MAKE MY BOSS HAPPY:

PERCEIVED WORK PERFORMANCE, SUPERVISOR-ATTRIBUTED

MOTIVES, FEEDBACK-SEEKING BEHAVIOR, LEADER-MEMBER

EXCHANGE, AND OBJECTIVE WORK PERFORMANCE

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

The major objectives of the research are to investigate (1) when and how feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates is associated with the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX); (2) how supervisors' interpretations of what motivates their subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior affect the consequences of such behavior for both the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) and subordinates' work performance; (3) whether and how supervisors' perceived work performance of subordinates affect their attributions of motives for subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior.

The research includes three studies. In Study 1, using a sample of 209 supervisor-subordinate dyads from a telecommunication service company in mainland China, I found that subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior was positively related to the quality of LMX when supervisors interpreted the feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates as being driven more by task-enhancement motives or less by impression management motives. In Study 2, using a sample of 240 supervisor-subordinate dyads from two manufacturing firms in mainland China, I further confirmed the findings of Study 1, and additionally found that negative feedback-seeking behavior was positively related to LMX, which, in turn, was conducive to increase work performance. However, this relationship only occurred when supervisors attributed subordinates' negative feedback-seeking behavior as being driven more by task-enhancement motives or less by impression management

motives. Study 3 which had a longitudinal research design, used 300 supervisor-subordinate dyads from a manufacturing firm in China. Through this study, I further confirmed the findings of Study 1, and additionally found that supervisors attributed good performers' feedback-seeking behavior as being driven more by task-enhancement motives or less by impression management motives.

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Wing

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Three quarters of U.S. organizations with over 10,000 employees spend US$

750,000 or more on leadership development each year. This amount represents that

nearly US$ 8,000 is used to train each leader (Murphy & Riggio, 2003). In China,

around US$ 2,500 is used to train each leader per year, and this amount is very

likely to be increased every year (http://info.oil.hc360.com/HTML/001/015/001/002/

194806.htm). The faith of organizations in effective leadership is reflected in the

amount of effort, energy, and above all, money that organizations spend on training

leaders. Because of its importance, most researchers, theorists, and practitioners

have focused only on the leaders but have ignored the equally important component,

the subordinates. Most of the traditional theories treat subordinates as a homogenous

entity that is a passive recipient of all leadership efforts (Bhal & Ansari, 2000). The

study of leadership has thus largely overlooked the "chemical reactions" or

interactions between a leader and an individual subordinate. Recently, this critical

issue has started to call for attention. To achieve success, leaders must have a sense

of direction, the passion to move forward, and the ability to motivate subordinates.

"A great leader is one who has vision, perseverance, and the capacity to inspire

others," says Cynthia Trudell, president of Brunswick Corporation's Sea Ray Group

and former CEO of Saturn Corporation. "[Leadership] respects individuality," says

Rich Teerlink, the recently retired CEO of Harley-Davidson. Because subordinates

are also an important entity in organizations (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997), research on leadership has thus recently been shifted from the leader's perspective to the interaction between a leader and a subordinate.

Because of the dynamic nature of globalization, knowledge-based human resource, rapid technological advancement, and permeability of organizational boundaries, the success of organizations today depends on employees' initiative to continuously improve their work performance (Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Supervisors may provide the resources that will enable employees to learn how to take responsibility for work improvement. In order to make good use of the resources, employees may want to gauge their work performance by taking the initiative to seek feedback from their supervisors (Ashford, 1986; Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003; Moss, Valenzi, & Taggart, 2003). Employees ask for feedback and use the information for self-assessment, development, career planning, monitoring their own progress, and improving their work performance. It is generally believed that the feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates may facilitate the establishment of good working relationships with supervisors (London, 2003), because it helps clarify expectations (Morrison, 1993; Renn & Fedor, 2001; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) and create a good impression (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Edwards, 1995).

However, previous studies have suggested that the proactive behavior of subordinates may not necessarily help build a better working relationship, and may

even have a negative impact on the relationship (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson,

Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002). For example, Allen and Rush (1998) and Johnson

et al. (2002) reported that if supervisors attribute subordinates' proactive helping

behavior to altruistic motives, they tend to give better rewards to those subordinates.

In contrast, if supervisors attribute such proactive helping behavior to impression

management motives, they were likely to give their employees negative performance

evaluations. These findings suggest that how supervisors respond to subordinates'

proactive behavior depends on how they interpret the motivation for the behavior.

This issue has been overlooked in the literature of subordinates' feedback-seeking

behavior.

Researchers have suggested that two separate kinds of motives may be associated

with feedback-seeking behavior. These are *task-related motives* and *impression

management motives*. Ashford and Cummings (1983) argued that task-related

motives involve a rational desire to obtain useful information in order to accomplish

tasks effectively and enhance performance. This kind of motive includes two

important elements: information gathering about the work role and negotiation on

the relationship to the role (Ashford et al., 2003; Crant, 2000). Impression

management motives refer to the desire to control how one appears to others. Where

supervisors attribute feedback-seeking behavior to task-related motives, such

behavior is likely to positively influence performance judgments, whereas behaviors

attributed to impression management motives may be devalued or discounted

(Eastman, 1994; Schlenker, 1980). Therefore, in this research, I examine these two

kinds of motives that supervisors attribute to feedback-seeking behavior. I seek to understand the extent to which these attributions affect the relationship between the feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates and the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX).

Further, studies have shown that a higher-quality LMX is related to better performance, because, in a high-quality LMX, employees tend to receive better social support, more resources, and more guidance for career development (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997b). In addition, feedback-seeking behavior is generally believed to be positively related to work performance (Renn & Fedor, 2001). Hence, I also explore whether LMX plays an intermediate role in the association between feedback-seeking behavior and subordinates' work performance.

Additionally, I propose that supervisors' perceived overall work performance of subordinates may influence their attributions on the motives of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior. Three rationales lead to this expectation. First, due to impression effects, supervisors tend to perceive subordinates as good performers when the subordinates' past performance was good, and perceive them as poor performers when their past performance was poor (Schneider, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Second, drawing from implicit performance theory (c.f., Dansereau, Yammarino, & Markham, 1995), supervisors are likely to apply relatively automatic categorization processes as bases for differentiating "good subordinates" from "poor

subordinates" with regard to their work performance. Once subordinates have been

categorized, supervisors are likely to rely on their past general perceptions rather

than on specific behaviors in judging subsequent behavior and motives for behavior

(Engle & Lord, 1997). Third, supervisors are likely to develop a knowledge structure

of each subordinate's overall performance based on the subordinate's past

performance evaluation. Supervisors will continually use this performance schema-

like knowledge as a cognitive shortcut to infer subordinates' subsequent behaviors

and motives for behavior (Lord, 1985; Schneider, 1991).

Research Objectives and Contributions

To sum up, the purpose of this research project is four-fold: (1) to explore the

relationship between subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior and LMX; (2) to

examine how the supervisors' interpretations of their subordinates' motives for the

feedback-seeking behavior influence this relationship; (3) to investigate the

mediating role of LMX on the relationship between feedback-seeking behavior and

work performance; and (4) to explore how perceived performance influences

supervisors' attributions of the motives of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior.

The present research project makes four main contributions. First, it extends the

feedback-seeking behavior literature by investigating how such behavior is related to

the quality of LMX and work performance. These issues have not been considered

before in the literature, and it offers a new perspective on the relationship between

feedback-seeking behavior and the supervisor-subordinate relationship. This is important in providing a more developed understanding of the social exchange process. Second, while past research suggests that impression management tactics are positively related to LMX (Dockery & Steiner, 1990), such studies have not taken into account supervisors' attributions of the motivation for such behavior. This is important because there is evidence that subordinates who are seen as using impression management may be perceived as untruthful, unreliable, calculating, and manipulative (Crant, 2000). This suggests that where supervisors interpret feedback-seeking behavior as impression management, such behaviors will not be associated with a high-quality LMX. Third, although it has been suggested that either supervisor or subordinate may contribute towards building a high-quality LMX, previous studies tended to focus mainly on supervisors' initiation of LMX, for example, by establishing appropriate relationships with each subordinate (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In this study, I consider the extent to which subordinates may also initiate a favorable LMX by seeking feedback from supervisors. This issue has practical as well as theoretical significance in describing more fully the range of possible antecedents in LMX. Fourth, this research opens a new avenue for LMX research by adopting a cognitive perspective, which allows us to understand how perceived work performance affects the interpretations of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior to task-enhancement or impression management motives. It also enhances our knowledge about the implicit performance theory by indicating that supervisors tend to interpret good performers' feedback-seeking behavior as being driven by task-enhancement motives while interpreting the poor performers'

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feedback-seeking behavior as being driven by impression-management motives. The results are expected to help both supervisors and subordinates find ways to facilitate their dyadic relationships by sharing a common understanding, role expectations, and mutual trust.

Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into six chapters. Chapter 1 presents the introduction of the thesis. Chapter 2 presents the literature review. Chapter 3 discusses the theory and hypotheses for the study. Chapter 4 describes the research methodology and designs of Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3. Chapter 5 discusses the results of the three studies. The last chapter, Chapter 6, presents the conclusion and discussion.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In Chapter 1, the theoretical and practical inadequacies of the effects of

subordinates' proactive behavior, supervisors' interpretations of the motives for the

behavior as well as perceived performance of subordinates upon social exchange

processes were considered. There are three main research questions: (1) if a

subordinate proactively seeks feedback from one's boss, will it help to build a better

working relationship with the boss? (2) If it does not, why? In accordance to this, I

propose that the potential explanation for this should consider how the boss

interprets the motives for seeking feedback. (3) How does one's boss's perception of

a subordinate's work performance affect the interpretation of motives for feedback-

seeking behavior?

Although feedback-seeking behavior is generally believed to have a positive effect

on work performance (Renn & Fedor, 2001), we do not know the mechanism

underlying this relationship. Because LMX is considered as a significant contextual

factor that explains an individual's interpersonal relationships within his or her work

unit (Liden et al., 1997), I thus argue that LMX may mediate the relationship

between feedback-seeking behavior and work performance. More specifically, I

argue that subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior helps increase work

performance through the process of establishing a high-quality relationship with the

supervisor, it is because higher levels of supports and resources can be received from the supervisor in a high-quality LMX context (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In the next section, I firstly describe the underpinnings of LMX in line with social exchange theory. In details, I present the construct of LMX, its antecedents, and consequences. Then, I briefly review how the construct of LMX theory was born in the development of leadership theory. Next, I present the literature of subordinates' proactive behavior in organizations, which may be the potential and critical antecedent of LMX. Because subordinates' proactive behavior has not emerged as an integrated research stream in the organizational behavior literature (Crant, 2000), I also describe the various constructs which seem to be related on surface but indeed have different underpinnings of theoretical rationales to the construct of subordinates' proactive behavior. The constructs are upward influence tactics, ingratiatory behaviors, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Next, I review the literatures on feedback-seeking behavior, one kind of subordinates' proactive behaviors that has increasingly received attention in recent research. To establish a content domain for the present model that investigates how supervisors interpret the motives of feedback-seeking behavior, I then discuss the research on supervisors' attributions of the motives for subordinates' behavior. Next, I present the research on supervisors' perceived performance of subordinates. Lastly, the conclusions of literature review and research gaps are presented.

Leader-Member Exchange

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory proposes a relationship-based approach to leadership. This approach is based on the "vertical dyad linkage" model (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), which focuses on a dyad, a relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate. According to research, in the vertical dyad linkage, supervisors do not use an average leadership style within a working group but rather develop differentiated relationships with each of their directed subordinates (Dansereau et al., 1975). The central concept of this early vertical dyad linkage work was that these differentiated relationships result from supervisors' resource constraints. Due to limited resources and time, supervisors could profitably develop and maintain only a few high-quality exchange relationships, the remainders would be lower-quality exchanges which retain formal authority relationships. When the validity of differentiated relationship has already been documented in a series of investigations (Cashman, Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1976; Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Cashman, Ginsburgh, & Schiemann, 1977; Vecchio, 1982), research has then been shifted to investigate the nature of these differentiated relationships. The construct was then renamed as leader-member exchange (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b).

LMX theory is grounded in role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). LMX prescribes how these working relationships develop more and less effectively through the processes of "role-making" (Graen, 1976; Graen & Scandura,

1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These role-making processes, if successful, generate relationships built on trust, respect, and obligation, which may be referred to as a high quality LMX. Role-making tends to occur especially when subordinates are being assimilated into new positions. When subordinates first meet their supervisors, both parties engage in role-making and they actively negotiate how their roles in the dyad relationship and in the organization will be defined. The process itself is seldom explicitly discussed by the supervisor and the subordinate. Rather, through working together on unstructured tasks, they test various dyadic interdependencies. According to the outcomes of role-making, individuals may decide to keep low-quality LMX that stays within formal organizational roles or develop high-quality LMX that is built on trust, respect, and extra obligation (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen, 1976; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994).

In their influential paper on LMX research, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) described the three-stage processes of developing a high-quality LMX wherein the supervisor views the subordinate as a "stranger", then as an "acquaintance", and finally as a "partner". In the first of the three stages, the LMX relationship is characterized as "cash and carry", which means the relationship is purely built on contractual expectations. Formal job descriptions largely dictate the terms and conditions of supervisor-subordinate exchanges. In the second stage, a more "personalized" relationship develops, which is characterized by some degree of social exchanges. Yet, the principles of exchange equity and immediacy of reciprocation largely prevail. As the relationship reaches the third stage ("partnership"), the social

exchange becomes dominant and not purely behavioral but also socio-emotional with elements of mutual trust, respect, loyalty, and obligation.

Social exchange theory provides the theoretical basis for LMX (Liden et al., 1997). Since the interaction is based on exchanges, a perception of "equity" or "fairness" by both the parties is a must for the changes to continue or grow. In addition, each party must have resources that are valued by the other. Within a good dyad, the subordinate must have the relevant skills, know-how, and motivation, and the leader must have resources and support to offer the subordinate (Bhal & Ansari, 2000).

In sum, the central premise of LMX is that within work units, supervisors differentiate among subordinates in establishing different qualities of relationships (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973; Johnson & Graen, 1973). A higher quality LMX is a close working relationship characterized by interpersonal attraction (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975), trust and support (Liden & Graen, 1980), and mutual influence (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Yukl, 1989). In a higher quality LMX, both supervisors and subordinates gain valued rewards. Subordinates who share a high quality exchange with their supervisors receive special benefits and opportunities including favorable performance appraisals, promotions, pay raises, supports in career development, and feelings of empowerment (Graen, Wakabayashi, Graen, & Graen, 1990; Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003; Keller & Dansereau, 1995; Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984; Yukl, 1989). In return, supervisors enjoy working with committed, competent,

satisfied, and hard-working subordinates (Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993; Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Stepina, Perrewe, Hassell, Harris, & Mayfield, 1991; Vecchio, Griffeth, & Hom, 1986). In contrast, lower quality LMX exhibits less mutual support and trust. These relationships are characterized by unidirectional downward influence and the exercise of formal organizational authority. Supervisors who have lower quality LMX with their subordinates obtain subordinates' routine performance, and such subordinates receive only standard organizational benefits (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Yukl, 1989).

Antecedents of LMX

What factors determine the quality of exchange between a leader and a member? Much research has shown that these factors might come from the leader and/or the member. However, on the whole, there have been only a few attempts to identify the antecedents of LMX (e.g., Bhal & Ansari, 2000; Liden et al., 1997).

Several studies have investigated how a leader's perception of a member's performance or competence affects the quality of LMX. Providing support for member performance or competence as an antecedent of LMX, Lowin and Craig (1968) documented that leaders showed more support towards competent subordinates. Kim and Organ (1982), in a more direct test with the experimental

research design of MBA students, discovered that subordinate competence is a very strong determinant of the quality of exchange. In a replication of the same study for social service organizations, the said finding was validated (Snyder & Bruning, 1985). However, this correlation may be due to common method variance as both variables were measured from the same source. Furthermore, Dockery and Steiner (1990) found a positive relationship between leader perceptions of members' performance and leaders' reports of LMX. Additional support for the member performance and quality of LMX was found in a study conducted by Deluga and Perry (1994). The authors found that members' performance rated by leaders was positively related to members' and leaders' reports of LMX. However, because leader-member dyads have already been established for long time, the direction of causality could not be determined. Overcoming this limitation, Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell (1993) examined leaders' ratings of members' performance as a predictor of LMX with newly established dyads. The authors found that members' performance at two weeks predicted the leaders' perceptions of LMX at two weeks but was not related to LMX at later time periods. Similarly, Bauer and Green (1996) found that leaders' ratings of members' performance at 34 weeks was positively related to LMX assessed at 34 weeks. These findings can well be explained in terms of the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Since leaders are interested in members' relevant skills (Day & Crain, 1992), competence in the exchange framework is the input from the subordinate which is a valued resource for the leader. However, the majority of studies which have examined members' performance or competence as an antecedent of LMX have assessed members' performance based on leaders'

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ratings. Therefore, it is problematic as it is difficult to determine the direction of causality.

In addition to members' performance or competence, personality traits have been investigated as potential antecedents of LMX. These determinants include member affectivity, locus of control, growth need strength, and introversion/extraversion. Day and Crain (1992) found that members' negative affectivity, and not their positive affectivity, moderate their competence and quality of LMX. The authors found that when a member is low on negative affectivity, the relationship between competence and LMX is positive whereas when a member is high on negative affectivity, competence and LMX are slightly negatively related. Examining other traits, Phillips and Bedeian (1994) found that members' extroversion is positively related to members' reports of LMX, however, no support was found for members' growth need strength or locus of control as antecedents of LMX. In contrast, other researchers reported a positive relationship of members' locus of control and growth need strength on LMX (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Uhl-Bien, Tierney, Graen, & Wakabayashi, 1990).

With regard to leaders' characteristics as antecedents of LMX, Day and Crain (1992) examined leaders' competence and affectivity on members' ratings of LMX. Neither leaders' competence nor negative affectivity was significantly related to LMX. However, leaders' positive affectivity was positively related to LMX. In addition, Bauer and Green (1996) suggested that the amount of delegation is positively

associated with the quality of LMX. Conceptualizations of LMX development suggest that the leader rather than the member has more control over the quality of LMX. Specifically, leaders' perceptions and evaluations of members are critical in determining how leaders behave toward the individual members. As a result, more studies have examined how members' characteristics affect leaders' perceptions of the members rather than how leaders' characteristics may influence members' perceptions of the leaders and the resulting exchanges.

The studies mentioned above examined either subordinates' or leaders' characteristics independently, however, theorists of LMX development have suggested that compatibility between a leader and a member may also affect the quality of exchange (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Cashman, 1975). The effect on LMX of the compatibility between a leader and a member has been examined in terms of demographic similarity, liking, and perceived similarity. Using a sample drawn from Junior Achievement Companies, Duchon, Green, and Taber (1986) tried to see a match between some demographic variables of the leaders and the members. They found that most of the people who were a part of the in-group were females belonging to higher social class. However, this study did not use dyads as its level of analysis, rather, the authors analyzed the data of leaders and members in parallel. Contrary to this finding, many studies have shown that demographic similarity variables (gender, race, education, age) are not significantly related to LMX (Bauer & Green, 1996; Green, Anderson, & Shivers, 1996; Liden et al., 1993). This is probably because LMX is more likely to reflect underlying attitudinal rather than

superficial demographic similarities (Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002).

In addition to demographic similarity, research has investigated the relationship of

similarity in competence and personality on the quality of LMX. For example,

Snyder and Bruning (1985) found that when leader's and the member's competence

levels were similar or congruent (both high or both low), LMX was higher than

when competence levels were incongruent. However, it should be noted that the

competence level was based on self-perceptions reported by leaders and members.

Bauer and Green (1996) concluded that similarity in leader's and member's positive

affectivity is related to the leader's rating of member's performance, which in turn is

related to the quality of LMX.

Extending research on interpersonal relationship and interpersonal attraction, LMX

researchers have found liking and perceived similarity as antecedents of LMX. In

both laboratory and field studies, researchers found support for a positive

relationship between liking and LMX (Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Liden et al., 1993;

Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne et al., 1997b). Studies also showed that perceived

similarity is positively related to LMX (Liden et al., 1993; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994).

Furthermore, support for a positive relationship between leader's expectations of the

member regarding work competence and LMX was found in studies conducted by

Liden et al. (1993) and Wayne et al. (1997b).

Dienesch and Liden (1986) recognized that supervisors may take initiatives to build

relationships with subordinates. The authors developed a model explaining the LMX

developmental process integrated with attribution theory, role theory, leadership, social exchange, and upward influence behavior. The first step in the model involves an interaction between a supervisor and a subordinate. The author suggested that both the supervisor's and the subordinate's characteristics may influence the interaction as well as the developmental process. The second step in the model involves the supervisor testing the subordinate through delegating work-related assignments. After receiving the tasks, duties, and responsibilities, the subordinate makes attributions regarding the supervisor's delegation of assignments and responds in certain behaviors. Next, the supervisor interprets and explains the subordinate's behaviors. These basic processes of causal attribution are important to explain the LMX development because attributions made by supervisors to explain subordinates' behaviors "will have clear implications for the type of exchange which could develop between the leader and the member" (Green & Mitchell, 1979: 435). These attributions may be influenced by several sources of biases and distortions such as the subordinate's upward influence behaviors. As a result of these processes, a quality of exchange ranging from low to high develops between the supervisor and the subordinate. This influential paper is an important step toward subsequent research on how a high-quality LMX could be developed (Liden et al., 1997). However, this initial study suggests that LMX processes can be constrained by the leaders. In other words, a leader's task delegation may constrain the LMX development. Because either party may initiate the LMX processes (Liden et al., 1997), future research is needed to examine how subordinates may also take initiatives to develop a high-quality LMX with their supervisor. This area has not

been examined in the LMX literature. In the present research, I therefore investigate

the possibility that subordinates' proactive behavior could become an antecedent of

LMX. Table 1 presents a summary of the literature review on the antecedents of

LMX.

