicate the followers' dedication to meeting the leaders' objectives and high regard for the leaders' opinions, as antecedents of PFS. In addition, this study considers self-monitoring personality and conscientiousness of the followers as antecedents which influence PFS through ingratiation and feedback-seeking respectively.

Finally, perception of support from behaviors of followers, in part, depends on the leaders' preferences and characteristics. This study will consider three leader personalities that might influence PFS: conscientiousness, narcissism, and reciprocation wariness.

### **Follower Ingratiation and Self-Monitoring Personality as Antecedents of PFS**

Employees use ingratiation as an upward influence tactic in order to increase their standing with their leaders and to achieve personal or work goals (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991; Liden & Mitchell, 1988). Ingratiation involves behaviors such as other-enhancement (i.e., talking positively about the target, flattery), favor-rendering (i.e., volunteering to help beyond job responsibilities), self-enhancement (i.e., presenting ones capabilities, bragging about oneself), and opinion conformity (i.e., agreeing with the opinions of others) (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991). However, not all types of ingratiation are equally effective in achieving desired objectives at all times. As I discuss shortly, type of ingratiation as well as characteristics of ingratiators and targets of ingratiation (e.g., political skill) influence effectiveness of ingratiation in producing favorable outcomes for ingratiators.

Past research has reported benefits of certain types of ingratiation for the ingratiator. Laboratory experiments have shown that flattery leads to liking of the

flatterer by the target (Vonk 2002). Correlational studies with actual supervisor-subordinate pairs have also found a positive relationship between employee supervisor-focused ingratiation tactics (e.g., other-enhancement and favor-rendering) and supervisor liking, supervisor perception of similarity with the subordinate, and supervisor favorable evaluation of performance and organizational citizenship behaviors of the subordinate (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Notably, these studies found no or negative relationships between self-focused ingratiation tactics (e.g., showing off one's performance, bragging about one's competence) and the same outcome variables. In a meta-analysis, Gordon (1996) found that other-enhancement was more strongly related to liking and favorable performance evaluation for the ingratiation than other types of ingratiation.

The above findings show that the followers' other-enhancing and favor-rendering ingratiation tactics often have benefits for followers. However, there are other studies showing that in some situations targets of ingratiation perceive it as manipulative and react negatively toward it. Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, and Thatcher (2007) reported that when employees had low rather than high political skill, employee ingratiation was perceived by supervisor as such. Supervisor's rating of employee ingratiation was negatively related to supervisor's evaluation of interpersonal facilitation, a dimension of contextual performance indicating the degree to which employees are helpful, considerate, and cooperative in their relations to other individuals in the workplace (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Similarly, Wu, Yim, Kwan, and Zhang (2012) reported that when employees experiencing workplace ostracism were politically skillful, ingratiation neutralized the negative relationship between workplace ostracism and psychological

distress, but when they were not politically skilful, ingratiation backfired by exacerbating the relationship. In another study, Wu, Kwan, Wei and Liu (2013) reported that politically skillful supervisors were likely to perceive ingratiation by their subordinates. When supervisors perceived ingratiation, they gave low ratings on employee performance and promotability.

Therefore, although ingratiating employees might succeed in improving their outcomes in some situations, ingratiation backfires when supervisors perceive it as such. These findings suggest that positive and negative relationship between the followers' ingratiation and PFS are plausible.

In support of a positive relationship, it can be argued that the follower's other-enhancement and favor-rendering ingratiation behaviors toward their leaders, might signal caring and valuing to the leader, and thus, contribute to PFS. Other-enhancement involves mentioning the leader's capabilities and contributions. Favor-rendering involves volunteering to help the leader in job-related and personal tasks. Both of these behaviors can serve as a basis for a positive exchange relationship between the leader and the followers' workgroup. Supporting this argument, at the dyadic level of analysis, Wayne and Ferris (1990) found that the individual follower's supervisor-focused ingratiation tactics, including other-enhancement and favor-rendering, were positively related to leader-member exchange.

In support of a negative relationship between ingratiation and PFS, it can be argued that while ingratiation may connote ambition and a desire to please supervisor, it does not necessarily connote valuing the supervisor's contributions or caring for supervisor's wellbeing. Rather, it may imply a more self-centered orientation by

followers who do whatever is demanded of them to succeed. Leaders with ingratiating employees may thus appreciate their apparent dedication but view their flattery and favor-rendering as insincere (cf. Treadway et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2013). This view is consistent with organizational support theory's view that attribution of *sincere* motives for favorable treatment plays a key role in perceptions of support (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Ingratiation might imply to leaders that the followers are faking support through offering favors and flattering the leader in order to obtain favorable outcomes. Such a perception leads to negative emotions such as anger (Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, & Turnley, 2010) and low PFS.

Thus as indicated in my theoretical model (Figure 1), ingratiation might be positively or negatively related to PFS. Although the evidence cited above is mainly from studies at dyadic level of analysis, the same pattern is expected in the relationship between leader and follower workgroup. If leaders perceive support from individual followers who ingratiate more (less), they are expected to perceive more support from workgroups that on average ingratiate more (less).

*Hypothesis 1a: The workgroup's average use of other-enhancement and favor-rendering ingratiation tactics is positively related to perceived follower support.*

*Hypothesis 1b: The workgroup's average use of other-enhancement and favor-rendering ingratiation tactics is negatively related to perceived follower support.*

A goal of the current study is to identify follower dispositions that make followers behave in a more supportive way toward their leaders. Self-monitoring personality involves the ability to modify self-presentation in different situations and a sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others (Lennox & Wolfe 1984). High self-monitors are able to adapt their behaviors to what the situation is calling for. They are keen at perceiving feelings of other individuals from their faces and behaviors. As a result, they can adapt their behaviors in order to achieve desired outcomes when dealing with others. Empirical studies have supported these claims by showing a positive relationship between self-monitoring and favorable outcomes such as favorable performance evaluation, receipt of mentoring, career success, emerging as a leader, and perceived leadership effectiveness (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002; Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Turban & Dougherty, 1994; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenney, 1991). Most notably, in a meta-analysis, Day et al., (2002) found that self-monitoring was significantly related to subjective measures of job performance and advancement (e.g., supervisor rating of performance), and not the objective measures (e.g., sales volume), suggesting that high self-monitors can indeed influence their impressions in the eyes of others even though their actual performance is not different from others. Day et al., (2002) also found a positive relationship between self-monitoring of employees and their emergence and perceived effectiveness as leaders, once again showing the success of high self-monitors in impression management. However, meta-analysis also showed a negative relationship between self-monitoring and organizational commitment, suggesting that high-self monitors have self-serving motives in their relationship with the organization and do not really care about the organization (Day et al., 2002). High self-monitors are opportunistic, insincere, and manipulative (Oh,

Charlier, Mount, & Berry, 2013). Self-monitoring is negatively correlated with sincerity, modesty, fairness, and lack of greed (Ashton & Lee, 2005; Nguyen, Ogunfowora, & Bourdage, 2010). Similarly, high self-monitors are less likely to cooperate with others in the absence of personal benefits (Danheiser & Graziano, 1982; White & Gerstein, 1987). Although these studies do not address whether others' can perceive high self-monitors the way they are, I shortly argue that leaders might be able to perceive self-serving motives of high self-monitors.

In light of the above positive and negative findings, it is possible to argue for a positive as well as a negative relationship between self-monitoring and PFS. On one hand, owing to their capability in reading feelings of their leaders and adapting their behaviors accordingly, highly self-monitoring followers might be able to hide their true motives and fake caring, regard, and support. In addition, the leader's perception of high-self monitors as high-performing might also influence PFS through a halo effect.

On the other hand, most of the positive outcomes mentioned before for self-monitoring dealt with personal achievements of high self-monitors rather than others perceiving high self-monitors as caring and supportive. Self-interested individuals, including high-self monitors, are often unsympathetic and disloyal to others (e.g., Day et al., 2002; Oh, Charlier, Mount, & Berry, 2013). While situational adaptation of behavior and showing sensitivity to expressive behaviors of others (the two aspects of self-monitoring) might imply ambition and a desire to please the leader, such actions do not necessarily imply to the leader that self-monitoring employees value the leader's contributions or care about the leader's welfare. On the contrary, as was true for ingratiation, leaders of high self-monitors may appreciate their motivation to do what is



necessary to succeed, but devalue the insincere attempts to feign concern and interest in the leaders.

Furthermore, Liden and Mitchell (1988) proposed that self-monitoring personality, which involves a desire to be liked by others, is a cause of ingratiation. Supporting this proposition, a number of empirical studies have found a positive relationship between self-monitoring and use of ingratiation tactics (Harrison, Hochwarter, Perrewe, & Ralston, 1998; Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). As argued before, the follower workgroup's ingratiation might have a positive or a negative relationship with PFS. Therefore, the average self-monitoring personality of workgroup members might be positively or negatively related to PFS via ingratiation.

*Hypothesis 2a: The workgroup's average self-monitoring personality is positively related to perceived follower support.*

*Hypothesis 2b: The workgroup's average self-monitoring personality is negatively related to perceived follower support.*

*Hypothesis 2c: The workgroup's average use of other-enhancement and favor-rendering ingratiation tactics mediates the relationship between the workgroup's average self-monitoring and perceived follower support.*

### **Follower Feedback-Seeking and Conscientiousness as Antecedents of PFS**

Employees seek feedback from different sources within organizations, including their leaders, in order to improve their actual performance based on the information they receive – i.e. instrumental motive – and/or to protect and enhance their self-image and external image – i.e. ego defense and impression management motives (Ashford, 1986;

Ashford et al., 2003; Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Morrision & Bies, 1991). Instrumentally, the information contained in the feedback can help employees improve their performance and more effectively adapt to situational requirements. However, the effect of feedback-seeking on employees' image is not always positive. On one hand, feedback-seeking can improve an employee's image by communicating that the employee cares about performance expectation and standards. On the other hand, feedback-seeking might signal lack of competence (Ashford et al., 2003). As a result, employees choose to seek direct feedback when it helps rather than hurts their image (Ashford et al., 2003) and adapt their future feedback-seeking behavior based on their assessment of feedback-seeking effectiveness. There is mixed evidence on the effectiveness of feedback-seeking for improving performance and image of employees. Renn and Fedor (2001) found that feedback-seeking improved employee performance and that goal-setting based on the received feedback mediated the relationship. Farr, Schwartz, Quinn and Bittner (1989) found that frequent feedback-seekers were judged to be more interested and concerned than were infrequent seekers. Ashford and Tsui (1991) found that seeking negative (i.e., critical) feedback, where the seeker shows interest in critical viewpoints about his or her performance, improved perceived effectiveness of managers by superiors, subordinates, and peers. However, Ashford and Tsui (1991) found positive feedback-seeking, in which the seeker is only interested in hearing positive statements about his or her performance, to have the opposite effect. In an experimental scenario-based study with real managers, Ashford and Northcraft (1992) found that on the whole, feedback-seeking improved manager's evaluation of employees' personal characteristics and performance potential.

However, they found that feedback-seeking was not helpful and somewhat damaging for the image of historically average performers.

In light of the mentioned empirical findings, I argue that in leader-follower relationships, feedback-seeking of followers on average has the following (subjective or objective) benefits for the leader: 1) meets socio-emotional needs (approval, esteem, etc.) of the leader by showing that the followers value the leader's opinion and trust his or her judgments; 2) communicates dependability of the followers by showing that they care for the success of the leader and are willing to turn in high quality work; 3) contributes to the leader's success through improving the follower workgroup's actual performance, as a result of using the content of the feedback. Thus, the followers' feedback-seeking will have a positive influence on the leader's PFS (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

*Hypothesis 3: The workgroup's average feedback-seeking from the leader is positively related to perceived follower support.*

As mentioned earlier, in this study I am also interested in the characteristics that make followers more supportive. As one of the big five personalities, conscientiousness has been defined as the extent to which a person regulates behavior and controls impulses to facilitate task performance and goal-achievement (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). Conscientious followers care about fulfilling their responsibilities and meeting goals assigned to them by their leaders. They are dependable and achievement-oriented (Barrick & Mount, 1991; John et al., 2008; Mount & Barrick, 1995). Meta-analytic evidence shows that conscientiousness has the strongest relationship with job

performance among the big five personality variables (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). Conscientious employees ensure that they meet performance standards, in part, through seeking feedback (Krasman, 2010). As argued above, the followers' feedback-seeking indicates support for the leader. Therefore, the average conscientiousness of the followers' workgroup will be positively related to PFS. Supporting this argument, a meta-analysis has found a positive relationship between follower conscientiousness and the quality of relationship between the follower and the leader or LMX (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012). The same pattern of relationship is expected between overall workgroup conscientiousness and PFS. As argued above, workgroup feedback-seeking mediates this relationship.

*Hypothesis 4a: The workgroup's average conscientiousness is positively related to perceived follower support.*

*Hypothesis 4b: The workgroup's average feedback-seeking mediates the relationship between the workgroup's average conscientiousness and perceived follower support.*

### **Leader Personality and Perceived Follower Support**

Psychological and organizational studies have repeatedly shown that perceptions and evaluations of, and subsequent behaviors toward external phenomena are influenced by internal orientations, values, and needs of the perceivers (e.g., Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986). Within the organizational context, employees' positive and negative affectivity have been found related to job satisfaction (Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986; Staw & Cohen-Charash, 2005; Staw & Ross, 1985) and perceived organizational support (Rhoades &

Eisenberger, 2002). Further, it has been shown that employees' attitudes toward their employers are influenced by the fit between employees' values and needs and the values and practices of their employers (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kristoff, 1996). Likewise, in the context of leader-follower relationship, it has been shown that leaders and followers evaluation and liking of each other, and the quality of the exchange relationship between them (LMX) is positively related to the fit (not necessarily "similarity", as will be explained shortly) between the leader's and the follower's personalities (Bauer & Green, 1996; Deluga, 1998; Glomb & Welsh, 2005; Hrivnak Jr., 2009; Smith, 2003). In other words, leaders and followers evaluate each other partly based on their own personalities.

