

THE PERSONAL COST OF BEING IN THE IN-GROUP: AN EXAMINATION OF THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE QUALITY AND
WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

by

ERICKA R. LAWRENCE

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Management
in the Graduate School of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, AL

2011

Copyright Ericka R. Lawrence 2011
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ABSTRACT

Research examining the influence of leader-member exchange (LMX) on employee outcomes is plentiful. However, research exploring the potential negative consequences of engaging in LMX relationships has been limited. In order to obtain a better understanding of these complex relationships, this study predicts a curvilinear relationship between LMX and work-family conflict. Role overload and job engagement also are examined as mediators of the LMX and work-family conflict relationship. Hierarchical linear modeling was used to examine 72 dyads. The findings from this study indicate that a curvilinear relationship does not exist between LMX and work-family conflict. Additionally, role overload and job engagement did not mediate the relationship between LMX and work-family conflict. A discussion of the results along with the strengths, limitations, directions for future research and practical implications are also presented.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

α	Cronbach's index of internal consistency
F	Fisher's F ratio: A ration of two variances
\bar{M}	Mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
p	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
r	Pearson product-moment correlation
t	Computed value of a t test
$<$	Less than
$=$	Equal to

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, I give thanks to God for bringing me through this challenging journey. I also must thank the most patient and understanding husband in the world, Cornelius. You have been my biggest supporter throughout this long process. To Kaila, you are the best daughter and have taught me a lot through this process. I love you both more than words can show. To my parents, thank you for instilling the value of education and for your continued support in all of my endeavors. To the rest of my family, thank you for being there when I needed support.

Many thanks are due to my dissertation committee. First, to my dissertation chair Dr. Kacmar, I am indebted to you for your guidance throughout this process. You have provided direction in times of uncertainty and have been instrumental in my development as a scholar. I look forward to our continued professional and personal relationship. Dr. Johnson, thank you for your words of wisdom and belief in my abilities to complete this journey. Dr. King, you invited me to participate in the research process when I entered the program. Your thoughtfulness is greatly appreciated. Dr. Campbell, thank you for helping me to find “my voice.” Dr. Cashman, you have provided insight and sparked exciting ideas for future consideration.

Finally, to my friends and colleagues, I have been blessed with some wonderful friendships throughout this journey. I value your friendship and it has inspired me to be a better researcher and person.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	9
a. Leader-Member Exchange Theory	10
b. LMX Development	11
b. LMX Development	11
c. LMX Outcomes.....	12
d. Role Theory	17
e. Social Exchange Theory	20
f. Work-Family Conflict	21
g. Role Overload	26
h. Work Engagement	27
3. METHODOLOGY	31
a. Procedure.....	31
b. Sample.....	31

c. Measures	34
d. Analysis.....	37
4. RESULTS	39
a. Independence of Samples.....	40
b. Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	40
c. Hypotheses Tests.....	42
c. Post-Hoc Analysis	45
5. DISCUSSION	49
a. Discussion and Unexpected Findings	49
b. Strengths and Limitations	50
c. Future Research.....	51
REFERENCES	55
APPENDICES	
a. Multidimensional Scale of LMX – Subordinate Perspective.....	65
b. Role Overload	66
c. Work Engagement.....	67
d. Work-Family Conflict.....	68
e. IRB Approval.....	69

LIST OF TABLES

2.1 Major Studies on Outcomes of LMX Quality.....	16
4.1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations.....	42
4.2 HLM Analyses of Linear and Linear LMX terms Predicting Work-Interference with Family	43
4.3 Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results Work-Interference with Family	44
4.4 Regression Analysis Results of Linear and Nonlinear LMX terms Predicting Work-Interference with Family	46
4.5 Regression Analysis Results Work-Interference with Family.....	48

LIST OF FIGURES

- 1.1 Role overload and job engagement as mediators of the LMX and work-family.....7
conflict relationship
- 4.1 The effect of Leader-Member Exchange on Work-Family Conflict47

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a universal phenomenon that has been studied for centuries (Bass, 1990). While the conceptualization of leadership often varies by theory, the construct is generally viewed as a process of social influence that focuses on the general ability of the leader to express desired goals or end-results to followers and then motivate them to achieve those outcomes (Bass, 1990). The ability of the leader to influence the intensity and direction of the followers' energy provides organizations with a way to enhance performance. Therefore, it is important to understand the variables that impact effective leadership.

Different leadership theories indicate several mechanisms through which leaders influence performance (Northouse, 1997). For instance, some theories focus on the stable dispositions of the leader (Judge, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2002), others focus on the actions of the leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1990), and still others examine how situational or contextual factors impact the leader's effectiveness (Fiedler, 1967; Morgeson, 2005). Despite these process differences, leadership theories often focused on the effects of the leaders' general behaviors or attitudes toward subordinates and essentially assumed that leaders behave the same way toward all of their subordinates as they seek to accomplish organizational goals (Dansereau, Cashman & Graen, 1973; Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975). Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory was introduced as an alternative approach to examining a leader's influence on individual subordinate effectiveness. LMX theory is unique because its main focus is the dyadic, unique relationship that develops between the leader and each follower (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

LMX theory is based on role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and describes the role making process that results in leaders developing different relationships with their followers (Dansereau, et al., 1975). The role-making process includes an initial testing period which is characterized by the leader's evaluation of the degree to which sent roles are accepted or rejected by a new member. The extent that the member's task performance satisfies the leader's role requirements influences the type of LMX relationship that develops. Low-quality LMX relationships are based on the employment contract and are solely economic in nature (Blau, 1964). Supervisors in low-quality LMX relationships provide a minimal amount of support and benefits to their subordinates. Thus, there are mutually low expectations regarding the quality of exchange and feelings of obligation between participants.

On the other hand, social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) are used to describe the development of high-quality LMX relationships (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Social exchange theory suggests that the positive, voluntary actions that supervisors exhibit toward subordinates will facilitate the development of high-quality relationships and generate a sense of obligation on behalf of the subordinate to reciprocate in a comparable positive manner (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Specifically, as the interactions between the supervisor and the subordinate increase, trust and mutual respect between the two develops (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). As the quality of LMX increases, supervisors provide more support, resources, autonomy, and increased communication to high-quality members (Chen, 2007; Kacmar, Wittt, Zivnuska & Gully, 2003; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). These benefits serve to create obligations for the subordinate to reciprocate. In exchange for the benefits

derived from being in a high-quality LMX relationship, supervisors expect higher levels of task performance, extra-role performance, and commitment from the recipients (Blau, 1964; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) while less is expected of those in low-quality relationships.

The leadership and management literatures are replete with the benefits of high-quality leader-member relationships (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Subordinates who enjoy a high-quality LMX relationship have higher job satisfaction and autonomy, receive more formal and informal rewards than those in low-quality LMX relationships, and have more access to and communication with supervisors than those in low quality LMX relationships (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Previous research also suggests that high-quality LMX subordinates experience lower levels of stress (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999) due to the reduction or elimination of role stressors, such as ambiguity and role conflict, and through the removal of contextual obstacles (Hochwarter, 2005; Lagace, Castleberry, & Ridnour, 1993; Nelson, Basu, & Purdie, 1998).

While the majority of the LMX literature focuses on the leader behaviors that lead to positive organizational outcomes for high-quality members, researchers recently have begun to examine the conditions under which LMX could result in negative outcomes for these individuals (Harris & Kacmar, 2006; Hochwarter, 2005; Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben, & Rautsch, 2005). Negative outcomes such as role related problems may occur when examining LMX relationships since the underlying premise of LMX involves the negotiation of roles between leaders and followers (Hochwarter, 2005). For instance, in high-quality LMX relationships, the subordinate is likely to have greater levels of responsibility and obligation as compared to those in low-quality LMX relationships (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Although participating in high-quality LMX relationships has usually been considered to be beneficial,

there is likely to be some point at which these subordinates begin to experience distress, along with negative work and nonwork related outcomes as they encounter increased role stressors while trying to live up to the leader's high expectations. Therefore, at the highest levels of LMX, effective subordinate utilization may be hindered (Harris & Kacmar, 2006; Hochwarter, 2005; Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben, & Rautsch, 2005).

Summary of Present Study

Figure 1 provides the conceptual model for my study. In this study I will first examine a negative individual outcome experienced by high-quality LMX members that has theoretical relevance but that has not yet been tested: work-family conflict. While the majority of research examining the outcomes of LMX has focused on linear relationships, this may not be the most appropriate depiction of the actual underlying relationship. Therefore, this study will examine a curvilinear relationship between LMX and work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is “a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985 p. 77). Essentially, when individuals face competing demands regarding work and family, they often have to forego rewards in one of the domains to obtain rewards in the other (Zedeck, 1992). Work-family conflict is important to consider when studying organizations because it has been shown to be related to absenteeism (e.g., Thomas & Ganster, 1995), increased intentions to leave (Burke, 1988) and low job satisfaction (e.g. Burke & Greenglass, 2001).

Second, I will examine whether role overload and job engagement mediate the curvilinear relationship between LMX and work-family conflict. Most work-family conflict research has examined characteristics of the work domain as predictors (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux & Brinley, 2005; Ford, Heinen & Langkamer, 2007). Findings have shown

consistently that work-family conflict is related to having more role conflict, pressure, and stress at work (Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Shamir, 1983). Work-family conflict is high in individuals who work a large number of hours or long days (Greenhaus et al., 1987; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Shamir, 1983), report high job involvement (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Parasurman & Simmers, 2001), and are high in intrinsic motivation and organizational loyalty (Tenbrunsel et al., 1995). High-quality LMX members take on additional task and extra-role behaviors to reciprocate the additional support and resources that they receive. Thus, it is likely that these individuals will experience higher levels of work-family conflict than low-quality LMX members.

Role theory provides a useful theoretical framework for testing the relationships shown in Figure 1 as organizations often create situations and contexts with well defined procedures and strong norms regarding performance and expectations. Role theory suggests that role expectations often lead to role pressures (Kahn et al., 1964). Role pressures are the result of the influence attempts directed at the focal person to conform to the expectations of the role senders. A common form of role pressure in organizations is role overload. Role overload is a form of inter-role conflict that occurs when various role senders hold expectations that a person perform a wide variety of tasks. However, it may be difficult for the focal person to complete all of the expected tasks due to limitations of time and energy (Kahn et al., 1964). Therefore, high-quality LMX members are likely to experience role overload as they take on additional assignments and responsibilities and spend time cultivating the relationship that has been developed with their supervisors. These individuals are likely to subsequently experience work-family conflict as a result of role overload.

Generally speaking, employee work engagement is a topic that is generating increased attention in the literature. However, there are several conceptualizations of this construct. In this study, work engagement will be defined as a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Vigor relates to having high levels of energy and mental resilience while at work. Dedication is the facet of work engagement that relates to having a sense of significance, enthusiasm, pride and challenging work (Salanova, Agut & Peiro, 2005). Absorption is characterized by full concentration, being engrossed in one’s work where time passes quickly, and having difficulty detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). As it relates to this study, high-quality LMX members are likely to experience high levels of engagement as they receive support, resources, and challenging assignments from supervisors. However, as these individuals allow time to slip away from them and exhibit difficulty in detaching from their work, they are likely to experience work-family conflict.