TABLE 1
Antecedents of LMX

Author(s)	Antecedent Examined and Source[a]	Type of study	Sample Characteristics	Source of LMX[a]
Bauer & Green (1996)	Gender Similarity (M & L) Positive Affectivity Similarity (M & L) Leader Delegation (M) Performance (L)	Field	112 university graduates and their leaders	M
Day & Crain(1992)	Ability (M & L) Positive and Negative Affectivity (M & L)	Laboratory	96 undergraduates (members and emergent leaders in 4-5 person groups)	M & L
Deluga & Perry (1994)	Performance Ratings (L) Ingratiation (M & L)	Field	152 employed undergraduate and graduate students (members) and their leaders	M & L
Dockery & Steiner (1990)	Ability (M & L) Upward Influence (M & L) Liking (M & L)	Laboratory	189 undergraduates (members and leaders in 4-person groups)	M & L
Duchon, Green, & Taber (1986)	Gender Similarity (M & L) Class Status Similarity (M & L)	Field	531 high school students (members and leaders of 49 Junior Achievement Companies)	M
Green, Anderson, & Shivers (1996)	Demographic Similarity (M & L) Workload (A) Resources (A) Group (unit size) (A)	Field	208 staff employees (members) and their leaders of 31 libraries	M
Kim & Organ (1982)	Competence (L)	Laboratory	147 part-time evening MBA students from a major midwestern institution	L
Kinicki & Vecchio (1993)	Locus of Control (M) Time Pressure (L)	Field	138 loan officers (members) and 15 branch managers (leaders) of a large bank	M

Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell (1993)	Performance (L) Demographic Similarity (M & L) Perceived Similarity (M & L) Liking (M & L) Expectations (M & L)	Field	166 nonacademic employees (members) and their leaders of two Universities	M & L
Lowin & Craig (1968)	Competence (M)	Laboratory	12 part-time job applicants	Observation
Phillips & Bedeian (1994)	Locus of Control (M) Growth Need Strength (M) Introversion/Extroversion (M) Perceived Similarity (L)	Field	84 registered nurses (members) and their leaders	M
Snyder & Bruning (1985)	Competence (M) Competence Similarity (M & L)	Field	626 members and their leaders; diverse jobs in social service organizations	M
Uhl-Bien, Tierney, Graen,& Wakabayashi (1990)	Growth Need Strength (M)	Field	1,075 line managers (members) from five companies in Japan	M
Wayne & Ferris (1990)	Objective Performance (Manipulated) Performance Ratings (L) Impression Management (M) Liking (L)	Field	96 undergraduates (leaders) in Study 1 84 members and their leaders employed by one of two banks in Study 2	L
Wayne, Shore, & Liden (1997)	Liking (L) Expectations (L)	Field	252 members and their leaders; diverse jobs in a large organization	M

[1] M = Variable assessed by members

L = Variable assessed by leaders

A = Archival data

Consequences of LMX

The vast majority of empirical studies on LMX have shown that more effectively developed relationships are beneficial for both leaders and subordinates, as well as for work unit functioning.

Strong support has been found for the relationship between quality of LMX and job attitudes. Overall job satisfaction has been consistently found to be positively related to LMX (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen et al., 1982b; Stepina et al., 1991; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Vecchio et al., 1986; Wilhelm, Herd, & Steiner, 1993). However, results have been mixed for satisfaction facets: work, pay, and promotions. LMX has been found to be positively related to satisfaction with the work itself in some studies (Seers, 1989; Vecchio et al., 1986) but not in others (Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Liden & Graen, 1980). Unsatisfaction with pay (Seers & Graen, 1984) and satisfaction with pay (Seers, 1989; Sparrowe, 1994; Vecchio et al., 1986) have been shown to be negatively and positively related to LMX, respectively. Following this pattern, promotion satisfaction has been related to LMX in some studies (Seers, 1989; Sparrowe, 1994; Vecchio et al., 1986), but not in others (Seers & Graen, 1984). Similar to this mixed pattern, satisfaction with the leaders has been found to be positively related to LMX (Green et al., 1996; Seers, 1989; Seers & Graen, 1984; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Vecchio et al., 1986), although this is not true in all the studies (Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Liden & Graen, 1980). Co-worker satisfaction has not been examined in many studies, but in limited amount of studies, it tended to

show a positive association with LMX (Green et al., 1996; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Seers, 1989).

Another variable regarding employees' attitude is organizational commitment which has been found to be positively related to LMX (Duchon et al., 1986; Green et al., 1996; Nystrom, 1990; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997b). However, three of these studies only revealed simple correlation between LMX and commitment by employing structural equation modeling. Particularly, Green et al. (1996) found stronger support for an indirect effect of LMX to commitment through satisfaction with working relationship (composite of leader and co-worker satisfaction). On the other hand, Settoon et al. (1996) and Wayne et al. (1997b) revealed that although both LMX and perceived organizational support are antecedents of commitment, perceived organizational support dominates LMX in the prediction of organizational commitment. One explanation for this finding is that receipt of support from the organization creates an obligation to reciprocate the act, while being committed to the organization represents a form of repayment (Liden et al., 1997). This is an evidence of a social exchange relationship between the organization and an individual.

Only a few studies have examined perceived power or control as attitudinal outcomes of LMX. Scandura et al. (1986) found that LMX significantly correlated with perceptions of job autonomy. Sparrowe (1994) and Keller and Dansereau (1995) found a significant association between LMX and subordinates' feelings of

empowerment.

As regards members' behavior, supervisory performance ratings have been consistently found to be correlated with LMX (Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Bien, 1992; Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Liden & Graen, 1980; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Seers & Graen, 1984; Settoon et al., 1996; Wakabayashi, Graen, Graen, & Graen, 1988; Wayne et al., 1997b). However, these results are confounded by virtue of the fact that the leader who engages in an exchange with the subordinate is the one who rates the job performance of that subordinate. Perhaps a better way to address this issue is to include both subjective ratings and objective measures of performance. To study the career progress of members, a longitudinal study was initiated in Japan in 1972. Wakabayashi and Graen (1984) reported a seven-year follow-up study reporting that LMX was positively related to members' career progresses. The findings were also confirmed in a 13-year follow up study (Wakabayashi et al., 1988).

Aside from in-role job performance, researchers have also examined extra-role or citizenship behaviors in relation to LMX. These behaviors include members' actions that extend beyond the employment contract (Graen, 1976). An early study found that high LMX members are inclined to engage in extra time and effort for the benefits of the work unit than those low LMX members (Liden & Graen, 1980). After organizational citizenship behavior has been introduced as a construct (Bateman & Organ, 1983), research has shown that LMX is positively related to

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organizational citizenship behavior (Anderson & Williams, 1996; Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne & Green, 1993). Interestingly, Settoon et al. (1996) measured LMX from members and organizational citizenship behavior from leaders while Wayne and Green (1993) assessed LMX from leaders and organizational citizenship behavior from members. In this study, they found a positive relationship between LMX and organizational citizenship behavior.

Although some studies have shown a negative correlation between LMX and intention of turnover (Sparrowe, 1994; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Wilhelm et al., 1993), common method variance may provide an explanation for these findings. Hence, there has been a shift in attention from intention of turnover to actual turnover (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

LMX has been found to be an important and impressive predictor of various individual and organizational outcomes. The most consistent support has been found to correlate with LMX is members' overall satisfaction and satisfaction to leaders. However, a limitation in many of these studies was that LMX and satisfaction were both measured from the same source—the members' perspective, thus introducing the possibility of a common method variance problem. Regarding the outcomes of LMX, performance of members is the most predictable variable that has been consistently predicted by LMX. However, the subjective ratings of job performance are always criticized, and thus objective measures of job performance are highly recommended in today's studies.

As discussed earlier, there is a need to explore how a high-quality LMX develops,

especially due to the fact that subordinates may also take initiatives in the

developmental processes (Liden et al., 1997). No attempt has been made to examine

this issue in the LMX literature. In the present research, I therefore investigate the

possible role of subordinates' proactive behavior as an antecedent of LMX. Before I

explain the rationale for this, I briefly present the development of leadership theory,

in where and how LMX theory was born. Table 2 presents a summary of the

literature on the consequences of LMX.

TABLE 2
Consequences of LMX

Author(s)	Consequence Examined and Source[a]	Type of study	Sample Characteristics	Source of LMX[a]
Anderson & Williams (1996)	Organizational Citizenship Behavior (L)	Field	131 nurses and their supervisors from three midwestern hospitals	M & L
Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975)	Dyad Problems (M & L) Leader Attention and Support (M) Satisfaction (M) Turnover (A) Work Activities (M & L)	Field	60 university housing division administrators and their 17 supervisors	M
Duchon, Green, & Taber (1986)	Commitment (M) Influence (M) Job Enrichment (M) Satisfaction-Supervisor/president (M)	Field	531 high school student; members of Junior Achievement groups	M
Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Bien (1992)	Performance (L)	Field	152 employees from a university medical center	M
Graen & Ginsburgh (1977)	Motivating Potential Score (M) Performance (L) Promotions (A) Turnover (A) Satisfaction-Work, Supervision, Overall (M)	Field	89 clerical/staff members and their immediate supervisors from a midwest university	M & L
Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp (1982)	Productivity (A) Satisfaction (M)	Field	106 government forms processing employees and their immediate supervisors	M
Green, Anderson, & Shivers (1996)	Commitment (M) Satisfaction-Co-workers, Supervisor (M)	Field	208 library staff employees (members) and their leaders	M
Hui, Law, & Chen (1999)	In-role Performance (L) Organizational Citizenship Behavior (L)	Field	392 employees from a large battery manufacturing firm and 126 supervisors	M & L
Judge & Ferris (1993)	Liking of the Subordinate (L) Performance Rating (L)	Field	81 nurses and their 27 immediate supervisors from a midwestern hospital	M

Keller & Dansereau (1995)	Dyadic Problems (L) Performance Rating (L) Satisfaction with Subordinate (L) Support for Self-Worth (L) Feelings of Empowerment (M)	Field	92 leader-member dyads in a midewest computer company	M
Liden & Graen (1980)	Job Needs (M & L) Job Problems (M & L) Interpersonal Sensitivity of the Leader (M & L) Performance Rating (L) Satisfaction-Work, Supervision (M & L) Willingness to Contribute (M & L) Work Activities (M & L)	Field	41 leader-member dyads representing foreman and managers of a "medium-sized" university	M & L
Liden & Maslyn (1998)	Autonomy (M) Organizational Commitment (M) Turnover Intention (M) Satisfaction with Supervision (M) Performance Rating (L)	Field	68 leader-member dyads from a large manufacturing corporation.	M
Nystrom (1990)	Organizational Commitment (M)	Field	171 middle to upper level managers and their immediate supervisors	M
Scandura, Graen, & Novak (1986)	Job autonomy (M & L)	Field	52 salaried manufacturing company and their immediate superiors	M
Scandura & Schriesheim (1994)	Performance Ratings (L) Promotion (A and M) Salary Rates (A and M)	Field	183 mid-level managers and their immediate superiors from a high-tech midwestern manufacturing firm	M
Seers (1989)	Satisfaction-Work, Supervision, Co-workers, Pay, and Overall Satisfaction (M)	Field	178 unionized hourly employees from an automotive manufacturer.	M
Seers & Graen (1984)	Performance Rating (L) Satisfaction-Overall, Pay, Growth, Social, Supervisors, Security, Intrinsic Work, and Promotions (M)	Field	101 government forms processing employees	M
Settoon, Bennett, & Liden (1996)	Citizenship Behavior (L) In-role Behavior (L) Organizational Commitment (M)	Field	102 non-supervisory hospital employees and their 26 immediate supervisors	M
Stepina, Perrewe, Hassell, Harris, & Mayfield (1991)	Satisfaction with supervisor (M)	Field	81 subjects of a state government fiscal unit	M

Sparrowe (1994)	Empowerment (M) Satisfaction-Pay and Promotions (M) Turnover Intention (M)	Field	182 employees representing 33 urban hotels, motels, restaurants, and institutional foodservice instructors	M
Vecchio & Gobdel (1984)	Objective performance (A) Performance Rating (M & L) Satisfaction-Overall and Supervision (M) Turnover Intention (M)	Field	45 bank tellers and their 12 branch managers	M
Vecchio, Griffith, & Hom (1986)	Organizational Fairness (M) Satisfaction-Overall, Promotion, Pay, Supervisor, Co-works, and Work (M) Turnover (A)	Field	192 hospital employees	M
Wakabayashi & Graen (1984)	Bonus (A) Promotability index (A) Salary (A) Speed of promotion (A)	Field	72 employees of a large Japanese department store	M & L
Wakabayashi, Graen, Graen, & Graen (1988)	Performance Ratings (L) Bonus (A) Promotability index (A) Salary (A) Speed of promotion (A)	Field	71 employees of a large Japanese department store	M & L
Wayne & Green (1993)	Organizational Citizenship Behavior (M) Impression Management (M)	Field	73 nurses and their 16 superiors	M & L
Wayne, Shore, & Liden (1997)	Affective Commitment (M) Favor doing (M) Organizational Citizenship Behavior (L) Performance Rating (L) Turnover Intention (M)	Field	252 leader-member dyads from a large corporation	M & L
Wilhelm, Herd, & Stepina (1993)	Performance (L) Work Satisfaction (M) Turnover Intention (M)	Field	141 managerial leader-member dyads from a large manufacturing organization	M

[1] M = Variable assessed by members

L = Variable assessed by leaders

A = Archival data

The Historical Development of Leadership Theory and Research

The Trait Approach

Leadership has been contemplated since the days of Greek philosophers, and it is one of the most popular topics among business researchers and practitioners nowadays. However, as the world has changed, so has our concept of effective leadership.

When we look at powerful leaders such as Martin Luther King, Jr. or Karenann Terell, we get the impression that they were/are not ordinary people. Martin Luther King, Jr. had a very high degree of influence over others both within and outside of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference. Many times only his words kept the Black Freedom movements from turning into violent revolts. For example, on June 30, 1956, a bomb was thrown at his home in Montgomery. A number of police officers, along with the police commissioner and the mayor, arrived on the scene shortly after the blast. A crowd of a thousand angry blacks then also gathered armed with guns, rocks, knives and sticks were ready to start a battle with the police. King then walked onto the porch and asked the blacks to adhere to the doctrine of nonviolence, reminding them, "he who lives by the sword will perish by the sword." The crowd dispersed peacefully. A white policeman in the crowd said "If it hadn't been for that nigger preacher, we'd all be dead" (King, 1969: 130). Karenann Terrell,

the director of e-vehicle product management at DaimlerChrysler, is another well known person for her leadership competencies. "[General Motors] wanted a culture that was willing and able to move at Internet speed, as opposed to automotive speed," Mark Hogan, president of General Motor's e-commerce unit, where Terrell worked before being lured to DaimlerChrysler, said. "Karenann absolutely had that kind of temperament… [she leads] with a level of enthusiasm and energy that's breathtaking" (Ortiz, 2001: 18).

From these accounts, it seems that great leaders possess some distinctive leadership competencies. Earliest understandings of leadership focused on traits or personality characteristics as determinants of effective leadership. Since the beginning of civilization, people have been interested in distinguishing great leaders by identifying their personal characteristics or traits. The ancient Egyptians demanded authority, discrimination, and justice from their leaders where the Greek philosopher Plato called for prudence, courage, temperance, and justice (Takala, 1998). In the twentieth century, organizational behavior scholars used scientific methods to determine certain personality traits (such as intelligence and talkativeness) and physical characteristics (particularly, size, strength, age, height, and weight) of great leaders (e.g., Bavelas, Hastorf, Gross, & Kite, 1965; Mann, 1959; Terman, 1904). However, subsequent studies and reviews concluded that no consistent list of traits was related to effective leadership (Loretto & Williams, 1974; Stogdill, 1948, 1974). Psychologists found the trait approach to leadership is unsatisfactory because it cannot, by itself, predict who would become a great leader and why. This conclusion

caused many scholars to give up their research on personal characteristics of effective leaders, and to shift their focus to the behaviors of effective leaders.

The Behavioral Approach

One of the most widely cited studies on the behavioral approach to leadership was conducted at Ohio State University. Questionnaires were administrated to ask subordinates what possible behaviors a leader would perform. The studies, along with similar research at the University of Michigan and Harvard University, distinguished two clusters of leadership behaviors from more than 1,800 leadership behavior items (Yukl, 1994). One cluster represented people-oriented behaviors including showing mutual trust and respect for subordinates, demonstrating concern for subordinates' needs, and having a desire to look into subordinates' welfare. Such kind of leaders listen to employee suggestions, do personal favors for subordinates, and support subordinates' interests when required (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957). The other cluster represented task-oriented leadership behaviors that define and structure work roles. Task-oriented leaders assign subordinates to specific work tasks, clarify their work duties and procedures, ensure that they follow company rules, and push them to reach their ultimate level of performance capacity (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957).

It is difficult to decide whether leaders should be people-oriented or task-oriented, as

each kind of leadership has its advantages and disadvantages. Studies have shown

that people-oriented leadership is associated with higher job satisfaction, lower

absenteeism, grievances, and turnover. However, job performance tends to be lower

in subordinates with people-oriented leaders (Korman, 1966). In contrast, task-

oriented leadership is associated with lower job satisfaction, higher absenteeism and

turnover. But this kind of leadership seems to increase productivity and team unity

(Korman, 1966). Research has reported that these two kinds of leadership are

independent of each other. Some people are high or low on both styles, others are

high on one kind and low on the other, but most are somewhere in between

(Weissenberg & Kavanagh, 1972). Subsequent research has found out that the

problem of the behavioral approach to leadership is its implication that high levels of

both kinds (people-oriented and task-oriented) are best in all situations. From this,

we may arrive at the idea that the best leadership style depends on the situation.

The Contingency Approach

The contingency approach to leadership is based on the idea that the most

appropriate leadership style depends on the situation. Most contingency leadership

theories assume that effective leaders must be both insightful and flexible

(Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). They must be able to adapt their behaviors and

styles to various situations. However, in reality, this is not easy to do. It takes a

considerable effort for leaders to learn when and how to alter their styles to match the situation. In general, great leaders must have a high emotional intelligence, particularly a self-monitoring personality, so that they can diagnose the circumstances and match their behaviors accordingly.

Among contingency theories of leadership, path-goal leadership theory has withstood scientific critique, among others. The theory has its roots in the expectancy theory of motivation. Early research by Evans and House (Evans, 1970, 1974; House, 1971) incorporated expectancy theory into the study of how leaders' behaviors affect employees' perceptions of expectancies (paths) between employee effort and performance (goals). Path-goal theory states that effective leaders affect subordinates' satisfaction and performance by making their need satisfaction contingent on effective job performance. Leaders strengthen the performance-to-outcome expectancy and valences of those outcomes by ensuring that subordinates who perform their jobs well have a higher degree of need fulfillment than those who perform poorly. Effective leaders strengthen the effort-to-performance expectancy by providing relevant information, support, and resources necessary to help subordinates complete their work tasks (Evans, 1970, 1974; House, 1971).

Although contingency theories have received considerable research support, the ideas of models may be too complex for practical use. Few people would be equipped or trained to face all the contingencies and use appropriate leadership styles for those contingencies. Therefore, the turbulence of the modern day business

environment and the need to constantly change has directed leadership research

towards the transformational nature of leadership (Bhal & Ansari, 2000).

The Transformational Approach

Burns (1978) studied two types of leaders (transactional verse transformational) in a

political context. He identified transactional leaders as those who deal with their

followers on the basis of material exchanges—jobs for votes or subsidies for

campaign. Transactional leadership is a leadership approach that helps organizations

achieve their current objectives, such as linking job performance to valued rewards

and ensuring that employees have the resources needed to get the job done (Avolio

& Bass, 1988). The transactional approach of leadership adopts the contingency and

behavioral theories of leadership as described earlier because it focuses on leader

behaviors that improve employee performance and satisfaction. In contrast,

transformational leadership is about leading—changing the organizations' strategies

and culture so that they have a better fit with the environment. Transformational

leaders are change agents who energize employees and direct them to a new set of

corporate values and behaviors. They change teams or organizations by creating,

communicating, and modeling a vision for the organization or work unit, and

inspiring employees to strive for that vision (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kotter, 1990;

Zaleznik, 1977).

Organizations require both transactional and transformational leadership.

Transactional leadership improves organizational efficiency whereas

transformational leadership aligns an organization with the external environment

(Egri & Herman, 2000). Although transformational leadership has received much

attention among researchers and practitioners, it is also marked by some challenges.

One problem associated with it is that some scholars or practitioners engage in

circular logic by defining transformational leadership in terms of the leader's

success. They suggest that leaders are transformational when the leaders

successfully drive organizations to change, rather than when the leaders engage in

certain behaviors they call transformational (Bryman, 1996). Another concern as

regards the mentioned approaches of leadership is that the theorists treat the

subordinates as a homogeneous entity, thus the aspect of exchanges or interactions

between a leader and a subordinate has been largely ignored. A group of researchers

are thus suggesting that a leader can and does behave differently with different

subordinates in a workgroup (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975;

Graen & Schiemann, 1978). This line of research focuses on the leader-member

dyad as the unit of analysis, which is known as the theory of leader-member

exchange (LMX) that has been discussed above. As presented in the introduction

that subordinates' proactive behavior may be an antecedent of LMX, before I

explain the rationale of this, I discuss the research on subordinates' proactive

behavior in the following section.

Proactive Behavior of Subordinates

Researchers have long suggested that people are not always passive recipients of environmental constraints on their behaviors, rather, they can influence their situations, thereby making successful job performance more likely (Buss, 1987; Diener, Larsen, & Emmons, 1984). The processes through which people influence environments have been studied extensively, in a general social psychological context (Bateman & Crant, 1993). For example, (1) selection, where people choose situations in which to participate (Holland, 1985; Schneider, 1983); (2) cognitive restructuring, which refers to the processes by which people perceive, interpret, or appraise their environments (Lazarus, 1984; Secord & Backman, 1965); (3) role-making, in which individuals actively negotiate their work roles (Graen, 1976); (4) evocation, through which people unintentionally evoke reactions from others, thus altering their own social environments (Buss, 1987; Scarr & McCartney, 1983); and (5) manipulation, which involves people's intentional efforts to alter their interpersonal environments (Buss, 1987; Buss, Gomes, Higgins, & Lauterbach, 1987; Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

As work becomes more dynamic and decentralized, the subordinate's proactive behavior becomes more critical to organizational success. To cope with increasingly intensive competition, organizations need employees who go beyond work requirements, and behave proactively at work. For over twenty years, social psychologists have studied how employees engage in proactive efforts to alter their

work environment. However, subordinates' proactive behavior has not emerged as an integrated research stream in the field of organizational behavior. There is no single definition, theory, or measure driving the body of work; rather, various researchers have used the term proactive behavior to refer to any active effort at work (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Parker, 2000; Sonnentag, 2003). To label this concept more precisely, Crant (2000) defined proactive behavior as "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions" (p. 436). Proactive behavior can be exhibited in the forms of in-role and extra-role behavior. Employees may engage in proactive behavior as part of their in-role behavior by which they fulfill job requirements. For example, sales promoters may proactively seek feedback on their techniques for promoting their products to high profit margin customers. Extra-role behaviors can also be proactive, such as efforts to redefine one's role in the organization. For example, employees may proactively engage in career management activities by identifying opportunities to change the scope of their jobs or move to a more desirable job posting. Under this perspective, and in contrast to behaving passively, employees can proactively seek information and opportunities for improving their work conditions.