As a result, it can be argued that the leader's personality might influence the leader's perception of the followers' behavior and the formation of PFS. In particular, this study considers leader narcissism, conscientiousness, and reciprocation wariness as traits that might moderate the relationship between the follower workgroup's behaviors (ingratiation and feedback-seeking) and leader PFS. For theorizing the influence of leader narcissism and conscientiousness, I rely on the findings of the person-environment fit literature (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). For theorizing the influence of the leader's reciprocation wariness on formation of PFS, I rely on organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

In the above argument, a "fit" between leaders and followers is not equal to "similarity". In other words, having similar personalities is not necessarily a predictor of positive mutual attitudes and high quality relationships between leaders and followers. The literature has identified two types of fit: 1) supplementary fit which occurs when an

employee possesses characteristics that are similar to his or her leader; and 2) complementary fit which occurs when an employee adds to (or complements) his or her leader what is missing or needed (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Past research on leader-follower relationship, has presented positive outcomes for both types of fit (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1996; Deluga, 1998; Glomb & Welsh, 2005; Hrivnak Jr., 2009; Smith, 2003). In the following, using the specific needs of narcissistic and conscientious leaders, I argue that narcissistic leaders perceive more support when their followers show high regard for the leader through ingratiation – i.e., a complementary type of fit – and that conscientious leaders perceive more support when their followers show their conscientiousness and caring for performance through feedback-seeking – i.e., a supplementary type of fit.

Many leaders have narcissistic tendencies (Lubit, 2002; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Narcissism is a personality trait that involves grandiosity, self-absorption, entitlement, fragile self-esteem, and hostility (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Due to their fragile self-esteem, narcissistic leaders have a constant need for recreation of their image as successful and superior (Lubit, 2002). They have an exaggerated view of their effectiveness (Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006) and they feel thirsty for and entitled to social attention and admiration (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009; Lubit, 2002; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Social praise emboldens narcissistic leaders in their decision-making (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2011). Although most leaders like social praise and dislike public criticism to some extent, narcissistic leaders are exceptionally sensitive to social praise and criticism. Their exaggerated anger and hostility in the face of criticism or any perceived or actual negative treatment by others, including the followers, has been

attributed to their shallow self-esteem and dependence on reaffirmation of their superiority (Lubit, 2002; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). As a result, narcissism is expected to increase the leader's interest in flattery and ingratiation (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2011; Lubit, 2002). In the context of leader-follower relationship, other-enhancement and favor-rendering ingratiation behaviors by the follower workgroup can reaffirm to the narcissistic leader, that he or she is indeed superior and well-liked. Therefore, narcissistic leaders perceive more support than non-narcissistic leaders from the follower workgroup's ingratiation.

*Hypothesis 5: The leader's narcissism moderates the relationship between the workgroup's average ingratiation behaviors and perceived follower support, such that ingratiation has a larger positive (or smaller negative) relationship with PFS of narcissistic leaders than that of non-narcissistic leaders.*

Similar to conscientious followers, conscientious leaders are dependable, dutiful, achievement oriented, and organized (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). They value performance and productivity. Meta-analyses on leader traits have found that leader conscientiousness predicts workgroup performance and leadership effectiveness (DeRue et al. 2011; Judge et al., 2002). In particular, DeRue et al. (2011) found that leader conscientiousness explained around 60% of the 14% variance in workgroup performance explained by all of the big five personalities. DeRue et al. (2011) also found leader conscientiousness positively related to the leader's initiation of

structure, implying that conscientious leaders define follower roles and emphasize performance and productivity.

Because conscientious leaders value performance, they demand high quality work from their followers and evaluate followers based on their conscientiousness in performing assigned tasks. Indirectly supporting this proposition, meta-analysis by DeRue et al. (2011) found a small but significant negative relationship between leader conscientiousness and follower satisfaction with the leader and the job. This implies that conscientious leaders are demanding and probably intolerant of violation of performance standards. In other words, the conscientious leaders' need for achievement and high performance leads them to prefer conscientious followers (a supplementary fit). Most research to date on leader-follower conscientiousness similarity has only considered follower attitudes as outcome variables (e.g., Salz, 2004; Smith, 2003). An exception is a study by Deluga (1998) which partially supports the above argument. Deluga (1998) found that the similarity between conscientiousness of supervisors and subordinates predicted supervisor rated in-role performance of subordinates which was itself related to LMX. Deluga did not test for mediation. Conscientiousness-similarity was not correlated with leader rated LMX. A possible reason for this finding might be a discrepancy between followers self-rating of conscientiousness and the leaders' perception of follower conscientiousness. In other words, leaders judge conscientiousness of their followers from their observable behaviors. Therefore, behaviors such as feedback-seeking which signal the followers' conscientiousness are probably more closely related to the leaders' perception of the followers' conscientiousness than the followers' self-rating of conscientiousness. As a result, conscientious leaders, who, as argued above, prefer their



followers to be conscientious as well, are more inclined than less conscientious leaders to interpret feedback-seeking as a sign of caring and regard for the leader. Therefore, I hypothesize that the leader's conscientiousness strengthens the positive relationship between the workgroup's feedback-seeking and leader PFS.

*Hypothesis 6: The leader's conscientiousness increases the positive relationship between the workgroup's average feedback-seeking behavior and perceived follower support.*

Organizational support theory maintains that favorable treatment of employees will be more strongly related to POS if employees perceive such treatment as voluntary and sincere (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). By the same token, the leaders' perceptions of sincere motives for ingratiation and feedback-seeking (e.g., a real intention to help the leader or to improve performance as opposed to impression management), may contribute to PFS. Such perceptions are in part shaped by the picture the followers' behaviors draw about the followers' intents and in part by the leaders' expectations and tendencies in viewing the world. Eisenberger et al., (1997) found that employees' perception of organization's discretion considerably increased the positive association between favorable treatments and perceived organizational support. Similarly, Koys (1991) found that employees' perception that HR policies were enacted with a fairness motive rather than due to legal necessities was positively related to affective commitment. A similar argument has been made by Halbesleben, et al., (2010) in the leader-followers relationship context. Building on Weiner's (1995) attribution model, Halbesleben et al., (2010) found that a perception that organizational citizenship behavior

was performed due to internal reasons (i.e., as a voluntary and sincere behavior) rather than due to external necessities prompted supervisors to attribute such behaviors to prosocial values. Prosocial values attribution was related to supervisor happiness which was then related to a higher performance rating of subordinates. These theoretical arguments and empirical findings suggest that perceived sincerity of follower' ingratiation and feedback-seeking behaviors will play a key role in the leaders' perceptions of follower support. Attribution of sincerity depends in part on the leaders' reciprocation wariness personality – i.e., a predisposition that indicates fear of being exploited in exchange relationships (Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987). Research has shown that wary individuals tend to perceive others less positively and to reciprocate favors stingily. Eisenberger et al., (1987) found wariness of participants in a social dilemma game was negatively related to perceptions of fairness and likeability of partners and to the amount of the gift they sent to generous partners. In another study, Cotterell, Eisenberger, & Speicher (1992) found that wariness of participant was negatively related to the amount of the gift they sent to their partners from whom they ostensibly received a cooperation message. In other studies, reciprocation wariness of employees has been found negatively related to POS, positively related to perception of psychological contract breach (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Suazo & Turnley, 2010), and negatively correlated with trust in employer and affective commitment (Shore, Bommer, Rao, & Seo, 2009). Based on these findings, it can be argued that wary leaders tend to attribute ingratiation and feedback-seeking to self-serving (insincere) motives of employees. Wary leaders do not easily trust their followers. They are on a constant watch against being exploited by followers. No matter how the followers behave, wary leaders

are inclined to attribute follower behaviors to ulterior motives. Therefore, wary leaders attribute the followers' feedback-seeking and ingratiation to self-serving exploitative motives of employees. Such a cynical interpretation leads to reduced perceived follower support when followers engage in ingratiation and feedback-seeking.

*Hypothesis 7a: The leader's reciprocation wariness moderates the relationship between the workgroup's average ingratiation and perceived follower support such that high-wariness leaders perceive less support from ingratiation than low-wariness leaders.*

*Hypothesis 7b: The leader's reciprocation wariness moderates the relationship between the workgroup's average feedback-seeking and perceived follower support such that high-wariness leaders perceive less support from feedback-seeking than low-wariness leaders.*

### **Consequences of Perceived Follower Support**

Lack of research on bottom-up influences in organizations (Chen, Brockner, & Greenberg, 2003; Blader & Chen, 2011), has left the role of followers in leader well-being under-investigated (e.g., Wilson, Sin, & Conlon, 2010). To address this gap, this study considers the role of PFS in reducing the leaders' psychological strain and improving the leaders' job satisfaction. In addition, to further show the importance of PFS as a leadership variable, this study investigates the effect of PFS on leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance, two common criterion variables in leadership studies (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2004).

Psychological strain, or negative affective reaction (e.g., frustration, anxiety) to job stressors might be lower for employees in leadership roles than for lower-level employees due to having more power. Nevertheless, demands, accountability, unpredictability, and other realities of many leadership roles contribute to the leaders' stress (Mohr & Wolfram, 2010). PFS may act as a resource buffering against job stressors and reducing the leader's psychological strain. Organizational support theory has argued that similar to the need-fulfilling role served by social support received from relatives and friends in everyday life (Cobb, 1976; Cohen & Wills, 1985), perceived organizational support meets the needs for emotional support, affiliation, esteem, and approval. In addition, according to organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), POS helps employees anticipate favorability of future treatments by the organization. Empirical studies have provided evidence for the role of perceived support from various organizational units and members in reducing strain (Ilies, Dimotakis, & Pater, 2010; Sloan 2012; Stamper & Johlke, 2003; Wang & Takeuchi, 2007) and meta-analyses have confirmed that POS and social support from family members, coworkers, supervisors, etc. are negatively related to strain (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). The same pattern of relationship is expected for PFS and the leader's psychological strain. High PFS indicates that followers understand and appreciate contributions of the leader, meeting socio-emotional needs of the leader and improving the leader's well-being. In addition, when leaders believe their followers care about them, they anticipate the followers' future helpfulness. These anticipations reduce unpredictability as a source of psychological

strain for leaders (Mohr & Wolfram, 2010). Thus, PFS will reduce psychological strain of leaders.

*Hypothesis 8: Perceived follower support is negatively associated with the leader's psychological strain.*

Job satisfaction, another indicator of employee well-being, is the overall affect-laden attitude of employees toward their job (Witt, 1991). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) argued that POS increases job satisfaction through increasing the performance-reward expectancies of employees, signaling availability of aid by the organization when needed, and meeting of the employees' socio-emotional needs. Meta-analysis has shown a positive relationship between POS and job satisfaction of employees (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Similar to POS, PFS can increase job satisfaction of leaders by meeting socio-emotional needs and signaling availability of help by followers. Furthermore, research on job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007) has shown that perception of task significance, the extent to which one's job impacts others, and social support, the extent to which one's job provides opportunities for getting assistance and advice from supervisors or coworkers, have a positive effect on job satisfaction (Humphrey et al., 2007). Psychological states such as experienced meaningfulness and knowledge of results have been shown to mediate these relationships (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Humphrey et al., 2007). PFS involves the leader's perception that followers value his or her contributions and therefore signals to the leader that he or she is doing a valuable and significant job. Thus, PFS influences a leader's perceptions of task significance, experienced meaningfulness,

and knowledge of results. PFS also involves the leader's perception that followers care for his or her well-being. This perception is similar to the employees' perceptions of social support from coworkers and supervisors. Therefore, through improving the leaders perception of job characteristics (task significance and social support) and intervening psychological states (experienced meaningfulness and knowledge of results), PFS contributes to the leader's job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 9: Perceived follower support is positively associated with the leader's job satisfaction.*

High PFS indicates that subordinates will reciprocate favorable treatment of the leader with greater efforts and will meet expectations if more responsibility is delegated to them. Moreover, because PFS is a valued resource for leaders, invoking the norm of reciprocity, leaders with high PFS would respond with extending their support and showing trust in the followers. In contrast, when PFS is low, supervisors would assume they could count less on voluntary cooperation by the subordinates and therefore, engage in a less supportive and more controlling form of leadership. This argument is in line with McGregor's (1960) argument that general views of employees influence management styles. Supporting this argument, in a longitudinal study, Eisenberger et al. (2014) found that supervisor's PFS predicted supportive leadership five months later and not vice versa. Supportive leadership will in turn influence leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance. Organizational support theory maintains that most employees adhere to the norm of reciprocity, and therefore, reciprocate favorable treatment with increased performance on behalf of the leader (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

Similarly, McGregor (1960) argued that the favorable and unfavorable management styles resulting from Theory Y and Theory X assumptions produce employee reactions that are consistent with managers' expectations – i.e., a self-fulfilling prophecy. Employees who are trusted and supported will be more reliable and productive and those who are mistreated and controlled will lack motivation and will be less productive. Supporting this argument, meta-analytic evidence has related supportive leadership to workgroup performance and leadership effectiveness (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2004). Hence, leader PFS, as an antecedent of supportive leadership, will be related to leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance.

*Hypothesis 10: Perceived follower support is positively associated with leadership effectiveness.*

*Hypothesis 11: Perceived follower support is positively associated with workgroup performance.*

## Chapter 3

### METHODOLOGY

#### **Sample and Procedure**

Data was obtained from three sources. Electronic surveys were administered to employees, supervisors, and supervisors of supervisors (referred to as managers henceforth) in a large municipal organization in the southwestern United States. The respondents came from 15 different departments and were occupying a variety of jobs. The departments included *Administration & Regulatory Affairs, City Secretary, Controller's Office, Finance, Fire, Fleet Management, General Services, Housing & Development, Legal, Library, Mayor's Office, Municipal Courts, Neighborhoods, Office of Business Opportunity, and Planning and Development.*

Data collection was carried out using Qualtrics via two electronic questionnaires: the follower's and the leader's surveys. For both surveys, invitation emails that promised confidentiality were sent to all potential respondents. Responders could take the survey by clicking on a link. The follower and the leader data-collections were running for 4 and 3 weeks, respectively. Reminders were sent to the employees who had not responded, every few days.