Contribution of the study

Despite the numerous theoretical and practical contributions of LMX theory to the understanding of various individual and organizational outcomes, research examining the link between processes or leadership and work-family conflict is lacking. Towards this end, this study examines how LMX quality influences the amount of work-family conflict that subordinates experience. There is a fundamental link between an employee’s work and family life (Frone, 2003) and the literature has consistently found negative individual and organizational

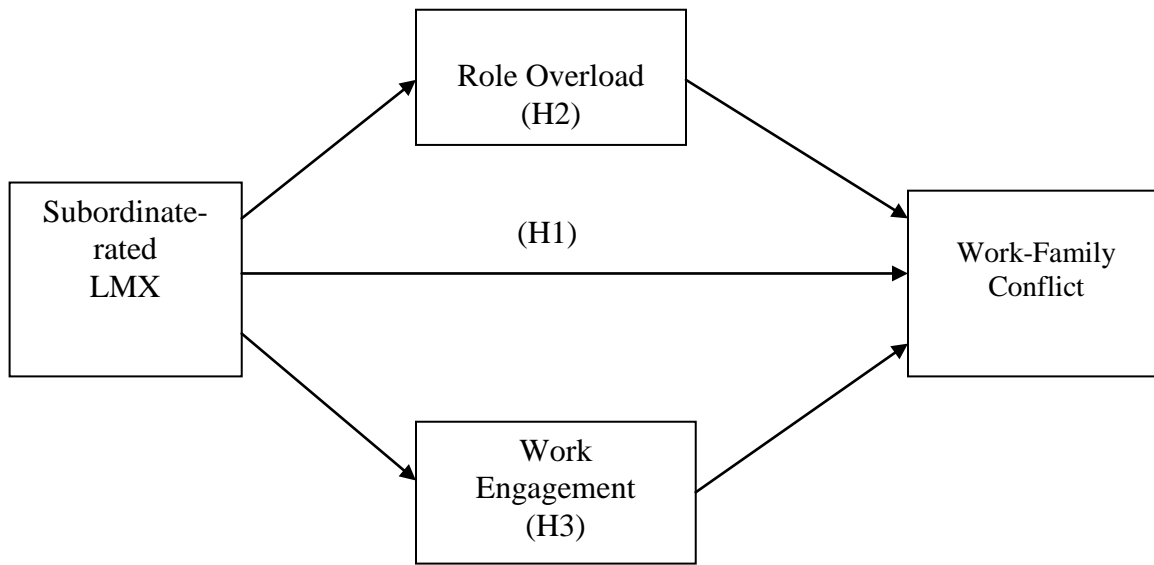


Figure 1. Role overload and job engagement as mediators of the LMX and work-family conflict relationship

outcomes for individuals who experience high levels of work-family conflict. Therefore, it is important for the leadership literature to extend beyond the traditional organizational outcome-based studies and examine a leader’s influence on nonwork variables, such as work-family conflict.

Previous meta-analyses have provided strong evidence of linear relationships between LMX and individual and organizational outcomes (Gerstner & Day, 1997). However, the primary focus on linear relationships may have hindered the examination of more complex effects. In order to obtain a better understanding of the relationship between LMX and work-family conflict, this study will examine a curvilinear relationship between these variables. This study also will seek to obtain an understanding of the mechanisms through which high-quality LMX members experience work-family conflict. Specifically, role overload and job engagement will be examined as mediators of this relationship.

The remainder of this study proceeds as follows, Chapter 2 provides a review of the LMX and work-family conflict literatures. This chapter also develops the conceptual model of interest and the related hypotheses. Chapter 3 presents the research design, methodology, measures, and analysis that will be utilized in this study. Chapter 4 provides the results of the analyses while Chapter 5 presents the discussion section, which highlights the strengths, limitations, directions for future research, and practical implications of this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

For decades researchers and practitioners have been interested in the role of management on employee performance, satisfaction, and commitment. Research suggesting and empirically supporting the fact that the relationships between supervisors and subordinates is one of the most important determinants of subordinate's behaviors and attitudes and subsequent individual, group, and organizational outcomes is plentiful (Gersnter & Day, 1997; Judge, Piccoloc, & Ilies, 2004). Therefore, it is important to understand the variables that impact effective leadership.

The leadership literature has gone through several paradigm shifts. Early research sought to isolate universal traits that distinguished successful leaders from their unsuccessful counterparts (Stogdill, 1948). Studies conducted during this period indicate that the personal traits of leaders only explain a small amount of the variance in desired outcomes (Bass, 1990). During the 1950s, the trait paradigm fell out of favor and was replaced by a focus on leader behaviors (Kahn & Katz, 1966; Stogdill & Coons, 1951). Research from this area provided some significant findings and indicated that situational variables should be considered in conjunction with the leader's traits and behaviors. The consideration of situations, followers, and/or combinations of these, resulted in several contingency theories of leadership (Bass, 1990; Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1974; House, 1971).

The 1970s saw a decline in leadership research as several studies found that leadership only explained a slight amount of variance in performance. Some authors even proposed abandoning the field (Brown, 1982; Pfeffer, 1977). Additional research indicated that methodological flaws had suppressed leadership's influence on performance. When these methodological issues were addressed, leadership research was found to explain up to 50% of the

variance in organizational performance (Thomas, 1988). The renewed interest in leadership research was accompanied by a shift from broad encompassing models to focusing on the effects of leaders on their followers and their relationships. For instance, charismatic leadership emphasizes the ability of a leader to achieve high levels of follower commitment and performance by utilizing symbolic and emotional appeal (House & Aditya, 1997). Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory was introduced as an alternative approach to examining a leader's influence on individual subordinate effectiveness. LMX theory is unique because its main focus is the dyadic, individualized relationship that develops between the leader and each follower (Graen et al., 1975).

Leader Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

Introduced as the "Vertical Dyad Linkage" (VDL) by Graen and his colleagues (Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen, 1973; Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975), the primary focus behind LMX is that leaders (supervisors) develop different relationships with their members (subordinates). VDL differed from previous theories which often had an underlying assumption that leaders treated all members the same (e.g. average leadership style (ALS) (Dansereau et al., 1975). VDL characterized leader and member relationships by physical or mental effort, emotional support, information, and trust. Low-quality LMX relationships (i.e. "out-group" exchanges) were described by interactions that were primarily based on the employment contract. On the other hand, high-quality relationships (i.e. "in-group" exchanges) were based on higher levels of trust and emotional support than the formal job description identified. Therefore, the difference between relationship quality was originally considered as dichotomous, as relationships between leaders and members were characterized as either bad ("out-group") or good ("in-group").

LMX Development

Research has shown that high-quality and low-quality relationships develop rather quickly and remain stable over time (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980). Therefore, it is important to obtain an understanding of the process underlying the formation of relationship quality. One of the first suggestions regarding the development of LMX relationships was based on the notion that exchange qualities were a result of a role “negotiation process” utilizing the role and social exchange theory frameworks. The role “negotiation process” described the initial interactions that influenced the supervisor’s feelings for the subordinate. While the role negotiation process was identified as a key component of the development of relationship quality, early research did not capture the factors that had an affect on this process. Researchers suggested that various leader and member characteristics (i.e., personality, ability, liking) would interact with the process to influence the relationship quality.

In an attempt to fill this void in the literature, Dienesch and Liden (1986) introduced a process-oriented model of the LMX relationship development process. They suggested that there were four steps to the LMX development process: initial interaction, leader delegation, member’s behavior, and interpretation. The initial interaction is based on the assumption that each individual brings unique traits, attitudes, and characteristics to the encounter. During the initial interaction, the leader may make attributions about the member that are likely to influence the future development of the relationship quality.

The second step in the process is the leader’s assignment of an initial set of tasks to “test” the member. The third step in the relationship development process involves the behavior that is exhibited by the member in response to the leader’s instruction in step two. Therefore, the member’s behavior provides the leader with a basis of his/her attributions regarding the members

ability and motivation and the subsequent behavior of the leader. The fourth step focuses on the leader's interpretation and explanation of the member's behavior. These four steps combine to form the process under which LMX relationships are developed.

Outcomes of LMX

The primary focus of a majority of the initial empirical research on LMX (1975-1985) was on outcomes or consequences of relationship quality. The results of these studies and more recent meta-analyses (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007) have provided a broad range of outcome variables receiving strong and consistent support. Table 2.1 provides a listing of some of the major studies that have examined LMX relationship quality and outcomes. For the most part, these findings support role theory (Kahn et al., 1964) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and have been positive for the individual and the organization. I will now review the extant literature that focuses on attitudes and perceptions as outcomes of LMX. The purpose of this review is to highlight where my study fits in the existing literature as well as how my study extends what is currently known. I will discuss these outcomes by focusing on attitudes and perceptions and describe the consequences related to leader and member behaviors.

Attitudes and perceptions. Research has consistently shown support for the relationships between LMX quality and work attitudes. Overall, the benefits that these members receive usually result in their having positive attitudes about their job, supervisor, and the organization. For instance, there is consistent empirical support for the positive relationship between LMX and job satisfaction (Dansereau et al., 1975; Green et al., 1996; Harris, Harris, & Brouer, 2009; Liden & Graen, 1980; Major, Kozlowski, & Chao, 1995; Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura & Tepper, 1992; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984). A number of studies also have focused on various dimensions of job satisfaction. Specifically, satisfaction with one's supervisor mostly has been shown to be

positively related to LMX (Dansereau et al., 1975; Green et al., 1996; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984) with a few exceptions (Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Liden & Graen, 1980).

Another commonly studied outcome variable in the management literature is organizational commitment. Research examining the relationship between LMX quality and organizational commitment has generally been positive (Chuang & Shon, 2008; Green et al., 1996; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Major et al., 1995; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). However, empirical research also suggests that there is no direct relationship between LMX and organizational commitment. Rather, satisfaction (Green et al., 1996) and person-supervisor fit have been (Chuang & Shon, 2008) found to mediate this relationship.

Finally, research has examined the relationship between LMX quality and role stressors. The two role stressors that have been examined in the LMX literature are role conflict and role ambiguity. Results indicate that high-quality LMX members experience a reduction or elimination of role stressors through the removal of contextual obstacles (Hochwarter, 2005; Lagace, Castleberry, & Ridnour, 1993; Nelson, Basu, & Purdie, 1998). Role conflict and role ambiguity also have been found to mediate the relationship between LMX and stress (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). However, it is interesting that the relationship between LMX and the third role stressor, role overload, has not been examined in the literature. This study will examine this phenomenon by applying both role and social exchange theories. However, the hypothesized results are predicted to not be beneficial for high-quality LMX members. Specifically, LMX will likely result in a positive relationship with role overload as a

result of the additional responsibilities and extra-role behaviors that are expected and exhibited by high-quality members.

Behaviors. LMX has been found to be related to several employee workplace behaviors. One of the most frequently examined behaviors is supervisor performance ratings. Examining the relationship between LMX and supervisor performance ratings is important because higher performance ratings often result in career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994), frequent promotions (Wakabayashi et al, 1988), high promotability ratings (Wakabayashi et al., 1988; Wayne et al., 1999) and salaries and bonuses (Wakabayashi et al., 1988; Wayne et al., 1999). The majority of empirical findings indicate that there is a positive relationship between LMX quality and supervisor performance ratings (Duarte, Goodson & Klich, 1993; Dunegan, Duchon & Uhl-Bien, 1992; Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska & Gully, 2003; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Schriesheim et al., 2000; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 2002). However, it should be noted that these results are confounded by the fact that the leaders provide the performance ratings (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

An additional behavior that has frequently been examined in the LMX literature is turnover. The empirical findings examining the LMX and actual turnover relationship have been mixed. Some studies have found a significant negative relationship (Dansereau et al., 1975; Ferris, 1985; Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977), while others have produced nonsignificant correlations (Vecchio, 1985; Vecchio et al., 1986). More recent research examining this relationship has focused on turnover intentions. These studies have consistently found a significant negative relationship (Harris et al., 2009; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Majore et al., 1995; Wayne et al., 1997). One exception to this is a study that found a curvilinear relationship between LMX and turnover intentions (Harris, Kacmar & Witt, 2005).