Examples of proactive behavior include feedback-seeking behavior, issue selling, innovative behaviors, career management, and proactive stress coping (Ashford, 1986; Ashford et al., 2003; Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Axtell, Holman, Unsworth, Wall, Waterson, & Harrington, 2000; Crant, 2000; Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Dutton,

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Ashford, O'Neill, & Lawrence, 2001; Janssen, 2000). Moreover, proactive behavior

is often discretionary in nature (Frese et al., 1996; Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Proactive Behavior and Other Concepts

On the surface, proactive behavior is similar but not identical to various

interpersonal constructs such as upward influence tactics, ingratiatory behaviors, and

citizenship behaviors because they are often identified as extra-role behavior. As

pointed out above, their underlying assumptions are different. To clearly present the

definition of proactive behavior of subordinates as used in this research, the

conceptual overlaps and differentiations of these related constructs are highlighted in

the following sections.

Upward influence tactics

Many studies have documented upward influence tactics as political influence

strategies used by subordinates to affect supervisors' decisions in a variety of

contexts, such as performance evaluation (Cleveland & Murphy, 1992; Villanova &

Bernardin, 1991; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne, Liden, Graf,

& Ferris, 1997a), promotions and pay raises (Ferris & Judge, 1991; Kipnis &

Schmidt, 1988), and career progression (Copper, Graham, & Dyke, 1993; Feldman

& Klich, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1994). Some studies also indicate a significant impact of upward influence tactics on supervisors' perceptions of subordinates (Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997a). Results of these studies show that subordinates' use of upward influence tactics positively relates to supervisors' reports of liking toward the subordinates.

Upward influence theorists have identified many tactics that subordinates may use to influence supervisors' decisions and perceptions (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003). Kipnis and Schmidt's (1982) proposed six tactics that may be employed by subordinates (e.g. Deluga & Perry, 1991; Wayne et al., 1997a). This categorization has been widely used in organizational research. These tactics include (1) reason, i.e., individuals use data and facts but avoid emotion to support their rational arguments; (2) bargaining, i.e., people seek to exchange benefits and favors; (3) friendliness, i.e., individuals use ingratiation and flattery to create a favorable impression; (4) higher authority; i.e., individuals cultivate the backing of those in higher organizational levels to support requests; (5) assertiveness, i.e., people express strong emotions and demands; and (6) coalition, i.e., people develop alliances with peers to back up requests.

Although upward influence tactics and proactive behavior of subordinates may affect supervisors' perceptions and decisions in some contexts, their underlying motives are not identical. Upward influence often starts with a specific purpose of

affecting the perceptions and decisions of those at higher levels in the organizational

hierarchy (Higgins et al., 2003; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Wayne et al., 1997a).

Employees who engage in upward influence tactics usually desire to manipulate

their immediate supervisors' perceptions and decisions (Ferris & Judge, 1991;

Higgins et al., 2003; Wayne et al., 1997a). However, proactive behavior does not

necessarily have a clear motive of affecting immediate supervisors' perceptions and

decisions. Rather, proactive behaviors are employees' self-started work behaviors to

improve their current work environment (Crant, 2000). Therefore, the underlying

assumptions of upward influence tactics and proactive behaviors are different.

Ingratiatory behaviors

Ingratiation has been defined as a set of influence behaviors designed to improve

one's interpersonal attractiveness (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984). Jones (1964)

classified ingratiatory behaviors into three categories such as other enhancement,

opinion conformity, and self-presentation. Other enhancement includes the use of a

high, positive evaluation of the supervisor. For example, a subordinate may speak

highly of his or her supervisor in the presence of the supervisor's immediate

supervisor. Opinion conformity is seen when subordinates express values, beliefs,

and opinions which are similar to their supervisors', uncritically agreeing with their

supervisors on work or non-work related issues. Self-presentation involves behaving

in a way, or creating an image, that is perceived to be appreciated by supervisors.

For example, a subordinate may work overtime voluntarily, which is a valued

behavior by the supervisor. In contrast, other researchers argue that individuals who

engage in ingratiatory behaviors are seeking to be liked by flattering others or doing

favors for them (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Jones & Pittman, 1982). In sum, the aim

of engaging self-presentation behavior is to gain a positive impression in the eyes of

supervisors.

Previous research has provided the evidence that an exhibition of ingratiatory

behaviors in the workplace results in better treatments by the supervisors.

Researchers have found that ingratiatory behaviors are positively related to

supervisors' liking of the subordinates (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), pay raises and

promotions (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Cheng, 1983; Pandey, 1981), better

performance evaluations (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991), and

higher quality of LMX (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Dockery & Steiner, 1990).

Although ingratiatory behaviors and proactive behaviors may help create positive

impressions of subordinates on supervisors, their underlying rationales are different.

In the workplace, ingratiation is a manipulative and political influence strategy

(Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991). Subordinates who engage in ingratiatory behaviors are

mainly attempting to gain interpersonal attractiveness towards supervisors. However,

proactive behavior of subordinates does not necessarily have an intention to enhance

their images in the eyes of supervisors. Rather, such behaviors are self-started and

work oriented, as to improve employees' current work environment and task performance (Crant, 2000).

Organizational citizenship behaviors

On the surface, it seems that the concept of proactive behavior is identical to organizational citizenship behavior because they are both classified as extra-role behavior. They indeed have different rationales and assertions.

Organ and his colleagues (1988; 2006) described the discretionary characteristic of organizational citizenship behavior as a behavior that "is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description which clearly specifies the terms of the person's employment contract with the organization. The behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable" (p. 4). A review of the literature on organizational citizenship behavior reveals a consensus on the dimensionality of its construct. The work done by Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997), Hui, Law, and Chen (1999), and Organ et al. (2006) were perhaps the latest and most comprehensive for reviewing the dimensionality of the construct. The authors organized the construct into five dimensions such as altruism, conscientiousness, identification with company, interpersonal harmony, and protecting company resource. Altruism refers to employee behaviors that deal with helping a fellow colleague in an organizationally relevant task; conscientiousness

appears to capture behaviors that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization; identification with the company entails the employees' tendency to be involved in the overall well-being of the organization; interpersonal harmony describes negative behaviors that aim at personal power and that have a detrimental effect on others; protecting company resources refers to negative behaviors that involve the abuse of company resources and policies to satisfy personal gains. Despite the fact that citizenship-like behaviors might be labeled differently in various studies, researchers consistently recognize them as discretionary behaviors.

At first glance, organizational citizenship behaviors and employees' proactive behavior are two similar concepts as they both go beyond direct role requirements. However, their underlying assumptions are different. The notion of citizenship behaviors has its roots in two major components of behaviors: conscientiousness and compliance (Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b). Conscientiousness refers to work behaviors that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization (Farh et al., 1997; Hui et al., 1999; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b). Such behaviors include one's persistence with extra enthusiasm and effort to accomplish jobs, and willingness to take on extra responsibilities. These can be a kind of proactive behavior. Compliance, however, has a more passive connotation, in which an individual is regarded as a "good citizen" if he or she scrupulously adheres to rules (e.g. "complies with company rules and procedures even when nobody is watching and no evidence can be traced", Farh et al., 1997; Hui et al., 1999), attends punctually, respects authority, and so forth. In contrast, the concept of proactive

behavior often implies ignoring or even being somehow rebellious toward existing rules (Frese & Fay, 2001), and "challenging the status quo" (Crant, 2000: 436) to improve current work methods and procedures. Proactive behavior does not mean to obey rules and regulations. Different from organizational citizenship behaviors that emphasize both conscientiousness and compliance, proactive behavior does not have the component of compliance. Rather, the proactive behavior proposed here goes beyond the concept of conscientiousness, emphasizing self-initiated behaviors of employees. In other words, subordinates who are viewed as "good citizens" may not truly behave proactively in organizations.

Feedback-Seeking Behavior

In this section, I describe subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior. Feedback-seeking behavior is recognized as one of the most common types of proactive behavior in organizations, and this line of research has increasingly received attention in the field of organizational behavior.

We know that people need knowledge of performance results to further improve their performance overtime. Thus, feedback is generally acknowledged as an essential component of employees', managers', and organizational successes. The dominant view of feedback exchange in earlier work held that a sender (usually a supervisor) conveys a message to a recipient (e.g. a subordinate) (Ilgen, Fisher, &

Taylor, 1979). In a classic article, Ashford and Cummings (1983) challenged this view by arguing that subordinates can actively seek feedback rather than passively wait for it to be delivered by others. The authors suggested that feedback is a valuable resource for individuals, and thus people choose to initiate feedback exchanges. By actively seeking feedback, individuals can have more control over their work behaviors and outcomes. Therefore, individuals seek feedback in their everyday work anywhere within organizations. More particularly, feedback-seeking behaviors refer to an effort toward obtaining information about work behavior and work performance (Ashford, 1986; Ashford et al., 2003; Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Morrison, 2002; Moss et al., 2003; VandeWalle, Ganesan, Challagalla, & Brown, 2000).

In a review of feedback-seeking literature, researchers have highlighted five patterns of feedback-seeking. Each of the patterns represents how an individual makes a decision on whether to engage in feedback-seeking behavior. The patterns include feedback-seeking frequency, methods of seeking, feedback-seeking sources, signs of the feedback sought, types of feedback, and timing of feedback seeking (e.g., Ashford et al., 2003; Crant, 2000; VandeWalle, 2003).

The frequency and method patterns of feedback-seeking behavior are usually assessed in tandem. Frequency of seeking refers to a key question of how often an individual engages in feedback-seeking behavior, which may be affected by personal or contextual factors. As to the methods of feedback-seeking behavior, inquiry and

monitoring are the two common methods that an individual uses to obtain feedback. Inquiry involves explicit verbal requests for feedback. For example, a subordinate may ask his or her supervisor "what do you think of my proposal?" With a sample of 90 subjects, Ilgen and Moore (1987) conducted a laboratory study with two treatment conditions: (1) feedback was provided to the subjects automatically by the researchers and (b) feedback was provided by the researchers at the requests of the subjects. The authors found that subjects in the request condition finished the experimental tasks in a shorter time and more accurately than the subjects in the automatic feedback condition. The authors concluded that feedback-seeking behavior is useful for individuals to accomplish tasks in a more effective and efficient way. Monitoring, on the other hand, is an indirect method of obtaining feedback. It involves observing aspects of the environment, particularly other people, that provide indications of how one is doing, how one compares with others (Festinger, 1954), and what other people think of someone (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Empirical evidence and theories suggest that feedback seeking by the inquiry method is superior to no feedback-seeking, or to feedback seeking by only the monitoring method, for enhancement performance. Northcraft and Earley (1989) found that self-initiated feedback (compared to feedback that automatically provided) was viewed as more credible and useful. In addition, Brown, Ganesan, and Challagalla (2001) found that role clarity was highest for individuals who engage in both high levels of inquiry and monitoring methods of feedback seeking, while the monitoring method has a negative relationship with role clarity when the use of inquiry method is low. The authors concluded that when individuals monitor

environment or others, they use a one-way communication process of inferring

feedback messages. Compared to inquiry method, monitoring method to seek

feedback has two major disadvantages: (1) the potential volume and quality of the

feedback obtained is low, and (2) the seekers may incorrectly infer the feedback

(Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Miller & Jablin, 1991). In summary, the effectiveness

of feedback-seeking behavior is likely to be higher when an individual seeks

feedback proactively (compared to passive delivery) and by using the inquiry

method (compared to using the monitoring method only).

The second pattern of feedback-seeking behavior is the source of feedback seeking.

It includes the consideration of the role relationship with the target (for example, the

supervisor or peers of the seeker). Logically, seeking feedback from supervisors are

more likely to be useful than seeking feedback from peers for improving

performance. It is because peers may not only lack the knowledge base required to

provide useful feedback, but they may also be reluctant to provide accurate feedback

which may conflict with their personal agenda for career management (Klich &

Feldman, 1992). In addition, feedback from supervisors than from peers is more

effective to enhance self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) pointed out that when an

individual seeks primarily positive outcome feedback from peers, the feedback

received may provide a short-term morale boost only. In the long term, however,

such feedback does not provide the information required to achieve skills and work

improvement which is needed for subsequent self-efficacy enhancement. In contrast,

feedback from supervisors is more likely to be viewed as credible for improvements,

and thus more likely to enhance self-efficacy in the long term. Ilgen et al. (1979) proposed that the source of feedback can also affect the acceptance and utilization of the feedback. This is because perceptions about the sources' expertise will strongly influence the seekers to accept, believe, and use the feedback. In a study involving 387 executives and their supervisors, peers, and subordinates, Ashford and Tsui (1991) also found that managers more actively seek feedback from their supervisors than from peers or subordinates.

Feedback can be positive or negative. Taylor, Fisher, and Ilgen (1984) indicated that seeking negative behavior is superior to seeking positive feedback for obtaining requisite information to enhance work performance. Researchers have suggested that the tendency to seek negative feedback can avoid both the detrimental consequences of poor performance and misunderstandings between the seekers and the sources (Ashford et al., 2003; Audia & Locke, 2003; Leung, Su, & Morris, 2001; Morrison & Bies, 1991; Moss et al., 2003). Northcraft and Ashford (1990) also noted that negative feedback indeed is not threatening to everyone. On the surface, negative feedback may initially be disappointing, individuals are soon likely to diminish the detrimental effect on their self-efficacy. It is because individuals use the negative feedback to develop their competency, to enhance task improvement, and in turn, to increase their self-efficacy. Therefore, the sign of feedback is also an important pattern that affects people's affective, behavioral, and cognitive reactions (VandeWalle, 2003).

A fourth decision regarding feedback-seeking behavior is the type of feedback a seeker is looking for. Empirical research has suggested that seeking "process" feedback is superior to seeking "outcome" feedback for enhancing performance. In a laboratory experiment, Earley, Northcraft, Lee, and Lituchy (1990) found that the process feedback given to subjects interacting with goal setting strongly affects their quality of task performance, while the outcome feedback given to subjects is related to self-confidence. The authors concluded that outcome feedback may help one identify the need to adjust action, it does not provide specific information about how one can adjust the action to improve performance. Research also supports the comparative advantage of process feedback for enhancing self-efficacy. Bandura (1997), for example, presented an extensive discussion on the importance of the content of verbal persuasion to enhance self-efficacy. The author suggested that when individuals are struggling with concerns about their abilities to accomplish a task, verbal persuasion is more effective if it focuses on strategy development that is the process feedback, than if the verbal persuasion focuses on optimistic social appraisal that is the outcome feedback.

Finally, individuals may decide when to seek feedback. They can choose to act or delay when they face the need to seek feedback. Those who act and seek feedback quickly obtain the information needed to enhance their self-efficacy and accomplish tasks successfully. Those who delay may soon find out the fact that they are incapable to accomplish the tasks, and such stress could further diminish self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Moreover, individuals may also consider when they

should seek feedback in order to enhance their impressions in the eyes of others. For example, by seeking feedback immediately after a failure, subordinates may prevent a buildup of negative supervisor evaluations (Morrison & Bies, 1991). Morrison and Bies (1991) also argued that individuals will sometimes attempt to seek additional feedback after a favorable performance review, and by waiting until the target is in a good mood.

How do individuals make choices about how frequent to seek, what methods to use, from whom to seek, what signs to emphasize, what types to seek, and when to seek? To answer these questions, researchers attempted to find out what motives drive for subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior. Most studies have focused on the two kinds of motives for feedback-seeking behavior. These are task- and relational-focused (e.g., Ashford et al., 2003; Crant, 2000).

People who have strong task-focused motives aim to accomplish work tasks to a high standard so as to attain personal development (Ashford et al., 2003; Crant, 2000). Similar to the concept of achievement motivation (Collins, Hanges, & Locke, 2004; McClelland, 1961; McClelland, Clark, Roby, & Atkinson, 1958), this motivation represents an individual's desire to accomplish work tasks more effectively than in the past (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Such people perceive themselves as having strong abilities, and have a strong desire to perform well in order to attain their goals and achieve personal success (Ashford et al., 2003; Crant, 2000; Schwartz, 1992). Turning to the research on feedback-seeking behavior,

feedback is perceived to be a valuable resource for forming and achieving task goals. Research suggests that individuals who have stronger task-focused motives are more likely to seek feedback (Butler, 1993; Klich & Feldman, 1992; McClelland, 1985). Task-focused people have a strong desire to perform their tasks to a high standard, and feedback is likely to serve the function of enhancing their performance by providing them with information to reduce uncertainty and with accurate performance assessments. Recent research (Renn & Fedor, 2001; Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002) has also shown that individuals who pay close attention to their performance tend to use feedback-seeking behavior as a tool with which to set their personal improvement goals in an attempt to improve both the quality and quantity of their performance.

Relational-focused motives, however, emphasize more on impression management issue. Everyone strives to affirm their self-concept (Greenberg, Solomon, & Pyszczynski, 1997; Leary & Baumeister, 2000). People may attempt to do this through the use of impression management; that is, by attempting to control or manage the impressions that others form of them (Wayne & Liden, 1995). People who have strong relational-focused motives desire to have and maintain important interpersonal relationships (Ashford et al., 2003; Crant, 2000; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). These social and status desires motivate them to enhance and maintain a good impression in the eyes of others, especially their supervisors at work. They concentrate much on building good relations with supervisors. Morrison and Bies (1991) argued that individuals can enhance their impressions by seeking feedback

more frequently, by seeking additional feedback after a favorable event such as a performance review, by waiting until the target is in good mood, and by providing information along with the feedback request. Other researchers also argued that when individuals fear that the performance feedback will hurt their images, they may rather forgo the instrumental benefits of that feedback on the task (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ashford & Northcraft, 1992; Northcraft & Ashford, 1990). It is because by maintaining a positive image in the eyes of supervisors, subordinates are more likely to enjoy greater protection and benefits from supervisors (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003).

Although the above discussion suggests a positive association between feedback-seeking behavior and LMX, Dienesch and Liden (1986) recognized that supervisors may take initiatives to build up relationships with subordinates. The authors developed a model explaining the LMX developmental process that was integrated with attribution theory, role theory, leadership, social exchange, and upward influence behavior. The first step in the model involves an interaction between a supervisor and a subordinate. The author suggested that both the supervisor's and subordinate's characteristics may influence the interaction as well as the developmental process. The second step in the model involves the supervisor testing the subordinate through delegating work-related assignments. After receiving the tasks, duties, and responsibilities, the subordinate makes attributions regarding the supervisor's delegation of assignments and responds in certain behaviors. Next, the supervisor interprets and explains the subordinate's behaviors. These basic processes

of causal attribution are important to explain the LMX development because attributions made by supervisors to explain subordinates' behaviors "will have clear implications for the type of exchange which would develop between a leader and a member" (Green & Mitchell, 1979: 435). These attributions may be influenced by several sources of biases and distortions, for instance, the subordinate's upward influence behaviors. As a result of these processes, a quality of exchange ranging from low to high develops between the supervisor and the subordinate. This influential paper is an important step toward subsequent research on how a high-quality LMX develops (Liden et al., 1997). However, this initial study suggests that LMX processes can be constrained by leaders. In other words, a leader's task delegation may constrain LMX development. Because either party may initiate the LMX process (Liden et al., 1997), future research is needed to examine how subordinates may also take initiatives to develop a high-quality LMX with their supervisor. This area has not been examined in the LMX literature. In the present research, I investigate the possible role of subordinates' proactive behavior as an antecedent of LMX. More specifically, I posit that subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior is a potential antecedent of LMX. The detailed rationale underlying the prediction is presented in Chapter 3.

Supervisor' Attributions of the Motives of Subordinates' Behavior

Only a few studies have examined how supervisors' and subordinates' attributions of the other's behaviors affect their perceptions and subsequent behaviors toward the other party. Dienesch and Liden (1986) recognized this issue. In their model, the authors explained that after receiving the tasks, duties, and responsibilities from leaders, the subordinate makes attributions regarding the leader's delegation of assignments, and responds in certain behaviors. Next, the supervisor interprets and explains the subordinate's behaviors. These basic processes of causal attribution are important to explain the LMX development because attributions made by supervisors to explain subordinates' behaviors will indicate how the leader develops a relationship ranging from low to high with the subordinate. This influential paper provides a signal of recognizing the important role of interpretations, especially the supervisors' (the one who have greater power and control as compared to subordinates) interpretations, upon the LMX development. In the present study, to explore the extent to which supervisors' interpretations of their subordinates' motives for the feedback-seeking behavior influence the relationship between feedback-seeking behavior and LMX, I likewise review the literature on how supervisors attribute the motives of subordinates' behavior.

According to attribution theory (Davis & Gardner, 2004; Green & Mitchell, 1979; Kelley, 1967), we judge people differently depending on their motives, beliefs, or intentions which we attribute to an observed behavior. The central tenet of

attribution theory is that people construct causal explanations for others' behavior in the need to predict and understand others (Allen & Rush, 1998). To date, the research examining causal attributions in organizational contexts focused on traditional task performance (e.g., Green & Mitchell, 1979; Pence, Pendleton, Dobbins, & Sgro, 1982). Researchers suggested the causal motives associated with extra-role behaviors (Allen & Rush, 1998; Bolino, 1999; Eastman, 1994). They attached two major causal labels for the extra-role behaviors, namely, altruistic motives and instrumental motives. Altruistic motives include personal values, loyalty to the organization, and a sense of moral standards, whereas instrumental motives include a desire to impress the boss, to obtain recognition or other organizational rewards. Employees whose behavior was believed to be driven by altruistic motives rather than instrumental motives received higher overall performance evaluations and greater pay raises (Allen & Rush, 1998; Bolino, 1999; Eastman, 1994).

Similarly, researchers also searched for causal explanations of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Morrison & Bies, 1991). They suggested that two kinds of motives may be associated with exhibitions of feedback-seeking behavior. These are *task-related motives* and *impression management motives*. Ashford and Cummings (1983) argued that task-related motives is the rational desire to obtain useful information in order to accomplish tasks effectively and enhance task performance. The authors also argued that a motive related to impression management is the desire to control

how one appears to others. Behaviors associated with task-related motives are likely
to positively influence performance judgments, whereas those associated with
impression management motives may be devalued or discounted (Eastman, 1994;
Schlenker, 1980).