All employees (including front-line employees, supervisors, and managers) responded to the follower's survey. Despite being in leadership positions, supervisors and managers were included in this survey, because at the same time, they were followers of



other higher-level managers. In total, 2321 employees were invited to take the follower's survey out of whom 964 (42%) responded. In addition, 507 supervisors (including managers) were invited to take the leader's survey, out of whom 231 (46%) responded.

Careless respondents were removed using two methods: 1) each survey included two catch questions (Meade and Craig, 2012) – see Appendix A. Any respondent who answered either of the catch question incorrectly – i.e., chose an out of range response – was removed. Also, any respondent who missed more than 5 items of the follower's survey or more than 3 items of the leader's survey was removed. Furthermore, given that PFS as opposed to LMX is a perception about the workgroup rather than individual followers, any leader whose subordinate workgroup included only one follower was dropped. Finally, any follower who had a tenure of less than 6 months with his or her current leader was dropped from the analysis, because a stable relationship between followers and leaders might need more time to develop. Altogether, 93 out of 964 respondents were dropped from the follower's dataset and 17 out of 231 respondents were dropped from the leader's dataset. Then, I matched follower, leader, and manager responses.

The final sample included 149 leaders, 356 followers of those leaders, and 44 managers who had rated leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance for 67 (out of 149) leaders. The majority of the leaders in the final sample were female (62%). Leaders had an average age of 50.3 ( $SD = 9.1$ ) and average organizational tenure of 15.5 ( $SD = 8.8$ ). Leader ethnicities included African American (43%), Caucasian (39%), Hispanic (15%), and Asian (3%). Similarly, the majority of followers in the final sample were female (70%). Followers had an average age of 48.0 ( $SD = 11.0$ ) and an average

organizational tenure of 13.6 ( $SD = 9.1$ ). Follower ethnicities included African American (48%), Caucasian (28%), Hispanic (20%), and Asian (4%). All workgroups included in the final sample had at least two followers. However, for 53 workgroups, only one follower responded to the survey. I decided to keep these workgroups in the analysis, because the scores acquired from one follower partially captures the workgroup's overall scores. Univariate outlier analysis using SPSS Box Plot, which considers observations outside  $5 \times IQR$  (interquartile range) as extreme outliers, detected 2 outliers for the workgroup's conscientiousness, 1 outlier for the leader's conscientiousness, and 2 outliers for the leader's job satisfaction. No outliers were detected for the rest of variables.

## Measures

All scales are available in Appendix A. Unless stated otherwise, a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree) has been used. The leader's survey included questions on PFS, narcissism, conscientiousness, reciprocation wariness, job satisfaction, and psychological strain. In addition, managers rated leadership effectiveness of the supervisors and performance of the workgroup working under the supervisors.

*Perceived follower support* was measured using 6 items designed by Eisenberger et al., (2013) plus 2 additional items: "*My subordinates show a high regard for my welfare*" and "*My subordinates try to be as supportive of me as possible*". A sample item from the original scale is "*My subordinates really care about my well-being.*" Given the social desirability of reporting a high level of support by followers (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2013 reported a mean of 5.79 out of 7 and an SD of .99), I used a response scale that

had more positive options to avoid a ceiling effect and to increase response variance (1 = Not At All Agree, 2 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Somewhat Agree, 4 = Mostly Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree, 6 = Very Strongly Agree, 7 = Completely Agree). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .97.

The *leader's narcissism* was measured using NPI-16 (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006) which is a shorter version of Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Hall, 1979; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Ames et al., (2006) validated NPI-16 as a shorter alternative for NPI. NPI-16 and NPI are forced-choice measures. For each item the respondents chose between two alternatives. A sample choice is "*I am more capable than other people*" or "*There is a lot that I can learn from other people.*" Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .57.

The *leader's conscientiousness* was measured using 5 positive items from the Big Five Inventory (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998; John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991; John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). A sample item is "*I am someone who is a reliable worker.*" Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the leader's conscientiousness was .73.

The *leader's reciprocation wariness* was measured with an 8-item scale used by Lynch et al., (1999). A sample item is "*People who act nicely toward others are often just trying to get something.*" A 7-point response scale was used (1 = Absolutely Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .85.

The *leader's psychological strain* was measured using 8 items adapted from Job-related Affective Well-being Scale, JAWS (Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000). Respondents report how often they had certain feelings during the past 30 days on a scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Quite Often, 5 =

Extremely Often or Always). A sample item is “*At work I felt nervous*”. Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  was .91.

The *leader’s job satisfaction* was measured using a 3-item scale. Two items were taken from Quinn and Shepard’s (1974) quality of employment survey, which were supplemented with the item “*My job is enjoyable*” (Eisenberger et al., 2013). A sample item from the original scale is “*In general, my job measures up to the sort of job I wanted when I took it.*” Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  was .91.

*Workgroup performance* for the workgroup under a supervisor was rated by the manager of the supervisor using 3 items adapted from Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997). Given that most managers tend to give very positive ratings to the performance of the workgroups (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2013 reported a mean of 4.09 out of 5 and an SD of .76 for this variable), the response scale included more positive options to avoid a ceiling effect. Managers rated workgroup performance on the same 7-points response scale used for PFS (1 = Not At All Agree, 2 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Somewhat Agree, 4 = Mostly Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree, 6 = Very Strongly Agree, 7 = Completely Agree). A sample item is “*This work group gets its work done very effectively.*” Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  was .95.

*Leadership effectiveness* was rated by the manager of the supervisor using a 3-item scale adapted from Tsui and Ohlott (1988). The same 7-point response scale used for measuring PFS and workgroup performance was used for measuring leadership effectiveness with a similar reasoning. A sample item is “*Overall, this supervisor is performing his/her job the way I would like it to be performed*”. Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  was .97.

The follower’s survey included questions assessing self-monitoring personality, conscientiousness, ingratiation, feedback-seeking, extra-role performance, leadership

effectiveness of the supervisor, frequency of interaction with the leader, and tenure under the leader.

The *follower's self-monitoring personality* was assessed using 11 positive items from the Revised Self-Monitoring Scale, validated by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) as a revised version of Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring Scale. Following Lennox and Wolfe (1984) a 6-point response scale was used with minor differences in wording (1 = Definitely False, 2 = Generally False, 3 = Somewhat False, 4 = Somewhat True, 5 = Generally True, 6 = Definitely True). A sample item is "*When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does*". Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .83.

The *follower's conscientiousness* was measured using the same scale used for measuring the leader's conscientiousness. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .75.

The *follower's ingratiation* was self-rated using other-enhancement (7 items) and favor-rendering (6 items) subscales of *The Measure of Ingratiation Behaviors in Organizational Settings (MIBOS)* (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991) using a 5-point response scale (1 = Never, 2 = Seldom, 3 = Occasionally, 4 = Often, 5 = Almost Always). A sample other-enhancement item is "*Exaggerate his/her admirable qualities to convey the impression that you think highly of him/her*". A sample favor-rendering item is "*Try to do things for your supervisor that show your selfless generosity*." All items were averaged to create an overall ingratiation variable. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .89.

The *follower's feedback-seeking* was self-rated using a 6-item scale consisting of 2 items from Callister, Kramer and Turban (1999), 2 items from Ashford (1986), 1 item from Lam, Huang, and Snape (2007), and the additional item "*I ask my supervisor how I*

*can improve my performance.*” The reason for combining these items was that none of the scales had enough items covering performance-related direct inquiry from the supervisor that were appropriate for the data-collection context. A 5-point response scale was used (1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Always). A sample item is “*I ask my supervisor if I am meeting all my job requirements.*” Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  was .96.

*Leadership effectiveness* was rated by followers using the same 3-item leadership effectiveness scale given to the managers with small adaptations. A sample item is “*Overall, my supervisor is performing his/her job the way it should be performed*”. Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  was .98.

***Control variables:*** The leader’s age and gender have been related to perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, in press; Zacher, Rosing, Henning, & Frese, 2011). In addition, gender, age, and organizational tenure have been sometimes found to be related to job satisfaction (e.g., Johnson, Morgeson, Ilgen, Meyer, & Lloyd, 2006). Therefore, I controlled for the *leader’s age, gender, and organizational tenure*. Furthermore, age and gender might be related to showing sympathy and support (Lennon & Eisenberg, 1987). Therefore, I controlled for the *followers workgroup’s average age and average gender*. Tenure under the leader might also influence the relationship between followers and their leader. Hence, I controlled for the *follower workgroup’s average tenure under the leader*. The leaders’ and the followers’ age and gender, and the leader’s organizational tenure were obtained from organizational records. Followers chose their tenure under leader from 5 choices (Less than 6 months, 6 months - 1 year, 1 year - 3 years, 3 years - 6 years, More than 6 years).

*Follower's extra-role performance* was controlled in assessing behavioral antecedents of PFS because of its possible overlap with feedback-seeking and ingratiation. Followers rated their own extra-role performance using 5-items adapted from Eisenberger et al., (2010) on a 7-point response scale (1 = Not At All Agree, 2 = Slightly Agree, 3 = Somewhat Agree, 4 = Mostly Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree, 6 = Very Strongly Agree, 7 = Completely Agree). A sample item is "*I keep well-informed where my knowledge might benefit my Department.*" Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .92.

*Frequency of interaction with the leader* was controlled in assessing behavioral antecedents of PFS because any effect for ingratiation and feedback-seeking might simply be due to frequency of interaction rather than the content of these behaviors. Followers rated their frequency of interaction with the leader using the item "*How frequently do you interact with your supervisor at work?*" adapted from McAllister (1995) on a 5-point response scale (1 = Less than once a month, 2 = Once or twice a month, 3 = Once or twice a week, 4 = Once a day, 5 = More than once a day).

### **Justification for Aggregation**

The lowest level of analysis in this study is the leader-level which is equivalent to the workgroup-level. Thus, all follower variables were averaged within the workgroup to form the workgroup-level variables. For most of these variables, I did not expect agreement among group members and, therefore, did not need to empirically justify aggregation. In particular, for self-monitoring personality and conscientiousness, I did not expect agreement (similarity) among workgroup members because the members came to the workgroups with their personalities already formed. Although attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) processes (Schneider, 1987) might increase certain types of within-group

similarity by changing the composition of workgroups, it is not possible for ASA processes to form workgroups with members that are highly similar in every aspect of personality and behavior. In addition, there are many other factors (e.g., limitations in the applicants' pool during internal or external hiring, diversity policies, and tolerance of the supervisor for diversity) that limit the influence of ASA processes and impose a degree of randomness on group composition. Furthermore, follower ingratiation, feedback-seeking, extra-role performance, and interaction frequency with leader are influenced by dispositional variables (e.g., conscientiousness, self-monitoring personality, and extraversion) as well as situational variables that are not determined by membership in a workgroup (e.g., organizational culture, reward expectancy). As a result, I did not expect a high within-group similarity on these behaviors. Thus, aggregating follower self-monitoring personality, conscientiousness, ingratiation, feedback-seeking, extra-role performance, and interaction frequency with the supervisor followed an additive model (Chan, 1988). I averaged each of these variables for all group members to produce workgroup-level variables.

However, aggregating leadership effectiveness ratings, which targeted the same leader for all workgroup members, followed a referent-shift model (Chan 1998), implying that aggregation required some degree of inter-rater agreement. According to LeBreton and Senter (2008), the degree of expected inter-rater agreement should be based on theory. In case of leadership effectiveness, I expected a moderate level of agreement among workgroup members. Although all group members were rating the effectiveness of the same leader, differences in LMX were expected to cause differences in the followers' evaluations of the leader – i.e., followers who had higher quality



exchange relationships with the leader were expected to rate the leader as more effective than those with lower quality relationships. Therefore, a moderate level of inter-rater agreement on leadership effectiveness was expected. To provide evidence for the expected moderate level of inter-rated agreement, I calculated *ICC(1)*, the proportion of the variance attributable to group membership and *ICC(2)*, the reliability of the group means (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998). Values of .15 and .39 were obtained for *ICC(1)* and *ICC(2)*, respectively, which indicated a moderate level of inter-rater agreement (Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998).

### **Analysis Strategy**

As mentioned before, the level of analysis was the workgroup-level. However, workgroups were nested under managers (supervisors of workgroup leaders) and, therefore, the data was hierarchical. As Figure 1 shows, the model included several dependent variables and mediators: The follower's ingratiation, the follower's feedback-seeking, the leader's PFS, the leader's job satisfaction, the leader's psychological strain, leadership effectiveness as rated by followers and managers, and workgroup performance as rated by managers. For any of these variables with a significant variance attributable to cluster membership – i.e. the leader's nesting under the managers (not to be confused with the follower's membership in the workgroups) – hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) is the appropriate method of analysis (Snijders & Bosker, 1999). Among these variables, only the variables rated by the managers (leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance) showed a significant between-cluster – i.e. between-manager – variance. Between-cluster variances and intra-class

correlations,  $ICC(I)$ s, for all of the dependent variables and mediators are shown in Table 1.

Based on the significant between-cluster variances for leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance as rated by managers, I used HLM (using SAS 9.3 PROC MIXED, SAS Institute Inc. 2013) to analyze the influence of PFS on these variables. For the rest of the variables, I used OLS regression in SPSS to test the hypotheses.

**TABLE 1**  
**Variance Explained by Cluster Membership (Nesting Under Managers)**

Dependent variable	Between-cluster variance $\hat{\tau}^2$	Intra-class correlation $ICC(I)$
Workgroup's average ingratiation	.08	.24
Workgroup's average feedback-seeking	.00	.00
Perceived follower support	.00	.00
Leader's psychological strain	.04	.07
Leader's job satisfaction	.28	.21
Leadership effectiveness (rated by followers)	.41	.16
Leadership effectiveness (rated by managers)	1.4 <sup>***</sup>	.71 <sup>***</sup>
Workgroup performance (rated by managers)	.8 <sup>**</sup>	.59 <sup>**</sup>

*Note.* z-test was used for assessing significance of between-group variances and F-test was used to assess significance of intra-class correlations.

