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The Dark Side of High-Quality LMX: Relational Tensions and Their Impacts on Leaders and Members

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THE DARK SIDE OF HIGH-QUALITY LMX: RELATIONAL TENSIONS AND THEIR IMPACTS ON LEADERS AND MEMBERS

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ABSTRACT

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As one of the most popular approaches to study leadership, the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory focuses on the dyadic relationship between a leader and a member (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). It posits that supervisors develop different forms of exchange relationships with followers (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Low quality LMX is more like economic exchange based on mutually agreed on duties, while high quality LMX is characterized by trust, support, loyalty, and commitment (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). Past LMX studies have documented and supported many positive outcomes for high-quality LMX subordinates, such as higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, in-role and extra-role performance, and lower levels of stress (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Ferris et al., 2009; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Though it is intriguing to believe that high-quality LMX does only good to members and leaders, there may be more to the story. Being an interpersonal relationship, LMX should suffer the same tensions all interpersonal relations have. Moreover, because relationship power differs between leaders and members, members may face less freedom in choice and greater pressure to maintain the relationship (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Inesi, Gruenfeld, & Galinsky, 2012; Rios, Fast, & Gruenfeld, 2015). Indeed, theories indicate that high quality LMX can be stressful to employees due to feelings of uncertainty and lack of control (Henderson, Liden, Glibkowsk, & Chaudhry, 2009; Liden & Graen, 1980). However, such viewpoints mainly

serve as theoretical arguments to support the main propositions in the mentioned studies without systematic discussion or empirical support. Beneficial aspects of high-quality LMX still dominate the LMX literature, leaving the potential dark side of high-quality LMX understudied.

According to *Relational Dialectics Theory (DRT)*, interpersonal relationships are by nature paradoxical, and the management of dialectical tensions between relational partners is central to the conduct and interpretation of relationship development and loss (Baxter, 1990, 2004; Montgomery & Baxter, 1998). Across a pilot study and two primary studies, this dissertation investigated relational tensions leaders and members experience in high-quality LMX (e.g., high-quality LMX denotes a close connection between leaders and members, but this close connection can detract members' autonomy when facing leaders' extra demands and expectations) and their effects on leaders and members. Specifically, the pilot study explored the relational tensions leaders and members experience in LMX through an open-ended survey question and in-depth interviews. In study 1, I developed and validated two scales of LMX tensions (one of leader tensions and one of member tensions) based on the pilot study results and extant literature. Using scales developed, study 2 investigated the influences of LMX tensions on leaders and members.

This dissertation contributes to the LMX literature in several ways. First, by demonstrating tensions inherent in high-quality LMX, it illuminates the potential costs for both members and leaders in high LMX relationships, despite the well-supported benefits. Second, as both leaders' and members' LMX tensions in high-quality LMX and their outcomes were considered in the hypothesized model, the current dissertation answers the call for more research on "what about leaders?" in LMX (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Wilson, Sin, & Conlon, 2010). Third, according to DRT, relational contradictions drive changes in relationships (Baxter,

2004; Sias, 2006). More specifically, LMX tensions in high-quality LMX can be stressful, which damages leader-member relationship satisfaction and commitment and gives rise to LMX disengagement intentions. Thus, although I will not study this empirically, it still shed light on LMX quality change and decline by examining how LMX tensions relate to intentions to disengage from LMX.

INTRODUCTION

"Darkness is an integral part of relationship"

-- Perlman & Carcedo, 2010, p. 2

The scientific exploration of leadership has proceeded ever since the birth of management science. Much research effort has focused on leaders, investigating how their traits and behaviors influence leadership effectiveness (e.g., Trait Theories, Stogdill, 1974; Behavior Theories of Leadership, Blake & Mouton, 1964), and how effective leadership behaviors are contingent on specific situations (e.g., Contingency Model, Fiedler, 1967). Follower-centric theories switch the focus from leaders to followers to explore various perspectives on how followers contribute meaningfully to effective leadership processes (Day, 2014). For example, as "a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both" (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. 1), shared leadership is broadly distributed to team members rather than localized in one specific individual to hold the role of team leader (Pearce & Conger, 2003). The dyadic-centric approach concentrates neither on leaders nor followers, but on the dyadic relationship between them (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1980; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). The fundamental theory of this approach, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, contends that effective leadership can be achieved through development of effective leadership relationships (Leadership Making, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

First introduced as Vertical Dyadic Linkage (VDL) theory, LMX theory challenges two assumptions of traditional leadership theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Day &

Miscenko, 2016). First, unlike assuming members under the same supervisor have homogenous perceptions, interpretations, and reactions, LMX theory argues members bring differing levels of competence and motivation. Second, LMX contends that supervisors do not keep an *average leadership style*, or the same prescribed manner of relating to every subordinate. Instead, leaders form different types of relationships with their various subordinates with differentiated quality (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1980, 1995).

Specifically, this differentiation results from a role making process (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The leader tries to learn about members' skills, talents, motivations, and limits through different assignments. How the member responds to these assignments provides the leader with important information about the member's potential for unstructured tasks and determines the leader's next investment in the relationship. Gradually in day-to-day leader-member interactions, the leader and the member evolve in terms of how each will behave in problematic situations. A shared understanding governing the appropriate transactions between them is formed. The nature of their dyadic relationship is defined. Over time, dyadic understanding becomes routinized through the process of collaborating closely on different unstructured tasks.

Besides role theory, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) constitutes a solid theoretical foundation for LMX as well. According to social exchange theory, a relationship starts when one party offers a favor to the other party. The norm of reciprocation dictates that one repays the other's favor within a reasonable time period (Gouldner, 1960). The favor offering and reciprocation process nurtures trust building between the two parties, turning an "economic exchange" into a "social exchange" relationship. Hence, social exchange relationships between leaders and members are high-quality LMX characterized by trust, respect, loyalty, and obligation (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003; Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Economic exchange relationships between leaders and members are based on mutually agreed on duties and are considered to be low-quality LMX (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003).

Findings of LMX

Over the past four decades, our understanding of LMX has accumulated. Extant studies demonstrate that personality, competence, and behaviors of either leaders or members can independently influence the formation of high-quality LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Lapierre & Hackett, 2007). For example, member conscientiousness, internal locus of control, agreeableness, extraversion, positive affectivity, proactive personality and mastery goal orientation are positively related to LMX quality (e.g., Dulebohn et al., 2012; Lapierre & Hackett, 2007; Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Ilies, 2009). Member's work performance is found to predict LMX quality (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1996; Lapierre & Hackett, 2007; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Their feedback seeking and ingratiation behaviors enhance LMX development (e.g., Colella & Varma, 2001; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Lam, Huang, & Snape, 2007; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Leader attributes such as being delegative, empathetic, and ethical are associated with higher LMX quality (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1996; Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2010; Yukl, O'Donnell, & Taber, 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Their engagement in transformational leadership, keeping psychological contracts, and maintaining fairness in LMX enables desirable relationship quality (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006; Restubog, Bordia, & Bordia, 2011; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Apart from the independent impact of the leader's or the member's attributes, the dyadic similarity in terms of demographics and personality between the leader and the member are also influential in the LMX development process (Basu & Green, 1995; Bauer & Green, 1996; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014; Nahrgang & Seo, 2016).

In addition to the antecedents, the benefits of high-quality LMX are well documented. High-quality LMX leads to more frequent and better communications between the leader and the member (Mueller & Lee, 2002; Sin, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2009). In high-quality LMX dyads, leaders tend to show more mutual influence and persuasion in communications rather than direct authority or manipulation, which is frequently used on low-quality LMX members (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989; Fairhurst, Rogers, & Sarr, 1987; Yukl & Fu, 1999). High-quality members accordingly are more influential in decision making and report higher psychological empowerment (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986).

Aside from more power-balanced leader-member interactions, high-quality LMX members have access to greater resources in the organizations, such as leader's attention (Dansereau et al., 1975), information (van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008), decision latitude and autonomy (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004), and support (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). They are more likely to be chosen for desirable and challenging tasks (Law, Wong, Wang, & Wang, 2000) and receive more mentoring from leaders (Chen, et al., 2008). Hence, it is not surprising that members with high-quality LMX show higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and reduced turnover intention (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Given that employee feelings about the organization's treatment of employees are largely shaped by the nature of their relationship with their supervisors, high-quality LMX is associated with better evaluations of the organization and more positive attitudes toward the organization (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). Relative to low-quality members, high-quality members tend to characterize the organization as an employer with greater support for employees (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011), lower levels of organizational politics (Atinc,

Darrat, Fuller, & Parker, 2010), and a more positive organizational environment (Ansari, Hung, & Aafaqi, 2007; Mueller & Lee, 2002).

To return the support, help, goods, and services from the leader, the high-quality member displays desired work behaviors including task performance (e.g., Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007; Liden et al., 2000), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB, e.g., Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003; Ilies, Nahrgang, Morgeson, 2007), creativity (e.g., Atwater & Carmeli, 2009; Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010; Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999), and reduced work deviance and job withdrawal (e.g., Ballinger, Lehman, & Schoorman, 2010; Townsend, Philips, & Elkins, 2000). Besides, members in high-quality LMX report enhanced well-being and less job stress (e.g., Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo, & Mansfield, 2012; Major & Morganson, 2011; Tordera, González-Romá, & Peiró, 2008). Leaders also benefit from high-quality LMX as subordinates provide greater loyalty, respect, trust and information (Wilson et al., 2010). In summary, it appears that high-quality LMX itself can benefit members, leaders, and organizations.

More recent work examines how the context in which LMX exists affects the influences of LMX on individual followers and the entire work group (Anand, Vidyarthi, & Park, 2016). As people generally prefer equality and consistency to a strong degree of differentiation in the work unit, LMX differentiation reduces employee satisfaction, affective commitment, task performance, and OCB, while it also gives rise to higher turnover intention and more counterproductive work behaviors (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Harris, Li, & Kirkman, 2014; Hooper & Martin, 2008; Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, 2010). There are mixed findings concerning the associations between LMX differentiation and group outcomes (e.g., Boies & Howell, 2006; Le Blanc & González-Romá, 2012; Liao et al., 2010; Naidoo,

Scherbaum, Goldstein, & Graen, 2011). Justice climate (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010), team lifecycle (Naidoo et al., 2011), and general level of LMX in a group (Le Blanc & González-Romá, 2012; Liden, Erdogan, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2006) are identified as conditions that moderate these relationships.

Another contextual factor examined in LMX research is the social networks the leader and member reside in. Leader's social network shapes LMX quality (Goodwin, Bowler, & Whittington, 2009; Venkataramani, Green, & Schleicher, 2010). For example, leader advice centrality both inside and outside the workgroup is positively related to follower-rated LMX (Goodwin et al., 2009). LMX also has a crucial impact on employee social networks (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997, 2005). Kilduff and Krackhardt (1994) held that close relationship with high-status individuals such as leaders helps build social networks, as it is beneficial to one's reputation as a high performer. The relationship also makes one more likely to be the recipient of interpersonal citizenship behaviors at work (Bowler & Brass, 2006). Yet some studies suggest that high-quality LMX might not be beneficial, and even harmful to employee social network under certain conditions. Erdogan and her colleagues (2015) found LMX quality was positively associated with advice network centrality only for members with a high tendency to help coworkers and a low tendency to gossip about coworkers. Anderson and Sun's (2015) empirical study indicated that followers were less likely to make efforts to build up connections when they had the opportunity to take advantage of their leaders' social networks like when they have a high-quality LMX with their leaders. Besides, when two members do not share the same quality LMX with their leader (e.g., one has high-quality LMX with the leader and the other has low-quality LMX with the same leader), high-quality LMX could damage team-member exchange between the two members, impairing one's social network (Sherony & Green, 2002).