A considerable number of researchers have stated that supervisors make attributions
about subordinates' behavior and that such attributions will affect supervisory
actions towards these subordinates (Davis & Gardner, 2004; Dienesch & Liden,
1986; Steiner, 1997). Dienesch and Liden (1986) developed a model to explore how
attribution processes affect the quality of leader-member exchange. They stated that
"upward influence" attempt, such as impression management behavior, may affect a
supervisor's attributions of a subordinate's behavior. Researchers have found that
employees who attempt to impress their supervisors could positively receive what
they want to obtain from supervisors (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Wayne & Ferris,
1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). These studies, however, do not indicate how these
employees have become successful. Eastman (1994) explained that the possible
reason is that the supervisors in these studies did not view the behaviors of the
employees as an attempt to impress the supervisors. A series of Fodor's (1973; 1974)
studies supported this view by finding that employees who attempted to impress
their supervisors did not receive greater rewards than those who did not attempt to
impress their supervisors. It is because individuals usually form negative attitudes
about others identified as making an attempt to manipulate their impressions
(Gurevitch, 1985). As a result, it is possible that how supervisors attribute the

motives of subordinates' behavior is more critical than the true motives of subordinates' behavior, thus this explains the performance judgments and quality of LMX. Since supervisors' attributions of the motives for feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates are important to explain the quality of LMX, what factor largely affects supervisors' attributions of subordinates' motives? The best answer may be the supervisors' perceived performance of subordinates. In the next section, I will describe the reason why this variable affects supervisors' attributions of the motives of subordinates' behavior.

Supervisors' Perceived Performance of Subordinates

A theoretical argument for the important role of cognitive load in supervisor is presented in the supervisor-subordinate interaction (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Maher, 1995). Theoretical work suggests that supervisors categorize subordinates into "in-group" or "out-group" status. This categorization process has critical implications for the quality of LMX (Lord & Maher, 1991). Different qualities of LMX are cognitive categories that serve to guide subsequent perceptions of the subordinates. For example, Heneman, Greenberger, and Anonyuo (1989) found that when subordinates' performance was high, internal attributions for ability and effort were higher for in-group members than for out-group members. When performance was low, supervisors made more internal attributions of performance to out-group members than in-group members. Similarly, Wilhelm, Herd, and Steiner (1993)

found that supervisors tend to attribute high inputs by in-group subordinates to internal factors and low inputs to external factors. In contrast, supervisors tend to attribute high inputs to out-group subordinates to external factors and low inputs to internal factors. Martin and Klimoski (1990) provided a further empirical support for categorizing subordinates by their supervisors. In the field study, they found that if a subordinate is given a positive evaluation, the supervisor often discounts negative behavioral episodes, whereas if a subordinate is given a negative evaluation, negative behavioral episodes are used to form negative impressions of them. Therefore, categorization of perceived performance is closely tied with supervisors' attributions of motives for the behavior.

Given that the quality of the LMX remains stable over time (e.g., Liden et al., 1993; Wakabayashi et al., 1988), it is argued that categorization of perceived performance and attributions play large roles in this stability. It is because supervisor-subordinate interactions often involve an automatic exercise. Supervisors may categorize subordinates automatically in terms of in-groups and out-groups according to their perceived performance of subordinates. These categorizations may then be automatically associated with certain attributions of the motives of subordinates' behavior. In short, it is very likely that supervisors' perceived performance of subordinates, along with the attribution of subordinates' motive for behavior, is a function of the quality of LMX.

Conclusion

Based on the studies reviewed in this chapter, three major research gaps can be identified. First, although either party may initiate the process of LMX development, no attempt has been made in the existing studies to examine how subordinates may initiate the process, for example, by seeking feedback from supervisors. Second, a number of studies have ignored the critical role of supervisors' attributions of motives for subordinates' behavior. Such attributions are arguably important in explaining the quality of LMX generated. The third research gap is that past studies on LMX have failed to capture how and why supervisors' perceptions of subordinates' performance influence their attributions of motives for subordinates' behavior, which in turn may affect the quality of LMX.

To address these research gaps, I propose to investigate three key issues. First is that feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates may facilitate the establishment of a high-quality LMX because it helps clarify expectations (Morrison, 1993; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) and create a good impression (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Edwards, 1995). Second, consistent with attribution theory, I propose that supervisors' attributions of their subordinates' motives for the feedback-seeking behavior influence the relationship between feedback-seeking behavior and LMX. Finally, due to the effect of categorization, I propose that supervisors' perceived performance of subordinate affects supervisors' attributions of subordinates'

motives for the feedback-seeking behavior. The analytical research framework and

development of hypotheses is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

The above literature review suggests that subordinates' proactive behavior in general and feedback-seeking behavior in particular have important effects on the establishment of a high-quality LMX. The arguments are that feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates can help clarify the work role and expectations between the supervisors and subordinates, and it can help build a positive impression of subordinates on the part of supervisors.

As I pointed out earlier, three major research gaps have been found. First, although either party may initiate the process of LMX development, no attempt has been found to examine how subordinates initiate the process by seeking feedback from supervisors. Second, a number of studies have ignored the critical role of supervisors' attributions of motives for subordinates' behavior. However, this issue is of important to explain the quality of LMX. Additionally, the third research gap is that past studies on LMX failed to capture how and why supervisors' perceptions of subordinates' performance influence their attributions of motives for subordinates' behavior, and which in turn may affect the quality of LMX.

In addition, the review reveals that the supervisors' attribution of the motives for feedback-seeking behavior plays a critical role on the relationship between

feedback-seeking behavior and quality of LMX. Further, since subordinates' work

performance is one of the major consequences of having a high-quality LMX (e.g.,

Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), I additionally propose the

mediating role of LMX between feedback-seeking behavior and work performance.

In this Chapter, the theoretical rationales supporting the hypotheses that fulfill the

above four research voids are presented in the following sections.

Subordinates' Feedback-Seeking Behavior and the Quality of LMX

The primary focus of feedback exchange in past research has been on how a sender

(usually a supervisor) conveys a message to a recipient (e.g., a subordinate) (Ilgen et

al., 1979). In a seminal article, Ashford and Cummings (1983) challenged this

perspective by arguing that subordinates may proactively seek feedback rather than

passively waiting for it to be delivered, as they wish to know exactly how their work

has been perceived and what they should do to manage their careers. This kind of

behavior is referred to as feedback-seeking behavior. A dominant form of feedback-

seeking behavior is the explicit verbal request for information on work behavior and

work performance (Ashford, 1986; Ashford et al., 2003; Ashford & Cummings,

1983; Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Crant, 2000; VandeWalle, 2003; VandeWalle et al.,

2000). Studies have indicated that the feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates

may be related to the quality of LMX by (1) clarifying role expectations from

supervisors (e.g., Morrison, 1993), and (2) creating positive impressions (e.g., Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Edwards, 1995).

Feedback-seeking behavior may be associated with a high-quality LMX by facilitating the role-making process of the exchange relationship. In the role-making process (Graen, 1976; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), each party within a dyad has expectations about how he or she can benefit from the other party and what must be given in return. Those who feel that they are benefiting from a relationship will try to reciprocate by fulfilling the expectations of the other party. This exchange process facilitates a high-quality relationship between leaders and members. Although both parties may test one another to see whether or not the expectations of the other are met (e.g., Hollander & Offermann, 1990; Liden et al., 1997), often, neither party knows what the other's expectations are (London, 2003). I argue that feedback-seeking behavior may help both parties understand the role expectations of their partners. Specifically, prior studies have shown that subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior is positively related to their understanding of their role and that such behavior reduces the role ambiguity between supervisors and subordinates (Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Brown et al., 2001; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). In other words, subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior may help both parties to have a clear understanding of the role expectations, capabilities, and motivations of the other (Ashford & Black, 1996). This clarity occurs first because frequent feedback-seeking behavior can help subordinates to understand how to

meet their supervisors' expectations (Morrison, 1993; Renn & Fedor, 2001), but also, feedback-seeking behavior may help supervisors clarify the roles of subordinates (Morrison & Bies, 1991). Consequently, such role-making processes, over time, generate a fairly stable and high-quality LMX that is built on trust, respect, and mutual obligation (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen, 1976; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Graen et al., 1990).

In addition, by proactively seeking feedback from supervisors, subordinates may influence their supervisors to form more positive impressions of them (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Edwards, 1995; Morrison & Bies, 1991). The impression management literature suggests that feedback-seeking behavior may create the impression that subordinates pay attention to, and are concerned about, the quality of their work tasks (Ashford & Northcraft, 1992; Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Edwards, 1995; Higgins & McCann, 1984; Morrison & Bies, 1991). Morrison and Bies (1991) propose that subordinates may sometimes attempt to enhance their image by seeking feedback, even if the feedback has no informational value, because feedback-seeking behavior is an effective impression management tactic. More precisely, feedback-seeking behavior can be used to shape and influence how supervisors judge and evaluate subordinates, as supervisors may consider individuals exhibiting such behavior to be capable and attentive to work performance (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Farmer & Maslyn, 1999; Morrison & Bies, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995). As a result, they tend to establish a good work relationship with such subordinates (Liden et al., 1997).

Although the above explanations of the potentially positive association between feedback-seeking behavior and LMX have existed in the literature for some time, surprisingly, no attempt has been made to empirically examine this relationship. I therefore test the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 1. Subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior is positively related to LMX.*

The Moderating Role of How Supervisors' Interpret the Motives of Subordinates' Feedback-Seeking Behavior

Researchers have stated that supervisors make attributions about subordinates' behavior and that such attributions will affect supervisory actions toward these subordinates (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Green & Mitchell, 1979; Kelley, 1967). In one of the few studies to investigate what people think of feedback seekers, Ashford and Northcraft (1992) found that when an individual has a superior performance history, then feedback-seeking behavior enhances others' impressions of his or her potential work performance. It appears that investigations on how others (e.g., supervisors) attribute the motives for feedback-seeking behavior are essential to fully understand the effects of feedback-seeking behavior. Based on our earlier discussion, we suggest that supervisors may attribute feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates to two separate kinds of motives on the part of employees: task-

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enhancement and impression management (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Morrison & Bies, 1991). Where a supervisor interprets the motivation behind a subordinate's feedback-seeking behavior as task-enhancement, they tend to regard the subordinate as achievement focused with an intention to accomplish work tasks to a high standard (Ashford et al., 2003; Crant, 2000). Supervisors tend to appreciate this type of task-focused effort from subordinates (Day & Crain, 1992), and they are likely to reciprocate by offering support, special benefits, and opportunities for career development (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Graen et al., 1990; Kacmar et al., 2003), which is conducive to a high-quality LMX.

Where a supervisor interprets feedback-seeking behavior as driven by impression management motives or as a tactic used by employees to enhance their personal image, things are different. Researchers have found that employees who attempt to impress their supervisors may succeed and receive what they want from their supervisors (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). However, these studies do not indicate why such employees are successful. Eastman (1994) suggests that they may be successful because their supervisors do not view their behaviors as impression management. Fodor's (1973; 1974) studies supported this view, finding that employees who attempted to impress their supervisors received no greater rewards than those who made no such attempt, because individuals usually form negative attitudes about others who they have identified as having attempted to manipulate their impressions. In a similar vein, Crant (1996) pointed out that subordinates who engage in impression management

may be perceived as untruthful, unreliable, and calculating. Their feedback-seeking behavior may similarly be perceived as manipulative and aimed at gaining rewards (Crant, 2000). If supervisors attribute the motivations for subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior to impression management, such behavior is less likely to create a positive impression (Morrison & Bies, 1991). As a result, they tend to provide less support to such subordinates, and the feedback-seeking behavior is less likely to be associated with a high-quality LMX.

Therefore, I posit that how supervisors interpret the motives of the feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates plays an important role in determining whether such behavior is associated with a high-quality LMX. Hence, I predict that:

> *Hypothesis 2a. The positive association between subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior and the quality of LMX is stronger when supervisors interpret the behavior as being driven by stronger **task-enhancement motives** than weaker task-enhancement motives.*

> *Hypothesis 2b. The positive association between subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior and the quality of LMX is stronger when supervisors interpret the behavior as being driven by weaker **impression management motives** than stronger impression management motives.*

The Mediating Role of LMX

Previous studies on feedback-seeking behavior suggest that such behavior allows

employees to evaluate their own competence, to monitor their performance, to solve

performance problems, and, more importantly, to set progressive improvement work

goals in line with supervisor expectations (e.g., Morrison, 1993; Renn & Fedor,

2001; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). In doing so, subordinates are able to

take appropriate actions to improve their work performance. Renn and Fedor (2001)

found that individuals who sought feedback developed a more accurate view of their

own skills and abilities than those who did not, and that feedback-seeking behavior

allowed them to obtain more information to set improvement goals. Consequently,

those employees who exhibited more feedback-seeking behavior tended to achieve a

higher level of work performance (Renn & Fedor, 2001).

I contend that LMX may play a mediating role in the relationship between feedback-

seeking behavior and work performance. As noted above, a higher frequency of

feedback-seeking behavior is related to a high-quality LMX because it may clarify

what leaders and members expect from each other (e.g., Morrison, 1993), and

because it may create a good impression of subordinates on the part of their

supervisors (e.g., Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Edwards, 1995). In addition, there is

accumulating evidence that subordinates tend to exhibit higher levels of work

performance when they establish higher-quality relationships with their supervisors

(e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995;

Liden et al., 1997; Liden et al., 1993; Settoon et al., 1996). This improvement occurs

because, in a high-quality LMX, leaders tend to provide members with special

support, benefits, and opportunities for career development (Graen et al., 1990;

Kacmar et al., 2003; Yukl, 1989).

Although feedback-seeking behavior is generally believed to have a positive effect

on work performance, empirical studies have shown that the effect of feedback-

seeking behavior on work performance varies substantially across studies (e.g.,

Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993). In particular, some researchers have reported

that feedback-seeking behavior has a relatively weak impact on work performance

when supervisors interpret the behavior as being driven by impression management

motives (e.g., Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Morrison & Bies, 1991). Hence, I believe that a

supervisor's interpretation may influence the effect of feedback-seeking behavior on

work performance in the same way as it influences the effect of such behavior on

LMX. As a result, I contend that supervisors' interpretation of the motives of

subordinates may interrupt the exchange process triggered by the feedback-seeking

behavior. Specifically, such behavior will only be positively related to LMX and the

work performance of subordinates when supervisors interpret the feedback-seeking

behavior of subordinates as being driven more by task-enhancement motives or less

by impression management motives. However, if supervisors interpret the feedback-

seeking behavior as being driven less by task-enhancement motives or more by

impression management motives, such behavior may be less likely to provoke

constructive social exchange processes and work performance. Therefore, I predict a mediated moderation, as shown in the following hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 3a. LMX mediates the interactive effects of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior and **supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives** on subordinates' work performance.*

*Hypothesis 3b. LMX mediates the interactive effects of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior and **supervisor-attributed impression management motives** on subordinates' work performance.*

Perceived Performance As an Antecedent of Supervisor-Attributed Motives

I propose that supervisors' perceived overall work performance of subordinates may influence their perceptions of subordinates' subsequent performance, and so affect their attributions on the motives of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior based on three rationales: (1) impression effects; (2) implicit performance theory; and (3) schema-like knowledge developed and stored in supervisors' minds.

First, people's overall impressions strongly influence how they recall and interpret others' subsequent behaviors and performance. In work units, supervisors' preconceptions have striking effects on how they perceive and interpret

subordinates' behaviors and performance. Impression effects provide a theoretical framework for explaining how supervisors translate their perceptions of subordinates performance into impressions, encode them into memory as either good or poor performers, and later retrieve the information from memory, and decode them when interpret the subordinates' subsequent performance (Wayne & Liden, 1995). In short, supervisors tend to perceive subordinates as good performers when their past performance was good and perceive those as poor performers when their past performance was poor (Schneider, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Research on impression management also shows that subordinates may receive better performance ratings after their supervisors create a good impression of them (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Bolino, 1999; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Turning to the feedback-seeking behavior literature, when subordinates believe that the exhibition of feedback-seeking behavior will enhance their images, they will seek feedback more frequently from their supervisors. Results of several studies support the idea that supervisors develop favorable impressions of subordinates if subordinates often seek feedback from them (Higgins & McCann, 1984; Morrison & Bies, 1991; Northcraft & Ashford, 1990). These researchers suggested that subordinates seek feedback more frequently from supervisors in order to convey an image of attentiveness to work tasks and elicit acknowledgement of their effectiveness to further enhance work performance. Thus, the intentions of feedback-seeking behavior may be due to creating a good impression on supervisors.

Research also reveals that when we form impressions of people, we tend to act in ways that perpetuate those impressions. Impressions provide us with expectations and a tendency to perceive people's behavior as fitting those expectations. This effect can be seen in a classic experiment conducted by Kelley (1950). In the study, all students were told that they were going to meet a guest lecturer. Half of the students were told that the guest was twenty-nine years old, married, and a rather cold person while another half were told the same information except that he was a rather warm person. Although both groups of students met the same guest giving the same lecture together, their impressions of him were strongly affected by the different descriptions of the guest before the lecture. The subjects who were told that the guest was warm had much more positive impressions of him than those who were told the opposite. Another interesting study was that Anderson et al. (1980) asked the subjects to decide whether people who take risks to be good or bad firefighters after giving them one of two concrete cases for forming impressions. One group considered a risk-taking person to be a successful firefighter and a cautious person to be an unsuccessful one. The other group considered cases suggesting the opposite conclusion. After forming their judgments, the subjects were asked to write explanations, for example, that risk-taking people are brave or that cautious people are careful. Once each explanation was finished, the impression was formed in each subject's mind. In the later stage of the experiment, when that impression was discredited by the researchers, the subjects however still held their self-generated impressions and continued to believe their impressions. The above experiments show that expectations induce impression bias when judging

subsequent objects or events, and once impressions are formed, they are insisted to change. Therefore, an impression of a subordinate may serve as a guide for the supervisor to interpret his or her subsequent work behavior, performance, and motives of the behavior (Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995).

Second, in Lord and Maher's (1991) study, the authors highlighted that people use implicit theories as a basis for interpreting the behavior and its motives of their dyadic parties. To test this model, Bauer and Green (1996) conducted a longitudinal study, with a sample of 205 supervisor-subordinate dyads, on the development of LMX. They found that subordinates' past performance predicted supervisors' subsequent delegation of tasks and authority to the subordinates. This suggests that supervisors tend to engage in more favorable exchanges with subordinates whose performance meets their expectations. The results also confirmed that supervisors focus more on work-related efforts and they expect subordinates to be capable and competent (Day & Crain, 1992; Dockery & Steiner, 1990). Additionally, Engle and Lord (1997) proposed that supervisors are likely rely on implicit performance theories to form impressions of subordinates. More importantly, the authors found that implicit performance theories correlated .37 with the quality of LMX. They explained this result by arguing that supervisors develop prototypes of "good subordinates" and then compare subordinates to this prototype. The comparison process is to label subordinates as either "good" or "poor" performers. Subordinates who meet their supervisors' expectations and exhibit behaviors consistent with supervisors' implicit performance theories are likely to be treated favorably by that

supervisor. This information process involves the establishment of a knowledge

structure describing each of the subordinates in the supervisors' minds. These

studies suggest that supervisors categorize subordinates as good or poor performers

by comparing them with the supervisors' prototypes of a good or poor subordinate.

A match between processed information and prototype may in turn lead the

supervisors to give good performance evaluations to the subordinates; otherwise,

poor evaluations are given.

Third, like implicit performance information processing, schemas are the cognitive

structures and processes that underlie human knowledge and skills (Dalgleish, 2004).

They are organized representations of past behavior and experience that function as

theories about reality to guide a person to interpret new experience (Dalgleish, 2004;

Fiske & Linville, 1980; Kelly, 1955). Partners in any relationship will each develop,

over time, a cognitive map of what the other is like and how the other responds

(Lord & Maher, 1991). Evidence supporting the importance of such cognitive

information processing was presented in a series of studies by Srull and Wyer (1979;

1980). These authors found that categorization is an important process in the way in

which social information is encoded into memory and later used to make judgments.

Extending these findings to work relationships, Feldman (1981) and Cardy,

Bernardin, Abbott, Senderak, and Taylor (1987) proposed that performance ratings

are a function of automatic processes which involve raters' attention, categorization,

integration, and recall. These authors suggested that when supervisors rate the

performance of an employee, they tend to recall the performance categorization of

that employee which has been stored in their memory. Similarly, Manzoni and Barsoux (1998) discussed how supervisors who observe poor previous performance tend to interpret subsequent cases and behaviors as unsatisfactory performance, and thus unlikely to acknowledge an improvement in a subordinate's performance. Such information-processing research implies that, once supervisors have labeled their subordinates, it is difficult to change this schema-based knowledge (Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005).

Based on the above three cognitive information processing rationales, I argue that attributions of the motives of subordinates' behavior may be influenced by the perceived work performance of these subordinates. As touched upon earlier, past findings have suggested that supervisors tend to form work-related expectations of subordinates, in which they are likely to perceive good performers as those who emphasize on accomplishment and continuous improvement of work-related issues (Day & Crain, 1992) while perceive poor performers as those who put efforts on impression enhancement (Bolino, 1999). Therefore, I propose that supervisors may attribute the feedback-seeking behavior of good performers as being driven by strong task-enhancement motives. In contrast, supervisors may attribute the feedback-seeking behavior of poor performers as being driven by strong impression management motives. On the basis of this reasoning, I propose:

Hypothesis 4. Supervisors' perceived performance of subordinates

affects their interpretations of the motives of subordinates' feedback-

seeking behavior, in which, supervisors will attribute feedback-

seeking behavior of good performers as being driven by strong task-

enhancement motives while attribute the behavior of poor performers

as being driven by strong impression management motives.

The models depicting the key theoretical relationships are presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2. In Study 1, I tested Hypotheses 1, 2a, and 2b. In study 2, I examined Hypotheses 1, 2a, 2b, 3a, and 3b. With a longitudinal research design, Hypotheses 1, 2a, 2b, and 4 were tested in Study 3. In the next chapter, I will present how I examine the hypotheses empirically in each study.