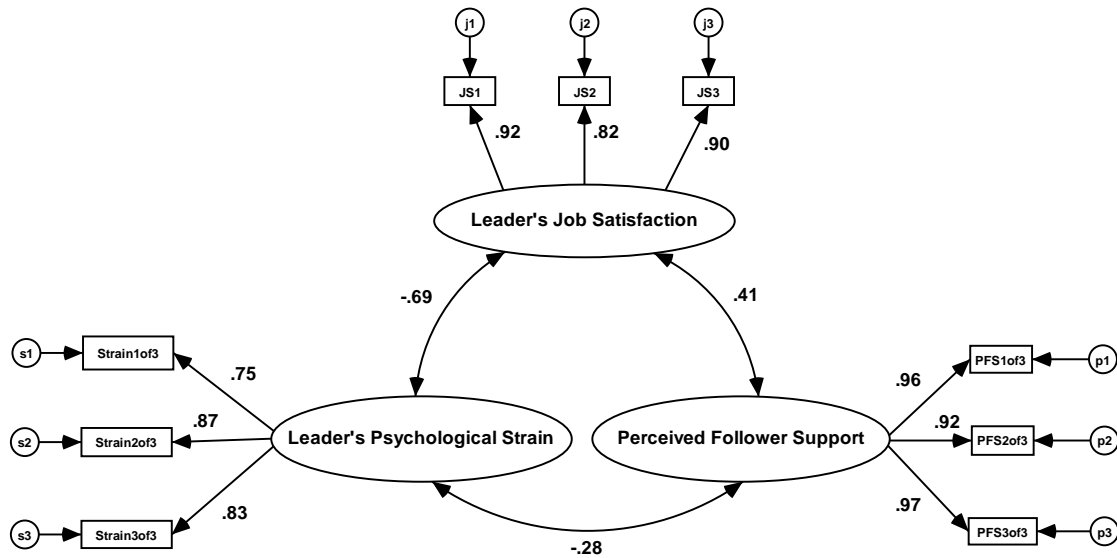
\*\*  $\alpha < .01$

\*\*\*  $\alpha < .001$

## Chapter 4

### RESULTS

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) were used to assess the validity of the hypothesized measurement model (Kline, 2011). However, given the sample size of 149 for the leader sample, a model involving all latent variables and indicators would have an observation-to-parameter ratio far lower than the recommended 5 to 1 ratio (Bentler & Chou, 1987). To resolve this issue, I used two remedies. First, variables were divided into two separate measurement models involving 1) the leader's work experience variables including PFS, job satisfaction, and psychological strain and 2) the leader's personality variables including narcissism, conscientiousness, and reciprocity wariness. Second, I used *parceling*, which is a method to reduce the number of parameters by forming composites of items (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). Specifically, for each latent variable in the two measurement models, except for job satisfaction, which had too few indicators for parceling, indicators were divided into three or four parcels. Since all leader variables were unidimensional, parcels were formed using *item-to-construct balance* algorithm (Little et al., 2002) based on loadings derived from initial CFAs including all the items. The item-to-construct balance algorithm distributes high and low loading items into parcels in a balanced way in order to create parcels with close factor loadings (Little et al., 2002). After parceling, the observation-to-parameter ratios were close to 5 to 1 for both leader measurement models.



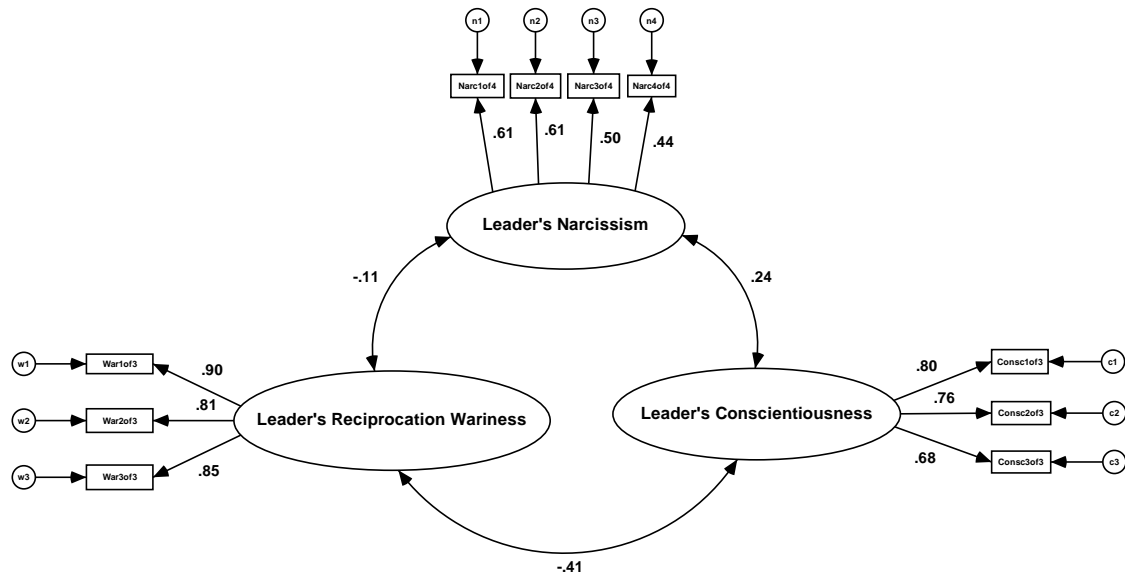
**FIGURE 2**

**The Measurement Model for the Leader's Job Experience Variables**

$n = 149$ . Standardized estimates are shown on the figure. All factor loadings were significant at  $\alpha < .001$ .

AMOS 17.0.2 (Arbuckle, 2006) was used to perform all the CFAs. Figure 2 shows the hypothesized 3-factor measurement model for the leader's job experience variables: PFS, job satisfaction, and psychological strain. As shown in Figure 2, three parcels were created as composites of indicators for each of PFS and psychological strain. The 3-factor model was compared to all possible nested models: three 2-factor models and a 1-factor model, to evaluate relative fit. The 3-factor model fit the data well ( $TLI = .96$ ;  $CFI = .98$ ;  $RMSEA = .09$ ) and significantly better than all comparison models including the 2-factor model combining job satisfaction and psychological strain ( $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 99.86$ ,  $p < .000$ ;  $TLI = .82$ ;  $CFI = .90$ ;  $RMSEA = .18$ ), the 2-factor model combining PFS and job satisfaction ( $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 338.28$ ,  $p < .000$ ;  $TLI = .43$ ;  $CFI = .69$ ;  $RMSEA = .31$ ), the 2-factor model combining PFS and psychological strain ( $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 245.133$ ,  $p < .000$ ;  $TLI = .6$ ;  $CFI = .77$ ;  $RMSEA = .27$ ), and the 1-factor model

combining all three variables ( $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 523.80, p < .000$ ; TLI = .22; CFI = .53; RMSEA = .37). As shown in Figure 2, All factor loadings were significant and higher than .6 (Chin, 1998).



**FIGURE 3**

### **The Measurement Model for the Leader's Personality Variables**

$n = 149$ . Standardized estimates are shown on the figure. All factor loadings are significant at  $\alpha < .001$ .

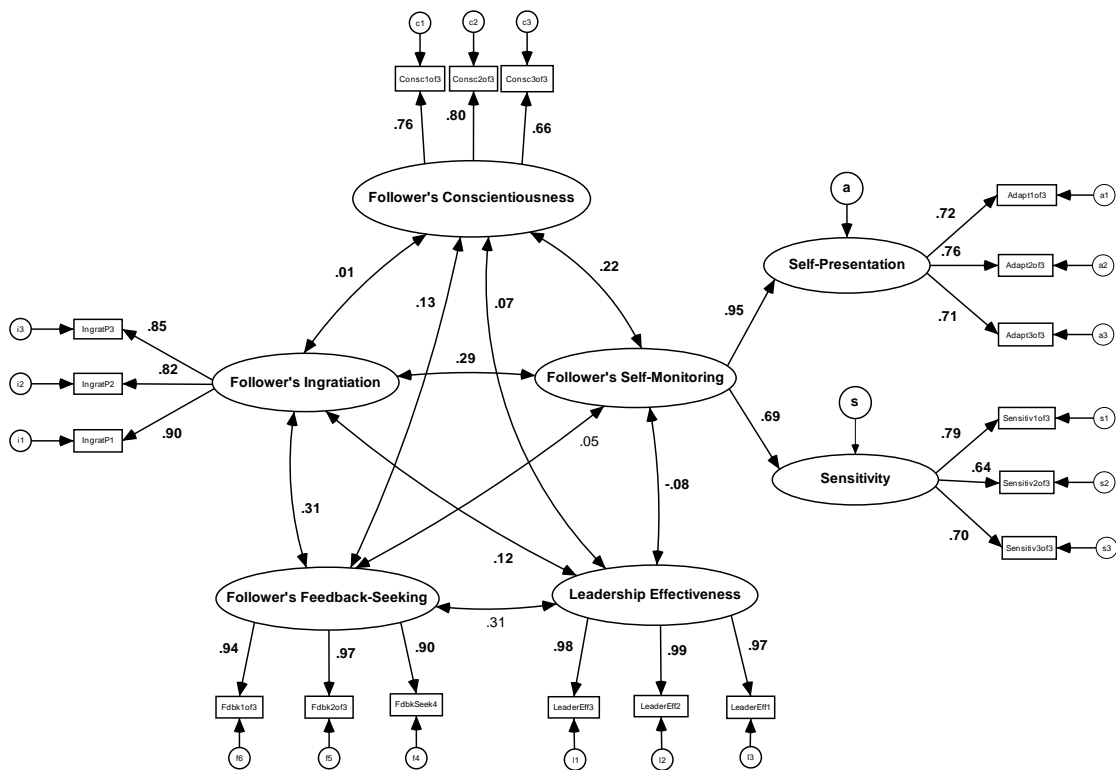
Figure 3 shows the hypothesized 3-factor model for the leader's personality variables: narcissism, conscientiousness, and reciprocity wariness. As shown in Figure 3, four parcels were created for narcissism and 3 parcels were created for each of conscientiousness and wariness. The 3-factor model was compared to all possible nested models: three 2-factor models and a 1-factor model, to evaluate relative fit. The 3-factor model fit the data well (TLI = .97; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .04) and significantly better than all comparison models including the 2-factor model combining narcissism and wariness ( $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 58.04, p < .000$ ; TLI = .77; CFI = .86; RMSEA = .11), the 2-factor model

combining wariness and conscientiousness ( $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 107.41, p < .000$ ; TLI = .59; CFI = .75; RMSEA = .15), the 2-factor model combining conscientiousness and narcissism ( $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 46.91, p < .000$ ; TLI = .81; CFI = .88; RMSEA = .10), and the 1-factor model combining all three variables ( $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 161.83, p < .000$ ; TLI = .42; CFI = .63; RMSEA = .18). As shown in Figure 3, all factor loadings were significant and most were higher than .6 (Chin, 1998).

CFAs were also conducted to assess the validity of the predicted measurement model for the variables rated by the followers. However, as was the case for the leader measurement models, given the followers' sample size of 356, a complete measurement model including all the indicators would include too many parameters to keep observation-to-parameter ratio close to the recommended 5 to 1 ratio (Bentler & Chou, 1987). Thus, as in the case for the leader-level CFAs, I used parceling before conducting the follower-level CFAs. Unlike the leader-rated variables which were all unidimensional, two of the follower-rated variables were multidimensional. First, the *Revised Self-Monitoring Scale* used in this study included two dimensions: the ability to modify self-presentation and sensitivity to expressive behavior of others (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Past research has successfully replicated the factor structure of the *Revised Self-Monitoring Scale* (O'Cass, 2000; Shuptrine, Bearden, & Teel, 1990). Several authors have recommended against use of parceling when the scales are multidimensional, because the resulting parcels are likely to be multidimensional as well, distorting the measurement model (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Little et al., 2002). To avoid such problems, I included self-monitoring in the measurement model using a hierarchical latent model with two level-1 latent variables representing the two

dimensions of self-monitoring and a level-2 latent variable representing self-monitoring as a whole (see Figure 4). Then, I applied parceling within each dimension to reduce the number of indicators, using an *item-to-construct balance* algorithm (Little et al., 2002). This approach avoids the potential problems of parceling multidimensional variables by keeping the dimensionality of the scale intact. Second, the *Measure of Ingratiation Behaviors in Organizational Settings (MIBOS)* is a multidimensional scale as well (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991). In this study, I used two of the dimensions which were most appropriate theoretically: other-enhancement and favor rendering. However, some studies have failed to replicate the factor structure of MIBOS (Kacmar & Valle, 1997; Harrison, Hochwarter, Perrewe, & Ralston, 1998) suggesting that the scale does not have a clear factor structure. Rogers and Schmitt (2010) compared four different empirical parceling algorithms for situations where the factor structure is unknown and concluded that a *radial algorithm* might offer advantages over other algorithms. The radial algorithm, which creates the parcels based on similarity between indicator loadings, more clearly reveals measurement problems than algorithms that distribute indicators with similar loadings into different parcels and, thereby increase the model fit artificially (Rogers & Schmitt, 2010). Thus, following the recommendation by Rogers and Schmitt (2010), a radial parceling algorithm was used to assign the indicators to the parcels for ingratiation. For leadership effectiveness, parceling was not used, because it had too few indicators. The rest of the follower-level variables were unidimensional and were parceled using an *item-to-construct balance* algorithm (Little et al., 2002), based on loadings derived from an initial CFA.

Figure 4 shows the measurement model for the follower-rated variables. Given the total number of factors, there were too many alternative models. Therefore, I chose the comparison models based on theory. The fit for the 5-factor model was compared to the fit two nested 4-factor models and a 1-factor model. The 4-factor models included a model which combined the two personality variables (conscientiousness and self-monitoring personality) and a model which combined the two behavioral variables (ingratiation and feedback-seeking).



**FIGURE 4**

### **The Measurement Model for the Variables Rated by the Followers**

$n = 356$ . Standardized estimates are shown on the figure. All factor loadings are significant at  $\alpha < .001$ .