The studies mentioned above present some of the negative impacts of high-quality LMX in the context of peer groups and teams. This is not surprising, given that LMX differentiation challenges an individual's natural need for fairness and preference for balance. It generates tensions among peers and team members, especially when justice climate is weak (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Heider, 1958; Sias & Jablin, 1995). Yet at a dyadic level, empirical evidence dominantly supports the positive effects of the focal individual's own high-quality LMX.

Thus, although it is intriguing to believe high-quality LMX is overwhelmingly positive, there may be more to the story. In Zorn's (1995) qualitative study, employees described situations in which their supervisors had, in their minds, "picked on" them because of their close relationship. For example, employee A explained that she and several other employees were complaining about the arrangement of the office, but her supervisor singled her out for reprimand. Similarly, employee B perceived her supervisor was harder on her because she was the closest and the supervisor knew her better than other subordinates. Bernas and Major's (2000) study suggests that one's commitment to one's supervisor may come at the expense of well-being in the family domain. In other studies, leaders mentioned that it felt harder to say no to close members when they had to for management purposes (Morrison & Nolan, 2007; Sias, 2009). In fact, there are abundant online discussions about the drawbacks of close leader-member relationships. Suggestions on managing close leader-member relationships and even avoiding such relationships can be easily found (e.g., Fortune.com, "Be the Boss, not a Friend"; bbc.com, "Being close to your boss is as dangerous as being enemies").

Indeed, some studies suggest a potential dark side of high-quality LMX. Member's personal identification in the relationship with the leader can foster dependence on the leader (Humber & Rouse, 2016; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). Over dependency and suffocation

within the relationship can make a mentoring relationship dysfunctional (Ragins & Scandura, 1997). Besides, high-quality LMX engenders greater expectations from leaders (Blau, 1964). High-quality LMX members are likely to have more obligations and roles to fulfill beyond the formal job description (Gouldner, 1960; Henderson et al., 2009; Liden & Graen, 1980). However, these viewpoints are mainly theoretical arguments in theoretical articles or theoretical justifications for hypotheses in empirical studies focusing on other research topics. There is little research concentrating on the potential negatives of high-quality LMX. Systematic investigations and empirical evidence on the dark side of high-quality LMX are lacking.

In summary, extent literature on LMX has so far dominantly documented the benefits of high-quality LMX at dyadic level. Although limited research has recognized that high-quality LMX might exert too many demands on LMX partners and may have negative implications for employees, they have received very little research attention. The potentially negative aspects of high-quality LMX have seldom been the primary focus in this research area. The purpose of this dissertation, then, is to examine the less attractive side of high-quality LMX in greater detail. That is, whereas prior research has generally emphasized the positive features of high-quality LMX, my dissertation explores another view of high-quality LMX. In doing so, my dissertation seeks to provide an important complement to the extant LMX literature.

Accordingly, this dissertation has three primary goals. First, it examines the tensional and constraining experiences high-quality LMX leaders and members have in their relationship. Second, it develops and validates two scales of LMX tensions in high-quality LMX (one scale of leader LMX tensions and one scale of member LMX tensions). Third, using scales developed, it investigates consequences of LMX tensions for both leaders and members, and thus further demonstrates the negative implications of high-quality LMX for LMX partners.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Relational Dialectics Theory and Contradictions in Interpersonal Relationships

For a long time, relationships have been conceived as homeostatic social systems in unidirectional development toward the states of interdependent connection, openness, and predictability (Baxter, 1990; Altman, Vinsel, & Brown, 1981). Opposing the unidirectional bias in relationship literature, *Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT)* argues that interpersonal relationships are in nature paradoxical and tensions are inherent in interpersonal relationships (Baxter, 1988; Montgomery & Baxter, 1998; Baxter, 2015).

Applying the core concepts of dialectical scholarship in studying interpersonal relationships, RDT posits that there exist opposing yet interdependent forces in any interpersonal relationship (Baxter & Montgomery, 1998). For instance, individuals desire affiliation in a relationship while they also want to keep a level of independence at the same time to maintain individual entity (Eidelson, 1980). The dynamic interplay of the unified opposites creates a contingent, fluid, and changeable relational system (Baxter, 2004; Baxter & Montgomery, 1998). When too much independence in the relationship weakens connection, the need for more affiliation drives people toward affinity-seeking behaviors, resulting in a more balanced affiliation and independence. As such, the relationship partners become increasingly close. With growing affinity-seeking activities, however, affiliation may become too much, such that one will want more independence. Accordingly, one will try to manage this tension by adjusting one's expectation for a relationship or disengaging from some affinity-seeking behaviors. Besides, RDT specially points out that the relational contradictions and change process need to be examined in the context in which the relationship exists. Contradiction should not be

separated from its temporal, spatial, and sociocultural settings. The dialectical tensions animating different types of relationships may vary, as the particular details of any relationship differ (Baxter & Montgomery, 1998).

Specifically, RDT contends that three contradictions constitute the primary dialectical forces that partners experience in their interpersonal relationships: *autonomy-connection, openness-closedness, and novelty-predictability* (Baxter 1988, 1990, 2004; Montgomery & Baxter, 1998).

The most central one of these is the *autonomy-connection* contradiction (Baxter, 1990; Baxter & Simon, 1993). Two parties need to forsake individual autonomy to form a relationship, yet too much connection may destroy the relationship because the individual entity is lost. Simultaneously, autonomy can be achieved by separation from others, but too much autonomy damages individual identity, for connections are necessary for identity formation and maintenance (Sprecher & Felmlee, 2000; Sias, 2009; Wendt, 1994).

Openness-closedness contradiction presents the tension to both reveal and conceal information. On the one hand, exchange of information is necessary to build and maintain intimacy in interpersonal relationships (Baxter, 1990; Montgomery & Baxter, 1998; Berger & Bradac, 1982; Cupach, 1992). On the other hand, information disclosure is likely to create risk and vulnerability that can threaten oneself, the relational partner, and the relationship (Bochner, 1982; Rawlins, 1983), necessitating information closedness.

Novelty-predictability describes the desire for both novelty and certainty in relationships. Mutual knowledge and understanding grow as people become closer in relationships, resulting in more predictability that allows control and coordination of behavior between relational partners

(Baxter, 1990; Montgomery & Baxter, 1998). However, excessive predictability produces emotional deadening and boredom in a relationship (Byrne & Murnen, 1988; Zimmer, 1986).

These three basic relational tensions have been observed in close relationships such as romantic relationships (e.g., Baxter & Simon, 1993; Baxter & Erbert, 1999; Duran, Kelly, & Rotaru, 2011; Kumashiro, Rusbult, & Finkel, 2008; Hagemeyer, Schönbrodt, Neyer, Neberich, & Asendorpf, 2015; Sahlstein & Dun, 2008), family relationships (e.g., Afifi, 2003; Baxter, 2006; DeGreeff & Burnett, 2009), and friendship (e.g., Baxter, Mazanec et al., 1997; Rawlins, 1992). In different types of interpersonal relationships, the prevalence of these three relational tensions differs. For example, the openness-closedness tension is very common among romantic couples, whereas it is least mentioned by workplace friends (Baxter & Simon, 1993; Bridge & Baxter, 1992). New dialectical tensions specific to a certain relationship usually emerge in exploratory studies (e.g., Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Chen, Drzewiecka, & Sias, 2001). They are found to initiate relationship maintenance or disengagement behaviors, leading to relational change (Cupach, 1992; Sias, 2004, 2009).

Tensions and Close Relationships in the Workplace

In a work setting, the most common close relationships are workplace friendships (Morrison & Wright, 2009; Sias, 2009). Workplace friendships are the friendships between supervisors and subordinates, peer coworkers, and employees and customers (Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Morrison & Cooper-Thomas, 2013; Sias et al., 2004; Sias, 2009). They are unique from other workplace relationships in two primary ways. First, workplace friendships are voluntary, with primary purposes being enjoyment and satisfaction (Sias & Cahill 1998; Sias et al., 2003). Second, they have a personalistic focus, such that friends understand and interact with one

another as “whole” persons rather than simple role occupants (Sias & Cahill 1998; Sias, Gallagher, Kopaneva, & Pedersen, 2012).

Being in an interpersonal relationship, workplace friends confront all three dialectical tensions inherent in all interpersonal relationships. Meanwhile, because dialectical tensions should not be separated from the context (Baxter & Montgomery, 1998), relationship scholars examined the particular details of workplace friendships formed by the work setting. One feature of workplace friendships is that relational partners are both friends and workmates. While friendships are voluntary and personalistic, workplace relationships are imposed by organizational requirements and formally defined (Morrison, 2004; Sias et al., 2012). Employees have little control over the selection of workers. Parties in workplace relationships interact in prescribed organizational roles with the primary goal to fulfill the role function (Morrison & Cooper-Thomas, 2013). Hence, being a friend and being a workmate denote distinct relational roles.

When two close friends are also work associates, they are involved in a blended relationship, such that their roles of being a friend and being a workmate exist simultaneously (Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Morrison & Nolan, 2007). The expectations of the close friendship role may contradict with those of formalized organizational roles as workmates (Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Zorn, 1995). The incompatible demands associated with the roles of “friend” and “workmate” can thus cause strain in both the friendship and work relationship (Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Zorn, 1995). Being a workmate with one’s friend can strain the friendship, as friendship emphasizes egalitarianism, autonomy, consensus, acceptance, and information disclosure, while work relationships stress inequality, diversity, and judgment (Bridge & Baxter, 1992). At the

same time, friendship can harm a work relationship in terms of objectivity, inequality, and organizational information management (Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Morrison & Wright, 2009).

More specifically, contradictions in the role demands of workplace friendship are manifested in five dialectical tensions: *equality-inequality*, *impartiality-favoritism, judgment-acceptance, autonomy-connection,* and *openness-closedness* (Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Morrison & Wright, 2009). The first three tensions are unique in workplace friendships. *Equality-inequality* tension refers to contradictions between the friendship norms of equality and workplace constraints and expectations that constitute inequality (e.g., hierarchy and rank). When the need to behave preferentially to one's friend violates the expectations of equal treatment in a work setting, relationship parties experience *impartiality-favoritism* tension. *Judgment-acceptance* pertains to the contradiction between the need for judgment or criticism inherent in work associations and the total acceptance norm in friendship. These dialectical tensions in workplace friendships have been evidenced in multiple empirical studies (e.g., Jameson, 2004; Sias, Heath, Perry, Silva, & Fix, 2004; Sias, 2009).

Tensions and Close Leader-Member Relationships

Research on workplace friendship undoubtedly offers insights on close leader-member relationships, as workplace friendships include friendships developed between leaders and members. Yet, leader-member relationships differ from workplace relationships between peer coworkers or employees and customers, in the sense that leaders and members are hierarchically different. Being in a supervision position, leaders have access to more and higher quality resources compared with subordinates (Anderson et al. 2012). They typically take charge of performance evaluation, rewards, and sanctions (Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004). Members rely on leaders for resources such as support, training and development opportunities,

and information (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Wilson et al., 2010). The hierarchical difference between leaders and members may generate tensions specific to the leader-member relationship or make certain tensions more intensive compared with common workplace friendships. Hence, it is necessary to study the dialectical tensions in leader-member close relationships.