FIGURE 1
Research Framework of Study 1 and Study 2

Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives		Supervisor-attributed impression management motives

H2a   H2b

| Feedback-seeking behavior | | → | LMX | → | Objective Work performance |

H1

→ H3a →
→ H3b →
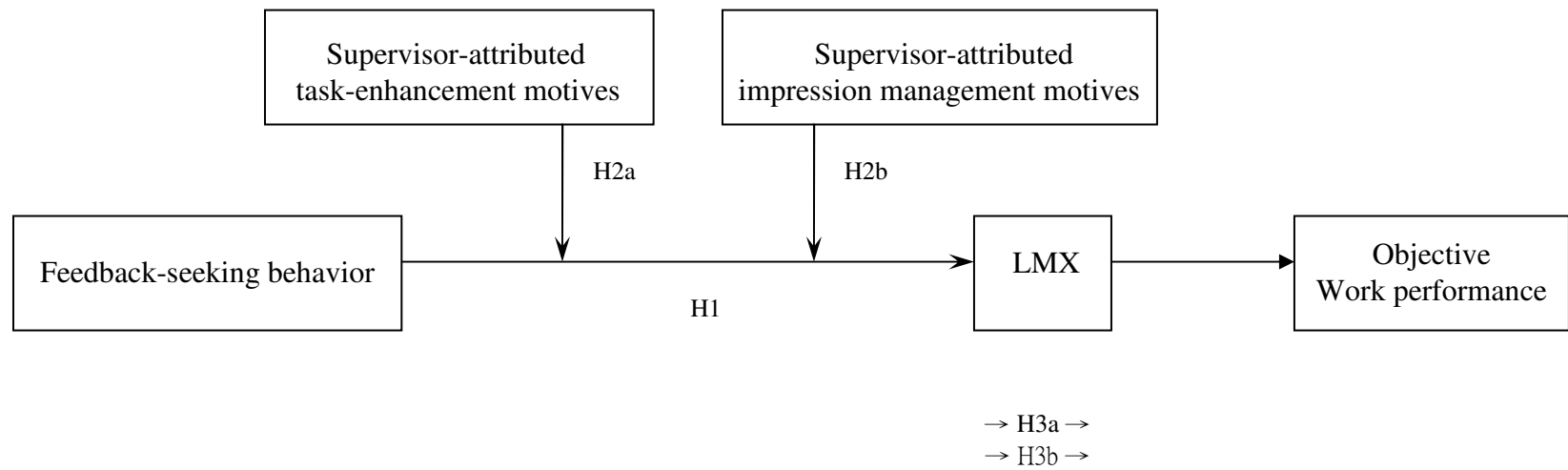
FIGURE 2
Research Framework of Study 3
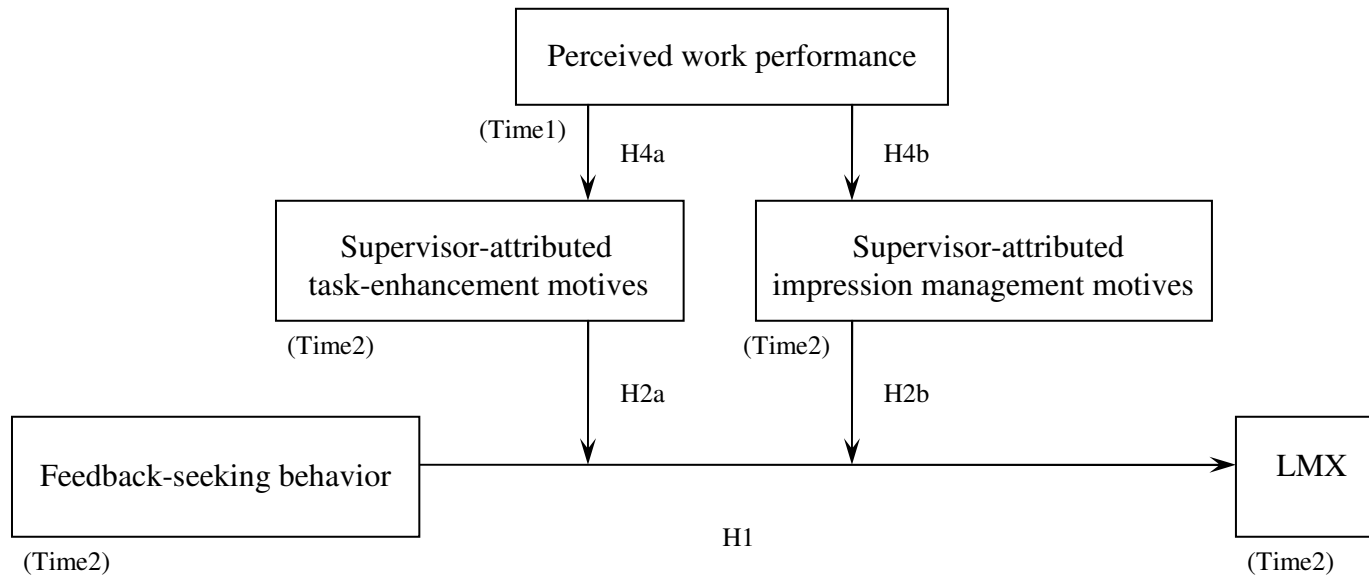
CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, I will present the research designs of three studies. First, I will describe

the samples and procedures of data collection, measures of the constructs, and processes

of translating questionnaire items of the two studies separately. Since I could not collect

data on subordinates' work performance from the company in Study 1, I only tested

Hypotheses 1, 2a, and 2b in this study. In study 2, Hypotheses 1, 2a, 2b, 3a, and 3b were

examined in Study 2. With a longitudinal research design, Hypotheses 1, 2a, 2b, and 4

were tested in Study 3. The longitudinal research design reveals the causality of the

variables. Details of research designs are presented in the following sections.

Study 1 Methods

The Sample and Procedures of Data Collection

The sample of Study 1 included 209 supervisor-subordinate dyads from a

telecommunication services company in Shandong province of China. The company was

originally a state-owned enterprise. It was transformed into a shareholding company and

listed in the New York and Hong Kong stock exchanges. It was the market leader and it

had about 15,000 employees. In the company, each work group was supervised by a

leader. Each subordinate had an immediate supervisor who worked together in the same work units. The subordinates could ask for comments, suggestions, and information from supervisors whenever they wanted to.

The data were collected in October, 2004. Two sets of questionnaires were used in the study: one for subordinates (they were all frontline staff) and another for their immediate supervisors. Questionnaires were administered to employees and their supervisors separately. I visited all of the respondents in person (groups of supervisors and subordinates separately), to brief them about the purposes of the study and to explain the procedures for implementing the survey. The respondents received a cover letter explaining the study, a questionnaire, and a return envelope. Each questionnaire was coded with a researcher-assigned identification number in order to match employees' responses with their immediate supervisors' evaluations. To ensure confidentiality, the respondents were instructed to seal the completed questionnaires in the envelopes and return them directly to the researchers on site. Out of 465 questionnaires (230 for supervisors; 235 for subordinates), 418 usable questionnaires (209 supervisor-subordinate dyads) were returned, with usable response rates of 90.9% and 88.9% for supervisors and subordinates respectively. These 209 employees were supervised by 70 immediate supervisors. The maximum number of surveys completed by a single supervisor was four. For the subordinate sample, 77.5% were female and 69.4% had had a college education or above. The mean age and organizational tenure of the subordinates were 24.1 and 2.6 years respectively. For the supervisor sample, 69.9% were female and 77.5 % had had a college education or above. The mean age and organizational tenure of the supervisors

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were 27.8 and 4.1 years. The average length of the supervisor-subordinate relationship was 1.01 years.

Measures

Feedback-seeking behavior (the independent variable), supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives, and supervisor-attributed impression management motives (the moderators) were rated by supervisors, while LMX (the dependent variable) was rated by subordinates.

Feedback-seeking behavior

A five-item scale validated by VandeWalle et al. (2000) was used. I asked the supervisors how frequently their subordinates asked for their feedback regarding (i) their overall work performance, (ii) their technical performance on the job, (iii) their role fulfillment, (iv) social behaviors, and (v) whether the supervisors felt that the subordinates' values and attitudes were appropriate for the firm (*1 = never; 7 = always*). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .92.

Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives

I measured supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives using a five-item scale developed for this study (*1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree*). As suggested in the introduction, task-enhancement motives involve work role clarification and negotiation (Ashford et al., 2003; Crant, 2000). Since there is no existing measure of task-enhancement motivation, we extracted two items on role clarity (Rizzo & House, 1970) and three items on negotiating job roles (Ashford & Black, 1996) to develop the scale. The five items were "Desire to discover what his or her responsibilities are," "Desire to discover exactly what is expected of him or her," "Desire to negotiate my demands placed on him or her," "Desire to negotiate his or her task assignment," and "Desire to negotiate my expectations of him or her." The Cronbach's alpha was .80.

Supervisor-attributed impression management motives

Five out of six items developed by Allen and Rush (1998) were used to ask supervisors the extent to which they perceived subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior to be driven by impression management motives (*1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree*). The items were "Desire to enhance his or her image (e.g., to make me believe that he or she is a helpful employee)," "Desire to build up favors for a later exchange," "Desire to 'show-off' his or her expertise," "Desire to capture my attention on him or her," and "Desire to obtain recognition or other organizational rewards." Another item, "Desire to create a

good impression," was developed and included in this study. I deleted one of the original items, "Desire to seek the spotlight," because my focus was on the relationship between supervisors and subordinates rather than on other work relationships, such as between co-workers. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .81.

Leader-member exchange (LMX)

The subordinates were asked to assess the quality of LMX by using the five-point LMX-7 scale developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and validated by Schaubroeck and Lam (2002) in a Chinese context. The scale consists of seven items that characterize the overall effectiveness of the relationship between supervisor and subordinate. Sample items are "How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?" (*1 = extremely ineffective; 5 = extremely effective*) and "How well does your leader understand your job problem and needs?" (*1 = not a bit; 5 = a great deal*). The Cronbach's alpha was .87.

Control variables

Due to potential effects of various demographic variables on the quality of the relationship (Bauer & Green, 1996; Liden et al., 1993; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001), I controlled for gender, education level, age, organizational tenure, and length of the

supervisor-subordinate relationship. Measures of these demographic variables were obtained from both the supervisors and subordinates. Age and organizational tenure were self-reported years. Gender was dummy coded (*0 = female; 1 = male*). A dummy variable was also used to measure the education levels of the respondents (*0 = below college; 1 = college or above*). Subordinates reported the length of the supervisor-subordinate relationship in years. In addition, we followed the procedures used by Turban and Jones (1988) to control for the demographic similarity between supervisors and subordinates. Since all the respondents were of Chinese origin, we excluded the subscale of race discrepancy. First, gender and education discrepancies were coded as the same (= 0) or different (= 1). Age discrepancy was the absolute difference between supervisor and subordinate responses. I divided discrepancy scores by their respective standard deviations, summed them, and then reverse-scored them: the larger the score, the greater the demographic similarity.

Translation of Questionnaire Items

The questionnaire items were originally in English and were translated into Chinese by a bilingual academic of Mandarin and English. A back-translation was conducted (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973), with the items being translated back to English by another bilingual academic of Mandarin and English to ensure that both English and Mandarin versions of the items were comparable with a high degree of accuracy.

To increase the validity and generalizability of the proposed theoretical model, I conducted a second study using data collected from manufacturing firms. Feedback can be positive or negative. In the workplace, employees may not only seek general feedback from their supervisors, but also seek negative feedback from their supervisors. Negative feedback-seeking behavior refers to an effort to obtain information on inadequacies in work behavior and work performance (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Moss et al., 2003). Research has suggested that there is a tendency for self-regulation to build a better work relationship. Indeed, simply to survive in organizations, employees must understand the ineffective behavior and performance they have done, so that they can make corresponding corrections (Ashford et al., 2003). Researchers have also noted that the seeking of negative feedback by subordinates can avoid both the detrimental consequences of poor performance and misunderstandings between supervisors and subordinates (Ashford et al., 2003; Morrison & Bies, 1991). Further, by seeking feedback immediately after a failure, subordinates may prevent a buildup of negative supervisor evaluations (Morrison & Bies, 1991). Because negative feedback has a significantly higher instrumental value in the processes of role making and image enhancing than positive feedback (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Moss et al., 2003), apart from the general feedback-seeking behavior that I tested in Study 1, I examine all the hypotheses using the notion of negative feedback-seeking behavior in Study 2.

In summary, in the second study, I (1) examine whether the hypotheses also hold for subordinates' negative feedback-seeking behavior; (2) investigate how subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior, LMX, and supervisors' interpretations of the motives of

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feedback-seeking behavior influence the work performance of subordinates; and (3) test

whether the research model can be generalized to another industry.

Study 2 Methods

The Sample and Procedures of Data Collection

The sample of Study 2 included 240 supervisor-subordinate dyads from two Chinese corporations, each with more than 1,500 workers. Both companies were from the vehicle component manufacturing industry in Hangzhou, in Zhejiang province of China. In these two companies, each work group was supervised by a leader. Each subordinate then had an immediate supervisor who worked together in the same work units. The subordinates could ask for comments, suggestions, and information from supervisors whenever they wanted to.

The data were collected in March 2005. Two sets of questionnaires were used in the study: one for subordinates (they were all blue-collar manufacturing staff) and another for their immediate supervisors. I visited all the respondents in person (groups of supervisors and subordinates separately) and conducted the survey following the same procedure as in Study 1. Out of 526 questionnaires (256 for supervisors and 270 for subordinates), 480 usable questionnaires (240 supervisor-subordinate dyads) were returned. Usable response rates were 93.8% and 88.9% for supervisors and subordinates respectively. These 240 employees were supervised by 84 immediate supervisors. The maximum number of surveys completed by a single supervisor was five. For the subordinate sample, 40.8% were female and 12.5% had had a college education or above. The mean age and

organizational tenure of the subordinates were 29.2 and 4.0 years respectively. For the

supervisor sample, 28.8% were female and 26.3 % had had a college education or above.

The mean age and organizational tenure of the supervisors were 29.2 and 6.4 years

respectively. The average length of the relationship was 1.47 years.

Measures

Apart from negative feedback-seeking behavior (the independent variable) and

subordinates' objective performance (the dependent variable), the key measures, namely

supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives and supervisor-attributed impression

management motives (the moderating variables), LMX (the mediator variable), and all

control variables, were the same as in Study 1. Negative feedback-seeking behavior (the

independent variable), supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives, and supervisor-

attributed impression management motives (the moderators) were rated by supervisors,

while LMX (the mediator) was rated by subordinates. The work performance of

subordinates was measured by objective data provided by the companies.

Negative feedback-seeking behavior

Subordinates' negative feedback-seeking behavior was measured using a five-item scale

validated by VandeWalle et al. (2000). Because the scale of negative feedback-seeking

behavior is absent in the literature, and VandeWalle et al.'s (2000) scale did not consider whether the feedback was positive or negative (I used the scale to measure general feedback-seeking behavior in Study 1), we modified the scale. I asked the supervisors how frequently their subordinates asked for supervisor feedback regarding inadequacies in (i) their overall work performance, (ii) their technical performance on the job, (iii) role fulfillments, (iv) social behaviors, and (v) how well their values and attitudes were suited to the firm (*1 = never; 7 = always*). The alpha coefficient was .82.

Subordinates' work performance

The two companies used a piece-rate pay system. Workers received monthly pay according to the quantity of their output. I obtained the monthly piece-rate scores for all respondents from January to March 2005. Work performance was measured by averaging the three-month piece-rate scores. Since the piece-rate scores were calculated differently in the two companies, we standardized the scores within each company and used the standardized scores to represent the work performance of workers.

To uncover the causality of supervisors' perceived performance, subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior, and their underlying motives on LMX in the theoretical model, I conducted a study using a longitudinal research design in Study 3. Methodology and research design of Study 3 are presented below.

Study 3 Methods

The Sample and Procedures of Data Collection

The sample of Study 3 included 300 supervisor-subordinate dyads from a gear

manufacturing company located in Hangzhou, the Zhejiang province of China. In the

company, each work group was supervised by a leader. Each subordinate then had an

immediate supervisor who worked together in the same work units. The subordinates

could ask for comments, suggestions, and information from supervisors whenever they

wanted to. The data were collected in two waves, the first was in June, and the second

was in September 2005. This study consists of a longitudinal research design.

Two sets of questionnaires were used in the study: one for subordinates (they were all

blue-collar manufacturing staff) and another for their immediate supervisors. I visited all

the respondents in person (groups of supervisors and subordinates separately) and

conducted the surveys following the same procedure as in Study 1 and 2. In the first wave

of data collection, out of 711 questionnaires (345 for supervisors and 366 for

subordinates), 660 usable questionnaires (330 supervisor-subordinate dyads) were

returned. Usable response rate were 95.7% and 90.2%, for supervisors and subordinates

respectively. In the second wave of data collection, out of 657 questionnaires (327 for

supervisors and 330 for subordinates), 600 usable questionnaires (300 supervisor-

subordinate dyads) were returned. Usable response rate were 91.7% and 90.9%, for

supervisors and subordinates respectively. These 300 subordinates were supervised by 49 immediate supervisors. The maximum number of surveys completed by a single supervisor was ten. For the subordinate sample, 13% were female and 19.3% had had a college education or above. The mean age and organizational tenure of the subordinates were 38.5 and 15.3 years respectively. For the supervisor sample, 10% were female and 32.7% had had a college education or above. The mean age and organizational tenure of the supervisors were 41.4 and 21.2 years respectively. The average length of the dyadic relationship was 4.61 years.

Measures

Apart from the construct of perceived subordinates' work performance, the key measures, namely feedback-seeking behavior, supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives, supervisor-attributed impression management motives, LMX, and control variables were the same as in Study 1 and Study 2. In sum, perceived work performance rated by supervisors at Time 1 (June 2005), supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives, supervisor-attributed impression management, and feedback-seeking behavior were rated by supervisors at Time 2 (September 2005), and LMX was rated by subordinates at Time 2 (September 2005) while LMX rated by subordinates at Time 1 was controlled for.

Perceived subordinates' work performance.

A three-item seven-point scale performance rating developed by Van Scotter and

Motowidlo (1996) was used to measure how supervisors perceive the overall work

performance of subordinates (*1 = very unsatisfactory*; *7 = excellent*). A sample item

addresses "whether the subordinate exceeds, meets, or does not meet standard for job

performance". The alpha coefficient was .94.

Conclusion

In sum, I collected the data of Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3 in mainland China, from a

telecommunication services company, two manufacturing firms, and one manufacturing

company respectively. Subordinates and their immediate supervisors were invited to fill

in questionnaires. A total of 749 supervisor-subordinate dyads data were collected. In the

Study 1, Study 2 and Study 3, subordinates' general feedback-seeking behavior, negative

feedback-seeking behavior, and general feedback-seeking behavior (longitudinal effects)

were examined respectively. The first two studies were cross-sectional. To uncover the

causality of the variables, a longitudinal research design has been used in Study 3.

Results of the hypotheses testing will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

This chapter presents the procedures of hypotheses testing of three studies. Some

preliminary analyses such as confirmatory factor analyses and correlations were

conducted using AMOS 5 and SPSS 12.0 respectively.

Because individual respondents were nested within groups (under the same supervisor

within a group), I tested the hypotheses twice. First, I used hierarchical regression

analyses with SPSS 12.0, and second, I used multi-level modeling with MLwiN to

examine whether the statistical dependence in groups would affect the results. These

analyses generated similar results; therefore, following the approach adopted by Van der

Vegt, Van de Vliert, and Oosterhof (2003), only the results of the regression analysis are

reported here. Results of Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3 are reported separately in the

following.

Study 1 Results

Preliminary Analyses

Confirmatory factor analyses

Before testing the hypotheses, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the discriminant validity of supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives and supervisor-attributed impression management motives for subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior using AMOS 5.0. The results suggested that the hypothesized two-factor model (*CFI* = .94, *TLI* = .93, *RMSEA* = .06) yielded a better fit than the single-factor model (*CFI* = .52, *TLI* = .40, *RMSEA* = .18), with a χ^2 change of 244.27 ($\Delta df = 1$, $p < .001$). In order to statistically discriminate the three key variables (feedback-seeking behavior, supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives, and supervisor-attributed impression management motives) rated by supervisors, we conducted another confirmatory factor analysis. Results showed that the three-factor model (*CFI* = .95, *TLI* = .94, *RMSEA* = .06) yielded a better fit than the single-factor model (*CFI* = .53, *TLI* = .46, *RMSEA* = .18). The χ^2 change was 545.41 ($\Delta df = 3$, $p < .001$).

Descriptive statistics

 The means, standard deviations, and zero-order Pearson correlations of all the key variables are presented in Table 3.

Tests of Hypotheses

I conducted a hierarchical multiple regression to test Hypotheses 1, 2a, and 2b following the steps suggested by Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt (2005). As shown in Table 4, after regressing LMX on the control variables in step 1, I entered feedback-seeking behavior in step 2. Feedback-seeking behavior was found to be positively related to LMX ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$), lending support to Hypothesis 1, which predicts that subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior is positively related to LMX. In step 3, I entered the supervisor-attributed motives, and interactions were entered in step 4. Table 4 (Model 4) shows that supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .06$) and supervisor-attributed impression management motives ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .001$, $\Delta R^2 = .06$) moderated the link between feedback-seeking behavior and LMX. To determine whether the forms of the interactions matched those suggested by Hypotheses 2a and 2b, I tested the simple slopes of strong supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives (one standard deviation below the mean) and weak task-enhancement motives (one standard deviation above the mean). In support of Hypothesis 2a, I found that feedback-seeking behavior was more positively related to LMX when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being

driven by strong task-enhancement motives (simple slope test: β = .26, p < .01) than when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being driven by weak task-enhancement motives (simple slope test: β = .05, *n.s.*). Furthermore, in support of Hypothesis 2b, I found that feedback-seeking behavior was more positively related to LMX when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being driven by weak impression management motives (simple slope test: β = .41, p < .001) than when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being driven by strong impression management motives (simple slope test: β = -.11, *n.s.*). Figure 3 shows the interactive effects.

In addition to the two-way interactions, I examined the possible three-way interaction of feedback-seeking behavior, supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives, and supervisor-attributed impression management motives on LMX. However, I found no significant effect.