The 5-factor model fit the data well (TLI = .99; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .03) and significantly better than all comparison models including the 4-factor model combining conscientiousness and self-monitoring personality ( $\Delta\chi^2(4) = 118.85, p < .000$ ; TLI = .96; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .06), the 4-factor model combining ingratiation and feedback-seeking ( $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 602.33, p < .000$ ; TLI = .82; CFI = .87; RMSEA = .12), and the 1-factor model combining all variables ( $\Delta\chi^2(9) = 2858.54, p < .000$ ; TLI = .21; CFI = .39; RMSEA = .25). As shown in Figure 4, all factor loadings were significant and higher than .6 (Chin, 1998).

### **Hypothesis Testing**

Table 2 shows means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations among variables. Given that *ICC(1)s* were not significant for PFS, the workgroup's ingratiation, the workgroup's feedback-seeking, the leader's psychological strain, the leader's job satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness rated by the workgroup (see Table 1), OLS regression was the appropriate method of analysis for all analyses including these variables as the dependent variable (Snijders & Bosker, 1999). In all regression analyses the main predictors were mean-centered before calculating the interaction terms (Aiken & West, 1991). The variance inflation factors (VIF), for which values above 10.0 are considered problematic (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003), were less than 2.0 in all regression analyses. In analyses involving workgroup variables, the workgroup's average gender, age, and tenure under the leader were controlled. In analyses involving leaders, the leader's gender, age, organizational tenure were controlled. Other control variables will be discussed as I explain each analysis.

**TABLE 2**  
**Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities**

Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. Workgroup gender <sup>b</sup>	0.69	0.37	-																				
2. Workgroup age	47.74	8.73	-.07	-																			
3. Workgroup tenure under leader	3.67	0.92	-.22	.25	-																		
4. Leader gender <sup>b</sup>	0.62	0.49	.28	.06	-.12	-																	
5. Leader age	50.34	9.12	-.05	.20	.26	-.09	-																
6. Leader organizational tenure	15.54	8.81	.02	.13	.30	.07	.37	-															
7. Workgroup conscientiousness	6.45	0.54	-.06	.14	-.16	.03	.00	-.10	.75														
8. Workgroup self-monitoring	4.43	0.60	.03	-.11	-.01	.02	-.09	-.10	.21	.83													
9. Workgroup feedback-seeking	2.55	0.83	.18	-.35	-.11	.11	-.11	.04	.00	.15	.96												
10. Workgroup ingratiation	2.12	0.56	-.14	-.03	.20	.05	.07	.13	-.04	.10	.29	.89											
11. Workgroup extra-role perf	5.41	1.11	-.10	.06	.09	.08	.02	.10	.24	.17	.33	.27	.92										
12. Workgroup interaction with leader	4.26	0.82	.01	-.16	.03	.05	-.01	.00	-.11	-.01	.15	.27	-.01	-									
13. Leader conscientiousness	6.55	0.51	-.05	-.18	-.04	.07	-.06	-.08	.01	.08	-.05	-.03	-.06	.07	.73								
14. Leader narcissism	20.51	2.43	.04	-.13	-.11	-.11	-.23	-.22	.19	.14	.07	.02	.05	-.09	.17	.57							
15. Leader wariness	1.62	0.69	-.05	-.12	.06	.06	-.03	.00	-.28	-.04	.08	.05	-.07	.04	-.35	-.10	.85						
16. Perceived follower support (PFS)	5.48	1.15	.13	-.19	.05	.05	.10	.00	.08	-.09	-.05	.03	.02	.09	.35	.16	-.30	.97					
17. Leader psychological strain	2.19	0.75	.00	.08	-.10	.17	-.21	-.18	-.09	.04	.02	.03	.08	-.03	-.12	-.04	.20	-.26	.91				
18. Leader job satisfaction	6.03	1.18	-.02	-.13	.01	-.04	.19	-.02	.07	-.01	-.01	-.01	.04	.11	.16	.18	-.17	.37	-.60	.91			
19. Leader effectiveness (by followers)	4.60	1.67	-.10	-.07	-.04	.03	.06	-.06	.04	-.20	.20	.22	.26	.36	.08	-.18	.00	.18	-.07	.09	.98		
20. Leader effectiveness (by manager)	5.33	1.43	-.16	-.04	.10	.06	-.14	.20	-.10	.02	-.06	.00	.04	.14	-.03	.00	.02	.03	-.13	.09	.16	.95	
21. Workgroup performance	5.54	1.19	-.05	.01	.10	.13	.02	.29	-.12	.01	.07	.08	.11	.15	-.13	-.09	-.04	-.01	-.02	.06	.05	.80	.97

<sup>a</sup> n = 149 (67 for the workgroup performance & leadership effectiveness rated by managers). Reliabilities (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) are shown on the diagonal. All correlations above .16 are significant at  $\alpha < .05$  except for rows 20 and 21 where correlations above .25 are significant at  $\alpha < .05$ . <sup>b</sup> Male = 0, Female = 1

**TABLE 3**  
**Regression Analysis Predicting Perceived Follower Support with the Follower Behaviors<sup>a</sup>**

	<b>Model 1</b> <i>b</i> (s.e.)	<b>Model 2</b> <i>b</i> (s.e.)	<b>Model 3</b> <i>b</i> (s.e.)
<b><i>Controls</i></b>			
Workgroup's average gender	0.44 (.27)	.57 (.27) *	.53 (.26)*
Workgroup's average age	-0.03 (.01)**	-.04 (.01)**	-.04 (.01)**
Workgroup's average tenure under leader	0.15 (.11)	.14 (.11)	.18 (.11)
Leader's gender	0.13 (.20)	.15 (.20)	.19 (.19)
Leader's age	0.02 (.01) <sup>†</sup>	.02 (.01)	.02 (.01)*
Leader's organizational tenure	-0.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.00 (.01)
Workgroup's average extra-role performance	0.04 (.08)	.12 (.09)	.08 (.09)
Workgroup's average frequency of interaction with the leader	0.07 (.11)	.09 (.12)	.09 (.11)
<b><i>Follower behaviors</i></b>			
Workgroup's average ingratiation		.07 (.19)	.06 (.18)
Workgroup's average feedback-seeking		-.32 (.14)*	-.22 (.13) <sup>†</sup>
<b><i>Interactions</i></b>			
Leader's narcissism			.07 (.38) <sup>†</sup>
Leader's conscientiousness			.45 (.19)*
Leader's wariness			-.37 (.14)**
Leader's narcissism × workgroup's ingratiation			.08 (.06)
Leader's conscientiousness × workgroup's feedback-seeking			.12 (.18)
Leader's wariness × workgroup's ingratiation			.13 (.30)
Leader's wariness × workgroup's feedback-seeking			.13 (.21)
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.09 <sup>†</sup>	.13*	.30***
$\Delta R^2$	.09 <sup>†</sup>	.04 <sup>†</sup>	.17***

<sup>a</sup> n = 149.

<sup>†</sup>  $\alpha < .1$

\*  $\alpha < .05$

\*\*  $\alpha < .01$

\*\*\*  $\alpha < .001$

Table 3 presents results of regressing PFS on the workgroup's behaviors and the interaction terms involving the workgroup's behaviors. In addition to the leader's and the workgroup's demographics and tenure, the workgroup's average extra-role performance and average frequency of interaction with the leader were controlled to rule out the alternative hypotheses that the effects attributed to the workgroup's behaviors are merely due to being helpful in general or due to interacting with the leader as opposed to the specific content of ingratiation and feedback-seeking behaviors. Three models were tested: a model including the control variables (Model 1), a model adding the workgroup's behaviors (Model 2), and a model adding the leader personality variables and the interaction terms (Model 3).

The alternative Hypotheses 1a and 1b predicted positive and negative relationships between the workgroup's average ingratiation and PFS, respectively. As Table 3 shows, the workgroup's average ingratiation was not significantly related to PFS in any direction, before or after entering the interaction terms ( $\beta = .04$ ,  $p = .70$  before entering the interaction terms, Model 2;  $\beta = .03$ ,  $p = .74$  after entering the interaction terms, Model 3). Therefore, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were rejected.

Hypothesis 2 concerned the direct and mediated effects of the followers' self-monitoring personality on PFS. Table 4 presents results of regressing PFS on the workgroup's average self-monitoring personality and conscientiousness (Table 10 in Appendix B includes the result of a regression analysis on all four behavioral and personality antecedents of PFS simultaneously). Alternative Hypotheses 2a and 2b predicted positive and negative relationships between the workgroup's average self-monitoring personality and PFS, respectively. As Table 4 shows, the workgroup's

average self-monitoring had a marginally significant negative relationship with PFS ( $\beta = -.15, p = .08$ ). This rejects Hypothesis 2a and provides some support to Hypothesis 2b.

**TABLE 4**  
**Regression Analysis Predicting Perceived Follower Support with the Workgroup's Personality**

	<b>Model 1</b> <b><i>b</i> (s.e.)</b>	<b>Model 2</b> <b><i>b</i> (s.e.)</b>
<b><i>Controls</i></b>		
Workgroup's average gender	.42 (.27)	.49 (.26) <sup>†</sup>
Workgroup's average age	-.03 (.01)**	-.04 (.01)**
Workgroup's average tenure under leader	.16 (.11)	.22 (.11) <sup>†</sup>
Leader's gender	.15 (.20)	.15 (.20)
Leader's age	.02 (.01) <sup>†</sup>	.02 (.01)
Leader's organizational tenure	-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)
<b><i>Follower personality</i></b>		
Workgroup's average self-monitoring		-.30 (.16) <sup>†</sup>
Workgroup's average conscientiousness		.38 (.18)*
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.09*	.13*
$\Delta R^2$	.09*	.04*

<sup>a</sup> n = 149.

<sup>†</sup>  $\alpha < .1$

\*  $\alpha < .05$

\*\*  $\alpha < .01$

\*\*\*  $\alpha < .01$

Hypothesis 2c predicted that the workgroup's average ingratiation mediates the relationship between the workgroup's average self-monitoring and PFS. As the relationship between the workgroup's average ingratiation (the mediator) and PFS (the dependent variable) were not significant, Hypothesis 2c was not supported. However, to

test whether the data supported the predicted relationship between the workgroup's average self-monitoring and the workgroup's average ingratiation, I carried out another regression analysis (Table 5). As shown in Table 5, the relationship between the workgroup's average self-monitoring and ingratiation was positive but not significant ( $\beta = .11, p = .2$ ).

TABLE 5

## Regression Analyses Predicting Workgroup's Ingratiation and Feedback-Seeking

	Workgroup's average ingratiation		Workgroup's average feedback-seeking	
	Model 1 <i>b</i> (s.e.)	Model 2 <i>b</i> (s.e.)	Model 1 <i>b</i> (s.e.)	Model 2 <i>b</i> (s.e.)
<b><i>Controls</i></b>				
Workgroup's average gender	-.15 (.13)	-.16 (.13)	.34 (.18) <sup>†</sup>	.34 (.18) <sup>†</sup>
Workgroup's average age	-.01 (.01)	.00 (.01)	-.03 (.01) <sup>***</sup>	-.03 (.01) <sup>***</sup>
Workgroup's average tenure under the leader	.12 (.05) <sup>*</sup>	.12 (.05) <sup>*</sup>	.01 (.07)	.01 (.07)
<b><i>Follower personality</i></b>				
Workgroup's average self- monitoring		.10 (.08)		.14 (.11)
Workgroup's average conscientiousness		-.03 (.09)		.05 (.12)
$R^2$	.06 <sup>*</sup>	.07 <sup>†</sup>	.39 <sup>***</sup>	.40 <sup>***</sup>
$\Delta R^2$	.06 <sup>*</sup>	.01	.15 <sup>***</sup>	.01

<sup>a</sup> n = 149.

<sup>†</sup>  $\alpha < .1$

<sup>\*</sup>  $\alpha < .05$

<sup>\*\*</sup>  $\alpha < .01$

<sup>\*\*\*</sup>  $\alpha < .001$

Hypothesis 3 stated that the workgroup's average feedback-seeking and PFS were positively related. As shown in Table 3, the workgroup's average feedback-seeking had a

negatively significant relationship with PFS before entering the interaction terms ( $\beta = -.23$ ,  $p = .02$ , Model 2), which dropped to marginally significant after entering the interaction terms ( $\beta = -.16$ ,  $p = .08$ , Model 3). These relationships were in the opposite of the predicted direction. Therefore, the data did not support Hypothesis 3. I will shortly discuss the possible reasons for a negative relationship between the workgroup's feedback-seeking and PFS.

Hypothesis 4a predicted a positive relationship between the workgroup's average conscientiousness and PFS. As shown in Table 4, the relationship between the workgroup's average conscientiousness and PFS was positive and significant ( $\beta = .18$ ,  $p = .03$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 4a was supported.

Hypothesis 4b stated that the workgroup's average feedback-seeking mediates the relationship between the workgroup's average conscientiousness and PFS. As the relationship between the workgroup's average feedback-seeking and PFS was significant in the opposite of the predicted direction, Hypothesis 4b was not supported. However, to test whether the data supported my prediction of a positive relationship between the workgroup's average conscientiousness and feedback-seeking, I carried out a regression analysis with the workgroup's average feedback-seeking as the dependent variable (see Table 5). As shown in Table 5, the workgroup's average conscientiousness and feedback-seeking were not significantly related ( $\beta = .03$ ,  $p = .70$ ).

Hypotheses 5-7 concerned the moderating influence of the leader's personality (narcissism, conscientiousness, and reciprocity wariness) on the relationship between the followers' behaviors (ingratiation and feedback-seeking) and PFS. Hypothesis 5 predicted that narcissistic leaders perceive more support than non-narcissistic leaders

when followers ingratiate. Hypothesis 6 stated that the leader's conscientiousness increases the positive relationship between the workgroup's feedback-seeking and PFS. Hypothesis 7 predicted that high-wariness leaders perceive less support than low-wariness leaders when their followers ingratiate and seek feedback. As Table 3 shows, none of the four interactions terms significantly predicted PFS. Specifically, the small effects of the leader's narcissism  $\times$  the workgroup's ingratiation ( $\beta = .10, p = .22$ ) and the leader's conscientiousness  $\times$  the workgroup's feedback-seeking ( $\beta = .05, p = .51$ ) on PFS were in the predicted direction, but insignificant. The leader's wariness  $\times$  the workgroup's ingratiation ( $\beta = .04, p = .67$ ) and the leader's wariness  $\times$  the workgroup's feedback-seeking ( $\beta = .05, p = .54$ ) each had a very small and insignificant positive effect. Thus, Hypotheses 5-7 were not supported. However, leader conscientiousness ( $\beta = .20, p = .02$ ) and reciprocation wariness ( $\beta = -.23, p = .01$ ) had significant main effects on PFS and the effect of leader narcissism ( $\beta = .14, p = .09$ ) on PFS was marginally significant. These findings will be discussed shortly.