In his exploratory study on friendship between leaders and members, Zorn (1995) argued that simultaneously hierarchical and personal relationships are characterized by tensions created by two prominent role identities (i.e., friend and supervisor/subordinate), both of which may be salient in the same context, but which often suggest quite different role performances. By interviewing five people who claimed to be either currently or in the recent past in a relationship that was both personal and hierarchical by the time of the interview, he observed five types of relational tensions. *Connection-autonomy, openness-closedness*, and *novelty-predictability*, tensions inherent in all interpersonal relationship, manifested with little surprise. Two other tensions relevant to leader-member friendships surfaced: *equality-superiority and privilege-uniformity*. Leaders are privy to information, paid more, accessible to more benefits, and enjoy more freedom in decision-making. Yet in personal relationships like friendships, people tend to downplay superiority and emphasize equality (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Mendelson & Kay, 2003). Such incompatibility leads to *equality-superiority* tension, similar to Bridge and Baxter's (1992) equality-inequality tension. *Privilege-uniformity* tension occurs when friends expect to be treated "favorably" because of their friendship, while supervisors are expected to treat all subordinates uniformly and fairly, echoing judgment-favoritism identified by Bridge and Baxter (1992). These tensions relate to strain experienced by hierarchical friendship partners (Morrsion & Nolan, 2007).

Although Zorn's (1995) study is insightful to understand relational tensions in leader-member close relationship, it is based on interview record from only five employees. The tensions identified in Zorn's (1995) did not differ much from tensions in workplace friendship (e.g., Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Morrison & Cooper-Thomas, 2013). *Equality-superiority and privilege-uniformity*, in addition, overlap with each other. More work is needed for a better understanding of the tensional side of close leader-member dyads. Yet, till today, very limited work has recognized, much less addressed, this topic.

So far, I have discussed basic dialectical tensions in general interpersonal relationships and those observed in workplace friendships and leader-member friendships. Table 1 summarizes these relational tensions including the definitions and examples. They lay the theoretical foundation for research on dialectical tensions in LMX.

Table 1: Summaries of dialectical relational tensions in general interpersonal relationships, workplace friendships, and leader-member friendships

Relationships	Dialectical Tensions	Definitions	Examples from interpersonal relationships
General Interpersonal Relationships (e.g., Baxter & Erbert, 1999; Simon & Baxter, 1993)	Autonomy-Connection	Two parties need to forsake individual autonomy to form a relationship, yet too much connection would destroy the relationship because individual entity is lost	"We both wanted to see each other but we didn't want to hold each other back. It was both ways - I didn't want him to see other people and he didn't want me to see other people". "He basically didn't have a life - he sort of fed off my life. And I kind of felt smothered by that… He wanted to live his whole life through me and that really bothered me" (Baxter & Erbert, 1999)
	Openness-Closedness	To maintain intimacy in interpersonal relationships, information disclosure is necessary. Meanwhile, information disclosure can be risky, necessitating information closedness	"She always pushed me to talk and I never wanted to talk. I wanted it to just go away on its own." (Pawlowski, 1995)
	Novelty-Predictability	Predictability increases as two become closer and mutual knowledge and understanding grow. However, excessive predictability produces emotional deadening and boredom in a relationship	"For the very few times I get thrown by her responses, if 15 percent of them were more predictable, then I'd be more comfortable, then I could live with the rest" (Cavanaugh, 1999)
Workplace Friendship (e.g., Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Morrison &	Autonomy-Connection	Same as the definition in General Interpersonal Relationships	"Familiarity breeds contempt." (Morrsion & Nolan, 2007)
	Openness-Closedness	Same as the definition in General Interpersonal Relationships	"My friend felt unable to be frank with me professionally for fear I might take any criticism personally and it may affect our friendship" (Morrision & Nolan, 2007)

Nolan, 2007; Sias, 2009)	Equality-Inequality	Friendship norms of equality contradict with inequality generated by workplace constraints and expectations at work setting	“I don’t know where to draw the line sometimes, especially when we are both of different ranks within the organization, e.g. taking humor a step too far...” (Morrision & Nolan, 2007)
	Impartiality-Favoritism	Preferential treatment of one's friends contradict with expectations of equal treatment at work setting	"Harder to tell them that you cannot do a favor for them” (Morrision & Nolan, 2007)
	Judgment-Acceptance	The total acceptance norm in friendship contradicts with the need for judgment inherent in work associations	"It makes it hard to comment on someone’s incompetence when everybody has a culture of being unconditionally nice" (Morrision & Nolan, 2007)
Leader-Member Friendship (e.g., Zorn, 1995)	Autonomy-Connection	Same as the definition in General Interpersonal Relationships	"You can't imagine how many times I get interrupted…I wish they can understand the need for me to work individually with patient evaluations and quarterly reviews for nurses… They are better off and you're better if you leave them alone." (Cavanaugh, 1999)
	Openness-Closedness	Same as the definition in General Interpersonal Relationships	"I am sure there were things that happened that she would like to have told me but didn't because of her role" (Zorn, 1995)
	Novelty-Predictability	Same as the definition in General Interpersonal Relationships	"One minute, she is your best friend. The next minute, you're nothing. She doesn't talk to you… I mean, you've got to feel her out to find out what kind of mood she's in…I try to be as nice as I can, because I don't know what kind of mood she's in..." (Zorn, 1995)
	Equality-Superiority (same with equality-inequality)	Friendship norms of equality contradict with hierarchical differences between leaders and members	"Usually I have to ask her to do something… usually it's coming from [my boss], that he wants me to tell them to do this or that. I really don't ever have the need to tell them to do something coming from me. It's just not myself". (Zorn, 1995)

	Privilege-Uniformity (same with Impartiality-Favoritism)	Preferential treatments to one's friend contradict with expectations of equal treatment at work setting	"I think I was probably a little more lenient with her because of our friendship, you know, than I would have been had someone else had been doing some of the things that she was doing". (Zorn, 1995)

Tensions and High-Quality LMX

High-quality LMX is characterized by loyalty, affect, respect, mutual support, trust, shared interests, and reciprocal influence (Dansereau, et al., 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). These characteristics resemble the characteristics of friendship (Berndt, 2002; Berman, West, & Richter, 2002; Bukowski, Hoza, & Boivin, 1994; Rose, 2002; Sias & Cahill, 1998). Sias (2009) contended that to some degree, high-quality LMX is characterized by friendship. Mentorship, a form of LMX when the leader acts as the mentor, show overlaps with friendships in terms of the psychological functions and reciprocity (Lunsford, 2013). Indeed, affect and liking is an indicator of high-quality LMX in LMX quality measurement (Greguras & Ford, 2006). Yet, when high-quality LMX partners are perceived as friends, high-quality LMX is faced with dialectical tensions caused by conflicts in role demands of being a friend and a workmate simultaneously.

Despite the similarities between high-quality LMX and friendship, some scholars claim that the development of high-quality LMX is based on the characteristics of the working relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The mutual trust, respect, and mutual obligation refer specifically to LMX partners' assessments of each other regarding their professional capabilities and behaviors, differing itself from the liking-based dimensions of interpersonal attraction and bonding suggested by personal relationships (Liden & Maslyn, 1994; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Indeed, there are situations when LMX partners perceive they are in high-quality LMX, yet they do not think of the LMX partners as their friends. In such cases, high-quality LMX should not be considered as a personal relationship, but a close work relationship. Consequently, relational tensions in high-quality LMX should differ from those manifested in leader-member friendship.

Hence, high-quality LMX can involve friendship between the leader and the member, but it does not have to; it can remain a working relationship with greater closeness between LMX partners. This makes it necessary to investigate the particular details of high-quality LMX and relational tensions experienced by high-quality LMX partners, instead of directly applying the five relational tensions identified in leader-member friendship research (Bridge & Simon, 1992; Morrsion & Nolan, 2007). Henceforth, the dialectical tensions high-quality LMX partners experience are defined as *LMX tensions*.

OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

I chose a mixed method design to examine the above issues, as it is most appropriate to propose new constructs building on extant theory and investigate their impact on established constructs (Edmondson & McManus, 2007; Little, Major, Hinojosa, & Nelson, 2015). A pilot study and two primary studies were conducted. First, I employed a pilot study to explore the tensions leaders and members actually experience in high-quality LMX. An open-ended survey question was distributed and in-depth interviews were conducted to identify the tensions leaders and members experience when in a high-quality LMX relationship. Based on data from this pilot study as well as the theoretical foundation available in the close relationship literature, I constructed measures of LMX tensions leaders and members experience and validated them in Study 1 across five independent samples. In Study 2, I examined the consequences of these tensions on both leaders and members. Specifically, I proposed and tested path models relating LMX tensions to relational and behavioral outcomes for both members and leaders.

PILOT STUDY

As mentioned above, the mixed understanding of the similarities between high-quality LMX and friendship as well as the limited study of relational tensions in leader-member relationships warrant examining relational tensions encountered by high-quality LMX leaders and members. The current pilot study adopted a grounded theory approach to explore the relational tensions high-quality LMX partners' experience.

Pilot Study Method

Grounded Theory Approach

Grounded theory is a qualitative methodology designed to build theories emerging from field through collected data (Glaser & Strauss, 2017). Grounded theory is well suited for this study, because it excels at exploring phenomena that is less known (Murphy, Koltz, & Kreiner, 2017), like relational tensions experienced by high-quality LMX partners. Besides, scholars have used grounded theory to understand interaction dynamics in interpersonal relationships (e.g., Latta & Goodman, 2011; Merchant & Whiting, 2017; Young & Kleist, 2010).

Grounded theory can be broadly considered as a set of strategies through which theories are constructed by simultaneously collecting and analyzing data (Glaser & Strauss, 2017). There are four core principles that underlie grounded theory: emergence, constant comparison, theoretical sampling, and theoretical saturation (Charmaz, 2014; Murphy et al., 2017; Walsh et al., 2015). *Emergence* denotes that scholars remain open to new data and findings during the course of data collection and analysis. This closely relates to *constant comparison*, the defining

feature of the grounded theory. It means continually iterating between extant literature, extant data, and emerging data in order to construct a theory of social reality that is informed and supported by extant literature, past, and present data (Murphy et al., 2017; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). *Theoretical sampling* entails that the choice of data sources should be based on how useful they are in validating, correcting, or extending the emergent model. *Theoretical saturation* explains when researchers should stop data collection and analysis. When no further new dimensions or information can be added to the theoretical model, or the properties of the emerging theoretical categories are compressive in depth and scope, the theoretical model is "saturated," and there is no need to continue data collection and analysis.

Accordingly, the data collection and analysis in this study were closely interrelated. They influence each other considerably (Glaser & Strauss, 2017). For example, data analysis can change questions asked in later interviews and the choice of subsequent interviewees. Besides, I continued collecting and analyzing data until no new category or new data concerning a category was found, that is, when theoretical saturation was reached (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Samples

Grounded theory involves data collection using multiple techniques from multiple sources (Glaser & Strauss, 2017; Wilhelmy, Kleinmann, König, Melchers, & Truxillo, 2016). Following this, I collected data via an open-ended survey question and in-depth interviews.

To understand tensional experiences in high-quality LMX, I studied samples of populations who work as members and/or leaders in organizations and have formed a good relationship with at least one of their leaders or members. They have the firsthand experience

with constraining or tensional feelings in their interactions with high-quality LMX leaders or members if any.

To have some initial understanding of high-quality LMX partners' relational tensions, the open-ended survey question was electronically distributed to 97 weekend Master of Public Administration (MPA) students who enrolled in a leadership course in a large university in northern China. It was an appropriate sample for this study, because these MPA students worked as full-time employees during weekdays and had frequent interactions with either direct supervisors or subordinates at work. Forty-three weekend MPA students answered the question online and five of them held positions with managerial functions. The industry sectors they worked in were diverse (e.g., financial services, public services, and educational organizations).