Lastly, there have been several studies that have investigated the relationship between LMX quality and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Research has consistently found that a positive relationship exists among these variables (Ilies et al., 2007). These findings are consistent with the social exchange component of LMX theory which suggests that high-quality LMX members engage in behaviors that are outside of the formal employment contract (Anderson & Williams, 1996; Deluga, 1998; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997).

Research focusing on LMX and its outcomes has voluminous and consistent findings. In particular, LMX relationship quality is related to several important attitudes and behaviors as shown in Table 2.1. Even though, the research has focused on a number of important issues, some unanswered questions related to the correlations between LMX quality and a number of the outcome variables previously discussed still remain. Specifically, are there any personal costs or negative consequences for engaging in high-quality LMX relationships? This study will extend previous research by focusing on role overload and job engagement because it is likely that high-quality LMX members will experience these attitudes as a result of the increased assignments and responsibilities they undertake to reciprocate the amount of support and benefits they have received from their supervisor.

Table 2.1

Major Studies on Outcomes of LMX Quality

Outcome	Study	Result
Actual Turnover	Dansereau et al. (1975) Ferris (1985) Graen & Ginsburgh (1977) Vecchio (1985) Vecchio et al. (1986)	Negative Negative Negative Not Significant Not Significant
Career Outcomes Promotion Frequency Promotability Salary/Bonuses	Wakabayashi et al. (1988) Wakabayashi et al. (1988) Wayne et al. (1999) Wakabayashi et al. (1988) Wayne et al. (1999)	Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive
Job Satisfaction	Dansereau et al. (1975) Green et al. (1996) Harris et al. (2009) Liden & Graen (1980) Major et al. (1995) Schriesheim et al. (1992) Vecchio & Gobdel (1984)	Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Anderson & Williams (1996) Deluga (1998) Rupp & Cropanzano (2002) Settoon et al. (1996) Wayne et al. (1997)	Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive
Organizational Commitment	Chung & Shon (2008) Green et al. (1996) Liden & Maslyn (1998) Liden et al. (2000) Major et al. (1995) Schriesheim et al. (1992) Settoon et al. (1996) Wayne et al. (1997)	Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive
Perceived Organizational Support	Wayne et al. (1997) Wayne et al. (2002)	Positive Positive
Performance Ratings	Duarte et al. (1993) Dunegan et al. (1992) Graen & Ginsburgh (1977) Kacmar et al. (2003) Scandura & Schriesheim (1994) Schriesheim et al. (1992)	Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive Positive

	Settoon et al. (1996) Wayne et al. (1997) Wayne et al. (2002)	Positive Positive Positive
Role Stressors Role Ambiguity Role Conflict	Hochwarter (2005) Lagace et al. (1993) Nelson et al (1998)	Negative Negative Negative
Satisfaction with the Supervisor	Dansereau et al. (1975) Graen & Ginsburgh (1977) Green et al. (1996) Liden & Graen (1980) Liden & Maslyn (1998) Vecchio & Gobdel (1984)	Positive Not Significant Positive Not Significant Positive Positive
Turnover Intentions	Harris et al., (2009) Harris et al. (2005) Liden & Maslym (1998) Major et al. (1995) Wayne et al. (1997)	Negative Curvilinear Negative Negative Negative

Underlying Theories of LMX

Role Theory

To obtain an understanding of why employees behave as they do, one must study roles (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Roles are shared expectations about an individual's behavior in a social situation (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In an organizational context, a role is a set of activities to be performed by an individual who occupies a position in an organization. Employee roles may be formally identified through job descriptions or informally identified through discussions with supervisors and co-workers. These roles can be interpreted by examining the stated expectations of their supervisors, coworkers, or subordinates (Katz, 1980).

Organizational role theory suggests that individuals generally behave in ways that are consistent with how their roles are defined (Kahn et al., 1964). The individual's behavior is formed through the role episode process (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). The

role episode is a complete cycle of role sending, a response by the focal person, and the effects of that response on the role sender. The role sender (i.e. supervisor) provides information about how s/he expects the focal person (i.e. subordinate) to perform the role and seeks to obtain compliance by stating the consequences of acceptance and rejection of the request. The focal person's subsequent behavior indicates compliance or noncompliance, and this is feedback to the role sender regarding the impact of his/her messages, which completes the role episode. If the behavior exhibited by the focal person is not acceptable to the role sender, s/he may initiate another role episode.

The role episode presents role expectations for the role sender and focal person. These role expectations often lead to role pressures (Kahn et al, 1964). Role pressures are the result of the influence attempts directed at the focal person to conform to the expectations of the role senders. Common forms of role pressure in organizations include role overload, role conflict, and role ambiguity. Role overload is a kind of inter-sender conflict in which various role senders may have expectations that a person perform a wide variety of tasks. However, it may be difficult for the focal person to complete all of the expected tasks because of limitations in time and energy (Kahn et al., 1964). The literature also suggests that individuals may have difficulty setting priorities when faced with multiple tasks or roles (Kahn & French, 1970). Further, an individual may be able to competently perform a number of roles, but may not be able to complete all of his/her role obligations with a given time frame, therefore, producing role overload and concurrent role strain (Hardy, 1978).

Role conflict relates to conflicting role expectations. Individuals encountering role conflict will face various or even contradictory expectations expressed by others in the work environment (i.e., supervisors or co-workers). Experiencing conflicting expectations from others

can be a stressor that causes individuals to think about which expectation to satisfy and which expectation to disregard. Individuals encountering role conflict also may reflect on how to reconcile the conflicting expectations.

Role ambiguity is a form of person-role conflict that occurs when an individual must deal with single or multiple roles which have not been clearly defined in terms of expected behaviors or performance levels. Role ambiguity may occur when one does not have the necessary information to perform a role; or when the methods for fulfilling a role are unknown; or when the consequences of one's role performance are unknown (Kahn et al., 1964; House, Rizzo & Lirtzman, 1970). Role expectations may be ambiguous regarding activities, responsibilities, personal style, and norms (Kahn & Quinn, 1970). Role ambiguity may cause role stress when the individual becomes uncertain about what behaviors are required in a given role. Ambiguity hinders an individual's need for clarity and structure in the environment and therefore is a source of stress (Katz & Kahn, 1978). The literature has identified role ambiguity and role conflict as common role stressors that individuals encounter in organizations. However, these role stressors will not be examined in the study because numerous previous studies have found that high-quality LMX members do not encounter these role stressors due to the increased amount of communication and support that they receive from supervisors (Lagace, Castleberry, & Ridnou, 1993; Nelson, Basu, & Purdie, 1998). Rather, the current study will focus on role overload because it is likely that high-quality LMX members will experience this role stressor as a result of the increased assignments and responsibilities they undertake to reciprocate the amount of support and benefits they have received from their supervisor.

LMX utilizes role theory to explain the process by which LMX behaviors translate into psychological and behavioral consequences for the focal person. Graen and Scandura (1987)

describe the role-making process as having three phases: role taking, role making, and role routinization. During the role taking phase, the leader communicates a sent role to the member (focal person) by either making a request or assigning a task. One or more episodes can occur during this phase. The member's reaction to the communication gives the leader feedback that s/he uses to evaluate the member's behavior and decides whether to initiate another episode. The leader is testing and assessing the member's motivation and potential. The nature of the leader-member relationship is defined during the role making phase. Essentially, either party may initiate this phase, but the leader typically provides an opportunity for the member to attempt a task with little or no direction. This suggests that a certain working relationship exists with the leader. If the member accepts the opportunity, the leader-member relationship progressively develops into a high-quality exchange relationship. Role routinization is the point where behaviors of the leader and member become interlocked. The leader and member develop an understanding and clear mutual expectations resulting from prior collaboration on unstructured tasks.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is one of the seminal theories in the organizational behavior literature and has been the framework upon which research focusing on exchange processes is based (Setton et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). LMX theory utilizes social exchange theory by applying it to the dyadic relationship that develops between supervisors and subordinates. Essentially, any social exchange between individuals includes obligations, whether they are explicit or implied. Furthermore, when one individual performs a task for another person, an expectation of a future duty or responsibility is created. However, the expected returned duty and the timing in which it will take place is often unclear (Gouldner, 1960).

The idea of expected future obligation that individuals experience was conceptualized as the “norm of reciprocity” (Gouldner, 1960). Essentially, individuals feel compelled to do unto others as they have done unto them. This concept is used to explain the quality of relationships that develop between supervisors and subordinates. Specifically, supervisors provide additional information, communication, responsibilities, and autonomy to subordinates with whom they have high-quality LMX relationships. The benefits provided to these members, are the basis for the supervisors’ expectation that the subordinate will assist them with work tasks that are beyond the scope of their formal job description (Liden & Graen, 1980; Ilies et al., 2007). The advantages provided by the supervisor often produce feelings of obligation from the subordinate. To fulfill these feelings of obligation, the subordinate often chooses to work harder and longer to assist the supervisor.

Work-Family Conflict

Research focusing on work-family conflict (WFC) started in the 1970s when an increasing number of women began to enter the work-force. This influx of women into the work-force was related to an increasing need and desire for many families to have two incomes. Additional changes to the family structure that have resulted in changes in workforce demographics include an increase in the number of single-parent families and the aging of the U.S. population (Milliken, Dutton & Beyer, 1989). These radical changes in the demographics of the workforce have prompted considerable research on work and family issues (Allen, et al, 2000).

Work-family conflict research began as an application of role theory (Kopelman, et al., 1983) and focused on the conflict caused by participating in multiple roles. Work-family conflict is defined as “a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from work and family

domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

Essentially, when individuals face competing demands regarding work and family, they often have to forego rewards in one of the domains to obtain rewards in the other (Zedeck, 1992). This conceptualization of work-family conflict suggests that this construct is bidirectional (Frone et al., 1972), therefore, work-family conflict can occur in either domain: work can interfere with family responsibilities (work interference with family (WIF)) and/or family can interfere with work responsibilities (family interference with work (FIW)) (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Reviews of the literature have found that work-family conflict and family-work conflict are related but different constructs that have distinct antecedents and outcomes (Frone et al, 1997; Allen et al, 2000; Eby et al., 2005). For instance, work-family conflict occurs when participation in a work-related activity hinders an individual’s involvement in a competing family activity (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). WFC is influenced by lack of support from management and coworkers, increased job demands and overload, and increased number of hours worked (Eby et al., 2005; Ford et al., 2007). There are also several negative work and non-work outcomes related to increased levels of work family conflict. Reviews of the literature suggest that individual’s who experience high levels of work family conflict have decreased levels of job satisfaction (Allen et al, 2000), decreased levels of organizational commitment (Netemeyer, et al., 1996), and increased turnover intentions (Good et al., 1988). Individuals experiencing high levels of work family conflict also report having decreased levels of life and family satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Parasuraman et al.,1989) in addition to increased levels of anxiety (Greenglass, et al, 1988) and burnout (Eby et al., 2005; Netemeyer, 1996).

Family-work conflict occurs when participation in a family activity hinders an individual's involvement in a work activity (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). FWC is influenced by having a working spouse or partner, spousal support, adequate childcare or eldercare, and the age of dependent children (Allen et al., 2000). These findings support the bi-directionality of the work-family construct. However, I will only examine the work interference with family domain in this study because previous research suggests that demands and resources at work are more likely to be related to work interference with family experiences (Frone, 1997; Ford et al., 2007). Additionally, this study focuses on the outcomes that result when high quality LMX members seek to maintain and reciprocate the relationships they have developed with their supervisors firmly placing it in the work domain.