TABLE 3
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities of Measures for Study 1

Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Supervisor's gender[a]	.30	.46	---													
2. Subordinate's gender[a]	.22	.42	.40***	---												
3. Supervisor's education level[b]	.78	.42	.28***	.21**	---											
4. Subordinate's education level[b]	.69	.46	.12	.18**	.24***	---										
5. Supervisor's age	27.75	5.81	.27***	.27***	.15*	.14	---									
6. Subordinate's age	24.10	4.27	.19**	.26***	.29***	.29***	.30***	---								
7. Supervisor's tenure (in year)	4.13	1.76	-.12	.01	.08	.07	.43***	.09	---							
8. Subordinate's tenure (in year)	2.61	2.87	.17*	.06	.20**	.10	.24***	.70***	.10	---						
9. Dyadic tenure (in year)	1.01	1.07	.00	-.05	.10	.03	.01	.36	.06	.45***	---					
10. Demographic similarity	5.61	1.85	-.43***	-.14*	.01	.20**	-.48***	-.01	-.15*	-.09	.04	---				
11. Feedback-seeking behavior	3.97	1.45	.02	-.02	.05	-.04	.33***	-.04	.09	-.02	.00	-.08	(.92)			
12. Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives	3.63	.47	.07	.27***	.03	-.03	.17*	-.01	-.07	-.12	-.04	-.07	.39***	(.80)		
13. Supervisor-attributed impression management motives	3.36	.62	.07	-.04	-.11	.02	.11	.03	.06	.03	.03	.01	.06	.10	(.81)	
14. LMX	3.16	.76	.13	.22**	.04	.05	.25***	.07	.18**	.01	-.02	-.08	.19**	.19**	.45***	(.87)

n = 209 supervisor-subordinate dyads.
[a] Gender: Female = 0; Male = 1.
[b] Education level: Below college = 0; College or above = 1.
 *p < .05
 **p < .01
***p < .001

TABLE 4

Regression Results for Study 1

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	LMX							
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Control Variables								
Supervisors' gender	.08	.91	.08	.93	.09	1.03	.14	1.65
Subordinates' gender	.17	2.06*	.18	2.26*	.15	1.77	.17	1.97*
Supervisors' education	-.04	-.46	-.04	-.55	-.06	-.71	-.06	-.84
Subordinates' education	-.02	-.27	-.01	-.07	.00	-.01	.00	-.07
Supervisors' age	.19	2.01*	.12	1.20	.13	1.27	.15	1.53
Subordinates' age	-.02	-.17	-.03	-.24	-.02	-.19	-.05	-.46
Supervisors' tenure	.13	1.59	.14	1.75	.16	1.91	.14	1.74
Subordinates' tenure	-.04	-.41	-.02	-.20	-.01	-.10	.02	.19
Dyadic tenure	.01	.07	.00	.00	.00	-.03	-.02	-.24
Demographic similarity	.09	.94	.07	.75	.08	.84	.09	1.01
Independent Variable								
Feedback-seeking behavior			.14	1.85*	.11	1.29	.10	1.17
Moderator Variables								
Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives					.09	1.15	.10	1.21
Supervisor-attributed impression management motives					-.08	-1.19	-.06	-.89
Interactive Effects								
Feedback-seeking behavior × Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives							.16	2.36*
Feedback-seeking behavior × Supervisor-attributed impression management motives							-.22	-3.21***
ΔR²				.02*		.01		.06***

n = 209 supervisor-subordinate dyads.

   * $p < .05$

*** $p < .001$

FIGURE 3
Supervisor-Attributed Motives as Moderators of Subordinates' Feedback-Seeking Behavior and LMX for Study 1
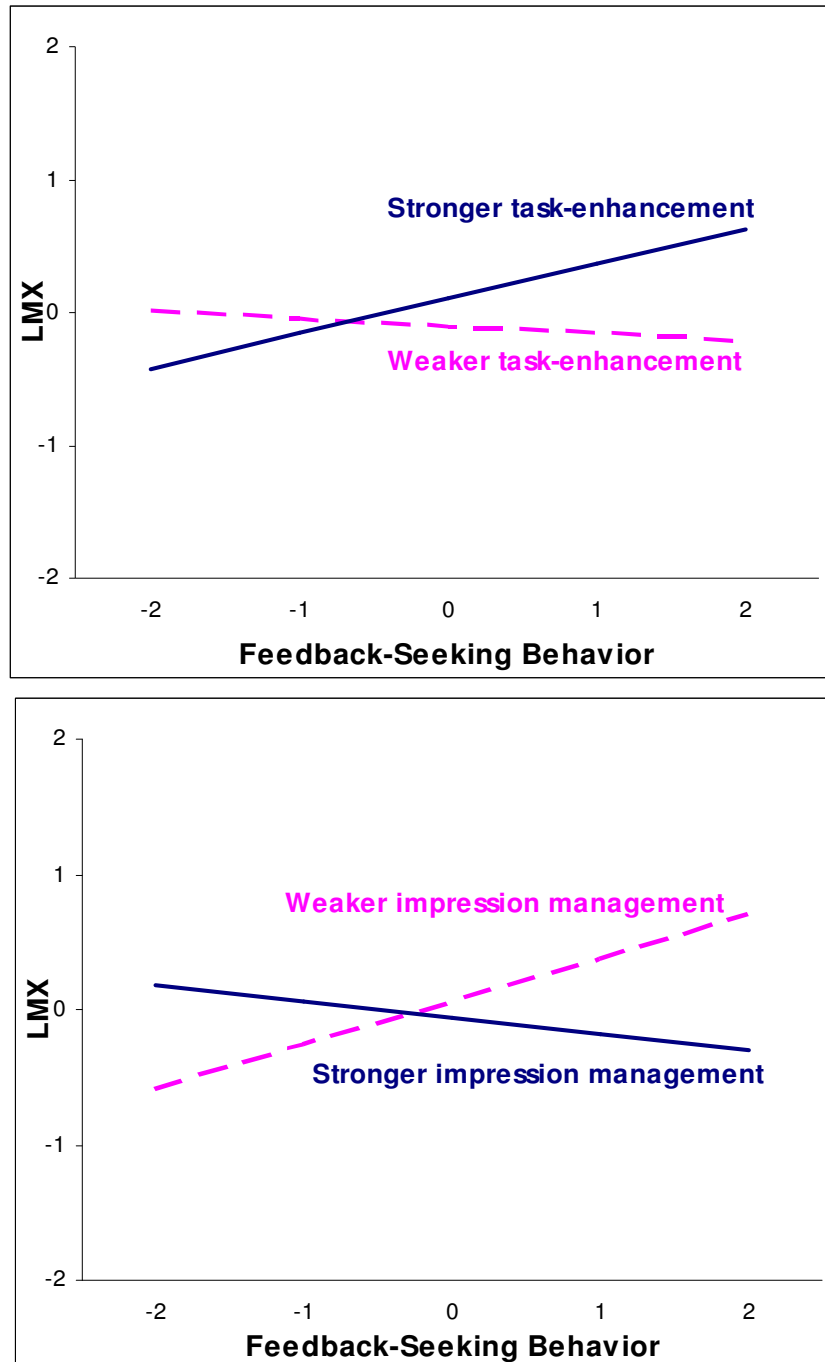
Study 2 Results

Preliminary Analyses

Confirmatory factor analyses

I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to further evaluate the discriminant

validity of supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives and supervisor-attributed

impression management motives. The results suggested that the hypothesized two-

factor model (*CFI* = .92, *TLI* = .90, *RMSEA* = .08) yielded a better fit than the

single-factor model (*CFI* = .78, *TLI* = .72, *RMSEA* = .14), with a χ^2 change of

129.64 (Δdf = 1, *p* < .001). In order to statistically discriminate the three key

variables (negative feedback-seeking behavior, supervisor-attributed task-

enhancement motives, and supervisor-attributed impression management motives)

rated by supervisors, I conducted another confirmatory factor analysis. Results

showed that the three-factor model (*CFI* = .91, *TLI* = .90, *RMSEA* = .07) yielded a

better fit than the single-factor model (*CFI* = .62, *TLI* = .55, *RMSEA* = .15). The χ^2

change was 402.3 (Δdf = 3, *p* < .001).

Descriptive statistics

The means, standard deviations, and zero-order Pearson correlations of all key variables are presented in Table 5 on the next page.

Tests of Hypotheses

Following the steps suggested by Muller et al. (2005), hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to test the hypotheses and the mediated moderation model. As shown in Table 6 (Model 1), the interactive effect of negative feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$), and the interactive effect of negative feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed impression management motives ($\beta = -.21$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$) were significant on the work performance of subordinates. The results fulfill the first requirement of mediated moderation.

Next, negative feedback-seeking behavior was positively related to LMX ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$) (Table 7, Model 2), thus meeting the second requirement of mediation moderation and lending support to Hypothesis 1.

TABLE 5
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities of Measures for Study 2

Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Supervisor's gender[a]	.71	.45	---													
2. Subordinate's gender[a]	.59	.49	.22***	---												
3. Supervisor's education level[b]	.26	.44	.02	.23***	---											
4. Subordinate's education level[b]	.13	.33	.10	.19**	.32***	---										
5. Supervisor's age	29.16	8.24	.28***	.18**	-.02	.13*	---									
6. Subordinate's age	29.18	9.31	-.05	-.06	-.18**	-.09	.27***	---								
7. Supervisor's tenure (in year)	6.40	7.62	.16	.05	-.23***	-.03	.67***	.25***	---							
8. Subordinate's tenure (in year)	4.03	5.50	-.08	-.18**	-.14*	-.13*	.09	.50***	.18**	---						
9. Dyadic tenure (in year)	1.47	2.37	.01	-.02	-.13*	-.11	.07	.23***	.25***	.34***	---					
10. Demographic similarity	8.63	1.72	.03	.07	-.28***	-.05	-.06	-.20**	-.07	-.06	.08	---				
11. Negative feedback-seeking behavior	3.19	.89	-.02	-.08	-.03	-.02	.10	.11	.10	.06	.01	-.05	(.82)			
12. Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives	5.10	.81	.04	-.05	-.07	-.02	.11	.08	.17**	.04	.07	.00	.27***	(.82)		
13. Supervisor-attributed impression management motives	4.01	1.07	.06	.01	-.10	-.07	.25***	.27***	.25***	.08	.03	-.10	.13*	.45***	(.81)	
14. LMX	3.50	.49	.05	.05	-.04	.05	.21***	.01	.16*	.20***	.07	.14*	.15*	.10	-.04	(.81)
15. Subordinates' objective performance	3.50	.84	.10	-.02	-.02	.00	.15*	.08	.03	.10	.05	.05	.16*	.16*	-.01	.54***

n = 240 supervisor-subordinate dyads

[a] Gender: Female = 0; Male = 1.

[b] Education level: Below college = 0; College or above = 1.

[c] Z scores of subordinates' objective performance.

  *$p < .05$

 **$p < .01$

***$p < .001$

TABLE 6
Regression Results for the Mediated Moderation Model for Study 2 a

	Model 1 Performance		Model 2 LMX		Model 3 Performance	
	β	t	β	t	β	t
Control Variables						
Supervisors' gender	.04	.64	-.03	-.50	.07	1.15
Subordinates' gender	-.01	-.15	.07	1.05	-.04	-.70
Supervisors' education	-.04	-.54	-.06	-.78	-.01	-.11
Subordinates' education	.00	-.05	.07	.97	-.04	-.67
Supervisors' age	.28	2.87**	.25	2.67**	.14	1.62
Subordinates' age	.04	.46	-.16	-2.02*	.11	1.51
Supervisors' tenure	-.18	-1.89	.00	-.04	-.15	-1.83
Subordinates' tenure	.10	1.25	.31	4.10***	-.05	-.75
Dyadic tenure	.01	.10	-.03	-.45	.01	.09
Demographic similarity	.08	1.05	.12	1.79	.00	.01
Independent Variable						
Negative feedback-seeking behavior	.14	2.06*	.14	2.12*	.06	1.04
ΔR^2	*.02**		*.02**		*.01*	
Moderator Variables						
Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives	.16	2.11*	.09	1.19	.11	1.73
Supervisor-attributed impression management motives	-.12	-1.52	-.09	-1.28	-.08	-1.15
ΔR^2	*.01*		*.01*		*.01*	
Interactive Effects						
Negative feedback-seeking behavior ×						
Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives	.17	2.10*	.18	2.33*	.09	1.16
Negative feedback-seeking behavior ×						
Supervisor-attributed impression management motives	-.21	-2.62**	-.18	-2.31*	-.10	-1.40
ΔR^2	*.03**		*.03**		*.01*	
Mediator Variable						
LMX					.52	8.48***
ΔR^2					*.22****	
Interactive Effects						
LMX ×						
Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives					-.02	-.27
LMX ×						
Supervisor-attributed impression management motives					-.09	-1.40
ΔR^2					*.00*	

a Only the coefficients of final steps are shown in this table.
n = 240 supervisor-subordinate dyads.
  * $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

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In addition, I found that the interaction of negative feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$), and the interaction of negative feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed impression management motives ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$) were significant on LMX (Table 6, Model 2). The interactive effects are plotted in Figure 4. In support of Hypothesis 2a, simple slope analyses show that negative feedback-seeking behavior was more positively and significantly related to LMX when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being driven by strong task-enhancement motives (simple slope test: $\beta = .19$, $p < .05$) than when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being driven by weak task-enhancement motives (simple slope test: $\beta = .02$, $n.s.$). In addition, we found that the negative feedback-seeking behavior was more positively related to LMX when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being driven by weak impression management motives (simple slope test: $\beta = .24$, $p < .01$) than when supervisors interpreted the behavior as being driven by strong supervisor-attributed impression management motives (simple slope test: $\beta = .07$, $n.s.$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2b was also supported.

Next, Model 3 of Table 6 reveals a significant effect of LMX on work performance ($\beta = .52$, $p < .001$, $\Delta R^2 = .22$), thus meeting the third requirement for mediated moderation, while the interactions of negative feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives ($\beta = .09$, $p < n.s.$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$) and supervisor-attributed impression management motives ($\beta = -.10$, $p < n.s.$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$)

become no longer significant, meeting the fourth requirement for mediated

moderation.

The plots in Figure 4 show that negative feedback-seeking behavior was more

positively and significantly related to work performance when supervisors

interpreted the negative feedback-seeking behavior as being driven by strong task-

enhancement motives (simple slope test: $\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) than when they believed

the behavior was driven by weak task-enhancement motives (simple slope test: β

$= .04$, *n.s.*). Additionally, we found that negative feedback-seeking behavior was

more positively related to work performance when supervisors interpreted the

behavior as being driven by weak impression management motives (simple slope

test: $\beta = .31$, $p < .01$) than when they believed the behavior was driven by strong

impression management motives (simple slope test: $\beta = .05$, *n.s.*). These results

suggest that LMX completely mediated the interaction effects on subordinates'

objective performance. Therefore, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported.

As in Study 1, I also examined the possible three-way interaction of feedback-

seeking behavior, supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives, and supervisor-

attributed impression management motives on LMX and work performance. Again,

I found no significant effect.

FIGURE 4
Supervisor-Attributed Motives as Moderators of Subordinates' Negative Feedback-Seeking Behavior and LMX and Objective Performance for Study 2
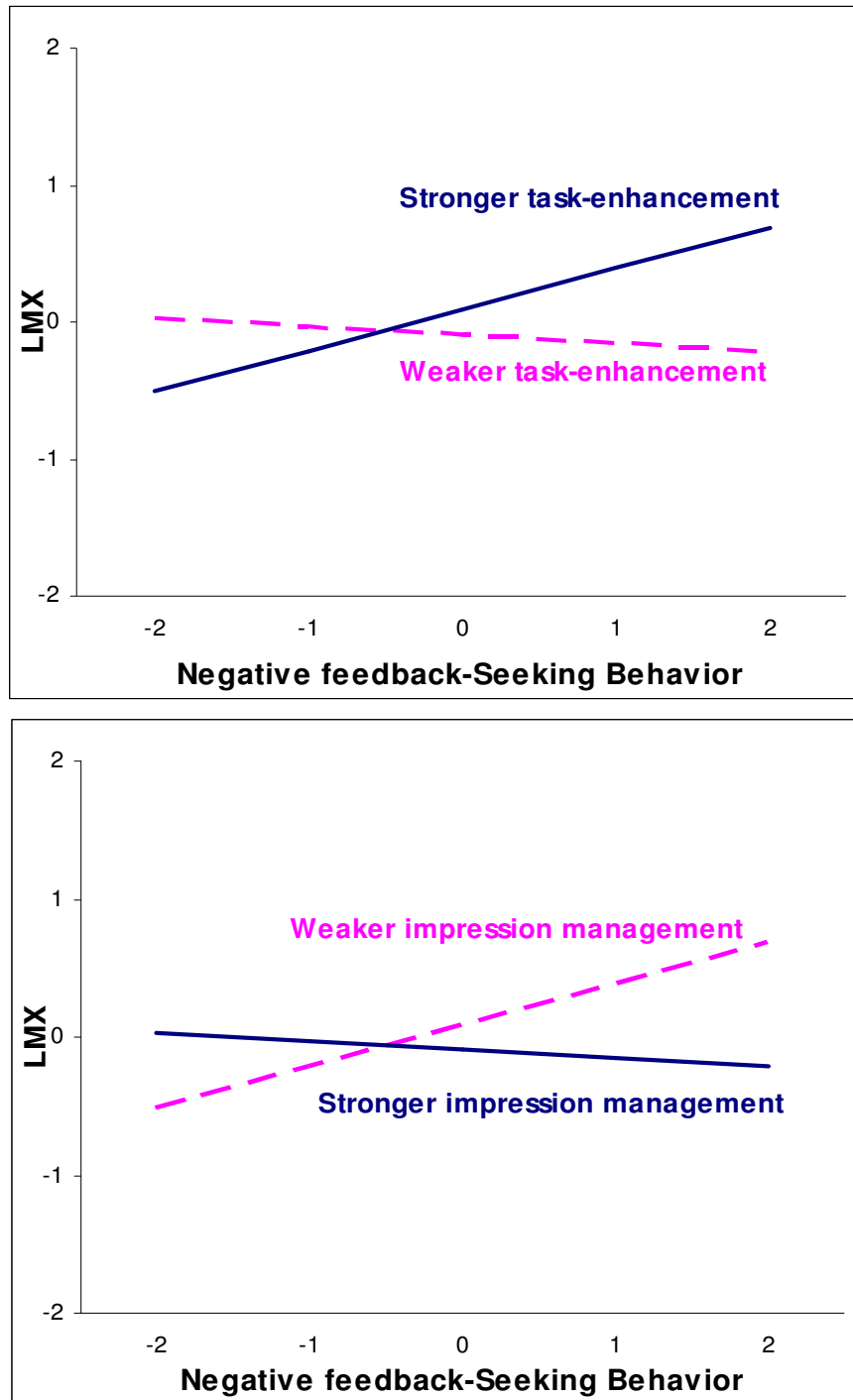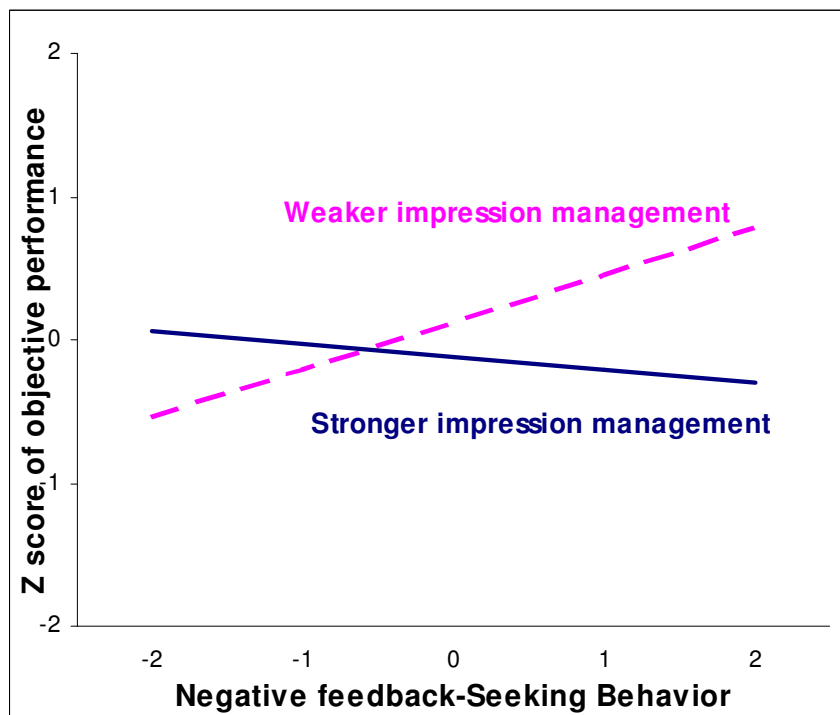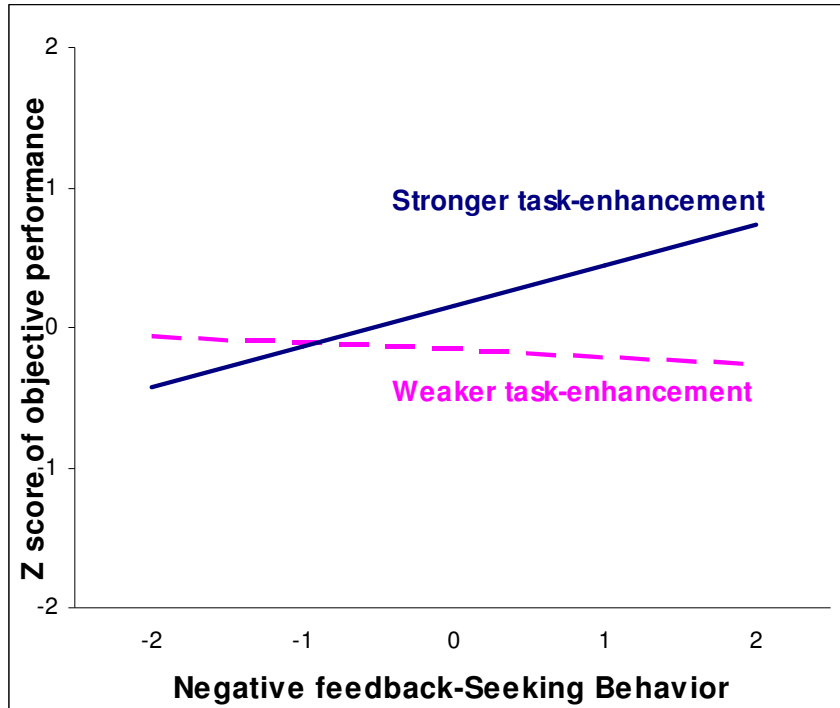
Study 3 Results

Preliminary Analyses

Confirmatory factor analyses

Before testing the hypotheses, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to further
examine whether the respondents could conceptually differentiate supervisor-
attributed task-enhancement motives from supervisor-attributed impression
management motives. Results of the multiple indicators of the model fit showed that
the two-factor model (*CFI* = .93, *TLI* = .91, *RMSEA* = .09) yielded a better fit than
the single-factor model (*CFI* = .71, *TLI* = .59, *RMSEA* = .22), with a χ^2 change of
546.5 (Δdf = 1, p < .001). In order to statistically discriminate the four key variables
(feedback-seeking behavior, perceived work performance, supervisor-attributed
task-enhancement motives, and supervisor-attributed impression management
motives) rated by supervisors at Time 1, I conducted another set of confirmatory
factor analysis. The results showed that the four-factor model (*CFI* = .94, *TLI* = .94,
RMSEA = .06) yielded a better fit than the single-factor model (*CFI* = .24, *TLI* = .15,
RMSEA = .22), with a χ^2 change of 2124.48 (Δdf = 6, p < .001).

Descriptive statistics

The means, standard deviations, and zero-order Pearson correlations of all variables are presented in Table 7 on the next page.

Tests of Hypotheses

Again, following the steps suggested by Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt (2005), feedback-seeking behavior at time 2 was found to be positively related to LMX at time 2 ($\beta = .11$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$) (Table 8, Model 1). Hypothesis 1 was thus supported.