For in-depth interviews, I began participant recruitment with different variables in mind that might influence relational experiences in LMX: gender, work tenure, and hierarchical level (Bauer & Green, 1996; Emerson, 1962; Epitropaki & Martin, 1999). Theoretical saturation was reached after analyzing 26 interviews. Among the 26 interviewees, 65% of them were male, and nine of them held managerial positions. The average age was 31.73 (SD = 6.93), and the average work tenure was 6.96 years (SD = 8.23). All participants were Asian. They worked in various industries including finance, hospitality, communication, and government and held various positions such as executive assistants, sectaries, investment managers, HR professionals, teachers, and lawyers.

I applied *theoretical sampling* approach (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Wilhelmy et al., 2016) and did not decide the kind of and the amount of data to collect before data collection was conducted. Rather, data gathered earlier guided the questions asked and people interviewed in later data collection. For example, in later interviewers, I purposefully approached participants

whose position naturally gave them more chances to form close relationships with their supervisors, such as sectaries, because such jobs were mentioned by participants in earlier interviews that they might complicate LMX relationship itself as well as the relational experiences of LMX partners. Sampling was done by me contacting my friends who have at least one-year work experience and through references from the participants.

Data Collection Procedures

As mentioned in prior section, two methods were applied for data collection: an open-ended survey question and semi-structured in-depth interviews.

The main purpose of the open-ended survey question was to gain some initial data on high-quality LMX partners' tensional or constraining experiences in the relationship. In the survey distributed to weekend MPA students, only one open-ended question was asked along with demographic questions on age, gender, industry, and their role in LMX (i.e., member or leader). The question was "Think about a supervisor/subordinate with whom you have (or have had) a good relationship currently (or in the recent past). Describe a situation or circumstance where you felt constraints, pressure, conflicted or that caused tensions with the relationship. Please describe what happened and explain why you felt that way".

I followed an *orienting theoretical perspective* (Locke, 2001) and conducted in-depth interviews with a semi-structured interview guide based on insights gained in reviewing extant literature on LMX and interpersonal relationship (e.g., Baxter & Simon, 1993; Morrison & Nolan, 2007) and open-ended survey question responses. The interview guide covered four themes: a) what are the situations in which you feel constrained and pressured by your good relationship with direct supervisors/subordinates; b) what are the reasons behind these pressured

and constrained feelings; c) what have you done to address such feelings and situations; d) what do you think an ideal leader-member relationship should look like. The first theme is the most important one. Participants were asked to think about a supervisor or a subordinate that she or he once had or currently has a good relationship with, and then to describe (a) events or moments that make them feel relational pressure or experience tensions in the relationship; (b) events or moments that make them feel constrained by their good relationship with their supervisor/employee; 3) issues, challenges or difficulties, if any, that currently characterize their (or once) high-quality relationship.

The interview questions were continually adjusted in data collection process to reflect ideas gained in data collected already. Therefore, some questions asked in later interviews were different from earlier ones as a way to better understand the relational experiences and the context.

I conducted all interviews, four in person, and the others by phone. Before the interview, participants were given a brief introduction of the study and clearly notified their rights. The confidentiality of data and anonymity of later data processing were ensured. All interviews started with a brief description of themselves and their jobs to collect demographic information. A typical interview last about an hour and was recorded and later transcribed with the interviewee's permission. This results in 131 single-spaced pages.

Pilot Study Data Analysis

Data were analyzed in three steps. First, I coded data line-by-line using software Nvivo 12. Following Wilhelmy and her colleagues (2016), coding was based on "an evolving system of categories" (p. 318). The codebook or the coding dictionary were continuously modified based

on iterative comparisons between previously coded and newly coded data. I repeatedly switched between previously and newly analyzed data and continually updated the coding dictionary. The final coding dictionary presents the concepts emerged from data. Second, the codes and concepts were carefully read and compared to identify abstract categories, so that data can be lifted to a conceptual level. I was very conscious in this process to keep my mind open, but also tried to be attentive to how these abstract categories related to extant literature (Locke, 2001; Wilhelmy et al., 2016). Third, the links between categories were examined. I paid special attention to whether and how categories can be grouped together to form a common theme. This coding process was conducted on all responses to the open-ended survey question and all interviews.

Pilot Study Results

The aim of this pilot study was to investigate what tensional and constraining experiences both leaders and members experience in high-quality LMX. Regarding leader tensional experiences, the data analysis yielded three categories: *indirectness-directness (DIR)*, *favoritism-impartiality (FAV)*, and *dependence-autonomy (DEP)*. In terms of member tensional experiences, I found six different categories. *Workload fairness-unfairness (WLD)*, *high-equal work quality expectation (WQE)*, *work assignment riskiness-safety (WAR)* are task-related tensions. The other three are *control boundary clarity-blurriness (CBC)*, *work-life boundary clarity- lack of clarity (WLB)*, and *openness-closedness (OC)*.

Leader Tensions

Participants mentioned several situations when they felt pressured by their good relationship with subordinates. One tension 33% leaders (3 out of 9 leaders) pointed out is

indirectness-directness, which indicated the differentiated communication strategies leaders applied when giving negative feedback or messages to high-quality and ordinary LMX members. It is leaders' job to monitor and evaluate members' performance and provide them with feedback (Yukl et al., 2002). Delivering negative feedback or messages to close members creates a more pressured situation for leaders, as close members are more likely to take such comments personally and inappropriate handling can destroy their relationship. One leader described how she tried to communicate with the close subordinate when she found that the subordinate got involved in a serious misconduct: "It will undoubtedly hurt her feelings if I directly say that I know you have taken the money you shouldn't have taken. I don't want to hurt her by straightforwardly saying that I suspect you are corrupted and I believe you are. I, of course, don't want to report her to inspection department nor make her face with all investigations. I want to do her good. So I said things very softly and indirectly and tried to let her know that I know, so that she can restrain and discipline herself. If she could read between the lines, she would know what I meant…If she were just an ordinary subordinate, I would simply confront with her and report her misconduct to my supervisor".

Another tension leaders (44%, 4 out of 9) mentioned was favorable treatment requests or expectations from subordinates. For example, one leader said: "Some directly asked me for such favorable treatments (e.g., higher scores in evaluation)". Also, one member said: "I am so close to her (her supervisor) and have done so much for her. Why couldn't she promote me instead of others? I am totally qualified". An interesting phenomenon manifested in data is that in general, members would not bluntly request favors from leaders. Instead, they would give hints to leaders showing that they have such a need or an expectation. As one leader mentioned: "He did not

directly tell me his requests, but somehow he behaved in a way that made me understand he had such expectations".

A third tension leaders (44%, 4 out of 9) experienced in their interactions with high-quality LMX subordinates was members' over-dependence on them. As one important function of leadership, mentoring aims to develop members as independently capable employees to deal with work tasks (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). However, leaders' guidance and help sometimes lead to members to rely on leaders too much to complete work on their own. For instance, one leader said:

"She was unable to communicate effectively with a colleague from another department, and had to come to me to handle it for her. Once or twice, I did it for her, but I began to realize it was a problem. The team was not performing at its most optimum and wasted time in going through me for problem solving. I told her that this method of communication was not effective and relied too much on me, and also asked for her to be more expressive and step up to take more initiative in deciding the course of action. We decided to let her try to communicate the necessary action to the other colleagues, but she could still check with me if she is unsure. I am also trying to let go so that she is more aware and active of the status and follow up items of the matter at hand."

According to interviewees, members' more than necessary checking with leaders not only burdened leaders, but also indirectly shifted work responsibility from the member to the leader. Despite the good relationship, leaders felt that these members lacked the courage to take up responsibilities, especially when leaders believed members were adequately capable to deal with the specific tasks.

Member Tensions

The relational tensions high-quality LMX members experienced were various. Three of the most frequently mentioned concerned work assignment. The first one was about workload. Member competence has shown to be one important factor that determines LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012). And "it is quite common in the workplace that able men are always busy". About 60% of members interviewed mentioned that their high-quality LMX leaders continued giving them tasks even if there was plenty of work at hand. As one interviewee said: "When it comes to work assignment, he (the leader) considers who can complete the task successfully and quickly, and usually the task will be assigned to me. Yes, it shows that the leader trusts me and recognizes my competence. But sometimes I have too much work to do". Over workload, or the inequality in work assignment among group members, acts as a double-edged sword for members. On one hand, it does cause pressure for high-quality members. For example, one member said: "She (the leader) treated me as a manager already and required me to deliver the same amount and quality of work a manager does. But I was not a manager yet, and my capabilities back then could not handle such work requirements… In the end, I found myself so pressured that I could not work with her anymore". On the other hand, members, to some degree, view higher workload as a positive signal, because not only does it reflect the leader's trust, but also it gives members opportunities to make themselves known in the organization in doing these tasks. One interviewee noted that "as a person who is in his/her early career stage, you don't want to be left out in work assignment, because it means that you are marginalized and your chances of getting promoted are slim".

The second work-related member tension was higher work quality expectation. This is relevant to the first tension, as it usually comes together with a higher workload. High-quality

LMX members felt that leaders have higher expectations for them to deliver high-quality work compared with other members. As one interviewee said: “For the same job, she only requires my coworkers to do an OK job. If I simply give her OK work, she will be very unhappy. She will for sure ask me what is wrong with me”. Participants indicated that leaders’ higher work quality expectation might come out of a good intention as it can help with members’ career development. For example, one participant clearly stated that “the purpose is to develop myself as well as getting the work done successfully”. Yet, they also mentioned that the increasingly growing expectations caused them pressure, especially when they found themselves having difficulty meeting them.

The third one was about the risks members might take in work reluctantly. Because high-quality LMX members are trusted by and close to leaders, leaders at times get them involved in riskier tasks that leaders do not want other members to participate in or even to be aware of. As one participant said: “Sometimes the leader wants you to take risks for him or share his risks. Like some time ago, he wanted me to register a company under my name, but he would be the actual runner of it. I would take all legal responsibilities and risks if anything happens, but I cannot control either the business or the finance of the company. For me, I honestly do not want to take the responsibility if I cannot control the running of the company. But I could not persuade him and got a company registered in the end”. The participants also pointed out it was hard for them to say “no” to leaders’ requests like this, as it very possibly will damage their relationship.

The fourth member tension regarded the unclear authority boundaries between high-quality LMX partners. High-quality LMX members are empowered with more autonomy in decision-making and work completion (Dulebohn et al., 2012). However, even if tasks were completed successfully, members reported that leaders at times were unhappy with the fact that

the member did not ask his/her opinions in the process. One interviewee said: “It needs a clear boundary of authority and decision making, like these are the things I can decide, and these require his decision-making. He needs to make it crystal clear. A lot of times, I simply followed my feelings that I should make decisions on this and that, but he was not always happy with it and blamed me for not asking his opinions on occasions”. Another interviewee even said: “Right now, if I am not sure whether I should get his thoughts or not, I will always ask his thoughts, even if he feels annoyed”. This tension relates to leaders’ tension about members’ over dependence. One behavior that interpreted by leaders as members’ over-dependence was members’ frequent checking-ins. However, for members, they are necessary so that leaders will not pick on their doings afterward. It even acts as a strategy that members use to keep leaders posted on all the hard work they have done.