Work-interference with family has three specific forms: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Time-based conflict occurs because multiple roles may compete for a person's time. Therefore, time spent on activities in one role generally reduce the amount of time that can be devoted to activities in another role. Time-based conflict is consistent with excessive work hours and scheduling conflicts (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Time or attention transferred from one domain hinders role performance in that domain but assists role performance in the other domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Strain-based conflict involves role-produced strain. This type of conflict exists when strain in one role affects one's performance in another role. Strain-based conflict is consistent with dissatisfaction, tension, fatigue, and irritability (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Finally, behavior-based conflict relates to specific-patterns of in-role behavior that may be inconsistent with the expectations about one's behavior in another role. An example is a female supervisor who may be seen as logical, assertive, and self-reliant at work, but is expected to be warm, nurturing, and emotional at home.

It is important to note that the underlying premise of behavior-based conflict is not conflicting demands. Behavior-based conflict simply requires behaviors that are developed or exhibited in one domain to interfere with role performance when these same behaviors are exhibited in another domain.

Predictors of work interference with family

Most work interference with family research has examined characteristics of the work domain as predictors (Eby et al, 2005; Ford et al., 2007). There have been consistent findings which suggest that work interference with family is related to having more pressure and stress at work (Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Shamir, 1983). Research also has shown that the unpredictability in work routines (i.e. working weekends and rotating shifts) leads to work interference with family (Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Shamir, 1983). Individuals who have a Type A personality (Eby et al., 2005), experience abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000) also tend to experience higher levels of work interference with family.

Previous research also has found that individuals who have high levels of job involvement and invest increasing amounts of time and energy in work experience work interference with family (Carlson et al, 2000; Parasurman & Simmers, 2001). Additionally, interference is higher in individuals who work a large amount of hours (Greenhaus et al., 1987; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Shamir, 1983), and are high in intrinsic motivation and organizational loyalty (Tenbrunsel et al, 1995).

As previously indicated, high-quality LMX subordinates receive benefits that are not afforded to their low-quality LMX peers (Graen & Scandura, 1987). In exchange for the advantages that high-quality LMX subordinates receive, supervisors will expect these subordinates to perform additional tasks that are not included in their formal job descriptions.

Furthermore, these individuals may feel obligated to assist the supervisors who have assisted them. In fulfilling their obligations, subordinates in high-quality LMX relationships may work additional hours to fulfill their obligations or spend additional hours engaging in after work activities to maintain their relationships. Given the increased attention placed on work tasks, there is a point at which high-quality LMX subordinates will not be able to fulfill their family roles or attend family activities as they attempt to perform their additional job related and extra-role tasks.

Conversely, low-quality LMX members receive few, if any, additional benefits from their supervisors. Therefore, these members should have reduced expectations for exchange or feelings of obligation towards the supervisor. Supervisors in low-quality LMX relationships engage in interactions that follow employment contract requirements. These individuals will not experience work interference with family because they do not engage in additional responsibilities. However, they are likely to experience work-family conflict due to decreased levels of autonomy in their scheduling and a lack of supervisor support. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: *There is a U-shaped curvilinear relationship between LMX quality and work interference with family. Specifically, when LMX quality is low, work interference with family is high, work-interference with family decreases when LMX quality is moderate, and work interference with family increases when LMX quality is high.*

Mediators of the LMX and Work Interference with Family Relationship

Role Overload

Role overload, a perception that role demands are overwhelming relative to available capabilities and resources, is a form of person-role conflict. Role overload describes situations in which individuals feel that there are too many responsibilities or activities expected of them when considering the amount of time available, their responsibilities, and other constraints (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). For example, subordinates who engage in high-quality LMX relationships receive benefits that are not afforded to their low-quality LMX peers (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Social exchange theory suggests that in exchange for the advantages that high-quality LMX subordinates receive, supervisors will expect these subordinates to perform tasks that are not included in the formal job description in addition to tasks that the job requires. Furthermore, the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) suggests that individuals may feel obligated to assist those who have assisted them. Therefore, subordinates in high-quality LMX relationships will feel obligated to assist their supervisors, who have provided them with additional benefits. While these individuals most likely have the mental capability and motivation to perform their additional job-related responsibilities and extra-role behaviors, their time to fulfill these tasks is limited. Therefore, it is likely that high-quality LMX members will experience role overload.

On the other hand, low-quality LMX members receive few, if any, additional benefits from their supervisors. Therefore, these members should have reduced expectations for exchange or feelings of obligation towards the supervisor. Specifically, supervisors in low-quality LMX relationships engage in interactions that follow employment contract requirements. Therefore, subordinates in low-quality LMX relationships feel obligated to only perform the

tasks that are presented in the formal job description and are unlikely to experience high levels of role overload.

As previously discussed, the antecedents of work interference with family have been well documented. A large body of research has identified role demands as antecedents of work-family conflict (Eby et al., 2005; Ford et al., 2007). Role overload has been found to cause increased levels of work interference with family. Specifically, as employees experience increased work role demands, their time is limited in participating in and fulfilling family roles. Role overload is directly influenced by LMX quality. High-quality LMX members will experience role overload as they seek to perform their additional responsibilities and roles with a limited amount of time and energy. The increased level of role overload will subsequently lead to work interference with family.

***Hypothesis 2.** Role overload mediates the relationship between LMX and work interference with family.*

Work Engagement

There are differences in the degree to which employees are dedicated to their job and the level of intensity and attention that they exhibit in the workplace. Job engagement (also known as work engagement) measures the variation in the amount of energy and dedication that individuals contribute to their job (Kahn, 1990). It has been defined as “the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s preferred self during tasks that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence and active, full performances” (Kahn, 1990). Work engagement has been related to outcomes ranging from job performance and organizational commitment to burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Similar to other constructs, although most researchers agree on the construct of job engagement, it is conceptualized in several ways (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008). I will provide a brief discussion of the different perspectives of job engagement to provide a better understanding of the construct.

Kahn's theory of job engagement and disengagement. Kahn (1990) suggested that engagement was the difference in the amount of energy that individuals gave of themselves to their work. This variation was due to the fact that individuals are likely to experience pushes to (engagement) and pulls away (disengagement) from their work tasks. Kahn discussed job engagement in relation to the interaction between the individual self and the work role and suggested that personal engagement was the result of an individual's respect for his/her sense of personal self and his/her work role as being distinct. He also suggested that when the boundaries between the personal self and the work role became unclear, personal disengagement would result. Empirical research focusing on this conceptualization of the construct indicates job engagement occurs when employees are encouraged to actively participate at work and devote extra effort to their tasks (Sonnetag, 2003).

Schaufeli's conceptualization of work engagement. Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002) conceptualized work engagement as an "affective-cognitive" state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Vigor is characterized by having high levels of energy and mental resilience while at work. Dedication is the facet of work engagement that relates to having a sense of significance, enthusiasm, pride, and challenging work (Salanova, Agut & Peiro, 2005). Absorption is characterized by full concentration, being engrossed in one's work where time passes quickly, and having difficulty detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

While Leiter and Maslach's (1997) conceptualization of job engagement positioned work engagement and burnout as polar opposites, Schaufeli et al. (2002) suggested that work engagement and burnout didn't necessarily have to be measured as polar opposites. Instead, these authors view it as a multi-dimensional construct. For the purposes of this study, Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) conceptualization of work engagement is utilized.

As previously discussed, research examining the relationship between LMX quality and employee attitudes is plentiful and consistent with its underlying theories. The relationship between LMX quality and employee engagement seems obvious, but has not been explored. The concepts of social exchange theory can be used to explain this relationship. Essentially, supervisors invest valuable resources and time in the development of the knowledge, skills, and expertise of their high-quality LMX members. As interactions between the supervisor and subordinate increase, high-quality members reciprocate by having high levels of energy while at work, having a sense of significance while at work, and even being so engrossed in their work that they don't realize the speed at which time is passing.

As previous research indicates, job engagement has been related to increased levels of employee performance and organizational commitment (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). The literature also suggests that job engagement occurs when employees are encouraged to actively participate at work and devote extra effort to their tasks (Sonnetag, 2003). While these behaviors are considered to be beneficial for the subordinate's supervisor and the organization, there are potential negative consequences of work engagement for high-quality LMX members. Specifically, as these individuals exhibit high levels of energy and exert extra effort while performing their responsibilities and fulfilling their feelings of obligation to the supervisor, they are likely to allow time to pass quickly and exhibit difficulty in detaching from their work. The

subordinate's increased amount of time spent at work and increased level of strain that they encounter through their increased job engagement will result in a decreased amount of time to devote to family responsibilities.

On the other hand, low-quality LMX members do not receive the additional resources and benefits from their supervisors that their high-quality counterparts do. Additionally, these individuals perform tasks that are specifically required by the employment contract. Hence, low-quality LMX member will not consider their work to be challenging and will not find it difficult to detach themselves from their work. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3. *Job engagement mediates the relationship between LMX and work interference with family.*

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Procedure and Sample

Sample 1

Top management from a local non-profit agency in the southeastern United States requested the administration of a survey to determine employees' feelings about the organization. The researcher met with the executive director of the organization to explain the goals of the study and to answer specific questions. The organization provided an organizational chart and a list matching each subordinate with his/her immediate supervisor. Once an agreement was reached regarding survey questions and the administration of the survey, a company memo was distributed to all employees notifying them of the opportunity to participate in the survey. Employees were told the purpose of the study and provided a written survey to complete. Participation in the survey was voluntary and respondents were assured that their responses were confidential. The surveys were administered during regular working hours over a two week period by the organization's human resource director. To assure confidentiality, employees were allowed to complete the surveys at their desks at a convenient time. Respondents placed their completed surveys in a sealed envelope and placed their signature across the seal before placing it in a locked collection box. I received 21 useable surveys from the subordinates (77% response rate).

Supervisors were given two surveys. The first survey asked supervisors to rate each of their subordinates. This survey was set up as a matrix, with the items by which subordinates would be rated listed on the first column and the subordinate's names listed across the column headings. I received 9 useable surveys of this type from the supervisors (100% response rate).

The second survey was identical to the survey completed by the subordinates. I received 8 useable survey of this type from the supervisors (89% response rate). The supervisor sample was 56% female and 56% Caucasian. The average age was 52.9 years with an average organizational tenure of 18.4 years. These respondents worked an average of 45.4 hours per week. The level of education obtained by supervisors was: 6.9% had associates degrees, 79.3% had college degrees, and 10.3% had completed a graduate degree.

Subordinate's surveys included the name of their immediate supervisor for matching purposes. The subordinate sample was 52% male and 69% African-American and the average age was 45.5 years. Average organizational tenure was 8.4 years, and respondent's had been working for their current supervisor for an average of 3.4 years. The level of education obtained by subordinates was: 41.4% were high school graduates, 17.2% had an associate's degree, 20.7% were college graduates, and 13.8% had completed a graduate degree.

Sample 2

Shareholders from a law firm in the southeastern United States requested the administration of a survey to determine employees' feelings about the organization. The researcher met with the shareholder responsible for employee relations to explain the goals of the study and to answer specific questions. The organization subsequently provided an organizational chart and a list matching each subordinate with his/her immediate supervisor. The structure of this organization is unique as compared to most organizations, with some subordinates reporting to multiple supervisors. In most organizations, the subordinate traditionally reports to and is rated by one supervisor. This organizational structure required the subordinates to rate multiple supervisors. However, the subordinates were required to provide only one measure of outcomes.