Next, the interactive effect of feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives ($\beta = .15$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$), and the interactive effect of feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed impression management motives ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$) were significant on LMX (Table 8, Model 1). Plots of the interactive effects are shown in Figure 5. To determine whether the forms of the interactions matched those suggested by Hypotheses 2a and 2b, I tested the simple slopes of strong supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives and weak task-enhancement motives. In support of Hypothesis 2a, I found that feedback-seeking behavior was more positively related to LMX when supervisors attributed

TABLE 7
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities of Measures for Study 3

Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Supervisor's gender	.90	.30	---															
2. Subordinate's gender	.87	.34	.27***	---														
3. Supervisor's education	.33	.47	.11*	-.18**	---													
4. Subordinate's education	.19	.40	.08	-.09	.54***	---												
5. Supervisor's age	41.42	9.62	-.20***	-.02	-.11*	-.05	---											
6. Subordinate's age	38.46	13.08	-.14*	-.04	.21***	-.17**	.28***	---										
7. Supervisor's tenure	21.18	9.87	-.22***	.03	-.20***	-.10	.89***	.21***	---									
8. Subordinate's tenure	15.25	13.03	-.08	-.07	.16**	-.21***	.27***	.86***	.23***	---								
9. Dyadic tenure	4.61	6.48	-.27***	-.09	-.09	-.19***	.31***	.38***	.31***	.43***	---							
10. Demographic similarity	4.91	1.78	.12*	.38***	-.34***	-.03	.01	-.06	.05	-.04	.10	---						
11. Perceived work performance (Time 1)	4.72	1.26	-.11*	-.15**	.10	-.06	.08	.19***	.04	.18**	.11*	-.11*	(.94)					
12. Feedback-seeking behavior (Time 2)	3.01	1.03	.17**	-.05	-.08	-.06	.09	-.13*	.04	-.06	-.10	-.04	.01	(.88)				
13. Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives (Time 2)	5.23	.79	-.13*	-.02	-.11*	-.08	.02	-.13*	.07	-.12*	.07	.01	.20***	-.01	(.85)			
14. Supervisor-attributed impression management motives (Time 2)	4.52	.87	.11*	.06	-.04	.14*	-.12*	-.22***	-.13*	-.19***	-.27***	.16**	-.18**	.13*	.13*	(.87)		
15. Leader-member exchange (Time 1)	3.23	.70	.04	-.04	.17**	.11*	.12*	-.05	.14*	-.09	.01	-.03	.13*	.21***	.06	.06	(.84)	
16. Leader-member exchange (Time 2)	3.15	.71	.20***	-.06	.14*	-.01	.09	.06	.06	.08	-.01	-.05	.23***	.15**	.06	-.06	.26***	(.87)

n = 300 supervisor-subordinate dyads.

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

the behavior as being driven by strong task-enhancement motives (simple slope test:

$\beta = .25, p < .01$) than when supervisors attributed the behavior as being driven by

weak task-enhancement motives (simple slope test: $\beta = -.02$, *n.s.*).

Further, in support of Hypothesis 2b, I found that feedback-seeking behavior was

positively related to LMX when supervisors attributed the behavior as being driven

by weak impression management motives (simple slope test: $\beta = .15, p < .05$) than

when supervisors attributed the behavior as being driven by strong impression

management motives (simple slope test: $\beta = -.09$, *n.s.*). The results further confirmed

Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

Then, Table 8 (Model 2) shows that perceived work performance measured at time 1

was positively related to supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives measured

at time 2 ($\beta = .25, p < .001, \Delta R^2 = .05$) while supervisor-attributed impression

management motives measured at time 2 was controlled for. In contrast, as shown in

Table 8 (Model 3), perceived work performance at time 1 was negatively related to

supervisor-attributed impression management motives at time 2 ($\beta = -.16, p < .01$,

$\Delta R^2 = .04$) while supervisor-attribute task-enhancement motives at time 2 was

controlled for. Therefore, Hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported.

TABLE 8
Summary of Regression Results of the Longitudinal Study for Study 3 a

| | Model 1 | | Model 2 | | Model 3 | |
| | LMX (Time 2) | | Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives (Time 2) | | Supervisor-attributed impression management motives (Time 2) | |
	β	t	β	t	β	t
Control Variables						
Supervisors' gender	.21	3.51***	-.10	-1.58	.02	.26
Subordinates' gender	-.08	-1.24	.02	.36	-.04	-.66
Supervisors' education	.11	1.31	.00	-.02	-.06	-.82
Subordinates' education	-.07	-.10	-.08	-1.14	.13	1.75
Supervisors' age	.10	.77	-.19	-1.52	.14	1.15
Subordinates' age	-.02	-.22	-.14	-1.26	-.13	-1.13
Supervisors' tenure	-.01	-.11	.24	1.87	-.19	-1.55
Subordinates' tenure	.06	.56	-.09	-.77	.12	1.11
Dyadic tenure	-.04	-.67	.13	1.94*	-.25	-3.88***
Demographic similarity	.03	.49	-.03	-.42	.17	2.61**
LMX (Time 1)	.21	3.58***				
Independent Variable						
Feedback-seeking behavior (Time 2)	.11	1.94*				
ΔR^{2}	*.02**					
Moderator Variables						
Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives (Time 2)	.08	1.50			.19	3.27***
Supervisor-attributed impression management motives (Time 2)	-.11	-1.92	.19	3.27***		
ΔR^{2}	*.00*		*.02**		*.02**	
Interactive Effects						
Feedback-seeking behavior (Time 2) ×						
Supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives (Time 2)	.15	2.76**				
Feedback-seeking behavior × (Time 2)						
Supervisor-attributed impression management motives (Time 2)	-.12	-2.10*				
ΔR^{2}	*.02**					
Independent Variable						
Perceived work performance (Time 1)			.25	4.44***	-.16	-2.73**
ΔR^{2}			*.05****		*.04****	

a Only the coefficients of final steps are shown in this table.

n = 300 supervisor-subordinate dyads.

  * p < .05

 ** p < .01

*** p < .001

FIGURE 5
Supervisor-Attributed Motives as Moderators of Subordinates' Feedback-Seeking Behavior and LMX for Study 3
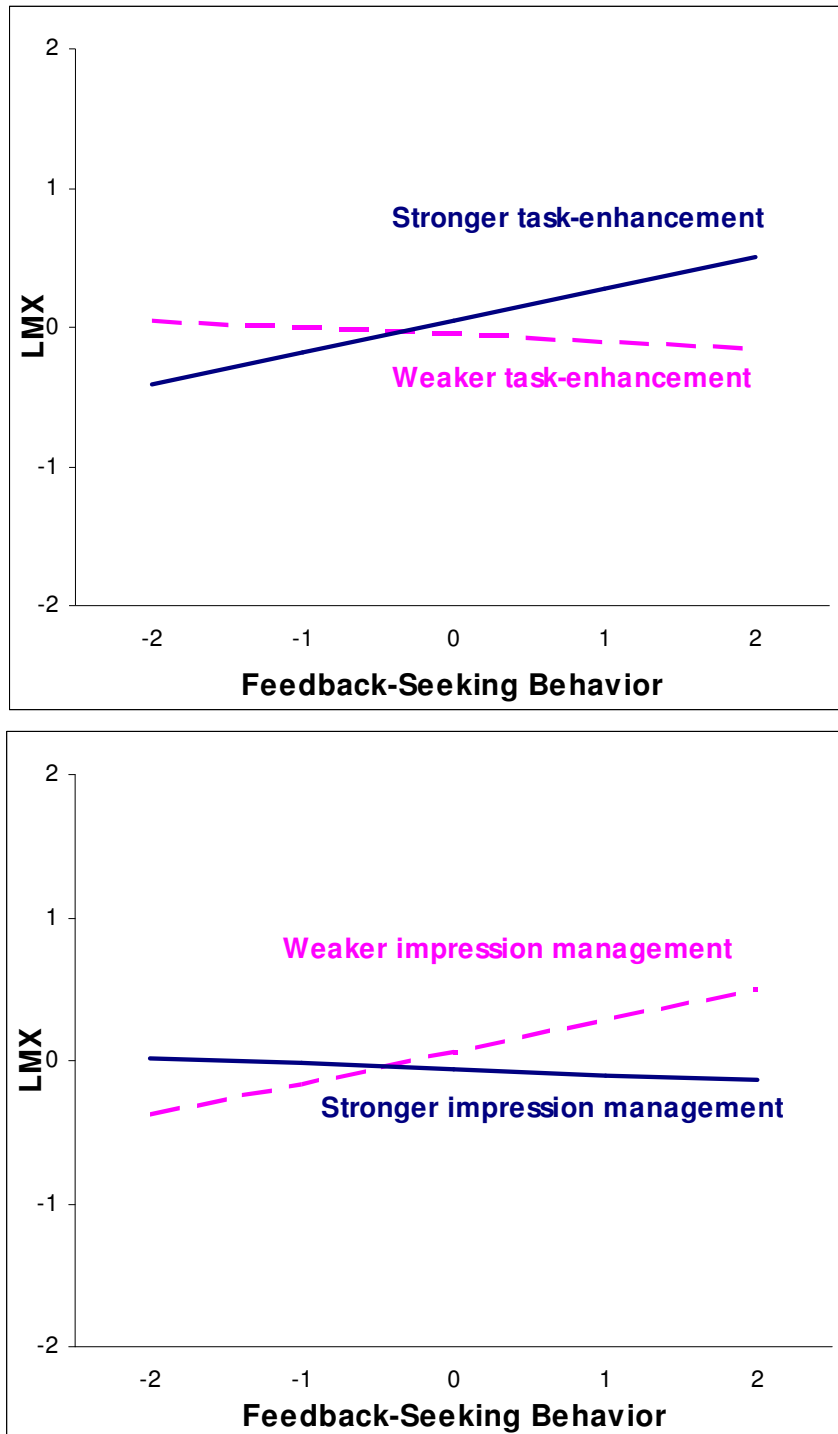
Conclusion

In conclusion, all the hypotheses were supported. In Study 1, using a sample of 209 supervisor-subordinate dyads from a telecommunication company in mainland China, I found that subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior was positively related to the quality of LMX (Hypothesis 1). Furthermore, I found that the positive association between feedback-seeking behavior and the quality of LMX was stronger when supervisors attributed the behavior as being driven by strong task-enhancement motives than weak task-enhancement motives (Hypothesis 2a), or when supervisors attributed the behavior as being driven by weak impression management motives than strong impression management motives (Hypothesis 2b).

In Study 2, using a sample of 240 supervisor-subordinate dyads collected from two manufacturing firms in mainland China, I found that subordinates' negative feedback-seeking behavior was positively related to the quality of LMX (Hypothesis 1). Further, the positive relationship between negative feedback-seeking behavior and LMX was stronger when supervisors attributed the behavior to strong task-enhancement motives or to weak impression management motives (Hypotheses 2a and 2b). In addition, I found that LMX mediated the interactive effects of subordinates' negative feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives on subordinates' work performance (Hypothesis 3a), and LMX mediates the interactive effects of feedback-seeking behavior and supervisor-attributed impression management motives on work performance (Hypothesis 3b).

In study 3, using a set of longitudinal data (3-months interval) of 300 supervisor-subordinate dyads collected from a manufacturing firm in mainland China, I further confirmed Hypothesis 1 that subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior was positively related to LMX. In addition, I further confirmed that supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives were positively moderated (Hypothesis 2a) while supervisor-attributed impression management motives were negatively moderated (Hypothesis 2b) the relationship between feedback-seeking behavior and LMX. Additionally in this study, I found that supervisors' perceived work performance of subordinates at time 1 was positively related to supervisor-attributed task-enhancement motives at time 2 (Hypothesis 4a) and it was negatively related to supervisor-attributed impression management motives at time 2 (Hypothesis 4b).

In the next chapter, I will discuss about the results, theoretical implications, managerial implications, and limitations of the two studies, and some future research directions.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I begin by summarizing the main findings, referring back to the purposes of the research. Then, I present the theoretical and managerial implications of the findings. Discussion on the possible limitations of the research follows. Finally, possible directions for future research are suggested.

Leaders exist throughout the organization, not just in the executive suites and air-conditioned offices. Because of the importance of leadership, large amounts of money and resources are spent on leadership training each year. Most researchers have focused mainly on how leaders use power and control to motivate subordinates, and arrange the work environment so that employees can do their jobs effectively and achieve organizational goals. However, as the introduction of this thesis emphasized, perceptions on effective leadership are continually shifting toward other aspects. Subordinates increasingly expect leaders to show support, respect, and empowerment. Theories on leadership are also changing from seeing subordinates as a homogenous entity that is a passive recipient of all leadership efforts (Bhal & Ansari, 2000) to recognizing individuality of each subordinate (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Schiemann, 1978). Therefore, more recent research on leadership explores the interaction between a leader and a member (leader-member exchange, LMX).

Existing research provides quite a thorough coverage of LMX effects on various

favorable outcomes such as job satisfaction (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a; Stepina

et al., 1991), organizational commitment (Duchon et al., 1986; Nystrom, 1990),

supervisory ratings of job performance (Graen et al., 1982b; Judge & Ferris, 1993),

autonomy (Scandura et al., 1986), and career progress (Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984;

Wakabayashi, Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1990). However, it is remarkable how few

studies have examined the exchange processes between a leader and a member given

the theoretical centrality of social exchange processes in the formation of LMX

relationships (Liden et al., 1997). Particularly, prior to the current research, it was

not known if subordinates take initiatives by behaving proactively, for example,

subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior is beneficial to the establishment of a high-

quality LMX. In addition, the fact about the differentiated unit is taken. It is true that

leaders differentiate among the subordinates by seeing their behaviors. There have

been a few attempts to investigate how supervisors interpret subordinates' behavior

as determinants of the quality of LMX (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson et al.,

2002). However, there has been no attempt to examine supervisors' attributions of

subordinates' motives for subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior on the quality of

LMX. Furthermore, how leaders attribute subordinates' motives for the behavior has

also been largely ignored. To fill the voids mentioned above, I propose in this thesis

that (1) subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior may facilitate the establishment of

a high-quality LMX, because it helps clarify expectations (Morrison, 1993; Wanberg

& Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) and create a good impression (Ashford & Tsui, 1991;

Edwards, 1995). According to the attribution theory, I further propose that (2)

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supervisors' attributions of their subordinates' motives for the feedback-seeking behavior influence the relationship between feedback-seeking behavior and LMX. Based on the effect of categorization, I further propose that (3) supervisors' perceived performance of subordinates affects supervisors' attributions of subordinates' motives for the feedback-seeking behavior. The findings are presented below.

Main Findings of the Thesis

This research consisted of three studies. In Study 1, it was found that subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior was more strongly positively related to a high-quality leader-member relationship (LMX) when supervisors interpreted the feedback-seeking behavior as being driven more by task-enhancement motives and less by impression management motives. This result was further confirmed in Study 2. By using the construct of negative feedback-seeking behavior it was further found that LMX mediated the relationship between negative feedback-seeking behavior and subordinates' objective work performance. In addition, negative feedback-seeking behavior was more strongly positively related to subordinates' work performance when the behavior was attributed as stronger task-enhancement motives or weaker impression management motives by supervisors. The findings of these two studies suggest that supervisors do not have a simple appreciation of the explicitly proactive behaviors of their subordinates. Rather, it appears that they place great emphasis on

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the underlying motivations for these behaviors. Thus, the results evidently extend the feedback-seeking behavior literature by demonstrating the importance of supervisors' attributions of subordinates' motives for feedback-seeking behavior. In addition, the findings advance our understanding of how subordinates initiate the process by seeking feedback from supervisors. Meanwhile, the three-way interactions were not found to be significant. The results of factor analyses show that the two attributed motives are distinct constructs, and it appears that they independently and additively affect the relationship between feedback-seeking behavior and LMX.

Apart from confirming the results found in Study 1, in Study 3 (a longitudinal research design), I further found that supervisors attribute good performers' feedback-seeking behavior as being driven more by task-enhancement motives or less by impression management motives. In contrast, they attribute poor performers' feedback-seeking behavior as being driven more by impression management motives or more by task-enhancement motives. These results fill the research gap by capturing how and why supervisors' perceptions of subordinates' performance influence their attributions of motives for subordinates' behavior, which in turn may affect the quality of LMX.

Theoretical Implications

This thesis has five major theoretical implications. First, past findings in the LMX literature suggest that impression management, particularly ingratiation, is positively associated with LMX (e.g., Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Liden, 1995). However, supervisors' assessments of subordinates' motives have not previously been considered in LMX research. This research suggests, regardless of the real motive of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior, that supervisors' attribution of the motives plays a vital role. The cases where supervisors attribute behavior as impression management are not associated with a high-quality LMX. This suggests that such attributions are worthy of attention, in helping to understand the effects of subordinates' behavior on the quality of supervisor-subordinate relationships and, ultimately, on performance.

Second, the findings suggest a possible extension of social exchange theory. This theory explains the motivational basis behind social interactions, and suggests that when a person provides something of value to another, the receiver may feel obligated to reciprocate the act (Blau, 1964; Settoon et al., 1996). However, the process of reciprocity is more complicated than this. The findings suggest that a constructive social exchange will occur only when the supervisor values the subordinate's offer and interprets the underlying motives in a favorable light. Day and Crain (1992) demonstrated that supervisors tend to value work-related inputs and outcomes from subordinates, such as knowledge, skills, ability to do the job,

task quality, and job productivity. Consistent with this, I found that supervisors are more likely to reciprocate by building a high-quality relationship when they see subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior as aimed at improving task performance, rather than as an effort to manage impressions.

Third, this research also has implications for how a high-quality LMX might be established. Although researchers have suggested that while either supervisors or subordinates may initiate the process of developing high-quality LMX (Liden et al., 1997), previous studies focused primarily on how "managers should provide all employees access to the process of LMX by making initial offers to develop LMX partnerships to each subordinate" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995: 229). Little attention has been directed toward understanding whether subordinates may take the initiative to develop a high-quality LMX and, if so, how they might do so. This research implies that subordinates may initiate constructive LMX processes by proactively seeking performance-related feedback from supervisors, but the effect of this critically depends on how supervisors interpret their motives.

Fourth, the results also confirm the impression effect by highlighting why impressions are important in dyadic relationships. Impressions contain our general knowledge about any person, behavior, object, and event. We have many kinds of impressions stored in our memory, including social impressions, which contain our knowledge of particular persons and their behaviors. Because our overall impressions strongly influence how we recall and interpret others' subsequent

behaviors, our impressions can also be thought of as general expectations or preconceptions about other people. When we interpret new information, we are likely to recall impressions that are related to this information rather than impressions that are unrelated to it. Psychologists who study the way people form impressions of other people have shown that people's one way of making sense of others' behaviors is by making attributions about the causes of the behaviors. The results show that we have an implicit mechanism that automatically recalls and interprets the motives for others' behaviors. Although we may not generally be aware of this implicit mechanism, it functions perpetually to affect our attributions for others' behaviors and motives.

Fifth, this research opens a new avenue for LMX research by adopting a cognitive perspective which allows us to understand how perceived work performance affects the interpretations of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior to task-enhancement or impression management motives. Previous LMX research suggested that work performance was not an important determinant of exchange quality. However, the authors did not take the effect of cognitive information processing into account. The results shows that perception of subordinates' work performance plays a critical role in the process of supervisors' attributions of subordinates' motives for feedback-seeking behavior. More specifically, supervisors tend to attribute good performers' motives for feedback-seeking behavior as being driven by task-enhancement motives while they attribute poor performers' motives for behaviors being driven by impression management motives. We note that the results strengthen the notion of

implicit performance, depicting the cognitive and information processing of supervisors' perception of subordinates' performance. This process involves categorization based on the prototypes of a good or poor subordinate in supervisors' minds as pieces of knowledge structures. Subordinates who match the attributes represented in supervisors' knowledge structures are categorized as good subordinates, and their behavior increases the probability of receiving greater supports, higher level of mutual trust, and more career investment from the supervisors.

Managerial Implications

This thesis has four main practical implications. The first practical implication is that proactive work behavior in general and feedback-seeking behavior in particular may not be necessarily associated with a high-quality of LMX. The findings show that such behaviors are positively related to social exchanges between supervisors and subordinates only when the supervisors believe that the feedback-seeking behavior is intended to improve performance rather than to enhance impression. The results help subordinates understand the fact that supervisors tend to prefer more work-related efforts (Day & Crain, 1992) and generally dislike impression management motives (Ashford & Tsui, 1991).

Second, it is critically important that supervisors have the abilities and skills to accurately interpret the underlying motives of subordinates' proactive behavior. It is known that supervisors' evaluations of their subordinates are likely to be influenced by perceptional bias, stereotypes, and misunderstandings (Spector & Jex, 1991). If a supervisor mistakenly attributes the feedback-seeking behavior of a subordinate who genuinely wants to enhance work performance, to impression management motives and subsequently the supervisor does not engage in constructive exchange with the subordinate, that subordinate is likely to be discouraged from exhibiting the positive behavior in the future. While effective leadership-development programs should encourage supervisors to be open to subordinates' proactive behaviors in general, they should also develop both supervisors' and subordinates' communication skills to facilitate mutual understanding.

Third, research has consistently shown that organizations can ill afford to allow low quality LMX in their workforces. However, a LMX-based intervention may help to prevent this situation. With this information in mind, it is interesting to consider another possible practical implication for the present research. It is suggested that both supervisors and subordinates are encouraged to openly communicate with each other. By understanding more about the aspirations, needs, and expectations of the other, a closer dyadic relationship is likely to be established.

Fourth, this research contributes to the understanding of self-fulfilling prophecies to both leaders and subordinates. Our social beliefs and judgment do matter because

they have powerful effects. They influence how we feel and behave, and by so doing, may generate our own reality. It is due to the fact that when we form impressions of others, we tend to act in ways that perpetuate those impressions. Performance expectations on subordinates can lead to self-fulfilling prophecies of the supervisors, which depict beliefs that lead to supervisors' own fulfillment. Because self-fulfilling prophecies may help or harm a dyadic relationship, clarification of the mechanism of cognitive information processing underlying LMX may help to minimize the occurrence of detrimental self-fulfilling prophecies in exchange relationships. However, as the self-fulfilling prophecy is one of the possible outcomes of our day-to-day social interactions and the potential for self-fulfillment is often unknown among individuals, it is particularly important to help both supervisors and subordinates find ways, for example provide trainings, to facilitate their dyadic relationships by sharing understandings, role expectations, and mutual trust.

Limitations

Like any study, this one is not without limitations. First, because the data were collected only in China, one may question whether our findings and theory can be generalized to other cultural settings. Some researchers have shown that feedback-seeking behavior may vary across cultures (Morrison, Chen, & Salgado, 2004; Sully de Luque & Sommer, 2000). For example, Morrison et al. (2004) found that employees within low-individualism and high power distance societies, such as in

the Chinese context, may be less likely to seek feedback from their supervisors. In particular, this might have caused some bias in the results of this thesis, thus, it is possible that different results may be found in other national cultures.