The fifth tension concerned the blurry boundary between work and life. The close relationship with leaders at work can potentially involve members in leaders’ personal issues and lives or invite leaders to meddle with members’ personal life. As one interviewee talked about her experience: “I also helped her with her family issues, like her father’s trip to the US and her father’s funeral. I even kept her accompany after her surgery in the hospital…I felt very exhausted about this. Honestly, it was a big pressure on me. There was a time that she asked me to share my university experience with her niece, because she felt that I could gain her face. This had nothing to do with my work or the company’s business”. Another interviewee also mentioned that she was unwillingly involved into the leader’s conflicts with other employees and had to act as the coordinator and “translator” between the two parties, which was irrelevant to her own work and cost her a good amount of time.

The sixth tension that members experience was about information disclosure between leaders and members. Being closer to leaders, high-quality LMX members become more open to leaders and share their honest thoughts, opinions, and comments, which might not be professional in the workplace. Besides, it may cause potential threats to members if the LMX declines someday. One member shared her experience in the interview: “I am a very careful person. I keep my mouth shut when it comes to office politics and gossip about other department or other workers. At least in the beginning, I was like this. But as we got closer, we trusted each other more. She told me more things. And I became more open as well. I did not know whether I should say something or not, or comment on something or not. Sometimes I feel I should not have commented on things”.

Pilot Study Discussion

It is obvious in the results that leaders’ tensional experiences in high-quality LMX were different from members’. First, the specific tensions experienced by leaders and members were not the same. Second, members reported more types of tensions and they showed more pressure in maintaining and managing their relationships with leaders. This can be explained by resource dependence theory (Cook & Emerson 1978; Emerson, 1962; Felmlee, 1994; Simpson, Farrell, Oriña, & Rothman, 2015). According to resource dependence theory, power is a property of the social relation, residing in the other’s dependence (Cook & Emerson, 1978; Emerson, 1962). Thus, a person’s power in a relationship is a function of the number of resources he or she possesses (Blau, 1964; Felmlee, 1994). A partner is more powerful when he or she has relatively more valued resources, or things available to meet the other’s needs. Because leaders are in charge of sanctions and resources desirable to members, such as challenging tasks, training

opportunities, and information, they generally hold a more powerful position in the relationship (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004). They have more autonomy and control over what they want to do and when to do it (Anderson et al., 2012; Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980). Members, by contrast, have less access to scare resources and are more dependent in the relationship.

The imbalanced power and resources in leader-member dyads behaviorally constrain members when dealing with requests from leaders, especially for those in high-quality LMX (Richardson & Taylor, 2012; Tiedens & Fragale, 2003; Rios et al., 2015). When LMX is of low quality and exchange between leaders and members is based on economic contracts, the leader and the member accepts the power and position difference, for this is expected according to the contract. However, high-quality LMX requires a high level of equity to maintain relationship quality (Molm, Quist, & Wiseley, 1994; Oyamot, Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010), which asks for high levels of mutuality and reciprocity (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Ferris et al., 2009; Zhang & Epley, 2009). Yet differences in accessible resources for leaders and members lead to differences in equity maintenance efforts: it is generally harder for members to offer the same or equally valued favors to leaders. Consequently, they tend to be more attentive to leaders' needs (Lee & Tiedens, 2001; Rios et al. 2015), and more engaged in relationship maintenance activities (Gordon & Chen, 2013), and more submissive to leaders' requests even if they generally do not enjoy it (Richardson & Taylor, 2012; Tiedens & Fragale, 2003).

Another interesting finding was that even though members felt some types of tensions were stressful, like workload assignment and work quality, they also mentioned that these greater demands from leaders drove them to work harder and grew faster. This echoes previous findings that members in high-quality LMX generally have high growth-need (Graen, Scandura, & Graen, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Scandura & Graen, 1984). These tensions are potentially caused

by their stably displayed satisfactory work performance (Nahrgang et al., 2009), which make leaders believe that they are capable of addressing challenging situations and tasks. Besides, because high-quality LMX members gain privileges and more resources from leaders compared with other members, leaders assume reciprocation from members (Liden & Graen, 1980; Harris & Kacmar, 2006). Hence, they have growing expectations that members go "above and beyond" at work. Additionally, close relationship partners often hold the expectation that the partner will understand them better (Davis & Todd, 1985; Vorauer & Sucharyna, 2013). Leaders believe that high-quality LMX members not only have the capability to address challenging work tasks well, but also can put themselves in leaders' shoes and understand the situations leaders face. This is probably the reason why leaders expect high-quality members to share some of the risks they bear at work and assign members riskier tasks.

Although leaders, in general, are more powerful in leader-member relationships and thus have fewer tensions in high-quality LMX, they still experience tensions as they want to maintain the relationship. Development of high-quality LMX is costly in terms of time and effort (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). It is nevertheless wise to arbitrarily end one high-quality LMX and start developing another one. Leaders' desire to keep LMX quality will be high when the subordinate is a top performer. High-quality LMX can enhance the subordinate's affective commitment, and he/she will be less likely to turn over voluntarily (Eisenberger, Karagonlar et al., 2010). It also helps leaders keep proximity to the top performer, who can be their in-group competitors, so that the leaders can monitor and downregulate the threat posed by the subordinate (Mead & Maner, 2012).

STUDY 1: LMX TENSIONS SCALE DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of Study 1 was to develop and validate scales for relational tensions experienced by high-quality LMX partners.

Item Generation

Items for LMX tensions were developed deductively from theories concerning relational tensions (e.g., Bridge & Baxter, 1992; Baxter & Simon, 1993; Zorn, 1995; Morrison & Nolan, 2007), and inductively from qualitative data collected in the pilot study. Items reflected several types of tensions in high-quality LMX (see Table 2 and 3 for items). For leaders, high-quality LMX tensions include *indirectness-indirectness (DIR), favoritism-impartiality (FAV), and dependence-autonomy (DEP)*. For members, there were six types of tensions: *control boundary clarity-blurriness (CBC), workload fairness-unfairness (WLD), high-equal work quality expectation (WQE), work assignment riskiness-safety (WAR), work-life boundary clarity- lack of clarity (WLB)*, and *openness-closedness (OC)*.

Item Reduction

I conducted a content validity assessment to remove items that were conceptually inconsistent with their respective construct definition (Hinkin, 1998). Following the procedure suggested by Hinkin (1998), construct definitions of the types of LMX tensions were provided to naïve respondents who are not familiar with these constructs. Naïve respondents were then asked

to select the type of LMX tension that best describes each item. If they thought the item was not a fit to any of the LMX tensions, they could select “not applicable”.

Participants and Procedure

Construct definitions and items were translated into Chinese using translation-back-translation method (Brislin, 1986). I first translated the survey from English to Chinese. A bilingual OBHR scholar who was blind to the nature of the study then translated the Chinese survey back to English. Disagreements were resolved by our discussions. A survey invitation was sent to an online group of Human Resource Management master graduates from a northern Chinese University. Twenty-four out of 47 group members completed the survey. Although this is a small sample size, it is appropriate for this stage of scale development (Hinkin, 1998). Twenty-nine percent of the participants were male (4% was unspecified), and the average age was 29.17 (*SD* = 3.69). The mean work tenure was 3.84 years (*SD* = 3.38). All participants were either HR staff in companies or current graduate students in HR.

Results

An item was retained if 75% of respondents correctly matched the item to its corresponding construct definition (Hinkin, 1998). As a result, 3 items (9%) of leader LMX tensions were eliminated: 2 items from DIR, and 1 item from FAV. Nine items of member LMX tensions were eliminated: 2 items from CBC, 3 items from WLB, and 4 items from WLD.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

To reduce initial item pool to a parsimonious set of items, EFA were conducted for both leader and member LMX tension items.

Leader LMX Tension

Participants and Procedure

Participants were weekend MBA students enrolled in a large southwestern university in China. With the agreement of class professors, the data collection coordinator entered the classrooms during a class break and distributed paper surveys to MBA students after a brief introduction of the study. Participants used 10-minute class time to finish the surveys, and then the coordinator collected the finished surveys back. Every participant received a gift worth of RMB 10 (about $1.50) for the participation.

Participants were asked to think of the direct subordinates they supervised currently and considered the one with whom they had the best relationship with. They were required to spend one minute to think about this subordinate's name, visualize him/her, and think about their interactions. After that, they started to answer survey questions.

Surveys were distributed among 296 weekend MPA students and 251 were returned (response rate = 84.8%). A team of undergraduate students who majored in business administration and were experienced in data administration completed all data entry. To make sure data were accurately entered, one student entered data with another student sitting aside and monitoring if the data typed was exactly the same as what was on the paper survey. With surveys with same answers across items or too much missing data removed (over 80% items

were not answered), 248 observations were included in the final analysis. The participants in the final sample worked in multiple industries (e.g., government, finance, healthcare, education, IT) and in various departments (e.g., R&D, HR, sales, finance). Among them, 49% were male, and 98% have at least a bachelor's degree. They were, on average, 31.23 years old (*SD* = 4.53) and had 5.73 direct subordinates (*SD* = 6.09). The mean organizational and departmental tenures were 5.55 years (*SD* = 3.41) and 3.59 years (*SD* = 2.39) respectively. On average, they have worked with the subordinate they thought of in survey completion for 2.63 years (*SD* = 1.97). Forty-four percent of the subordinates they considered during survey completion were female. All participants held managerial or supervisory positions.

Results

As a manipulation check, I measured participants' LMX with the subordinates they thought about during survey completion. LMX was assessed using Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) 7-item scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree,* α = .75). The average LMX was 4.13 (*SD* = .72).

An EFA with maximum likelihood with oblimin rotation was performed on items. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were identified (minimum eigenvalue = 2.87; total variance explained 42.43%). All items loaded onto the intended factor. However, I removed 6 items due to low factor loadings (factor loading < .40). Nine other items were also eliminated, as they were repetitive to other items, resulting in 16 retained items (see Table 2). A subsequent analysis on the remaining items produced a three-factor solution explained 59.46% of variance (minimum eigenvalue = 2.14). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of the sampling adequacy was .81, showing the sample was adequate for factor analysis.

Member LMX Tension

Participants and Procedure

Participants were weekend MBA students in a large southwestern university in China. The same data collection procedures were conducted. Participants were asked to think of their current supervisors (or supervisors in the recent past) with whom they have a good relationship with. They were instructed to spend one minute to think about this supervisor's name, visualize him/her, and think about their interactions before they begin to answer survey questions.

Surveys were distributed among 270 MBA students and 246 were returned (response rate = 91.1%). The same data entry procedure as in the leader data collection was conducted by the same team in different weekend MBA classes from the leader data collection. After removing surveys with the same answers across all items or too much missing data (over 80% items unanswered), I kept 241 observations in the final analysis. The participants in the final sample were 31.15 years old on average (*SD* = 4.53). Their mean organizational tenure was 5.54 years (*SD* = 3.42) and their mean departmental tenure was 3.61 years (*SD* = 2.44). Forty-nine percent of them were male. Ninety-nine percent of them have at least a bachelor's degree. On average, they have 1.8 direct supervisors (*SD* = 1.64) and have work with the supervisor they considered during survey completion for 3.44 years (*SD* = 2.44). Sixty-three percent of the supervisors they thought of were female. They worked in multiple industries (e.g., government, finance, healthcare, education, IT) and were from various departments (e.g., R&D, HR, sales, marketing, finance, clerical).

Results

An EFA with maximum likelihood with oblimin rotation was performed on items. Six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were identified (minimum eigenvalue = 1.72; total variance explained 63.13%). All items loaded onto the intended factor. However, I removed 9 items due to low factor loadings (factor loading < .40). Three other items were also eliminated as they were repetitive to other items, resulting in 28 retained items (see Table 3). A subsequent analysis on the remaining items produced a six-factor solution explained 71.94% of variance (minimum eigenvalue = 1.40). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of the sampling adequacy was .85, showing the sample was adequate for factor analysis.