Once an agreement was reached regarding deliverables and the timing and administration of the survey, a company memo was distributed to all employees notifying them of the opportunity to participate in the online survey. The shareholder also guaranteed the confidentiality of the responses and the employees were allowed to complete the surveys during work hours. When the survey was disseminated to firm employees, the researcher received communication from an attorney specializing in human resource law within the firm expressing concern about some of the survey items. Firm employees were notified to not participate in the survey until further notice. Once the researcher reached an agreement on survey items with the firm's HR representative and HR shareholder, the survey was redeployed the next business day. The agreement consisted of the removal of the 3 items of the affect dimension of the LMX scale. Approximately 2 weeks after the surveys were distributed the shareholder sent a follow-up email to all employees reminding them to complete the surveys.

The first survey asked supervisors to rate each of their subordinates. This survey was set up as a matrix, with the items by which subordinates would be rated listed on the first column and the subordinate's names listed across the column headings. I received 10 useable surveys of this type from the supervisors (32% response rate). The second survey asked respondents to rate various attitudes and behaviors. I received 10 useable surveys of this type from the supervisors (32% response rate). The supervisor sample was 75% female and 100% Caucasian. The average age was 39.3 years with an average organizational tenure of 10.1 years. These respondents worked an average of 45 hours per week. All supervisors had a graduate degree.

The subordinates completed two surveys also. The first survey was set up as a matrix, with the items by which supervisors would be rated on the first column and the supervisors names listed across the column headings. The subordinates rated an average of 2.4 supervisors.

I received 18 useable surveys of this type from the subordinates (75% response rate). The second survey consisted of items regarding subordinate's attitudes. I received 18 useable surveys of this type from the subordinates (75% response rate). The subordinate sample was 82% female and 88% Caucasian and the average age was 42.5 years. Average organizational tenure was 8.4 years, and respondent's had been working for their current supervisor for an average of 5.1 years. The level of education obtained by subordinates was: 44.2% were high school graduates, 20.9% had an associate's degree, 7% were college graduates, and 16.3% had completed a graduate degree.

Missing data were addressed for a small proportion of the data. For participants who omitted items on a scale, but had completed data for other items on that scale, mean substitution (Roth, 1994) was used. I was able to match 30 supervisor-subordinate pairs from sample 1 (77% response rate) and 42 supervisors-subordinate pairs from sample 2 (54% response rate) resulting in a final combined sample from both organizations of 72 dyads. As a result of the issues encountered in collecting supervisor responses for sample 2, subordinate ratings were used for all measures in this study.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, responses to all measures used in this study were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Items were coded such that high scores equate to high levels of the construct of interest. All of the measures used in this study can be found in the Appendices.

Leader-member exchange

Subordinate evaluations of LMX were assessed using 9-items from the 12-item Liden and Maslyn (1998; Appendix A) multidimensional subordinate LMX scale (LMX-MDM). Only

three dimensions of the LMX-MDM were used for this study due to sample 2's request to remove the 3 affect items. The LMX-MDM asks subordinates to report their perception of the quality of supervisor exchanges on the three dimensions: loyalty ("My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question"); contribution ("I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description"); and professional respect ("I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job"). The Cronbach alpha for this scale is .88.

Role overload

Role overload was measured with a 3-item scale developed by Bolino and Turnley (2005; Appendix B). A sample item is "The amount of work I am expected to do is too great." The Cronbach alpha for this scale is .84.

Work Engagement

Work engagement was assessed using Schaufeli et al.'s (2002; Appendix C) 17-item multidimensional scale. Responses were measured on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Although no hypotheses will be made regarding the influence of the various engagement dimensions on work-family conflict, the multidimensional measure was used to allow for future research in this area. This scale allows work engagement to be assessed based on three dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Sample items for the various dimensions of the scale are as follows: vigor ("At my work, I feel bursting with energy"); dedication ("I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose"); absorption ("It is difficult to detach myself from my job"). The Cronbach alpha for work engagement in this study is .88.

Work-Interference with Family

The multi-dimensional work-family conflict scale developed by Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams, (2000; Appendix D) was used in this study because it allows time, behavior, and strain based work-interference with family to be assessed. The measure includes 6 three-item subscales to measure the various forms of interference from both the work-family and family-work views. I only utilized the three work-family (WIF) subscales in this study, using nine of the 18 total items. An example of a time-based WIF item is “I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.” An example of a behavior-based WIF item is “The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.” An example of a strain based WIF item is “I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.” The Cronbach alpha for this scale is .92.

Control Variables

Based on a review of the literature, there are several variables that were controlled because they were expected to covary with work-interference with family, the ultimate dependent variable. The effects of subordinate gender, race, marital status, and career salience were controlled for in the data analyses. Gender (male = 1, female = 2) was controlled because the literature indicated that females tend to experience higher levels of work-family conflict than males (Eby et al., 2005). Marital status was controlled because previous research suggests that married individuals experience higher levels of work-family conflict. Career salience also has been shown to increase the amount of work-family conflict that an individual experiences (Eby et al., 2005). Therefore, it was controlled using Claire and Lobel’s (1995) 5-item measure. The Cronbach alpha for this scale is .78.

Analysis Approach

Participants in this study were generally nested within supervisors. To model this effect and to account for supervisor-level effects, hierarchical linear modeling 6.08 was used (HLM; Raudensbush, Bryk, Cheong, & Congdon, 2004). To verify whether HLM should be used, a null model was estimated to examine the degree of variability due to the supervisor. The null model did not contain level-1 or level-2 predictors. This model is comparable to a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) where the variable of interest is the dependent variable and group membership is the independent variable. Within HLM, if there is not a significant amount of variance related to the supervisors, the level-2 variable can be disregarded and analyzed as a simple linear regression on level-1 variables. The intra-class correlation (ICC) is the metric used to evaluate this variance. The ICC for the dependent variable, work-interference with family is .26 ($X^2 = 62.99, p = .07$) and suggests that a supervisor effect accounted for a sufficient portion of variance. Therefore, the analyses were conducted using HLM.

Based on my prediction of a curvilinear relationship between LMX and work interference with family in Hypothesis 1, LMX was transformed into a squared term. To test Hypothesis 1, the control variables were entered to determine the amount of variance they explain in work-family conflict in step 1. In step 2, the linear LMX term was entered. In step 3, the squared LMX term was entered.

To test hypothesis 2, mediation was tested using the multiple mediator method introduced by MacKinnon (2000). MacKinnon's (2000) method for analyzing multiple mediators is an extension of the statistical analysis for analyzing a single mediator. In the first step, the mediators (role overload and work engagement) were regressed on the linear version of the independent variable (LMX). In Step 2, the dependent variable (work-family conflict) was

regressed on the independent variable (LMX). In Step 3, work-interference with family was regressed on role overload and work engagement with LMX being included in the equation.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Data Structure

As previously mentioned, the structure of Company 2 is unique as compared to most organizations, with some subordinates reporting to multiple supervisors. For this company, the subordinates provided multiple ratings of supervisors, while providing only one measure of the outcomes. In order to provide the most parallel comparison between these two organizations, three variations of the matched data samples were considered. First, the subordinate surveys were randomly matched to one of the supervisors that they rated. Second, the average LMX rating was calculated from the LMX scores of each supervisor who was rated by the subordinate. These methods would allow me to include only one rating of subordinate outcome measures. The third technique that was considered and implemented was the use of repeated outcome measures for each supervisor that the subordinate rated. Applying this approach allowed me to incorporate all of the unique LMX ratings provided by the subordinates, but required me to “reuse” the outcome variables from the subordinates on each case. For example, if subordinate A rated LMX with 3 supervisors, then there were three cases for this individual in the file. In each case the LMX ratings were unique, but the remaining variables (WFC, role overload, and engagement) repeated. This method was implemented for several reasons. First, computing the average LMX among supervisors and randomly selecting a supervisor to match the subordinate’s outcomes is not consistent with the theoretical foundation of LMX, which focuses on the unique dyadic relationship that is developed between supervisors and subordinates. Second, while LMX seeks to measure the quality of the relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate, the

outcome measures used in the study examined the general attitudes of the subordinates and were not specific to the supervisor.

Independence of Samples

To determine if it was appropriate to combine the two organizations into a single sample, a t-test to compare observed means was conducted. The Levene's test was used to make specific comparisons between the organizations in the sample.

The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the companies regarding work engagement ($t = .27, p = .08$), age ($t = 1.15, p = .25$), education ($t = -.17, p = .88$), and supervisor tenure ($t = -1.48, p = .14$). Demographic differences of gender and race were statistically significant. Company 2 had significantly more female employees (82%) than Company 1 (56%). The racial makeup of Company 2 (98% White/2% Non-white) was significantly different from Company 1. There were also statistical differences between the companies regarding role overload ($t = 5.75, p = .00$) and work interference with family ($t = 2.28, p = .03$).

While there are statistically significant demographic differences between the two organizations, the practical significance of these differences may not be substantial. Further, combining the samples creates a more diverse sample and may enhance the generalizability of the results. To recognize the differences across the firms, the effects due to gender and race and organizational membership were controlled for in the statistical analysis.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Before testing the hypotheses, a confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) was conducted on each measure to ensure that they are independent and that the items produced the expected factor structures. Since all of the scales used in the analyses have been established in the literature,

CFA was the appropriate technique. CFA is a statistical analysis approach that seeks to optimally match the observed and theoretical factor structures of a specific data set in order to determine the “goodness-of-fit” of the factor model. Goodness-of-fit indexes provide recommended standard values for assessing the model fit. The four indices that will be used to assess model fit in this study are: comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The cutoff values for determining the goodness of fit recommend a CFI, NFI, and NNFI is at least .90 and a RMSEA of .08 or less (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) was used to estimate the 4-factor measurement model. A covariance matrix of the self-report data from employees (LMX, role overload, work engagement, and work interference with family) were input into the model. Each item was allowed to load on its expected factor, and the factors were allowed to correlate. The fit statistics for the four-factor model (CFI = .67; NFI = .58; NNFI = .64; RMSEA = .15) showed that the data did not fit the model. This was expected due to the small sample size, $N=72$. Given that results for samples less than 150 are notoriously unstable (Hair et al, 2006), no further SEM analyses were conducted.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 displays the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the variables used in this study. As indicated in the Table, career salience ($r = .32, p < .05$) and role overload ($r = .44, p < .01$) were significantly related to work-interference with family. These findings are consistent with previous research regarding the influence of participating in multiple roles on work-family conflict. A relationship that was counter to the arguments presented in this study is LMX’s negative correlation with work-interference with family ($r = -.27, p < .05$).

Table 4.1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>
1 Gender	1.32	0.77	----							
2 Race	2.38	0.90	.67**	-----						
3 Organization	1.60	0.49	.84**	.71**	-----					
4 Career Salience	2.11	0.67	-.31**	-.17	-.29*	.78				
5 LMX	4.19	0.63	.02	.20	.00	-.11	.88			
6 Role Overload	2.75	0.93	-.39**	-.41**	.17	.12	-.06	.84		
7 Engagement	3.67	0.49	-.02	-.02	-.01	-.02	.21	-.10	.88	
8 WIF	2.07	0.72	-.22	-.18	.03	.32**	-.27*	.44**	-.30**	.92

Note: N= 72. LMX = Leader-Member Exchange Quality. WIF = work interference with family. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Scale reliabilities are on the diagonals in bold.