Hypotheses 8 and 9 concerned the relationship between PFS and the leader's well-being outcomes (psychological strain and job satisfaction). Table 6 present the results for regressing the leader's well-being variables on PFS. To rule out the possibility of common causes predicting both PFS and the leader's well-being, I controlled for the leader's personalities (narcissism, conscientiousness, and reciprocation wariness) and leadership effectiveness, in addition to the leader's demographics and tenure.

Hypothesis 8 stated that PFS was negatively related to the leader's psychological strain. Supporting Hypothesis 8, PFS significantly predicted the leader's psychological strain ( $\beta = -.20, p = .03$ ) over and above the control variables (see Table 6).



**TABLE 6**  
**Regression Analyses Predicting the Leader's Psychological Strain and Job Satisfaction**

	Leader's psychological strain		Leader's job satisfaction	
	Model 1 <i>b</i> (s.e.)	Model 2 <i>b</i> (s.e.)	Model 1 <i>b</i> (s.e.)	Model 2 <i>b</i> (s.e.)
<i>Controls</i>				
Leader's gender	.24 (.12) <sup>†</sup>	.26 (.12)*	.02 (.19)	-.03 (.19)
Leader's age	-.01 (.01) <sup>†</sup>	-.01 (.01)	.03 (.01)**	.03 (.01)*
Leader's organizational tenure	-.01 (.01) <sup>†</sup>	-.01 (.01) <sup>†</sup>	-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)
Leader's narcissism	-.02 (.03)	-.01 (.03)	.11 (.04)*	.08 (.04)*
Leader's conscientiousness	-.11 (.13)	-.04 (.13)	.19 (.20)	.03 (.20)
Leader's wariness	.17 (.09)	.13 (.09) <sup>†</sup>	-.19 (.14)	-.09 (.14)
Leadership effectiveness (by followers)	-.04 (.04)	-.02 (.04)	.07 (.06)	.03 (.06)
<i>Perceived follower support</i>		-.13 (.06)*		.30 (.09)**
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.14**	.17**	.13**	.20***
$\Delta R^2$	.14**	.03*	.13**	.07**

<sup>a</sup> n = 149.

<sup>†</sup>  $\alpha < .1$

\*  $\alpha < .05$

\*\*  $\alpha < .01$

\*\*  $\alpha < .001$

\*\*\*  $\alpha < .001$

Hypothesis 9 predicted a positive relationship between PFS and the leader's job satisfaction. As shown in Table 6, PFS significantly predicted the leader's job satisfaction ( $\beta = .30$ ,  $p < .01$ ) over and above the control variables. Thus, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Hypothesis 10 predicted that PFS was positively related to leadership effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness was measured from two sources: the followers

and the managers (the supervisors of the leaders). In analyses predicting each of these measures, I controlled for the leader's personalities, psychological strain, and job satisfaction, in addition to the leader's demographics and tenure, to rule out the possibility of common causes predicting both PFS and leadership effectiveness.

**TABLE 7**

**Regression Analysis Predicting Leadership Effectiveness (Rated by the Workgroup)**

	<b>Leadership effectiveness</b>	
	<b>Model 1</b>	<b>Model 2</b>
	<b><i>b</i> (s.e.)</b>	<b><i>b</i> (s.e.)</b>
<b><i>Controls</i></b>		
Workgroup's average gender	-.52 (.40)	-.66 (.40) <sup>†</sup>
Workgroup's average age	-.01 (.02)	.00 (.02)
Workgroup's average tenure under leader	-.10 (.17)	-.16 (.17)
Leader's gender	.18 (.31)	.13 (.31)
Leader's age	.01 (.02)	.01 (.02)
Leader's organizational tenure	-.02 (.02)	-.02 (.02)
Leader's narcissism	-.15 (.06)*	-.16 (.06)**
Leader's conscientiousness	.27 (.31)	.11 (.31)
Leader's wariness	.05 (.22)	.16 (.22)
Leader's psychological strain	-.12 (.24)	-.11 (.24)
Leader's job satisfaction	.09 (.15)	.01 (.16)
 <i>Perceived follower support</i>		 .33 (.14)*
 <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	 .09	 .12
<i>ΔR</i> <sup>2</sup>	.09	.04*

<sup>a</sup> n = 149.

<sup>†</sup>  $\alpha < .1$

\*  $\alpha < .05$

\*\*  $\alpha < .01$

\*\*  $\alpha < .001$

\*\*\*  $\alpha < .001$

Similar to all other follower measures, the follower ratings of leadership effectiveness were aggregated to form the workgroup's rating of leadership effectiveness. Table 7 presents the result of regression analyses predicting leadership effectiveness rated by the workgroup. As shown in Table 7, PFS significantly predicted leadership effectiveness ( $\beta = .23, p = .02$ ) rated by the workgroup, over and above the control variables. Another notable finding was the negative relationship between the leader's narcissism and the workgroup's rating of leadership effectiveness ( $\beta = -.24, p < .01$ ) (see Table 7). These findings will be discussed shortly.

Next, I proceeded to test the relationship between PFS and the leadership effectiveness rated by the managers. Due to the significant between-group variance and the large *ICC(1)* indicating that 71% of the variance in the leadership effectiveness rated by the managers was due to the between-cluster variance (see Table 1), hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) was used for the analysis (Snijders & Bosker, 1999). Given that all the predictors were level 1 (the leader-level) variables, a random intercept model was used in the HLM analysis (Snijders & Bosker, 1999). In addition, as I was interested in the effect of PFS as a level 1 (or the leader-level, as opposed to level 2 or the manager level) variable on leadership effectiveness, I centered PFS and all of the control variables within clusters (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Cluster-mean centering removes between-cluster variation in predictors and produces a pure estimate of the pooled within-cluster regression coefficient, making it possible to test the hypothesis and to interpret the results correctly (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

**TABLE 8**  
**Hierarchical Linear Modeling Predicting Leadership Effectiveness (Rated by the Manager)<sup>ab</sup>**

	<b>Model 1 (empty)</b>	<b>Model 2 (controls)</b>	<b>Model 3 (full)</b>
<i><b>Fixed effect</b></i>	coefficient (s.e.)	coefficient (s.e.)	coefficient (s.e.)
Intercept	5.22 (.21)***	5.15 (1.88)**	5.14 (1.89)**
Leader's gender		.03 (.09)	.02 (.09)
Leader's age		-.02 (.01)	-.02 (.01)
Leader's organizational tenure		.03 (.02) <sup>†</sup>	.03 (.02) <sup>†</sup>
Leader's narcissism		.04 (.05)	.04 (.05)
Leader's conscientiousness		.32 (.24)	.32 (.26)
Leader's wariness		-.02 (.16)	-.02 (.17)
Leader's psychological strain		-.12 (.16)	-.12 (.16)
Leader's job satisfaction		.14 (.11)	.13 (.13)
<i>Perceived follower support</i>			.01 (.10)
<i><b>Random effect</b></i>	variance (s.e.)	variance (s.e.)	variance (s.e.)
Level one variance: $\sigma^2$	.64 (.19)***	.47 (.15)**	.47 (.15)**
Level two variance: $\tau^2$	1.43 (.44)***	1.38 (.43)***	1.38 (.43)***
<i><b>Model fit</b></i>			
Deviance (-2LL)	221.9	210.7	210.7
$\Delta\chi^2$		11.2	0
$\Delta df$		8	1

<sup>a</sup> Random intercept model included the leader-level (the workgroup-level) as level 1 and the manager-level as level 2.

<sup>b</sup> M (number of leaders) = 67      N (number of managers) = 44

<sup>†</sup>  $\alpha < .1$       \*  $\alpha < .05$       \*\*  $\alpha < .01$       \*\*\*  $\alpha < .001$

**TABLE 9**  
**Hierarchical Linear Modeling Predicting Workgroup Performance (Rated by the Manager)<sup>ab</sup>**

	<b>Model 1 (empty)</b>	<b>Model 2 (controls)</b>	<b>Model 3 (full)</b>
<i><b>Fixed effect</b></i>	coefficient (s.e.)	coefficient (s.e.)	coefficient (s.e.)
Intercept	5.47 (.17)***	6.56 (1.52)***	6.55 (1.53)
Leader's gender		.09 (.07)	.09 (.07)
Leader's age		-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)
Leader's organizational tenure		.04 (.01)*	.04 (.01)*
Leader's narcissism		.04 (.04)	.04 (.04)
Leader's conscientiousness		.33 (.20)	.34 (.21)
Leader's wariness		.02 (.13)	.02 (.14)
Leader's psychological strain		.04 (.13)	.04 (.13)
Leader's job satisfaction		.20 (.09) <sup>†</sup>	.19 (.10) <sup>†</sup>
<i>Perceived follower support</i>			.00 (.08)
<i><b>Random effect</b></i>	variance (s.e.)	variance (s.e.)	variance (s.e.)
Level one variance: $\sigma^2$	.57 (.16)**	.30 (1.0)***	.30 (1.0)***
Level two variance: $\tau^2$	.82 (.28)***	.90 (.27)***	.90 (.27)***
<i><b>Model fit</b></i>			
Deviance (-2 log likelihood)	212.8	181.9	181.9
$\Delta\chi^2$		30.9***	0
$\Delta df$		8	1

<sup>a</sup> Random intercept model included the leader-level (the workgroup-level) as level 1 and the manager-level as level 2.

<sup>b</sup> M (number of leaders) = 67      N (number of managers) = 44

<sup>†</sup>  $\alpha < .1$       \*  $\alpha < .05$       \*\*  $\alpha < .01$       \*\*\*  $\alpha < .001$

Hypothesis 11 predicted a positive association between PFS and workgroup performance. Workgroup performance was rated by the managers and as was the case for

the leadership effectiveness rated by the managers the between-cluster variance and the *ICC(1)* were significant (59% of variance in workgroup performance was due to the between-cluster variance; see Table 1). Hence, HLM was used for testing Hypothesis 10. With the same reasoning as in the case of the leadership effectiveness rated by managers, random intercept model and cluster-mean centering were used in the analysis predicting workgroup performance. Also, the same control variables were included in the analysis. Table 9 presents the results. Three models were compared: the empty model (Model 1) as the null model for comparison, the model adding the control variables (Model 2), and the full model (Model 3). As Table 8 shows, PFS did not significantly predict workgroup performance (standardized  $\gamma = .004$ ,  $p = .97$ ) and accordingly, Model 3 did not improve fit over Model 2. Thus, Hypothesis 11 was not supported.

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION

This study considered a number of antecedents and consequences of PFS. PFS was related to the leader's outcomes including psychological strain, job satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness. Additionally, the follower workgroup's conscientiousness, self-monitoring, and feedback-seeking predicted PFS. Further, the leader's conscientiousness, reciprocity, wariness, and narcissism were related to PFS.

PFS had a modest negative relationship with the leader's psychological strain. Demands, accountability, unpredictability, and other realities of many leadership roles are sources of stress for leaders (Mohr & Wolfram, 2010). The current results suggest that PFS may act as a resource buffering against job stressors and reducing the leader's psychological strain. This finding is consistent with empirical studies showing the role of perceived support from various organizational units and members in reducing strain (Ilies, Dimotakis, & Pater, 2010; Sloan 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Stamper & Johlke, 2003; Wang & Takeuchi, 2007) and with meta-analytic findings indicating that social support from family members, coworkers, supervisors, etc. are negatively related to strain (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999).

Additionally, PFS had a medium positive effect on the leader's job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is one of the most extensively researched topics in the history of organizational research (Judge & Church, 2000). It is related to all aspects of subjective

well-being: life satisfaction, happiness, positive affect, and the absence of negative affect (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Judge, & Klinger, 2007). Research has shown the association between job satisfaction and other important variables such as absenteeism (Scott & Taylor, 1985), organizational commitment, turnover intention, actual turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993), organizational citizenship behaviors (Bateman, & Organ, 1983), job performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), and workplace incivility (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). The current study identifies PFS as an antecedent of job satisfaction for leaders, underscoring the important role of followers in influencing the leader's well-being. This finding is consistent with the meta-analytic finding showing a positive relationship between employees' POS, the counterpart of PFS in employee-organization relationship, and job satisfaction (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Furthermore, PFS was positively associated with leadership effectiveness as rated by followers, suggesting that PFS is not merely a perception influencing psychological variables such as job satisfaction. The positive relationship between PFS and leadership effectiveness suggests that PFS can influence decisions, behaviors, and ultimately success of leaders. This finding is consistent with the results reported by Eisenberger et al., (2014). In a longitudinal study, Eisenberger et al., (2014) found that PFS predicted supportive leadership 5 months later and not vice versa. Supportive leadership was, in turn, related to workgroup performance and job satisfaction. The current study extends the previous findings by showing the association between PFS and leadership effectiveness, which is an important criterion variable in leadership research (e.g., DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2004). The current finding, once again, underscores the



important role of PFS and, by implication, the followers in influencing the leader's outcomes.