Table 2: Items of Leader LMX Tensions

Leader tensions	Factor loading
Indirectness-Directness: How direct the supervisor is toward the subordinate in responding negatively or expressing negative feedback.	
Compared with all the mediocre relationships with my direct subordinates:	
It is harder for me to explicitly tell this subordinate about behaviors that irritate me.	**.54** (3.36, 1.50)
It is more difficult to have a direct conversation with this subordinate about my dissatisfactions with his/her performance.	**.64** (3.01, 1.36)
I could be more direct toward this subordinate regarding negative feedback if we were not this close.	**.79** (3.23, 1.40)
Discussions about this subordinate's unsatisfactory work behaviors could be more straightforward if we were not this close.	**.83** (3.20, 1.45)
I use a subtler way to comment on this subordinate's subpar performance.	c
I am very mindful about how direct I should be when I need to say something that might upset this subordinate.	c
If I need to say no to this subordinate's requests, I feel the need to spend more time thinking about how to do it so that it will be not too direct and hurt his/her feelings.	b
When I have negative feedback for this subordinate, I try to find an indirect way to avoid hurting this subordinate's feelings.	b
If I need to share my dissatisfaction with this subordinate's performance, I try to be less straightforward to "soften the blow".	b
I could express negative feedback for this subordinate more openly if we were not this close.	c

I use a softer way to comment on this subordinate's incompetence.	c
Being frank with this subordinate professionally is a harder task relative to other subordinates.	a
I could more directly talk to this subordinate about his/her inappropriate work behaviors if we were not this close	c
It is more difficult to confront this subordinate directly about his/her unsatisfactory work performance, relative to ordinary subordinates	a
2.Favoritism-Impartiality: The subordinate expects favorable treatment from the supervisor.	
Compared with all the mediocre relationships with my direct subordinates:	
This subordinate has directly asked me for favorable treatment.	**.59** (2.87, 1.49)
This subordinate has indirectly requested favorable treatment from me.	**.61** (3.03, 1.46)
I have dealt with this subordinate's expectation for favorable treatment in resource allocation.	**.66** (3.47, 1.45)
This subordinate expects me to score him/her more highly in performance evaluations.	**.77** (4.19, 1.27)
This subordinate expects me to show preference for him/her in rewards.	**.80** (4.04, 1.30)
This subordinate expects me to show favoritism to him/her	**.74** (3.52, 1.47)
This subordinate has inexplicitly asked me to allocate resources to serve his/her purposes better.	c
I feel this subordinate expects me to treat him/her more favorably.	c
I feel the tension between satisfying this subordinate's expectation for favorable treatment and maintaining fairness in the work group.	a
I think some of the favor requests made by this subordinate would not occur, if we were not this close.	b

3. Dependence-Autonomy:

The follower shows high dependence on the leader in decision-making and task completion.

Compared with all the mediocre relationships with my direct subordinates:	
This subordinate seeks my opinion at every step when doing his/her work even though I clearly put him/her in charge.	**.51** (3.52, 1.40)
This subordinate relies on me too much to get her/his job done.	**.72** (3.29, 1.30)
I feel if I did not make decisions for this subordinate, he/she would hardly get his/her work done	**.68** (2.94, 1.40)
This subordinate will consult me even for things about which I am sure he/she can make a good decision.	**.70** (3.68, 1.33)
This subordinate relies on me to acquire work resources even if she/he can easily acquire them in other ways.	**.71** (3.31, 1.42)
This subordinate consults me at every step in finishing a work task, even if I think she/he should have learnt the skills doing similar tasks in the past.	**.79** (3.24, 1.48)
Most of the time when there is a problem, this subordinate comes to me to handle it for her/him.	b
This subordinate should take on more responsibility in doing her/his job rather than frequently asking my opinions.	b
This subordinate is quite dependent on me to finish their jobs	c
Whenever this subordinate has a decision to make, he/she looks for my opinions.	c

Note. Final scale items shown in bold. Means and SDs of items were in parenthesis. Reasons for an item's removal: a = below 75% agreement on content validity; b = below .40 factor loading; c = repetitive.

Table 3: Items of Member LMX Tensions

Member tensions	Factor loading
1. Openness-Closedness: The subordinate is overly communicative and expressive of their opinions around this supervisor.	
Compared to other supervisors with whom I have had mediocre relationships:	
I have commented on things to this supervisor about which I should have kept quiet.	**.70** (3.43, 1.37)
There are ideas that I should have withheld from this supervisor.	**.65** (3.22, 1.51)
There are statements about my feelings regarding an event that I wish I had not told this supervisor.	**.83** (2.99, 1.44)
I have revealed my feelings about an event to this supervisor because of our relationship, when it would have been better not to.	**.92** (3.22, 1.46)
I have talked about things with this supervisor that I later regretted.	**.85** (3.08, 1.49)
I find myself commenting on things to my supervisor about which I should keep my mouth shut.	c
I have told this supervisor things that I wish I had not told him/her.	c
I have released information to this supervisor that I wish I had kept to myself.	c
2. Control Boundary Clarity-Blurriness: The good relationship with the supervisor makes the boundary between control and autonomy blurry that the	

member is not sure when or what should be updated to the supervisor because on one hand, the supervisor trusts the member in decision-making, and on the other hand, the supervisor wants to keep track of the work progress.		
Compared to other supervisors with whom I have had mediocre relationships:		
I have felt confused about when I should and should not update this supervisor.	**.58** (2.35, 1.39)	
There have been times that this supervisor has felt annoyed by my continual update on work details.	**.64** (2.44, 1.44)	
It is unclear when I need to update this supervisor in terms of work progress.	**.90** (2.48, 1.39)	
It is unclear what I need to update this supervisor in terms of work progress.	**.89** (2.43, 1.33)	
I have felt confused about when I should seek this supervisor's opinions.	**.79** (2.50, 1.35)	
There have been times that I have felt it was OK to not report to this supervisor, but later found that I should have.	b	
There have been times that I have reported to this supervisor, but discovered the supervisor felt it was unnecessary.	a	
There have been times when this supervisor is unhappy that I do not keep him/her updated on work details.	a	
3. Work-Life Boundary Clarity- Lack of Clarity: The good relationship with the supervisor can impinge on the member's personal time, as the member becomes involved in the supervisor's personal matters.		
Compared to other supervisors with whom I have had mediocre relationships:		
I feel like this supervisor mingles my professional life with his/her personal life too much.	**.76** (2.45, 1.46)	

I feel like I need to spend additional time addressing this supervisor's personal problems even if I am not interested.	**.84** (2.23, 1.42)
I get involved in some of this supervisor's personal issues even though I do not want to.	**.80** (2.33, 1.44)
I find myself spending quite some time addressing this supervisor's personal issues.	**.73** (1.98, 1.28)
I need to deal with personal demands from this supervisor because of our close relationship.	**.78** (2.42, 1.51)
I feel like this supervisor involves me too much in his/her personal issues that are irrelevant to my work.	[a]
I feel compelled to join after-work activities to which this supervisor invites me.	[a]
I feel like I need to be responsive to this supervisor's personal requests even though I am reluctant to do so.	[a]
4. Workload Fairness-Unfairness: The good relationship with the supervisor yields a greater workload for the member relative to other workers.	
Compared to other supervisors with whom I have had mediocre relationships:	
I find I am assigned more tasks by this supervisor compared with my coworkers in the same group.	**.95** (4.03, 1.38)
This supervisor continues to give me work even if I already have enough on my plate.	**.78** (3.85, 1.37)
I feel that the workload I deal with is more than what is required of my peers.	**.65** (3.99, 1.47)
This supervisor likes to assign tasks to me rather than to other subordinates.	[b]

I feel like whenever there is a new task, this supervisor thinks of giving it to me first, even if he/she has already assigned me enough work.	a
I feel I am the person to whom this supervisor gives unpopular jobs because she/he believes I can complete them.	a
I would have less workload if I were not this close to this supervisor.	b
I would have fewer tasks assigned to me if I were not this close to this supervisor.	b
I have the feeling that this supervisor loves to give work to me compared with other employees.	a
The work this supervisor assigns to me piles up faster relative to my peer workers.	a
5. High Work Quality Expectation – Equal Work Quality Expectation: The good relationship with the supervisor yields a higher work quality expectation for the subordinate.	
Compared to other supervisors with whom I have had mediocre relationships:	
This supervisor has a higher bar for me at work relative to my peers.	**.66** (4.23, 1.33)
This supervisor has a higher expectation for my job performance.	**.82** (4.57, 1.18)
This supervisor expects me to complete my work tasks as perfectly as possible.	**.80** (4.73, 1.11)
I feel like I have to push myself to reach the higher standards that this supervisor sets for me.	**.56** (4.44, 1.22)
I find myself constantly trying to meet this supervisor's ever-rising expectations.	**.56** (4.43, 1.20)

I think this supervisor expects more from me at work relative to my coworkers.	c
The same job that is OK when completed by my coworkers is not good enough if completed by me.	b
I feel what means "extra miles" for my coworkers is considered "standard" for me by this supervisor.	c
6. Work Assignment Riskiness-Safety: The good relationship with the supervisor raises the possibility of a risky work assignment. Here, a risky work assignment is an assignment a subordinate would not normally take on but can be a career risk.	
Compared to other supervisors with whom I have had mediocre relationships:	
This supervisor makes me take on more risk in my job.	**.69** (3.62, 1.41)
Even though I do not want to do them, this supervisor asks me to take on potentially risky work tasks.	**.74** (3.60, 1.38)
The work I do for this supervisor is more risky relative to my coworkers.	**.74** (3.61, 1.47)
This supervisor involves me in work tasks that can be risky to my career.	**.78** (3.24, 1.45)
The work this supervisor assigns to me has a greater amount of risk compared with that of my coworkers.	**.86** (3.31, 1.43)
This supervisor involves me in riskier work tasks that I would rather avoid.	b
This supervisor involves me in riskier work situations that I would rather avoid.	b
When it comes to risky tasks or projects, I am the first person to whom this supervisor thinks about assigning them.	c

Note. Final scale items shown in bold. Mean and SD of the item were shown in parenthesis. Reasons for an item's removal: a = below 75% agreement on content validity; b = below .40 factor loading; c = repetitive.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFAs were conducted to assess the psychometric properties of the leader and member scales using independent samples for each.

Leader Tensions

Participants and Procedure

A survey link was sent to current weekend MBA students and MBA alumni of a southwestern university in China. At the beginning of the survey, participants indicated whether they held a supervision role currently. If yes, they were directed to finish the leader survey; if not, they were directed to the member survey.

One hundred and seventy-one MBA alumni or students participated in the study. With the removal of four unusable responses because of too much missing data or the same choice across all items, the final sample included 167 leaders. About half of them were female (52.7%). All had at least bachelor's degree. The mean age was 33.57 years old (*SD* = 6.06) and their mean organizational tenure was 7.28 years (*SD* = 6.34). They worked in various departments, including human resource management, operation, marketing, finance, and sales. The average number of subordinates they had was 7.70 (*SD* = .14.27). To answer leader-member relationship related questions in the survey, participants were asked to think of a subordinate with whom they have (or have had in the recent future). On average, they have worked with the subordinate they referred to in survey completion for 2.85 years (*SD* = 2.20). About half of the referred subordinates were female (56.9%).