Second, instead of asking for performance feedback directly (inquiring) from supervisors, employees can also infer feedback based on observations in the work environment (monitoring) (Ashford, 1986; Ashford et al., 2003; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Inquiry involves an explicit verbal request for feedback. For example, a subordinate may ask his or her supervisor "What do you think of my proposal?" Monitoring, however, is an indirect method of attaining feedback. It involves observing others', particularly supervisors' behavior that provides indications of how well one is doing. For example, a subordinate may see that his or her supervisor stares at him or her during the whole afternoon. From this observation, the subordinate may know that his or her presentation was poorly done. In this research, I only examined subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior in the form of verbal requests (inquiring). Facial expression, observations, or other forms of feedback-seeking behavior were not included in this research because of the difficulty of measuring these behaviors. Therefore, future studies should develop measures to further investigate different forms of feedback-seeking behavior of subordinates rated by supervisors and/or peers.

Related to the second limitation, I addressed the frequency of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior and limited its target to immediate supervisors only.

Other patterns of feedback-seeking behavior such as the timing of the feedback-seeking attempt (e.g., whether immediately following performance or after a delay) and targets' mood were not examined in this research.

Fourth, in Study 2, subordinates' objective work performance was measured only on how many pieces of output (quantities) that a subordinate produced. The measurement had ignored the issue about quality of work performance. Future study may also consider the facet of output quality as a part of work performance measure.

Strengths

There were several strengths in the methodological issue of the research designs. First, all the three studies in this research were using dyadic data (supervisor-subordinate dyads). The literature (e.g., Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & Yammarino, 2001) suggests that dyadic relationships should be considered in analyzing LMX research. Otherwise, it would lead to inflated effect sizes and spurious findings. Second, different work contexts were used for data collection; they were telecommunication services organization, vehicle component manufacturing firms, and gear manufacturing company for Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3 respectively. The research designs allowed us to extend the generalizability of the findings. Third, to guarantee the quality of the data collected, I visited the companies to supervise

and facilitate the processes of data collection in person. Detailed procedures of data collection were presented above.

Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of the present study suggest several issues for future research. First, future research may incorporate the causality of feedback-seeking behavior and leader-member exchange to form a notion of feedback loop. The theoretical model of this research can be further extended by using a longitudinal research design, not only to remedy causality as discussed above, but also to examine a feedback loop model. Overall, the findings suggest that feedback-seeking behavior is positively related to the quality of LMX and work performance. I propose that a feedback loop may exist, because LMX may also be positively related to feedback-seeking behavior (Vancouver & Morrison, 1995; Williams, Miller, Steelman, & Levy, 1999), which, in turn, may be conducive to higher work performance. Higher work performance may further encourage more feedback-seeking behavior so as to obtain more information on how to further improve performance and/or impress a supervisor. Likewise, it is important to understand how such a feedback loop is maintained and facilitated.

Second, Janssen and Van Yperen (2004) found that LMX mediated the positive relationship between subordinates' mastery orientation and their in-role work

performance. The authors explained that because subordinates with high mastery orientations strive to develop their competence, skills, and abilities, they tend to actively engage in frequent social exchanges with their supervisors in order to discuss and learn how to perform better at work. Following this line of reasoning, the mastery goal orientation of a subordinate may be a driving force for feedback-seeking behavior, and/or the ways in which supervisors attribute the motives for the behavior. Indeed, this is an interesting area for future research.

The third possible way to extend our model is to address the role of knowledge attributes. For example, research has suggested that a higher degree of acquired knowledge requires richer information processing mechanisms such as high task interdependency, frequent feedback exchanges within teams, and cross-functional project teams.

Fourth, future research may also address the true motivations of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior, and investigate how such true motivations measure up with supervisor-attributed motives of feedback-seeking behavior that affect outcomes like the quality of LMX, individual and team performance, and commitment to organization.

Fifth, since our theory was tested using feedback-seeking behavior only, generalizing the present findings to other proactive behaviors may be difficult. Future research may attempt to theorize and test to what extent other subordinate

behaviors, such as voice (Hunton, Hall, & Price, 1998; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003), issue selling (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998), innovative behavior, taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), proactive career management (Tharenou & Terry, 1998), and proactive stress coping (Crant, 2000), may also contribute to the development of LMX and increased work performance.

In spite of these limitations, the findings of this research provide new insights into LMX development by considering the effects of subordinates' feedback-seeking behavior, supervisors' attributions of the motives of feedback-seeking behavior, their interactive effects on LMX as well as on the work performance of subordinates, and how supervisors' perceived work performance of subordinates influences their attributions of subordinates' motives for feedback-seeking behavior. Studying the mechanism of cognitive information processes offers insights for both researchers and practitioners. We acknowledge that the human mind is the most critical organ that operates our cognitive information process governing our perceptions, behaviors, and attributions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Items Used in the Questionnaire Surveys

General Feedback-Seeking Behavior

How frequently the subordinate asked feedback from you [the supervisor]

regarding ……

1. his or her overall work performance;

2. his or her technical performance on the job;

3. his or her role fulfillment;

4. his or her social behaviors;

5. whether his or her values and attitudes were appropriate for the firm.

(1 = never; 7 = always)

Negative Feedback-Seeking Behavior

How frequently the subordinate asked feedback from you [the supervisor] regarding

the inadequacies in ……

1. his or her overall work performance;

2. his or her technical performance on the job;

3. his or her role fulfillment;

4. his or her social behaviors;

5. his or her values and attitudes appropriate for the firm.

(1 = never; 7 = always)

Supervisor-Attributed Task-Enhancement Motives

1. Desire to discover what his or her [the subordinate] responsibilities are;

2. Desire to discover exactly what is expected of him or her;

3. Desire to negotiate my [the supervisor's] demands placed on him or her;

4. Desire to negotiate his or her task assignment;

5. Desire to negotiate my expectations of him or her.

(1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree)

Supervisor-Attributed Impression Management Motives

1. Desire to enhance his or her [the subordinate] image (e.g., to make me [the supervisor] believe that he or she is a helpful employee;

2. Desire to build up favors for a later exchange;

3. Desire to 'show-off' his or her expertise;

4. Desire to capture my attention on him or her;

5. Desire to obtain recognition or other organizational rewards;

6. Desire to create a good impression.

(1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree)

Leader-Member Exchange

1. Do you know where you stand with your supervisor ... do you usually know how satisfied your supervisor is with what you do?

   Rarely   Occasionally   Sometimes   Fairly often   Very often

2. How well does your supervisor understand your job problems and needs?

   Not a bit   A little   A fair amount   Quite a bit   A great deal

3. How well does your supervisor recognize your potential?

   Not at all   A little   Moderately   Mostly   Fully

4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your supervisor would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?

   None   Small   Moderate   High   Very high

5. Regardless of the amount of formal authority your supervisor has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?

None   Small   Moderate   High   Very high

6. I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she was not present to do so?

Strongly disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly agree

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor?

Extremely ineffective   Worse than average   Average   Better than average Extremely effective

Perceived Work Performance

1. How do you [the supervisor] think of the subordinate…does his or her work performance meet the standards?

2. In comparison to others of the same rank, how do you think of his or her work performance?

3. In comparison to others in the work unit, how do you think of his or her contribution to the effectiveness of the unit?

(1 = very unsatisfactory; 7 = excellent)

组织行为调查问卷

您好！首先，衷心感谢各位参与此项研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计的，旨在研究组织行为，**所有资料只作科学研究，**调查资料将会保密，**研究结果只展现群体状态，不涉及任何个人信息。**

研究结果的可信赖度取决于阁下对问题的认真和客观地回答，请您填写此问卷时，细心阅读各项问题，**真实地表达您的感受。**您所提供的资料对我们的研究会有很大的帮助。

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[1]B

请以一位<u>直接向您汇报的下属</u>作为填写以下问卷的对象。请留意，每份问卷必须只能锁定其中一位下属作为填写对象。请仔细阅读每一项，并如实填写。

被评者姓名：_____ 被评者职级：_____

本部分是关于<u>这位下属向您询问对他（她）的印象</u>。请仔细阅读每一个问题，不要遗漏，并在相应的数字划一个圈。

	从来没有	很少	偶尔	有时	较多时候	经常	总是
例题：他（她）努力维护公司形象。	1	2	3	4	5	⑥	7

他（她）主动向我询问：

1．他(她)整体工作的表现。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2．他(她)在人际交往方面的表现。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3．他(她)工作技术方面的表现。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4．他(她)是否达到了职务的期望。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5．他(她)的观念和态度是否与公司的要求相符。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

您认为他（她）为何主动向您询问对他（她）上述几方面的看法？

	非常不同意	不同意	很难说	同意	非常同意
例题：想要找一份新工作。	①	2	3	4	5

我认为他（她）通常主动向我询问对他（她）上述几方面的看法是为了……

1．想要提升他(她)的形象 (例如:使我相信他(她)是个有用的员工)。	1	2	3	4	5
2．想要为日后获得回报建立基础。	1	2	3	4	5
3．想要了解他(她)的职责所在。	1	2	3	4	5
4．想要精确地了解我对他(她)有什么期望。	1	2	3	4	5
5．想要展示他(她)的专业知识。	1	2	3	4	5
6．想要给我留下好印象。	1	2	3	4	5

7．想要商议有关他(她)的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5
8．想要商议有关我对他(她)的要求。	1	2	3	4	5
9．想要引起我的关注。	1	2	3	4	5
10.想要商议有关我对他(她)的期望。	1	2	3	4	5
11.想要获得认可或公司的其它奖赏。	1	2	3	4	5

最后，请回答下列有关您个人的情况，您的资料只供研究，所有资料都不会告诉其他人员。请放心回答。请在每项后面合适的选项上打勾"✓"。如阁下需要评估多于一位下属，您只需要提供一次<u>以下的资料</u>，并请把各份问卷放入同一信封密封。

1. 性别：□ 女　　　□ 男

2. 年龄： _____

3. 藉贯： _____

4. 教育：□ 初中或以下　　□ 中技或中专　　□ 高中

　　　　□ 大专　　□ 本科或以上　　其它（请列明）： _____

5. 您直接领导以上这位下属多久? _____ （年） _____ （月）

6. 您的职级： _____

7. 您在现任公司服务年资共 _____ （年） _____ （月）

非常感谢您的帮助！

组织行为调查问卷

　　您好！首先，衷心感谢各位参与此项研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计的，旨在研究组织行为，**所有资料只作科学研究，**调查资料将会保密，**研究结果只展现群体状态，不涉及任何个人信息。**

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请以您的直属上司作为填写问卷的对象。

本部分请您评价您与直属上司之间的关系。请细心阅读以下每一个句子，不要遗漏，并在相应的数字上画圈。

请从下列每个问题的五个备选答案中，选出一个您认为最恰当的，并在相应的数字上画圈。

例题：有多少时候，您很清楚自己的人生目标

| 很少 | 偶尔 | 有时 | 较多时候 | ⬭经常⬭ |

1. 您知不知道您在这位上司心目中的位置……您通常知道这位上司对您所办的事感到满意吗？

| 很少 | 偶尔 | 有时 | 较多时候 | 经常 |

2. 他(她)对您的工作上的困难及需要了解多少？

| 没有 | 有些 | 一般 | 较多 | 很多 |

3. 无论他(她)的职权有多大，他(她)都会行使权力去为您解决工作上的问题之可能性有多大？

| 没有 | 有些 | 一般 | 较大 | 很大 |

4. 无论他(她)的职权有多大，他(她)都会不惜任何代价去维护您的可能性有多大？

| 没有 | 有些 | 一般 | 较大 | 很大 |

5. 我对他(她)很有信心，即使他(她)不在场，我也会为他(她)所做的决定辩解。

| 非常不同意 | 不同意 | 中立 | 同意 | 非常同意 |

6. 您怎么形容您和他(她)的关系？

| 很不好 | 不太好 | 一般 | 比较好 | 很好 |

7. 他(她)对您的潜力了解有多少？

| 没有 | 有些 | 一般 | 较多 | 很多 |

最后，请回答下列有关您个人的情况，您的资料只供研究，所有资料都不会告诉其他无关人员。请放心回答。请在每项后面合适的选项上打勾"✓"。并请把问卷放入信封密封。

1. 性别：□ 女　　　□ 男

2. 年龄：_____

3. 藉贯：_____

4. 教育：□ 初中或以下　　□ 中技或中专　　□ 高中

　　　　□ 大专　　□ 本科或以上　　其它（请列明）：_____

5. 您作为这位上司的直接下属有多久?_____（年）_____（月）

6. 您在现任公司服务年资共_____（年）_____（月）

7. 您的职级：_____

8. 请在以下选项中指明您所属的工作岗位，　在适当的方格内打勾"✓"
　　　□　网络维护/建设
　　　□　市场营销
　　　□　综合（如财务、人力资源、综合部）
　　　□　专业技术
　　　□　县/区公司经理
　　　□　党群，工会工作
　　　□　其它（请说明）：_____

非常感谢您的帮助！

Appendix 3: Questionnaires Used in Study 2 (Chinese Version)

关于人力资源管理的调查问卷

您好！首先，非常感谢您参与本次研究。这份调查问卷是由香港城市大学管理学系和香港理工大学管理及市场学系共同设计的，旨在研究如何改善和提高企业中人力资源的管理，并提出有效的建议。**本调查资料只作科学研究之用，并将绝对保密。研究的结果只会表示群体的综合结果，绝不涉及任何个人信息。**

为了研究结果的科学性和可靠性，希望您对各问题进行认真和客观的回答。请您在填写问卷时，仔细阅读每个问题，并**真实地表达您的感受**。您所提供的资料对我们的研究会有很大的帮助。

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电子邮件：
wing.lam@

请指定一位 您的直接下属
作为填写本问卷的对象。

被评者姓名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
您直接领导该下属多久了？＿＿＿（年）＿＿＿（月）

第一部分：本部分有关该下属向您询问您对他(她)的印象。请仔细阅读每一个问题，不要漏答，并在右边相应的数字上画圈。

	从来没有	很少	偶尔	有时	较多时候	经常	总是
例题： 他(她)努力维护公司的形象。	1	2	3	4	5	⑥	7

他(她)主动向您询问：

	从来没有	很少	偶尔	有时	较多时候	经常	总是
1. 他(她)在整体工作中表现的不足之处。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 他(她)在人际交往方面的不足之处。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 他(她)在工作技术方面的不足之处。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 他(她)在哪些方面没有达到公司对他(她)的职务期望。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 他(她)的哪些观念或态度与公司的要求不符。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

您认为他(她)主动向您询问上述几方面的看法，是想：

	非常不同意	不同意	很难说	同意	非常同意
6. 改善他(她) 的形象 (如: 让您相信他(她) 是个有用的员工)。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 为以后获得回报打基础。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 了解他 (她) 的工作职责。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 准确地了解您对他 (她) 的期望。	1	2	3	4	5
1. 显示他 (她) 的专业知识。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 给您留个好印象。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 与您商量，以便确定他 (她) 的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 与您商量，以便明确您对他 (她) 的要求。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 引起您的注意。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 与您商量，以便了解您对他 (她) 的期望。	1	2	3	4	5
16. 获得公司的认可或其它奖赏。	1	2	3	4	5

最后，请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的所有资料只供研究，不会告诉其他人员，请放心回答。

1．性别：□ 女　　　□ 男

2．年龄：＿＿＿＿＿＿（周岁）

3．籍贯：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

4．教育：　□ 初中或以下　　□ 高中或中专　　　□ 大专

　　　　　□ 本科或以上　　□ 其它（请注明）：＿＿＿＿

5．您一共接受了几年全日制教育？＿＿＿＿＿＿（年）

6．您在现在的公司工作了多久？　工作了：＿＿＿＿＿（年）＿＿＿＿＿（月）

再一次感谢您的帮助！

关于人力资源管理的调查问卷

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请评价您与您目前的直接上级之间的关系。请仔细阅读以下每一个句子，不要漏答。
请从下列每个问题的五个答案中，选出一个您认为最恰当的，并在相应的答案上画圈。

例题： 您在多大程度上清楚自己的人生目标				
没有	较小	一般	较大	(很大)

1. 通常，您觉得您的上级对您的工作结果满意吗？

很少	偶尔	有时	较多时候	很多时候

2. 您的上级在多大程度上了解您在工作中的困难和需要？

没有	较小	一般	较大	很大

3. 您的上级尽自己的职权，为您解决工作中问题的可能性有多大？

没有	较小	一般	较大	很大

4. 您的上级尽自己的职权，不惜任何代价去维护您的可能性有多大？

没有	较小	一般	较大	很大

5. 您的上级不在场时，您坚决地为他(她)的决定辩护的可能性有多大？

没有	较小	一般	较大	很大

6. 您认为您和您的上级的关系如何？

很不好	比较不好	一般	比较好	很好

7. 您的上级认为您工作水平的潜力有多大？

没有	有些	一般	较大	很大

您在您目前的直接上级的领导下，工作了多久了？　工作了：＿＿＿＿（年）＿＿＿＿＿（月）

请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的所有资料只供研究，不会告诉其他人，
请放心回答。请在每项后面适当的选项上打勾"✓"。请把问卷放入信封密封。

1. 性别：□ 女　　　□ 男

2. 年龄：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿（周岁）

3. 籍贯：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

4. 教育：　□ 初中或以下　　　□ 高中或中专　　　　□ 大专

　　　　　□ 本科或以上　　　□ 其它（请注明）：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

5. 您一共接受了几年全日制教育？＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿（年）

6. 您在现在的公司工作了多久？　工作了：＿＿＿＿＿＿（年）＿＿＿＿＿（月）

7. 请说明您的工作岗位：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

再一次感谢您的帮助！

Appendix 4: Questionnaires Used in Study 3 (Chinese Version)

关于人力资源管理的调查问卷

致

浙江杭钻机械制造股份有限公司参与研究的各位同事

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电子邮件： wing.lam@

请指定一位 您的直接下属
作为填写本问卷的对象。

被评者姓名： _____

您直接领导该下属多久了? _____ （年） _____ （月）

第一部分：本部分有关该下属向您询问您对他(她)的印象。请仔细阅读每一个问题，不要漏答，并在右边相应的数字上画圈。	从来没有	很少	偶尔	有时	较多时候	经常	总是
例题： 他(她)努力维护公司的形象。	1	2	3	4	5	⑥	7

他(她)主动向您询问：

	从来没有	很少	偶尔	有时	较多时候	经常	总是
1. 他(她)整体工作的表现。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 他(她)在人际交往方面的表现。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 他(她)工作技术方面的表现。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 他(她)是否达到了职务的期望。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 他(她)的观念和态度是否与公司的要求相符。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

您认为他(她)主动向您询问上述几方面的看法，是想：	非常不同意	不同意	很难说	同意	非常同意
6. 改善他(她) 的形象 (如: 让您相信他(她) 是个有用的员工)。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 为以后获得回报打基础。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 了解他 (她) 的工作职责。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 准确地了解您对他 (她) 的期望。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 显示他 (她) 的专业知识。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 给您留个好印象。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 与您商量，以便确定他 (她) 的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 与您商量，以便明确您对他 (她) 的要求。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 引起您的注意。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 与您商量，以便了解您对他 (她) 的期望。	1	2	3	4	5
16. 获得公司的认可或其它奖赏。	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分： 以下问题是您对<u>这位下属</u>工作表现的评价，请仔细阅读每一个问题，不要遗漏，并在相应的数字划一个圈。

	不理想（需即时注意及改善）未达到标准，	低于平均	略低于平均	平均（在最少督导下各方面正好达到目标）	略高于平均	高于平均	优异（要求及标准）经常超越工作表现优异，
例题：您如何评价其工作表现？	1	2	3	4	5	⑥	7
1．您如何评价这位员工，其工作表现是否符合所在岗位的工作要求及标准？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2．与同级员工比较，您如何评价其工作表现？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3．与同一部门的其它员工比较，您如何评价这位员工对部门效率的贡献？	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

最后，请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的所有资料只供研究，不会告诉其他人员，请放心回答。

1．性别：□ 女　　　□ 男

2．年龄：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿（周岁）

3．籍贯：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

4．教育：　□ 初中或以下　　□ 高中或中专　　　□ 大专

　　　　　□ 本科或以上　　□ 其它（请注明）：＿＿＿＿＿

5．您一共接受了几年全日制教育？＿＿＿＿＿＿（年）

6．您在现在的公司工作了多久？　工作了：＿＿＿＿＿（年）＿＿＿＿＿（月）

再一次感谢您的帮助！

关于人力资源管理的调查问卷

致

浙江杭钻机械制造股份有限公司参与研究的各位同事

您好！首先，非常感谢您参与本次研究。这份调查问卷是由香港城市大学管理学系和香港理工大学管理及市场学系共同设计的，旨在研究如何改善和提高团队中的人际关系，并提出有效的建议。**本调查资料只作科学研究之用，并将绝对保密。研究的结果只会表示群体的综合结果，绝不涉及任何个人信息。**

为了研究结果的科学性和可靠性，希望您对各问题进行认真和客观的回答。请您在填写问卷时，仔细阅读每个问题，并**真实地表达您的感受。**您所提供的资料对我们的研究会有很大的帮助。

您如希望进一步了解研究的结果，或您对本研究有任何疑问或建议，请与我们联系(地址如下所示)。最后，再次对您的参与和帮助表示衷心的感谢！

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第一部分： **请评价您与您目前的直接上级之间的关系。请仔细阅读以下每一个句子，不要漏答。请从下列每个问题的五个答案中，选出一个您认为最恰当的，并在相应的答案上画圈。**

例题： 您在多大程度上清楚自己的人生目标				
没有	较小	一般	较大	(很大)

1．通常，您觉得您的上级对您的工作结果满意吗？

很少	偶尔	有时	较多时候	很多时候

2．您的上级在多大程度上了解您在工作中的困难和需要？

没有	较小	一般	较大	很大

3．您的上级尽自己的职权，为您解决工作中问题的可能性有多大？

没有	较小	一般	较大	很大

4．您的上级尽自己的职权，不惜任何代价去维护您的可能性有多大？

没有	较小	一般	较大	很大

5．您的上级不在场时，您坚决地为他（她）的决定辩护的可能性有多大？

没有	较小	一般	较大	很大

6．您认为您和您的上级的关系如何？

很不好	比较不好	一般	比较好	很好

7．您的上级认为您工作水平的潜力有多大？

没有	有些	一般	较大	很大

您在您目前的直接上级的领导下，工作了多久了？　工作了：＿＿＿＿（年）＿＿＿＿＿（月）

最后，请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的所有资料只供研究，不会告诉其他人员，请放心回答。

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　　　　　□ 本科或以上　　□ 其它（请注明）：＿＿＿＿

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