The workgroup's average self-monitoring had a modest negative relationship with PFS, implying that leaders do not perceive support from workgroups consisting of highly self-monitoring followers, who try to improve their standing with the leader through reading the leader's expressive behaviors and adapting their behaviors to situational demands. Apparently, leaders, on average, perceive that actions of self-monitoring followers do not stem from a genuine care for the leader's well-being or high regard for the leader. Rather, leaders attribute such actions by self-monitoring followers to a desire to obtain personal gains. Such a perception leads to negative emotions and reduced PFS. This finding is consistent with organizational support theory's view that the perception of support increases when employees attribute favorable treatments to sincere motives (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

The workgroup's average conscientiousness had a modest positive relationship with PFS, implying that leaders perceive support from workgroups consisting of followers who regulate their behaviors to facilitate task-performance and goal-achievement. This extends past findings on the positive relationship between conscientiousness of individual employees and task-performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000) and leader-member exchange (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012) by showing that the workgroup's overall concern with task-performance is seen by the leader as indicating caring and regard.

Although not hypothesized, the leader's conscientiousness had a modest positive main effect on PFS. Apparently, the leader's conscientiousness increases the amount of

support followers give to the leader. This might be due to the positive impact of the leader's conscientiousness on perceived leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance (DeRue et al., 2011). In other words, effectiveness of conscientious leaders brings them admiration and support from followers.

Another post-hoc finding was the modest negative main effect for the leader's reciprocation wariness on PFS. This finding is in line with the past research reporting associations between employees' wariness and reduced POS, increased mistrust in the employer, and the perception of psychological contract breach (Lynch et al., 1999; Shore, Bommer, Rao, & Seo, 2009; Suazo & Turnley, 2010). The current finding shows an ironic self-fulfilling prophecy about wary leaders, who are fearful of being exploited in their exchange relationships. Either because of their negative and distrustful worldview or because of the behaviors that result from such a worldview, wary leaders do not perceive high follower support.

Contrary to what was found for the leader's reciprocation wariness, leader's narcissism had a small and marginally significant positive relationship with PFS. This is ironic given the significant negative relationship found in the current study between the leader's narcissism and the workgroup's rating of leadership effectiveness. These findings imply that the support narcissistic leaders perceive from followers is not genuine. Higher PFS of narcissistic leaders might be a result of their exaggerated sense of superiority or due to the demand such leaders put on the followers to show (insincere) high regard and caring for the leader.

The workgroup's average ingratiation was not related to PFS. This might have resulted from problems in measurement of ingratiation with MIBOS (Kacmar & Valle,

1997; Harrison, Hochwarter, Perrewe, & Ralston, 1998), lack of a real relationship between ingratiation and PFS, or existence of moderators not measured in this study. In addition, the interactions involving ingratiation (the leader's narcissism  $\times$  the workgroup's ingratiation and the leader's wariness  $\times$  the workgroup's ingratiation) did not predict PFS. However, given that there are good theoretical grounds and anecdotal evidence to believe that some leaders have a stronger preference for flattery and ingratiation than others, more research is needed to clarify the relationship between the follower's ingratiation and PFS. Future research might consider the leader's need for social approval, need for esteem, and need for power as potential moderators.

Contrary to my hypothesis and to studies reporting a positive association between feedback-seeking and the feedback-seekers image (e.g., Far et al. 1989), the workgroup's average feedback-seeking had a modest negative relationship with PFS. This finding supports the view that feedback-seeking might have some negative consequences as well (Ashford et al., 2003). A study by Ashford and Northcraft (1992) might provide a hint. They found that overall feedback-seeking improved the manager's evaluation of the employees' personal characteristics and performance potential. However, feedback-seeking was not helpful and somewhat damaging for the image of historically average performers. Based on Ashford and Northcraft's (1992) finding and the finding in the current study, I would argue that feedback-seeking might be interpreted by many leaders as an indication for lack of preparation and caring. However, a negative relationship between the workgroup's feedback-seeking and PFS was not hypothesized in this study. In addition, the data for this study came from an organization (a municipal organization) in which the level of task complexity and therefore need for feedback is probably not as

high as more technically-oriented organizations such as engineering and high-tech companies. Therefore, more research is needed to show generalizability of the negative relationship found between feedback-seeking and PFS. Additionally, the interaction hypotheses involving feedback-seeking (the leader's conscientiousness  $\times$  the workgroup's feedback-seeking, the leader's wariness  $\times$  the workgroup's feedback-seeking) were not significantly related to PFS. Once again, future research with larger sample sizes is needed to identify leader characteristics that moderate the relationship between the workgroup's feedback-seeking and PFS.

Finally, PFS was not associated with leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance rated by managers. This might have been due to the small number of manager ratings (67) available for the analysis or due to a lack of opportunity for managers to observe leadership of the leaders and performance of the workgroup. It is also possible that due to their busy work schedules, managers did not fill the surveys with enough care. Very high *ICC(1)s* for these measures show that most managers had given similar ratings to all leaders below them.

### **Theoretical Contributions**

This study contributes to organizational support theory and leadership theory by identifying antecedents and consequences of PFS. In particular, the study sheds light on the much under-investigated bottom-up influence processes in organizations (Chen, Brockner, & Greenberg, 2003; Blader & Chen, 2011) by showing the role of PFS and, by implication, the role of the followers in influencing important leader outcomes. In the past, both leadership theory and organizational support theory have mainly focused on top-down influence processes. Such a focus stems from the disparity between power and

status of leaders and followers in organizations (Chen, Brockner, & Greenberg, 2003; Blader & Chen, 2011). Given that leaders control more resources than followers, followers are more dependent on leaders than the reverse. This fact has lead most studies in the areas of leadership and organizational support theory to neglect the followers' power and influence within organizations. The current study, however, shows that despite their lower power and status, followers can indeed influence important leader outcomes. PFS was related to the leader's job satisfaction, psychological strain, and effectiveness, suggesting that through their cumulative support for the leader, followers can influence the leader's psychological experience at work as well as the leader's performance in his or her leadership role.

Based on the resource categories identified by Foa and Foa (1974), Wilson et al., (2010) suggested that followers, in their dyadic exchange relationships with their leaders, can (directly or indirectly) provide six categories of resources to their leaders: affiliation, status, service, information, goods, and money. These same resources can be provided by cumulative actions of the followers as a group. The current study is a step toward integrating the upward flow of resources into the leadership theory. Perceived follower support is defined as the leader's belief that followers care for the leader's well-being, which implies providing affiliative resources, and that followers value the leader's contributions, which implies providing status resources (e.g., respect). Although, this study did not investigate whether and how followers provide affiliative and status resources, the positive relationships between PFS and the leader's job satisfaction and psychological strain imply that caring (an affiliative resource) and valuing (a status resource) from followers are indeed important for many leaders. Further, it can be argued

that, in the long run, by helping the leader to become more effective, PFS, and by implication cumulative support from followers, can provide other forms of status resources (e.g., reputation) as well as financial resources (e.g., bonus) to the leader. In many organizations, leadership effectiveness results in heightened reputation, bonuses, salary increases and promotions for leaders. Hence, the concept of PFS and its influence on leadership effectiveness imply that, cumulatively, followers can provide the leader with at least three out of the six types of resources mentioned by Wilson et al., (2010): status, affiliation, and money. Therefore, by studying PFS and its outcomes, this study can be considered a step toward a more balanced view of the direction of resources and support in the context of leadership theory and organizational support theory.

In this study, PFS was found to be related to three leader's outcomes: reduced psychological strain, increased job satisfaction, and increased leadership effectiveness. The associations between PFS and the leader's psychological strain and job satisfaction suggest that PFS contributes to the leader's well-being. Complementing past findings on the role of leaders in the psychological well-being of the followers (e.g., Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2004), these findings show that followers can play a role in the leader's psychological well-being as well, an area that has not been emphasized enough in past research on leader-follower relationships (cf. Wilson, Sin, & Conlon, 2010). Similarly, the positive relationship between PFS and leadership effectiveness underscores the important role of followers in the leadership process. The majority of the past research in the area of leadership has given an active role to the leader and a reactive role to followers. Thus, much attention has been given to the influence of leadership style (e.g., transformational leadership, supportive leadership)

and leader-member exchange on the follower's performance (cf. DeRue et al., 2011; Gerstner, & Day, 1997; Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. 2004; Judge et al, 2004; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). This study, however, suggests that followers can influence effectiveness (i.e., performance) of the leaders as well.

This study along with prior research on PFS (Eisenberger 2013; 2014) provides a novel approach to leadership by supposing that the leader engages in a social exchange relationship with the *collective* of followers. The only extant leadership theory that discusses the social exchange relationship between leaders and followers is the leader-member exchange theory (Liden et al., 1997; Graen & Scandura, 1987). However, leader-member exchange theory focuses on social exchange with individual followers. The present study showed that PFS was related to leader outcomes including psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness. Eisenberger et al., (2013; 2014) found that PFS was related to supportive leadership and, in turn, job satisfaction and performance of workgroup members. Together, these studies show that the leader and the group of followers are engaged in an exchange relationship in which both provide inputs (support) and receive outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction and improved performance)

The workgroup's self-monitoring was found to be negatively related to PFS. Past research has related self-monitoring to a number of positive outcomes for employees and leaders, including favorable performance evaluation, receipt of mentoring, career success, emerging as a leader, and perceived leadership effectiveness (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002; Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Turban & Dougherty, 1994; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenney, 1991). The conclusion from much of the past research has been that high self-monitors can successfully achieve their desired objectives by adapting themselves, like a

chameleon, to what the situation is calling for. Although past research shows that high self-monitors can achieve favorable performance evaluations and emerge as leaders (Day et al., 2002), the current study suggests that high self-monitors are not as effective convincing their leaders of their supportiveness. This has important implications for self-monitoring. By showing an important negative consequence of self-monitoring in the context of interpersonal support, the present study suggests that self-monitors may find it difficult to form positive relationships with their supervisors. The current study shows that while high self-monitors might achieve their self-interests by acting like chameleons, at the same time, they might create a feeling of unsupportiveness in others, in particular their leaders in a context involving mid- to long-term relationships.

The negative relationship found in this study between the workgroup's feedback-seeking and PFS supports the view that in some situations feedback-seeking can have negative consequences for employees (Ashford & Northcraft, 1992; Ashford et al., 2003). Despite the positive relationship reported in past studies between feedback-seeking and the employees' performance and the employees' image as concerned and interested (Farr et al., 1989; Renn & Fedor, 2001), some studies have reported negative outcomes for feedback-seeking. In a study by Ashford and Tsui (1991), seeking positive (rather than negative) feedback by managers reduced their effectiveness as perceived by superiors, peers, and subordinates. Seeking negative feedback had the opposite effect. Ashford and Tsui (1991) interpreted these findings as an indication that seeking negative feedback indicates attentiveness and caring whereas seeking positive feedback does not. Similarly, Ashford and Northcraft (1992) reported that whereas feedback-seeking had an overall positive effect on performance evaluation of employees, feedback-seeking by under-



performers somewhat reduced their performance evaluation. In this study, I found an overall negative relationship between average feedback-seeking of the workgroup and PFS. This finding vis-à-vis previously reported positive and negative outcomes for feedback-seeking indicates a need for more theorizing and empirical research in this area. In particular, feedback-seeking researchers need to consider the relationship between content and context of feedback inquiry and feedback-seeking outcomes. Frequency of feedback-seeking, which is usually what is measured in feedback-seeking studies, does not adequately capture the content and context of feedback inquiries in organizations. In terms of feedback content, past research has considered negative and positive feedback-seeking (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). However, a more detailed understanding of the feedback inquiry's content might be necessary. For example, seeking feedback by an employee on an innovative idea produced by him or her might demonstrate creativity and proactivity of the employee and be judged far more positively by leaders than seeking feedback on a routine task with which the employee is expected to be highly familiar and the inquiry might indicate lack of competence and effort.

The leader's conscientiousness, narcissism, and reciprocation wariness, were also identified as antecedents of PFS. These findings extend organizational support theory by showing that perceived or received support by an individual within the organization might be due to his or her personal characteristics. The positive relationship between the leader's conscientiousness and PFS suggests that conscientiousness might make a leader, and perhaps other employees, more popular and more strongly supported by others within the organization. The employees' conscientiousness has the strongest relationship with job performance among the big five personality variables (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz

& Donovan, 2000). The leader's conscientiousness is related to leadership effectiveness and workgroup performance (DeRue et al., 2011). Organizational members might support conscientious leaders and employees due to an instrumental motive of maintaining a favorable relationship with successful individuals, and thereby sharing the outcomes of their accomplishments. Support for a conscientious individual might be due to a genuine admiration of his or her accomplishments. The results also show that the leader's narcissism might influence perceived support in a positive way, perhaps due to an unrealistic sense of self-superiority despite actual unpopularity of the narcissistic individuals. In addition, the results suggest that some personalities such as reciprocation wariness might lead to low perceived support due to the cynical world-view of the wary individuals or due to a self-fulfilling prophecy resulting from such a cynical world-view.

The relationships found in this study between the leader's personality variables and PFS are also relevant for the leadership theory. In a meta-analysis evaluating trait and behavioral theories of leadership, DeRue et al. (2012) found that all of the big five personality variables (agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional stability, and openness to experience) were related to leadership behaviors and outcomes. The current findings suggest that PFS is a mechanism through which the leader's personality influences the leadership process and outcomes. The leader's personalities with a positive influence on PFS can pave the way toward a more positive relationship between the leader and the followers.

### **Practical Contributions**

The findings emphasize the important role of the followers in supporting their leaders. In particular, the followers need not be passive observers and possibly victims of

psychologically strained, unsatisfied, and ineffective leaders. They can play an active role in improving the leaders' well-being and effectiveness. In addition to helping the leaders, PFS helps organizations and followers. PFS helps organizations by increasing the effectiveness of leaders. It helps followers by contributing to the leader's well-being and effectiveness and, thereby, facilitating a positive and constructive relationship between the leader and the followers. The current results, along with the previously identified outcomes of PFS, including supportive leadership and, in turn, the followers job satisfaction and workgroup performance (Eisenberger et al., 2013; 2014) show that by contributing to PFS, followers can help the leader, the organization, and themselves. Organizations can emphasize to their employees at all levels that they have an important role in shaping their own outcomes and need to actively contribute to a positive relationship with their leaders.