Measures

The items that were retained for each construct in EFA were used to measure leader tensions.

Analysis and Results

As a manipulation check, I measured participants' LMX with the subordinates they thought about during survey completion. LMX was assessed using Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) 7-item scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree,* α = .77). The average LMX was 4.09 (*SD* = .74).

CFA was conducted using Mplus 7.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). Fit statistics were examined to test whether the proposed three-factor structure fit the data. The structure showed good fit with the data: χ^2 = 121.38 (p = .047), *df* = 97, *CFI* = .98, *RMSEA* = .04, *SRMR* = .05. The second-order structure in which the three factors were lower-order dimensions of a leader tension variable did not show improvement in model fit: χ^2 = 121.38 (p = .047), *df* = 97, *CFI* = .98, *RMSEA* = .04, *SRMR* = .05. I also test the model fit of the one factor structure that all items loaded directly on the latent variable leader tension. The model fit was not acceptable: χ^2 = 374.14 (p < .001), *df* = 97, *CFI* = .74, *RMSEA* = .13, *SRMR* = .11.

Member Tensions

Participants and Procedure

A survey link was sent to current weekend MBA students and MBA alumni of a Southwestern university in China. At the beginning of the survey, participants indicated whether

they held a supervision role currently. If yes, they were directed to finish the leader survey; if not, they were directed to the member survey.

One hundred and sixty-six MBA alumni participated in the study. With the removal of seven unusable responses because of too much missing data or the same choice across all items, the final sample included 159 members. Less than half of them were female (39.0%). Almost all had at least bachelor's degree (99.4%). The mean age was 29.13 years old (*SD* = 4.28) and their mean organizational tenure was 3.60 years (*SD* = 2.76). They worked in various departments, including sales, marketing, human resource management, customer service, finance, and project management. The average number of direct supervisors they had was 1.79 (*SD* = 1.07). On average, they have worked with the direct supervisor they referred to in survey completion for 2.54 years (*SD* = 1.80). The majority of the referred supervisors were male (71.1%).

Measures

The items that were retained for each construct in EFA were used to measure member tensions.

Analysis and Results

As a manipulation check, I measured participants' LMX with the supervisors they thought about during survey completion. LMX was assessed using Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) 7-item scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree,* α = .80). The average LMX was 3.97 (*SD* = .90).

CFA was conducted using Mplus 7.2. Fit statistics were examined to test whether the proposed six-factor structure fit the data better than the alternative four-factor structure when the

three tensions relevant to work assignment composed a higher-order factor. The six-factor structure showed good fit with the data: χ^2 = 578.12 (p < .001), df = 328, CFI = .91, $RMSEA$ = .069, $SRMR$ = .07. The four-factor structure did not yield a better fit: χ^2 = 620.75 (p < .001), df = 334, CFI = .90, $RMSEA$ = .074, $SRMR$ = .09 ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 42.63, Δdf = 6, p < .001). Thus, the six-factor structure was retained as the best fitting model. I also tested the model fit of a second-order factor structure in which the six factors were lower-order dimensions of a higher-order construct member tension. The results were χ^2 = 635.48 (p < .001), df = 337, CFI = .90, $RMSEA$ = .075, $SRMR$ = .10, which was worse fit compared with the six-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 57.36, Δdf = 9, p < .001). The one-factor model structure in which all items loaded directly on one latent variable did not yield a good model fit: χ^2 = 1714.00 (p < .001), df = 343, CFI = .52, $RMSEA$ = .159, $SRMR$ = .14.

Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

Convergent Validity

Once high-quality LMX partners experience relational tensions, they not only feel anxiety and stress, but also have the need to address these tensions in order to maintain the relationship. As a result, LMX tensions exert extra demands on LMX partners to regulate oneself to concentrate on work duties instead of relational tensions (Bernerth, Walker, & Harris, 2016). Besides, managing leader-member relationship under such condition requires time, energy, and efforts (Sias, 2009; Sias et al., 2004), which can exhaust individuals. Therefore, LMX tensions are expected to be positively related to burnout.

Discriminant Validity

Different types of stressors at work should be differentiable constructs. Originated in leader-member relationships, LMX tensions should differ from other work stressors rooted in poor job descriptions. Thus, I expect LMX tensions will be distinct from role conflict and task conflict, two common stressors at work (Jehn & Mannix, 1997; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970).

Sample and Measures

Burnout, role conflict, and task conflict were included in the same surveys for CFA data. Participants thus were the same in CFA analysis.

Burnout was measured with Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) burnout scale on a 6-point scale ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *6 = strongly agree*. One sample item was "I feel burned out from my work". The Cronbach's alpha was .92 for leader sample and it was .85 for member sample.

Role conflict was assessed using the 8-item scale developed by Rizzo and his colleagues (1970) on a 6-point scale ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *6 = strongly agree*. One sample item was "I work under incompatible policies and guidelines". The Cronbach's alpha for leader sample was .84 and it was .88 for member sample.

Task conflict was measured using the 4-item scale from Pelled, Eisenhardt, and Xin (1999) on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 = *not at all* to 6= *always.* One sample item was "How often do the members of your team disagree about how things should be done". The Cronbach's alpha for leader sample was .83 and it was .88 for member sample.

The following section presents the results.

Results

Table 4 and Table 5 present means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations between variables. As shown in Table 4, the three leader tensions, indirectness-indirectness (DIR), favoritism-impartiality (FAV), and dependence-autonomy (DEP) and burnout were positively related (r = .26, .33, .33 respectively, p < .01). Table 5 shows that the member tensions were also positively related to burnout except expectation. The correlation coefficients (r) between control boundary clarity-blurriness (CBC), workload fairness-unfairness (WLD), high-equal work quality expectation (WQE), work assignment riskiness-safety (WAR), work-life boundary clarity- lack of clarity (WLB), openness-closedness (OC) were .29 ($p < .01$), .47($p < .01$), .07 ($p > .05$), .40 ($p < .01$), .18 ($p < .05$), .35 ($p < .01$) respectively.

Support for distinctiveness between LMX tensions, role conflict, and task conflict was provided by the results of a five-factor CFA model that fit the leader data well ($\chi^2 = 514.37$ ($p < .001$), $df = 332$, $CFI = .91$, $RMSEA = .057$, $SRMR = .06$). I also compared the five-factor model with a four-factor model by combining role conflict and favoritism, and a three-factor model with dependence and task conflict combined. Both the four-factor model ($\chi^2 = 768.96$ ($p < .001$), $df = 336$, $CFI = .78$, $RMSEA = .088$, $SRMR = .09$) and the three-factor model failed to yield adequate fit with the data ($\chi^2 = 1008.332$ ($p < .001$), $df = 339$, $CFI = .67$, $RMSEA = .109$, $SRMR = .11$). The five-factor model presented significantly better fit with the data relative to the four-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 254.59$, $\Delta df = 4$, $p < .001$) and the three-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 493.96$, $\Delta df = 7$, $p < .001$).

For member tensions, the results of an eight-factor model showed acceptable fit with the member data ($\chi^2 = 1256.01$ ($p < .001$), $df = 701$, $CFI = .87$, $RMSEA = .071$, $SRMR = .07$). Comparing it with a seven-factor model with boundary and role conflict combined ($\chi^2 = 1558.51$

($p < .001$), $df = 708$, $CFI = .80$, $RMSEA = .087$, $SRMR = .08$), the eight-factor model showed significantly better fit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 302.50$, $\Delta df = 7$, $p < .001$).

In sum, the results suggested that LMX tensions were related to but distinct from similar constructs.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations from Leader Validity Data

Variables	*Mean*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	
1. Directness-Indirectness	3.4	1.04	.73					
2. Favoritism-Impartiality	3.31	1.08	.19*	.87				
3. Dependence-Autonomy	3.06	0.99	.22**	.38**	.85			
4. Burnout	3.1	1.38	.26**	.33**	.33**	.92		
5. Role conflict	3.66	0.96	.16*	.38**	.34**	.49**	.84	
6. Task conflict	3.13	0.98	.28**	.37**	.27**	.46**	.55**	.83

Note. N = 167.
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations from Member Validity Data

	Mean	*S.D*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*
1. BCB	2.29	1.07	.87								
2. WLD	2.87	1.37	.31**	.89							
3. WQE	4.36	.98	-.01	.33**	.85						
4. WAR	2.72	1.21	.32**	.56**	.17*	.89					
5. WLB	1.83	1.15	.44**	.17*	.03	.50**	.94				
6. OC	2.93	1.18	.28**	.41**	.34**	.53**	.44**	.89			
7. Burnout	2.86	1.12	.29**	.47**	.07	.40**	.18*	.35**	.85		
8. Role conflict	3.05	1.02	.36**	.47**	.17*	.51**	.29**	.53**	.58**	.88	
9. Task conflict	2.76	1.04	.42**	.42**	.03	.44**	.34**	.49**	.41**	.64**	.88

Note. N = 159.
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

STUDY 2: EXPERIENCE OF LMX TENSIONS AND CONSEQUENCES

Having developed and validated LMX tension measures, I aim to investigate their effects on leaders and members in Study 2. Specifically, I seek to expand our understanding of LMX tensions by examining the impact of LMX tensions on both relational and work behavioral outcomes.

Figure 1 illustrates the proposed model on consequences of LMX tensions. For both leaders and members, I propose that both leader and member experienced LMX tensions will result in same outcomes for leaders and members. Conservation of Resources Theory (COR, Hobfoll, 2001, 1989) holds that individuals strive to obtain, retain, protect, and foster resources. Resources are things people value and "may be delineated into object, condition, personal characteristics, and energy" (Hobfoll, 2001, p. 341). When individuals face resources loss threats, or actually lose resources, or have insufficient resources gains following significant resource investments, stress will occur.

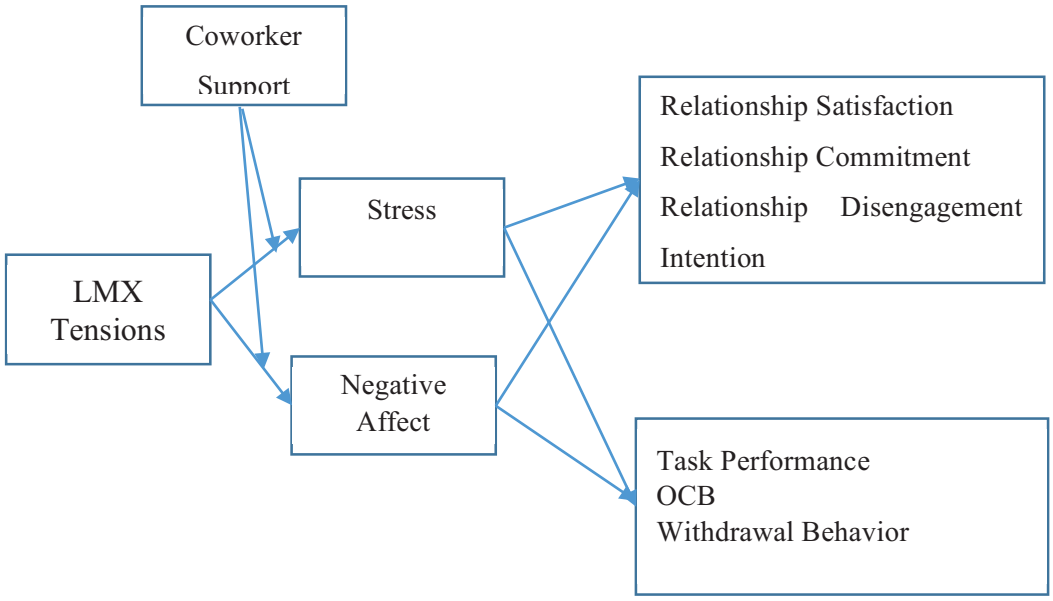

Figure 1: Hypothesized Model on the Outcomes of LMX Tensions

LMX tensions exert extra demands for resources to regulate oneself to concentrate on work duties instead of relational tensions (Bernerth, et al., 2016). Managing such tensions requires time, energy, and other psychological resources. If one decides to maintain the relationship, she or he needs to use maintenance strategies including expectation adjustment or open discussions with the other party (Sias, 2009). If one decides to end the relationship instead, she or he will need to engage in relationship disengagement behaviors such as avoidance of non-work topics and nonverbal distancing signals (Sias et al., 2004). Efforts in coping with LMX tensions exhaust individual's resources and lead to energy depletion. The more intensive LMX tensions are, the more resources they consume. When the amount of resources consumed exceeds or threatens an individual's resource pool, they would feel pressured and stressful at work. Thus, I propose that LMX tensions positively relate to stress.