Hypothesis Tests

The HLM results are provided in Table 4.2. In step 1 of the analyses, the control variables career salience ($\gamma = .28, p < .05$) and race ($\gamma = .16, p < .05$) are positively and significantly related to work-interference with family. In step 2, LMX was significantly related to work-interference with family. However, this relationship was negative ($\gamma = -.33, p < .05$). In step 3, the squared LMX variable is not significantly related to work-interference with family. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Table 4.2

Hierarchical Linear Modeling Analyses of Linear and Nonlinear LMX terms Predicting Work-Interference with Family

	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
<i>Control Variables</i>			
Gender	-.11		
Race	.16*		
Organization	-.29		
Career Salience	.28*		
<i>Dependent Variable: WIF</i>			
LMX		-.33*	
<i>Dependent Variable: WIF</i>			
LMX ²			.22
R ²	.06*	.21	.24

Note. LMX = Leader-member exchange. WIF = Work-interference with family.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

For Hypotheses 2 and 3, role overload and work engagement were not significantly related to LMX. Therefore, the first step of the three-step mediation process is not fulfilled. In step 2, work-interference with family was significantly related to LMX. However, the relationship was negative. In step 3, LMX was not significantly related to work-interference with family with the inclusion of the two mediators. Therefore, Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported.

Table 4.3

Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results for Work-Interference of Family

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
<i>Mediators</i>				
Role Overload	-.01			.29**
Work Engagement		.24		-.34*
<i>Independent Variables</i>				
LMX			-.28*	-.24
R ²	.00	.03	.05*	.20*

Note. LMX = Leader-member exchange. WIF = Work-interference with family.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Treatment for CMV

The data used in this study were collected from the same source at the same time. One consequence of this design is the potential for common method variance (CMV) to impact the results. Therefore, several steps were taken to minimize common method biases by following procedures suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003). First, detailed information about the precautions taken to ensure the confidentiality of the respondents was presented to decrease socially desirable responses and to increase respondent openness. Second, respondents were assured that there were no right or wrong answers, in an attempt to decrease evaluation apprehension.

In addition, the degree to which CMV existed in the data could be examined by conducting SEM analyses using LISREL 8.80. The first step is to estimate a full measurement model that included a factor for each of the four key variables: LMX, role overload, work-

engagement, and work-family conflict. Then, a model that included a fifth latent variable to represent a method factor is estimated, allowing all 38 items to load on this uncorrelated factor. According to Williams, Cote, and Buckley (1989), if the fit of the measurement model is significantly improved by the addition of an uncorrelated method factor, then CMV may be a concern. As a result of the small sample size, these tests could not be implemented.

Post-hoc Analysis

Given the small sample size and data collection issues that were encountered, a regression analysis was conducted to provide avenues for future consideration. The regression analysis was performed in SPSS 18.0. Based on my prediction of a curvilinear relationship between LMX and work interference with family in Hypothesis 1, LMX was transformed into a squared term. To test Hypothesis 1, the control variables were entered to determine the amount of variance they explain in work-family conflict in step 1. In step 2, the linear LMX term was entered. In step 3, the squared LMX term was entered.

To test Hypothesis 2, mediation was tested using the multiple mediator method introduced by MacKinnon (2000). MacKinnon's (2000) method for analyzing multiple mediators is an extension of the statistical analysis for analyzing a single mediator. In the first step, the mediators (role overload and work engagement) were regressed on the linear version of the independent variable (LMX). In Step 2, the dependent variable (work-family conflict) was regressed on the independent variable (LMX). In Step 3, work-interference with family was regressed on role overload and work engagement with LMX being included in the equation.

Hypothesis Tests

The regression results are provided in Table 4.4. In step 1 of the analysis, none of the control variables were significantly related to work-interference with family. Career salience

was excluded as a control variable in this analysis because of the amount of variance that it explained when conducting the HLM analysis. In step 2, LMX was entered and explained an additional 6% of the variance in work-interference with family ($B = -.26, p = .05$). However, this relationship was negative, which is opposite of what I predicted. In step 3, the squared LMX variable was entered and explained an additional 4% of the variance in work-interference with family and was significant.

Table 4.4

Hierarchical Regression Analyses of Linear and Nonlinear LMX terms Predicting Work-Interference with Family

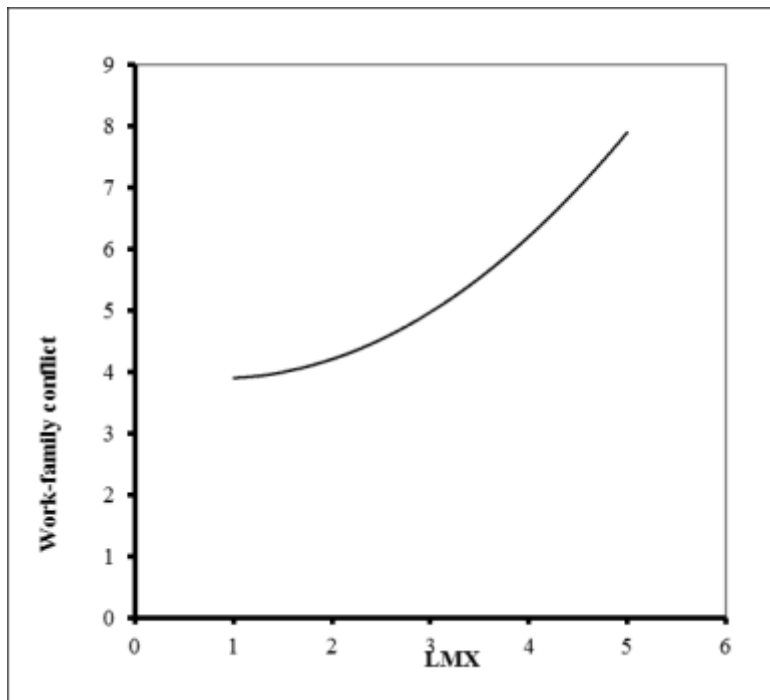
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
<i>Control Variables</i>			
Gender	.01		
Race	.01		
Organization	-.28		
<i>Dependent Variable: WIF</i>			
LMX		-.26*	
<i>Dependent Variable: WIF</i>			
LMX ²			.23*
R ²	.07*	.13*	.17*

Note. $N=72$. LMX = Leader-member exchange. WIF = Work-interference with family. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. (one-tailed).

The positive beta for work-family conflict in step 3 indicated that the curvilinear relationship would be best depicted by a U shape. Figure 4.1 shows the form of the curvilinear relationship between LMX and work-family conflict. As this figure indicates, the shape of the curve provides support for Hypothesis 1.

Figure 4.1

The effect of Leader-Member Exchange on Work-Family Conflict



For Hypotheses 2 and 3, role overload was not significantly related to LMX, while work engagement was significantly related to LMX ($B = .21, p < .05$). Therefore, the first step of the three-step mediation process was not fulfilled for Hypothesis 2, but was fulfilled for Hypothesis 3. In step 2, work-interference with family was significantly related to LMX. However, the relationship was negative, which is not as predicted. In step 3, LMX was significantly related to work-interference with family with the inclusion of the two mediators. Therefore, Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported.

Table 4.5

Regression Analysis Results for Mediation for Work-Interference with Family

	<i>F</i>	<i>Adjusted R²</i>	<i>B</i>
Step 1 – Mediator: Role Overload LMX	.26	.06	-.06
Step1 – Mediator: Work Engagement LMX	3.15	.21	.21*
Step 2 – Dependent Variable: WIF LMX	5.55	.27	-.27*
Step 3 – Dependent Variable: WIF LMX	8.55	.52	.35*
Role Overload			-.21*
Work Engagement			.17

Note. LMX = leader-member exchange (1-tailed)

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Discussion of unexpected findings

The findings from this study were unexpected. The first unexpected finding was the non existence of a curvilinear relationship between LMX and work-family conflict in Hypothesis 1. This finding is inconsistent with previous studies examining the negative consequences of LMX on employee outcomes (Harris & Kacmar, 2006; Hochwarter, 2005). A possible reason for this finding is the sample that was examined. In contrast to employees who work in an environment with extended work hours, the employees in the non-profit organization did not encounter this work practice. As this relates to the law firm, the findings presented in this study may differ if more responses were gathered from the practicing attorneys. Obtaining a majority of the responses from the administrative staff does not provide a true reflection of the work-family issues that are encountered by attorneys.

The second unexpected finding was that LMX was not significantly correlated with role overload. Role theory suggests that role demands from the supervisors can potentially manifest themselves in subordinates in the form of role stressors (Kahn et al. 1964). Therefore, the relationship between LMX and work-family conflict was examined with the role stressor, role overload, as a mediator. Previous research also suggests that LMX does influence individual and organizational outcomes through role stressors. However, this finding was not presented in this study.

The third unexpected finding was the significant negative linear relationship between LMX and work-interference with family. While this finding is inconsistent with the hypothesis presented in this study, it is consistent with previous research which suggests that high-quality

LMX subordinates experience lower levels of stress (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999) due to the removal of contextual obstacles (Hochwarter, 2005; Lagace, Castleberry, & Ridnour, 1993; Nelson, Basu, & Purdie, 1998).

Strengths and Limitations

This study has several strengths that should be noted. First, this study seeks to extend the existing research on LMX in several ways. I contributed to the current literature by examining how LMX relationship quality impacts work-family conflict. Research examining the relationship between LMX and work-interference with family has been limited (Eby et al., 2005). Developing an understanding of the relationship between these variables is important because of the negative individual and organizational consequences that result from individuals experiencing increased levels of work-family conflict. Second, this study also extended previous research by seeking to explain the process that influences high-levels of work-family conflict in high-quality LMX members.

This research also has several limitations that present opportunities for future research. First, the sample size limits the researcher's ability to adequately test the hypotheses. The limited sample size impacts the power of the results yielded in this study, limits the analysis that could be run, and the confidence that can be placed in the results presented. Second, this study measured predictor and criterion variables from the same source at the same time, presenting the potential of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). I attempted to address this issue by counterbalancing the sequence in which respondents were asked the LMX, role overload, engagement, and work-interference with family questions across the surveys (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This procedure can help neutralize common method bias by reducing the retrieval cues

prompted by the question context (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The use of cross-sectional data also limits my ability to establish causation among the variables in this study.

Third, the use of self-rated work behaviors also presents a limitation, as previous research has demonstrated that this form of measurement is subject to self-rating leniency with self-rated behavior often being overinflated and having low correlations with actual behavior (Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004; Xie, Roy, & Chen, 2006). While self-reported data is often automatically viewed as a limitation, it is arguably the most appropriate approach for this study (Conway & Lance, 2010). Role overload and engagement are personal individual concepts. A majority of research suggests that subordinate ratings of LMX provide more variance (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Since the variables of interest in this study specifically focus on individual perception and the accompanying reaction it is reasonable to assume that the use of self-report data is warranted.

Future Research

The results (non-results) and limitations of this study present a number of directions for future research. First, this study should be examined with an adequate sample size (i.e. N= 175). The post-hoc analysis provided initial support for Hypothesis 1 and the potential for finding support of the remaining hypothesis by replicating this study. A second recommendation for future research is to examine these relationships with a longitudinal design. There is a possibility that work-interference with family negatively influences LMX relationships. Therefore, future research should collect data longitudinally so that alternative models can be considered.