The findings once again emphasize the importance of hiring conscientious employees and promoting conscientiousness among hired employees. In addition, the negative effect of self-monitoring on PFS shows that organizations should emphasize and promote sincere relationships among leaders and followers. More research is needed on antecedents of PFS before it is possible to give specific practical suggestions to organizations on how to increase PFS and reap the benefits identified for it. However, in light of the current findings and what we know from years of research on social and organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999), and LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012), it is advisable that organizations train employees to show genuine caring and regard for their leaders through personal industry and sincere expression of positive emotions (e.g., sympathy, gratitude). Also, employees

should be warned that manipulation and deception used to impress leaders might backfire by reducing PFS and, in turn, damaging the leader-follower relationship.

### **Limitations**

This study was correlational and cross-sectional, preventing strong inferences about directions of the relationships. Experimental and longitudinal studies are needed to rule out reverse hypotheses. In addition, PFS, psychological strain, and job satisfaction were all rated by leaders, possibly introducing a common source bias. Future research can address this issue through remedies such as measuring these variables at different times (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Finally, the data for this study came from a single organization. Even though employees from many departments and occupying various jobs were surveyed, data from multiple organizations can more accurately show the generalizability of the findings.

### **Future Research**

PFS was found to be associated with reduced psychological strain, improved job satisfaction, and higher leadership effectiveness. PFS might have other important consequences. Leaders who perceive support from followers might be more willing to take risks in forms of new projects and change initiative due to their trust in the followers. In addition, support from below might embolden leaders in voicing concern and criticism to higher-level managers, a behavior that is usually risky and unpopular (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012). Furthermore, leaders with high PFS might delegate more authority to followers and avoid micro-management (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000). In addition, leaders with high PFS might have higher organizational

identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) as a result of being supported by members of the organization. Furthermore, PFS might contribute to the work-family interface (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000) of the leaders by reducing psychological strain and meeting socio-emotional needs.

In this study, the follower's feedback-seeking, conscientiousness, and self-monitoring as well as the leader's reciprocation wariness, conscientiousness, and narcissism influenced PFS. More research is needed on the leaders' reaction to feedback-seeking by followers. Specifically, future research should answer which leader personalities influence the leader's preference for feedback-seeking. Other forms of supportive behaviors such as expressing positive emotions (e.g., gratitude) might influence formation of PFS. The follower's tendencies such as a proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993, Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010), other-orientation, and self-concern (De Dreu, 2006; De Dreu & Nauta, 2009, Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004) might also play a role in the formation of PFS. People with a proactive personality, defined as the relatively stable tendency to influence environmental change (Bateman & Crant, 1993), form high-quality exchange relationships with their leaders, and engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010). A workgroup consisting of such employees might increase the leader's PFS. Other-orientation involves a tendency to care for the welfare of others, whereas self-concern involves a tendency to care for the welfare of oneself (De Dreu, 2006; De Dreu & Nauta, 2009, Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). These two dispositional tendencies, which are not necessarily the two ends of the same continuum (De Dreu, 2006; De Dreu & Nauta, 2009), might influence the follower's caring for the welfare of leaders and, thereby, influence PFS.

One area, in which more research might lead to important findings, is the preferences of leaders for different follower behaviors. In this study, the moderation hypotheses which emphasized the role of the leader's personality in preference for follower behaviors were not supported. However, there are many other possibilities for future research in this area. Extraverted (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008) leaders might perceive more support if their followers have a lot of formal or informal interactions with them. The leaders' perfectionism (Hewitt, Flett, Turnbull-Donovan, & Mikail, 1991) might increase preference for the workgroup's conscientiousness or perfectionism. Promotion-focused leader, who tend to focus on opportunities and success (Higgins, 1997; 1998), might perceive more support from workgroups who take initiative and produce lots of novel ideas whereas prevention-focus leaders, who tend to focus on avoiding failure (Higgins, 1997; 1998), might perceive more support from obedient workgroups who do not take risk.

Further, the relationships found in this study between PFS and leader personality variables (conscientiousness, reciprocity wariness, and narcissism) generate new questions for future research. First, to what extent the leader's self-views (e.g., the narcissistic leaders' self-superiority view) and assumptions about others (e.g., the wary leaders' belief in untrustworthiness of others) influence the formation of PFS directly rather than through behaviors of the leader and reactions to those behaviors by the followers? Second, does the leader's personality feed into the environment and produces certain reactions by the followers which then influence PFS (a self-fulfilling prophecy)? For example, a wary leader might avoid rewarding the followers, who then react by reducing effort, confirming the leader's negative assumptions and reducing PFS.

Although this study involves supervisory level leaders, PFS is also relevant for managers at higher levels. Work overload, time pressure, and inability to focus are characteristics of many top and middle manager roles (Mintzberg, 2009). Furthermore, higher level managers have to make decisions with broader consequences – e.g., organization-wide change initiatives. Thus, PFS will probably play an even more important role in the decisions and actions of higher level managers. In addition, managers might form beliefs about support from employees not directly reporting to them. For example, CEOs probably form beliefs about overall support of all employees in the organization. However, the processes through which higher-level leaders infer follower support might be somewhat different from the processes through which supervisors infer follower support. Unlike in the case for supervisors, frequent direct interaction with all followers is not possible for top- and middle-managers. Distance influences views of leaders and followers about each other (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Napier & Ferris, 1993; Yammarino, 1994). Therefore, factors influencing the formation of PFS might be somewhat different for leaders who are at a distance from followers than factors influencing supervisors' PFS. More research is required to identify antecedents and consequences of PFS for leaders who are leading from a distance.

## **Conclusion**

The present study found that PFS was associated with reduced the leader's psychological strain, increased the leader's job satisfaction, and increased leadership effectiveness. Regarding antecedents of PFS, the workgroup's average conscientiousness was positively associated with PFS, whereas the workgroup's average self-monitoring and feedback-seeking were negatively related to PFS. Further, the leader's

conscientiousness was positively related to PFS and the leader's reciprocity awareness was negatively related to PFS. The results shed light on the important role of PFS, and by implication, the followers in influencing the leader's outcomes.



## APPENDIX A

### SCALES

#### **Perceived Follower Support** (6 items from Eisenberger et al., 2013 and 2 new items)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not At All Agree	Slightly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree	Completely Agree

1. My subordinates believe I am making important contributions to the Department.
2. My subordinates really care about my well-being.
3. If I were to be laid off, my subordinates would be sympathetic.
4. My subordinates feel the Department made the right decision in appointing me as their supervisor.
5. My subordinates believe I am doing an excellent job.
6. If I received recognition for my accomplishments, my subordinates would be happy for me.
7. My subordinates show a high regard for my welfare.
8. My subordinates try to be as supportive of me as possible.

#### **Narcissism** (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006)

In each of the following pairs of statements, please choose the one you agree with more.

1. A. When people compliment me, I sometimes get embarrassed.  
B. I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so.
2. A. I like to be the center of attention.  
B. I prefer to blend in with the crowd.
3. A. I am no better or worse than most people.  
B. I think I am a special person.
4. A. I like having authority over people.

- B. I don't mind following orders.
5. A. I find it easy to manipulate people.  
B. I don't like it when I find myself manipulating people.
6. A. I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.  
B. I usually get the respect that I deserve.
7. A. I try not to be a show off.  
B. I am apt to show off if I get the chance.
8. A. I always know what I am doing.  
B. Sometimes, I am not sure of what I am doing.
9. A. Sometimes I tell good stories.  
B. Everybody likes to hear my stories.
10. A. I expect a great deal from other people.  
B. I like to do things for other people.
11. A. I really like to be the center of attention.  
B. It makes me uncomfortable to be the center of attention.
12. A. Being an authority doesn't mean that much to me.  
B. People always seem to recognize my authority.
13. A. I am going to be a great person.  
B. I hope I am going to be successful.
14. A. People sometimes believe what I tell them.  
B. I can make anybody believe anything I want them to.
15. A. I am more capable than other people.  
B. There is a lot that I can learn from other people.
16. A. I am much like everybody else.  
B. I am an extraordinary person.

**Conscientiousness** (positive items from John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I am someone who does a thorough job.
2. I am someone who is a reliable worker.
3. I am someone who perseveres until the task is finished.
4. I am someone who does things efficiently.
5. I am someone who makes plans and follows through with them.

**Reciprocation Wariness** (Lynch et al., 1999)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Absolutely Disagree	Very Much Disagree	Disagree A Moderate Amount	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I feel used when people ask favors of me.
2. You should only help someone if that person will help you in the future.
3. You should not bend over backwards to help another person.
4. You should give help only when it benefits you.
5. In the long run, it is better to accept favors than to do favors for others.
6. The most realistic policy is to take more from others than you give.
7. When I help someone, I often find myself thinking about what is in it for me.
8. It generally pays to let others do more for you than you do for them.

**Psychological Strain** (Adapted from Van Katwyk et al., 2000)

Below are a number of statements that describe how people feel at work. Please indicate how often you had the following feelings at work during the past 30 days.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Quite Often	Extremely Often or Always

1. At work I felt miserable.
2. At work I felt annoyed.
3. At work I felt nervous.

4. At work I felt frustrated.
5. At work I felt tense.
6. At work I felt angry.
7. At work I felt anxious.
8. At work I felt disgusted.

**Job Satisfaction** (2 items from Quinn & Shepard, 1974 and 1 additional item)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job in my Department.
2. In general, my job measures up to the sort of job I wanted when I took it.
3. My job is enjoyable.

**Workgroup Performance** (Eisenberger et al., 2013)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not At All Agree	Slightly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree	Completely Agree

1. This work group gets its work done very effectively.
2. This work group does its job well.
3. This work group shows high work performance.

**Leadership Effectiveness Rated by Managers** (Adapted from Tsui & Ohlott, 1988)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not At All Agree	Slightly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree	Completely Agree

1. Overall, this supervisor is performing his/her job the way I would like it to be performed.
2. This supervisor has met my expectations in his/her managerial roles and responsibilities.
3. This supervisor is doing his/her job in an appropriate manner.

**Leadership Effectiveness Rated by Followers** (Adapted from Tsui & Ohlott, 1988)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not At All Agree	Slightly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree	Completely Agree

1. Overall, my supervisor is performing his/her job the way it should be performed.
2. My supervisor has met expectations in his/her managerial roles and responsibilities.
3. My supervisor is doing his/her job in an appropriate manner.

**Self-Monitoring Personality** (positive items from Lennox & Wolfe, 1984)

1	2	3	4	5	6
Definitely False	Generally False	Somewhat False	Somewhat True	Generally True	Definitely True

1. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.
2. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them.
3. When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.
4. I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.
5. Once I know what the situation calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.
6. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.
7. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with.
8. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives.
9. I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.
10. I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes.
11. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression.

**Ingratiation** (other-enhancement and favor-rendering dimensions from MIBOS, Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991)

How often do you engage in the following behaviors to influence your supervisor?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Almost always

1. Impress upon your supervisor that only he/she can help you in a given situation mainly to make him/her feel good about himself/herself.
2. Highlight the achievements made under his/her leadership in a meeting not being attended by him/her.
3. Tell him/her that you can learn a lot from his/her experience.
4. Exaggerate his/her admirable qualities to convey the impression that you think highly of him/her.
5. Ask your supervisor for advice in areas in which he/she thinks he/she is smart to let him/her feel that you admire his/her talent.
6. Look out for opportunities to admire your supervisor.
7. Compliment your supervisor on his/her achievement, however trivial it may actually be to you personally.
8. Try to do things for your supervisor that show your selfless generosity.
9. Go out of your way to run an errand for your supervisor.
10. Offer to help your supervisor by using your personal contacts.
11. Volunteer to be of help to your supervisor in matters like locating a good apartment, finding a good insurance agent, etc.
12. Spend time listening to your supervisor's personal problems even if you have no interest in them.
13. Volunteer to help your supervisor in his/her work even if it means extra work for you.

**Feedback-Seeking** (2 items from Callister et al., 1999; 2 items from Ashford, 1986; 1 item from Lam et al., 2007, and one new item)

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

1. I ask my supervisor how I am doing.
2. I ask my supervisor if I am meeting all my job requirements.
3. I seek information from my supervisor about my work performance.
4. I seek feedback from supervisor about my work performance.
5. I ask my supervisor about his or her expectations from me.
6. I ask my supervisor how I can improve my performance.

**Extra Role Performance** (adapted from Eisenberger et al., 2010)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not At All Agree	Slightly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree	Completely Agree

1. I keep well-informed where my knowledge might benefit my Department.
2. I gain knowledge, skills, and abilities that will be of benefit to my Department.
3. I look for ways to make my Department more successful.
4. I make suggestions to help my Department.
5. I take action to protect my Department from potential problems.

**Frequency of interaction with the leader** (McAllister, 1995)

1	2	3	4	5
Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More than once a day

How frequently do you interact with your supervisor at work?

**Tenure under Leader**

1	2	3	4	5
Less than 6 months	6 months - 1 year	1 year - 3 years	3 years - 6 years	More than 6 years

How long have you worked with your current supervisor?

**Catch Questions**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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If you had a previous full-time job before starting work for the City of Houston, choose 2. Otherwise, choose 6.

If you are a male, choose 3. If a female, choose 5.

## APPENDIX B

TABLE 10

Regression Analysis Including All Antecedent Variables Simultaneously

	<i>b</i> (s.e.)
<b><i>Controls</i></b>	
Workgroup's average gender	.60 (.27)*
Workgroup's average age	-.05 (.01)***
Workgroup's average tenure under leader	.20 (.11) <sup>†</sup>
Leader's gender	.17 (.20)
Leader's age	.02 (.01)
Leader's organizational tenure	-.01 (.01)
<b><i>Antecedents</i></b>	
Workgroup's ingratiation	.17 (.18)
Workgroup's feedback-seeking	-.26 (.13)*
Workgroup's average self-monitoring	-.28 (.16) <sup>†</sup>
Workgroup's average conscientiousness	.40 (.18)*
$R^2$	.15*
$\Delta R^2$	.04*

<sup>a</sup> n = 149.<sup>†</sup>  $\alpha < .1$ \*  $\alpha < .05$ \*\*  $\alpha < .01$ \*\*\*  $\alpha < .01$



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