Third, additional variables should be added to the model to further examine this phenomenon. For instance, the increased engagement that subordinates may experience as a result of high-quality LMX relationships is comparable to the construct organizational

citizenship behaviors (OCBs), which is positively related to LMX quality (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003). Therefore, future research should examine LMX quality, work engagement, work-family conflict, and OCBs in a study to explore the interrelationships among these variables. This model should also be extended to include various outcomes that result from work-family conflict. Shirom and Mayer (1993) proposed that the rewards related to taking on additional roles often outweigh any stress that doing so might produce. Therefore, whereas high-quality LMX employees may experience work-family conflict as a result of increased levels of role overload or work engagement, the costs of this relationship may be offset by the benefits of more favorable performance appraisals, increased autonomy, and more rapid advancement. It would be useful for future research to further extend this model to see if the work-family conflict experienced by high-quality LMX members results in increased turnover levels and reduced organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Fourth, previous researchers have found that LMX relationships are best described as long-term (Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993). Therefore, researchers examining this process over the long term may provide different perspectives. Finally, future research should seek to address the methodological issues and outcomes that arise when subordinates report to multiple supervisors. While the nesting of supervisors within subordinates seems to be a unique issue in this study, this issue may become more prevalent in the future as organizations become flatter and move to more team based structures. From a methodological perspective, gathering subordinate ratings on the various outcome variables of interest for each subordinate as opposed to using repeated measures may provide additional insight into the dynamics of the relationships that have been developed with various supervisors. For instance, measuring the outcome variables for each unique dyad can help provide an understanding of the stressors that may result

from working for multiple supervisors. On the other end of the spectrum, examining these relationships can also enhance our understanding of whether working for multiple supervisors can reduce stress and neutralize or eliminate stress. For instance, if a subordinate is in a high-quality relationship with two supervisors and in a low-quality relationship with one supervisor, can the positive interactions with the high-quality supervisors mitigate the negative interactions that the subordinate experiences with the supervisors that they have a low-quality relationship with.

Practical Implications

The results of this study indicate that while high-quality LMX members do not experience work-family conflict as a result of role overload and work engagement. While role overload and work engagement do not increase work-family conflict for high-quality LMX participants, organizations should continue to consider other behaviors (i.e. job involvement) that have negative implications for employees. Feelings of increased work-family conflict among employees could produce higher levels of turnover and also make it more difficult to attract new employees. Practically speaking, employers should find ways to eliminate these adverse outcomes. Specifically, organizations should provide training that informs supervisors of the potential negative results of giving increased attention to a limited number of subordinates.

Subordinates should be aware that extremely high-quality LMX relationships with their supervisor may have potential negative consequences in addition to its benefits. The increased amount of attention given to high-quality members may result in the subordinate's high involvement with the job. This increased involvement can result in the subordinate working additional hours. As a result of the social exchange perspective of the high-quality LMX

relationship occurring, these members may feel overwhelmed by fulfilling the requests from their supervisor and may subsequently experience work-family conflict.

Conclusion

A number of studies have suggested that high-quality LMX members are presented more opportunities than low-quality LMX members. Researchers also have suggested that high-quality LMX members experience reduced amounts of stress as a result of increased levels of support that they receive from supervisors. This study sought to examine whether high-quality LMX relationships also could produce negative outcomes such as work-family conflict. While this study did not establish support for this relationship, future research should seek to obtain a further understanding of this relationship and explore the additional organizational outcomes that may result from this process.

REFERENCES

- Allen, T.D., Herst, D.E.L., Bruck, C.S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*(2), 278-308.
- Anderson, S.E. & Williams, L.J. (1996). Interpersonal, job, and individual factors related to helping processes at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 282-296.
- Bakker, A.B., Schaufeli, W.B., Leiter, M.P., & Taris, T.W. (2008). Work engagement: An emerging concept in occupational health psychology. *Work & Stress, 22*, 187-300.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed). New York: Free Press.
- Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.
- Bolino, M.C., & Turnley, W.H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: The relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*, 740-748.
- Brown, M.C. (1982). Administrative succession and organizational performance: The succession effect. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 27*, 1-16.
- Burke, R.J. (1988). Some antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 3*, 287-302.
- Burke, Brief, & George (1993). The role of negative affectivity in understanding relations between self-reports of stressors and strains: A comment on the applied psychology literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 402-412.
- Burke, R.J., & Greenglass, E.R. (2001). Hospital restructuring, work-family conflict and psychological burnout among nursing staff. *Psychology & Health, 16*, 583-595.
- Carlson, D.S., Kacmar, K.M. & Williams, L.J. (2000). Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 56*, 249-276.
- Carlson, D.S. & Perrewé, P.L. (1999). The role of social support in the stressor-strain relationship: An examination of work-family conflict. *Journal of Management, 25*, 513-540.
- Chen, Z., Lam, W., & Zhong, J.A. (2007). Leader-member exchange and member performance: A new look at individual-level negative feedback-seeking behavior and team-level empowerment climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 202-212.

- Conway, J.M. & Lance, C.E. (2010). What reviewers should expect from authors regarding common bias in organizational research. *Business Psychology, 25*, 325-334.
- Danereau, F., Cashman, J., & Graen, G.B. (1973). Instrumentality theory and equity theory as complementary approaches in predicting the relationship of leadership and turnover among managers. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 10*, 184-200.
- Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: a longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 13*, 46-78.
- Deluga, R.J. (1998). Leader-member exchange quality and effectiveness ratings. *Group and Organization Management, 23*, 189-216.
- Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader-member exchange model of leadership: a critique and further development. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(3), 618-634.
- Duarte, N.T., Goodson, J.R., & Klich, N.R. (1993). How do I like thee? Let me appraise the ways. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*, 239-249.
- Dunegan, K.J., Duchon, D., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1992). Examining the link between leader-member exchange and subordinate performance: The role of task analyzability and variety as moderators. *Journal of Management, 18*, 59-76.
- Eby, L.T., Casper, W.J., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., & Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980-2002). *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66*, 124-197.
- Edwards, J.R. & Rothbard, N.P. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of Management Review, 25* (1), 178-199.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1976). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Ford, M.T., Heinen, B.A. & Langkamer, K.L. (2007). Work and family satisfaction and conflict: A meta-analysis of cross-domain relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 57-80.
- Fornell, C. & Larcker, D. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 39-50.
- Fox, M.L. & Dwyer, D.J. (1999). An investigation of the effects of time and involvement in the relationship between stressors and work-family conflict. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 4*, 164-174.
- Frone, M.R. (2003). Work-family balance. In J.C. Quick & L.E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of*

- occupational health psychology* (pp. 143-162). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Frone, M.R. (1992). Antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*, 65-78.
- Frone, M.R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M.L. (1997). Relation of work-family conflict to health outcomes: A four-year longitudinal study of employed parents. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 70*, 325-335.
- Frone, M.R., Russell, M., & Barnes, G.M. (1996). Work-family conflict, gender, and health related outcomes: A study of employed parents in two community samples. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 1*, 57-69.
- Ganster, D.C., & Schaubroeck, J. (1991). Work stress and employee health. *Journal of Management, 17*, 235-271.
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(6), 827-844.
- Good, L.K., Sisler, G.F., & Gentry, J.W. (1988). Antecedents of turnover intentions among retail management personnel. *Journal of Retailing, 64*, 295-314.
- Gouldner, A.W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review, 25*, 161-178.
- Graen, G. (1976). Role making process within complex organizations. In M. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1201-1245). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Graen, G., & Cashman, J. E. (1975). A role making model of leadership in formal organizations: a developmental approach. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership Frontiers* (pp. 143-165). Kent: Kent State University.
- Graen, G., & Ginsburgh, S. (1977). Job resignation as a function of role orientation and leader acceptance: A longitudinal investigation of organizational assimilation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 19*, 1-17.
- Graen, G. & Scandura, T.A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. In L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior, 9*:175-208. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Graen, G., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly, 6*, 219-247.

- Green, S.G., Anderson, S.E., & Shivers, S.L. (1996). Demographic and organizational influences on leader-member exchange and related work attitudes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 66, 203-214.
- Greenglass, E.R., Pantony, K.L., & Burke, R.L. (1988). A gender-role perspective on role conflict, work stress, and social support. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 3, 317-328.
- Greenhaus, J.H., Bedeian, A.G., & Mossholder, K.W. (1987). Work experiences, job performance, and feelings of personal and family-well being. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31, 200-215.
- Greenhaus, J. H. & Beutell, N. J., (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 76-88.
- Greenhaus, J. H. & Parasuraman, S. (1987). A work-nonwork interactive perspective of stress and its consequences. In J. M. Ivancevich & D. C. Ganster (Eds) *Job stress: From theory to suggestion* (pp. 37-60). New York: Haworth.
- Greenhaus, J. H. & Parasuraman, S. (2002). Toward reducing some critical gaps in work-family research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12, 299-312.
- Greenhaus, J.H. & Powell, G.N. (2003). When work and family collide: deciding between competing work demands. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*,
- Greguras, G.J. & Ford, J.M. (2006). An examination of the multidimensionality of supervisor and subordinate perceptions of leader-member exchange. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 79, 433-465.
- Grzywacz, J.G. & Marks, N. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 111-126.
- Hakanen, J.J., Bakker, A.B., & Schaufeli, W.B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology*, 43, 495-513.
- Hardy, M.E., & Conway, M.E. (1978). *Role theory perspectives for health professionals*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Harris, K.J. & Harris, R.B. & Brouer, R.L. (2009). LMX and subordinate political skill: Direct and interactive effects on turnover intentions and job satisfaction.
- Harris, K.J. & Kacmar, K.M., & Witt, L.A. (2005). An examination of the curvilinear

- relationship between leader-member exchange and intent to turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 363-378.
- Harris, K.J. & Kacmar, K.M. (2006). Too much of a good thing: The curvilinear effect of leader-member exchange on stress. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 146(1), 65-84.
- Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.H. (1974). So you want to know your leadership style? *Training and Development Journal*, 28, 1-15.
- Higgins, C.A. & Duxbury, L.E. (1992). Work-family conflict: A comparison of dual-career and traditional-career men. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13, 389-411.
- Hochwarter, W. (2005). LMX and job tension: Linear and non-linear effects and affectivity. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 19, 505-520.
- Hofmann, D.A., Morgeson, F.P., & Gerras, S.J. (2003). Climate as a moderator of the relationship between leader-member exchange and context specific citizenship: Safety climate as an exemplar. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 170-178.
- House, R.J. (1971). A path-goal of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16, 321-328.
- House, R.J. & Aditya, R. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23, 409-474.
- House, R.J., & Rizzo, J.R. (1972). Role conflict and ambiguity as critical variables in a model of organizational behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 7, 467-505.
- Hu, L. & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 1-55.
- Ilies, R., Nahrgang, J.D., & Morgeson, F.P. (2007). Leader-member exchange and citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 269-277.
- Jackson, S.E., & Schuler, R.S. (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique on research on role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 33, 1-21.
- Joreskog, K.G., & Sorbon, D. (1993). *LISREL 8: User's reference*. Chicago: Scientific Software International.
- Judge, T.A., Bono, J.E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M.W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 765-780.
- Judge, T.A. & Bretz, R.B. (1994). Political influence behavior and career success. *Journal of Management*, 20, 43-65.

- Judge, T., Piccolo, R.F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 36-51.
- Kacmar, K.M., Witt, L.A., Zivnuska, S., & Gully, S.M. (2003). The interactive effect of leader-member exchange and communication frequency on performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 764-772.
- Kahn, W.A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 692-724.
- Kahn, R.L., & French, J.R.P. (1970). Status and conflict: Two themes in the study of stress. In J. McGrath (Ed.), *Social and psychological factors in stress*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Kahn, R.L., & Katz, D. (1966). *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Kahn, R.L., Wolfe, D.M., Quinn, R.P., Snoek, J.D., & Rosenthal, R.A. (1964). *Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity*. New York: Wiley.
- Kopelman, R.E., Greenhaus, J.H., & Connolly, T.F. (1983). A model of work, family, and interrole conflict: A construct validation study. *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, 32, 198-215.
- Lagace, R.R., Castleberry, S.B., & Ridnour, R.E. (1993). An exploratory sales force study of the relationship between leader-member exchange and motivation, role stress, and manager evaluation. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 9, 110-119.
- Liden, R.C. & Graen, G.B. (1980). Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, 23, 451-465.
- Liden, R.C. & Maslyn, J.M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader-member exchange: An empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management*, 24, 43-72.
- Liden, R.C. Wayne, S.J. & Sparrowe, R.T. (2000). An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relations between the job, interpersonal relationships, and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 407-416.
- Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., & Stilwell, D. (1993). A longitudinal study on the early development of leader member exchanges. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 662-674.
- Liden, R.C., Sparrowe, R.T. & Wayne, S.J. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. In G.R. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resource management* (Vol.15, pp.47-120). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- MacKinnon, D.P., Krull, J.L., & Lockwood, C.M. (2000). Equivalence of the mediation, confounding, and suppression effect. *Prevention Science, 1*, 173-181.
- Major, D.A., Kozlowski, S.W., Chao, G.T., & Gardner, P.D. (1995). A longitudinal investigation of newcomer expectations, early socialization outcomes, and the moderating effects of role development factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*, 418-431.
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M.P. (1997). *The truth about burnout*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Milliken, F.J., Dutton, J.E., & Beyer, J.M. (1989). Understanding organizational adaption to change: The case of work-family issues. *Human Resource Planning, 13*(2), 91-107.
- Montgomery, A.J., Peeters, M.C., Schaufeli, W.B., & den Ouden, M. (2003). Work-home interference among newspaper managers: Its relationship with burnout and engagement. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping, 16*, 195-211.
- Morgeson, F.P. (2005). The external leadership of self-managing teams: Intervening in the context of novel and disruptive events. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 496-508.
- Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben, & Rautsch, (2005).
- Nelson, D., Basu, R., & Purdie, R. (1998). An examination of exchange quality and work stressors in leader-follower dyads. *International Journal of Stress Management, 5*, 103-113.
- Netemeyer, R.G., Boles, J., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 400-410.
- Northouse, P.G. (1997). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Parasurman, S. & Simmers, C.A., (2001). Type of employment, work-family conflict and well-being: A comparative study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*, 551-568.
- Parasuraman, S., Greenhaus, J.H., Rabinowitz, S., Bedeian, A.G., & Mossholder, K.W. (1989). Work and family variables as mediators of the relationship between wives' employment and husbands' well-being. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*, 185-201.
- Pfeffer, J. (1977). The ambiguity of leadership. *Academy of Management Review, 2*, 104-112.
- Raudensbush, S., Bryk, A., Cheong, R., & Congdon, R. (2004). *HLM 6: Heirarchical linear and nonlinear modeling*. Lincolnwood, IL: Scientific Software International.
- Rizzo, J.R., House, R.J., & Lirtzman, S.E. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 15*, 150-163.

- Roth, P.L. (1994). Missing data: A conceptual view for applied psychologists. *Personnel Psychology*, 47, 537-558.
- Rupp, D.E., & Cropanzano, R. (2002). The mediating effects of social exchange relationships in predicting workplace outcomes from multifoci organizational justice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 89, 925-946.
- Salanova, M., Agut, S., & Peiro, M. (2005). Linking organizational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty: The mediation of service climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 1217-1227.
- Scandura, T.A. & Graen, G.B. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader-member exchange status on the effects of leadership intervention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 428-436.
- Scandura, T.A., & Schriesheim, C.A. (1994). Leader-member exchange and supervisor career mentoring as complementary constructs in leadership research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 1588-1602.
- Schaufeli, W., Salanova, M., Gonzalez-Roma, V. & Bakker, A.B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two-sample confirmatory analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3, 71-92.
- Schaubroeck, J., Cotton, J., & Jennings, K. (1989). Antecedents and consequences of role stress: A covariance structure analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 10, 35-58.
- Schriesheim, C.A., Castro, S.L., & Cogliser, C.C. (1999). Leader-member exchange (LMX) research: A comprehensive review of theory, measurement, and data-analytic practices. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 63-113.
- Schriesheim, C.A., Neider, L.L., Scandura, T.A., & Tepper, B.J. (1992). Development and preliminary validation of a new scale (LMX-6) to measure leader-member exchange in organizations. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 52, 983-992.
- Settoon, R.P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R.C. (1996). Social exchange in organizations: Perceived organizational support, leader member exchange, and employee reciprocity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 219-227.
- Shamir, B. (1983). Some antecedents of work-nonwork conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 23, 98-111.
- Shirom, A. & Mayer, A. (1993). Stress and strain among union lay officials and rank-and-file members. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14, 401-413.

- Sobel, M.E. (1982). Asymptotic intervals for indirect effects in structural equation model. In S. Leinhardt (Ed.), *Sociological methodology*: 290-312. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sonnetag, S. (2003). Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behavior: A new look at the interface between nonwork and work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 518-528.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25, 35-71.
- Stogdill, R.M., & Coons, A.E. (1951). *Leader behavior: Its description and measurement*. Research Monograph no. 88. Columbus: Ohio State University.
- Tenbrunsel, A. E., Brett, J.M., Maoz, E., Stroh, L.K. (1995). Dynamic and static work-family relationships. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 63, 233-246.
- Tepper, B.J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43, 178-190.
- Thomas, A.B. (1988). Does leadership make a difference to organizational performance? *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33, 388-400.
- Uhl-Bien, M., & Maslyn, J. (2003). Reciprocity in manager-subordinate relationships: Components, configurations, and outcomes. *Journal of Management*, 29, 511-532.
- Vecchio, R.P. (1985). Predicting employee turnover from leader-member exchange: A failure to replicate. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28, 478-485.
- Vecchio, R.P. & Gobdel, B.C. (1984). The vertical dyad linkage model of leadership: Problems and prospects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34, 5-20.
- Wakabayashi, M., Graen, G.B., Graen, M., & Grean, M. (1988). Japanese management progress: Mobility into middle management. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 217-227.
- Wayne, S.J., Shore, L.M., & Liden, R.C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40, 82-111.
- Wayne, S.J., Liden, R.C., Kraimer, M.L., & Graf, I.K. (1999). The role of human capital motivation and supervisor sponsorship in predicting career success. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 577-595.
- Wayne, S.J., Shore, L.M., Bommer, W., & Tetrick, L.E. (2002). The role of fair treatment and rewards in perceptions of organizational support and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 590-598.

Zedeck, S. (1992). *Work, families, and organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Appendix A
Multidimensional (SLMX-MDM) Scale of Leader-Member Exchange

(Liden & Maslyn, 1998)

To be completed by subordinates

Instructions: Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on the scale provided below.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5

Affect

1. I like my supervisor very much as a person.
2. My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.
3. My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.

Loyalty

1. My supervisor defends my decisions, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.
2. My supervisor would come to my defense if I were “attacked” by others.
3. My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.

Contribution

1. I provide support and resources for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.
2. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to help my supervisor meet his or her work goals.
3. I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.

Professional Respect

1. I am impressed with my supervisor’s knowledge of his/her job.
2. I respect my supervisor’s knowledge of and competence on the job.
3. I admire my supervisor’s professional skills.

Appendix B

Role Overload

Turnley & Bolino (2005)

To be completed by subordinates

Instructions: Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on the scale provided below.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree
1-----2-----3-----4-----5

1. The amount of work I am expected to do is too great.
2. I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.
3. It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.

Appendix C

Work Engagement

Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker (2002)

To be completed by subordinates

Instructions: Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on the scale provided below.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree
1-----2-----3-----4-----5

Vigor

1. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
2. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.
3. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well.
4. I can continue working for very long periods at a time.
5. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.
6. At my job I feel strong and vigorous.

Dedication

1. To me, my job is challenging.
2. My job inspires me.
3. I am enthusiastic about my job.
4. I am proud of the work that I do.
5. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.

Absorption

1. When I am working, I forget everything else around me.
2. Time flies when I am working.
3. I get carried away when I am working.
4. It is difficult to detach myself from my job.
5. I am immersed in my work.
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely.

Appendix D
Work-family conflict
Carlson, Kacmar & Williams (2000)

To be completed by subordinates

Instructions: Please indicate your agreement with the following statements on the scale provided below. There are no right or wrong answers, simply provide your perspective on your work and family life.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----

Time-based

1. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.
3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

Strain-based

4. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.
5. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
6. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Behavior-based

7. The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
8. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.
9. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.

Appendix E

September 29, 2010

Office for Research
Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects

Ericka Lawrence
Department of Management and Marketing
College of Commerce & Business Administration
The University of Alabama

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
R E S E A R C H

Re: IRB # 10-OR-290 "The Personal Cost of Being in the In-Group: The Relationship between Leader-Member Exchange Quality and Work-Family Conflict"

Dear Ms. Lawrence:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of documentation of informed consent for the online survey participants. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your application will expire on September 27, 2011. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of Continuing Review and Closure Form. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of FORM: Continuing Review and Closure.

Please use reproductions of the IRB approved informed consent form to obtain consent from your participants.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



152 Rose Administration Building
Box 870117
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0117
(205) 348-8661
FAX (205) 348-8882
TOLL FREE (877) 820-3056

Carpantato T. Myles, MSM, CIM
Director & Research Compliance Officer
Office for Research Compliance
The University of Alabama

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA
Individual's Consent to be In a Research Study

Research Consent Agreement

What is this study about?

This study is designed to explore the impact of the leadership style of an organization's management on employee behaviors, attitudes, and work-family issues. The goal is to determine which leadership style or characteristics lead to positive and negative individual, organization, and non-work outcomes. The results of this study will be useful to organizations by providing information on management styles that produce negative consequences for employees. It will also suggest interventions for companies to reduce these negative individual and organizational outcomes.

Why have I been asked to take part in this study?

We are inviting you to be in this study because your organization has chosen to participate in this survey in order to obtain a better understanding of employee attitudes and behaviors.

What will I be asked to do in this study?

If you agree to participate in this study, we would like you to complete the attached survey. It takes about 30 minutes to complete the survey. Please know that you are free to leave blank any survey questions that you prefer not to answer.

What if I do not wish to participate in this study?

If you do not wish to participate in this study, you can let us know by simply disregard the survey.

How will my confidentiality be protected?

We will keep the information you provide confidential, however federal regulatory agencies and the University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves research studies) may inspect and copy records pertaining to this research. All survey data will be entered and stored using a unique random code number. All data will be kept in locked files and on password protected computers in locked offices. Upon completion of all data entry, we will destroy our file that links your name to your randomly assigned code number. *No one will be able to recognize you in any reports or publications that result from this study (all data will be reported in aggregate in publications).*

What are the risks and benefits from being in this study?

There are no physical risks to you for participating in this study. However, you may feel uncomfortable responding to some of the questions asked. If this happens, you may opt to leave the question blank.

What will this study cost me?

The only cost to you for participating in this study is the time spent completing the survey.

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 9-28-16
EXPIRATION DATE: 9-27-17

Will I be compensated for being in this study?

In appreciation of your time, you will receive a \$10 gift card when the survey is completed.

What are my rights as a participant?

Taking part in this research study is completely voluntary. If you decide not to be in this study, or if you stop participating at any time, you won't be penalized or lose any benefits for which you otherwise qualify.

Who do I call if I have questions or problems?

If you have questions or comments regarding this study, you may contact Ericka at elawrenc@cba.ua.edu or (205) 616-3623 or Dr. Kacmar at mkacmar@ua.edu or (205) 348-8931. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact Ms. Tanta Myles, Research Compliance Officer at (205) 348-5481. You may also ask questions, make a suggestion, or file complaints and concerns through the IRB Outreach Website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html

Thank you very much for your consideration. Your signature on this signed consent form and proceeding to the attached questionnaire/survey constitutes your consent to participate and certifies that you are 19 years of age or older.

Signature _____ Date _____

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 9-28-10
EXPIRATION DATE: 9-27-11