H1: Leader LMX tensions: a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP are positively related to stress.

H2: Member LMX tensions: a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC are positively related to stress.

LMX tensions present situations in which relational demands tax the capacity of LMX partners. Those depleted LMX partners are less optimistic and recall less positive aspects of themselves (Fischer, Greitemeyer, & Frey, 2007). Even worse, they have fewer resources available to regulate their emotions to stay positive or neutral. Accordingly, tensional interactions are found to cause intense negative emotions, such as anxiety and depression (Reijntjes, Kamphuis, Prinzie, & Telch, 2010; Scrimin, Mason, & Moscardino, 2014). LMX tensions are thus proposed to associate with negative affect.

H3: Leader LMX tensions a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP are positively related to negative affect.

H4: Member LMX tensions: a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC are positively related to negative affect.

Because resource investment will result in strain when resulting resource gains are insufficient, social resources may buffer the impact of LMX tensions on stress (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003). Coworker support is a common social resource available in the work setting (Hobfoll, 2001). Such support can both widen one's resource reservoir and also replace or reinforce other resources that are lacking (Halbesleben, 2006; Hobfoll, 1988). This becomes even more important in the context of resource loss, when it replenishes one's resource pool (Hobfoll, 2001). Indeed, coworker support is a well-known situational variable that buffers against work strain (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; see also, Halbesleben, 2006 meta-analysis).

H5: The positive associations between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and stress are moderated by coworker support, such that the associations are weaker when coworker support is high.

H6: The positive associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and stress are moderated by coworker support, such that the associations are weaker when coworker support is high.

The replenishment of resources via coworker support can also help LMX partners regulate negative emotions caused by LMX tensions (Gross, 2002; Jackson, Malmstadt, Larson, & Davidson, 2000; Johns, Inzlicht, & Schmader, 2008). Additionally, coworker support indicates that an individual is accepted and valued in the social environment, which generates positive feelings about oneself and the environment (Measelle, Stice, & Springer, 2006; Pierce, Frone, Russell, Cooper, & Mudar, 2000). Thus, coworker support will buffer the effect of LMX tensions on negative affect.

H7: The positive associations between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and negative affect are moderated by coworker support, such that the associations are weaker when coworker support is high.

H8: The positive associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and negative affect are moderated by coworker support, such that the associations are weaker when coworker support is high.

People build interpersonal relationships to satisfy needs for belongingness, support, and identity formation (Baxter, 1990; Sprecher & Felmlee, 2000; McNamee & Gergen 1999; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). When relationships become a source of stress rather than support, individuals will be less satisfied with the relationship (Sias et al., 2004). Relationship satisfaction will be

reduced if the relationship demands too much time and energy to manage or maintain (Morrison & Nolan, 2007). Meanwhile, LMX tensions change the ratio of resource gains and costs in the LMX. As LMX becomes more resource consuming, people become less committed to the tension-filled relationship. They are more likely to disengage, especially when desirable alternatives are available (Emerson, 1962; Sprecher, 1992).

Stress presents an unpleasant state resulting from resource depletion (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2003). People's attitudinal reactions to stress are dependent on their attributions for it (Moore, 2000). Hence, stress caused by job demands that constrain individuals' personal development and work-related accomplishment reduces work attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (e.g., Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007; Vandenberghe, Panaccio, Bentein, Mignonac, & Roussel, 2011). In the same vein, when workers feel pressured due to LMX tensions, their satisfaction and commitment towards the leader-member dyad relationship will decrease. They are less motivated to invest resources in LMX to sustain the already depleted resource pool. With the above in mind, I hypothesize:

H9: Stress mediates the associations between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader relationship satisfaction.

H10: Stress mediates the association between leader LMX tensions a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader relationship commitment

H11: Stress mediates the association between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader relationship disengagement intention.

H12: Stress mediates the associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship satisfaction.

H13: Stress mediates the association between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship commitment

H14: Stress mediates the associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship disengagement intention.

LMX tensions direct the limited resources workers have to the leader-member relationship and tensions, sapping energy and time that could be otherwise used to directly benefit performance (Sias, 2009; Sias et al., 2004). With depleted resources, individuals may not be able to deliver high-quality task performance to the degree they could give sufficient resources (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Methot, Lepine, Podsakoff, & Christian, 2015; Wright & Bonett, 1997; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Nor do they have spare energy and time to go above and beyond to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors towards individuals or organizations (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003). To protect the resources still left in the resource pool, stressful individuals tend to emphasize withdrawal coping mechanisms (Leiter, 1991, 1993). Indeed, Sias and her colleagues' (2004, 2009) qualitative studies reported greater emotional stress and reduced job performance resulting from managing tension-filled close relationships with work associates. Echoing these studies, Morrison and Nolan (2007) found that managing close relationships at work distracts one's attention from work. It harms both individual and team performance and creates emotional stress for workers.

H15: Stress mediates the association between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader task performance.

H16: Stress mediates the association between leader LMX tensions a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader OCB.

H17: Stress mediates the association between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader withdrawal behavior.

H18: Stress mediates the association between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member task performance.

H19: Stress mediates the association between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member OCB.

H20: Stress mediates the association between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member withdrawal behavior.

According to affect infusion model, affect has a direct impact on individuals' cognitive and behavioral processes (Forgas & George, 2001). One's attitudes toward an object is partially a function of the affect that "infuses" his or her cognitive processing in forming evaluations of the object in question (Thoresen, Kaplan, et al., 2003). Based on this, affect will color the evaluation of leader-member relationships. Specifically, positive affect results in positive evaluations and negative affect leads to negative evaluations. Thus, negative affect caused by LMX tensions will reduce relationship satisfaction and relationship commitment among LMX partners. LMX partners experiencing negative affect also likely have stronger intent to disengage from LMX.

H21: Negative affect mediates the associations between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader relationship satisfaction.

H22: Negative affect mediates the association between leader LMX tensions a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader relationship commitment

H23: Negative affect mediates the association between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader relationship disengagement intention.

H24: Negative affect mediates the associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship satisfaction.

H25: Negative affect mediates the associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship commitment

H26: Negative affect mediates the associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship disengagement intention.

Moreover, negative affect constrains individuals' cognitive resources (Fredrickson, 2004). It impairs the efficient functioning of the goal-directed attentional system and increases attention to threat-related stimuli (Eysenck, Derakshan, Santos, & Calvo, 2007). As a result, negative affect decreases accuracy in performing work memory tasks (Osaka, Minamoto, Yaoi, & Osaka, 2011). Reduced performance quality results. Additionally, negative affect motivates behavior change to cope with the unpleasant emotional reactions due to stressors (Lazarus, 1991). Negative affect induced by LMX tensions thus limits one's engagement in OCBs and increases the occurrence of withdrawal behaviors.

H27: Negative affect mediates the association between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader task performance.

H28: Negative affect mediates the association between leader LMX tensions a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader OCB.

H29: Negative affect mediates the association between leader LMX tensions, a) DIR, b) FAV, and c) DEP, and leader withdrawal behavior.

H30: Negative affect mediates the association between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member task performance.

H31: Negative affect mediates the association between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member OCB.

H32: Negative affect mediates the association between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member withdrawal behavior.

Study 2 Method

Sample and Procedures

Study invitations were sent to employees in two large public organizations in China with the help of two data collection coordinators. The coordinators first identified leaders and members and then distributed appropriate invitations to them via online groups. Those who were interested in the study could open surveys through links provided in the invitations. Data were collected at two time points. Time 1 survey assessed demographics, control variables, LMX tensions, stress, negative affect, and coworker support. Time 2 survey assessed all outcome variables. A total of 151 leaders and 229 members completed Time 1 survey. One week later, Time 2 survey link was sent to participants who have finished Time 1 survey. In total, 133 leaders and 180 members completed Time 2 survey. Five identifier questions (e.g., “In what city were you born”, “What is your birth month?”) were included in both surveys and used to match Time 1 and Time 2 survey responses. The matching process results in final samples of 103 leaders and 152 members.

In the final leader sample, participants, on average, were 39.95 years old (*SD* =6.78). Sixty-one percent of them were male. Most of them had at least a bachelor’s degree (90.4%) and were married (90.4%). The average number of kids they had was 1.03 (*SD* = .59). The mean

tenure with the current organization was 11.35 years (*SD* = 6.77). On average, they had worked with the member they referred to in survey completion for 4.87 years (*SD* = 3.53).

In the final member sample, the mean age was 32.32 years old (*SD* = 5.51). The average number of children they had was .58 (*SD* = .62). About half of them were male (48%). Most of the participants had at least a bachelor's degree (82.3%). Fifty-nine percent of them were married. They had an average organizational tenure was 6.01 years (*SD* = 4.94). The mean relationship tenure with the leader they referred to in the survey was 3.50 years (*SD* = 3.24).

Measures

LMX tensions. The scales developed in Study 1 were used to measure leader and member LMX tensions. Cronbach's alphas of leader tensions, DIR, FAV, and DEP were .85, .88, .88 respectively. Cronbach's alphas of member tensions, CBC, WLB, WLD, WQE, WAR, and OC, were .90, .95, .91, .79, .92, .86 respectively.

*Stress***.** I measured stress using Keller's (1984) 4-item scale. Participants reported the degree to which they agreed with statements in each item on a scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*. A sample item was "I feel pressured in my job". Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .91 and .86 respectively.

Negative affect. I used 10 items from Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1998) scale. It consists of ten words that describe different feelings and emotions. Participants were asked to read each item and indicate to what extent they have felt the emotions in the past few weeks on a scale ranging from 1 = *not at all* to 6 = *extremely*. A sample item was "distressed". Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .89 and .91 respectively.

Relationship satisfaction. I used Lemay and Dudley's (2011) 3-item scale to measure leader's and member's satisfaction with their LMX. Participants reported their level of agreement on three statements using a scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*. A sample item was "I feel satisfied with our relationship". Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .89 and .94 respectively.

Relationship commitment. Van der Vegt, Bunderson, and Oosterhof's (2006) 4-item scale was used to measure LMX parties' commitment to leader-member relationship Participants were asked to rate their agreement on statements like "I am very committed to maintaining my relationship with my supervisor/subordinate" on a scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*. Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .77 and .91 respectively.

Relationship disengagement intention. I measured this variable using 9 items adjusted from Sias et al.'s (2004) workplace relationship disengagement scale. Participants rated the extent to which they wanted to engage in behaviors such as "Stop inviting him or her out after work" on a scale ranging from 1 = *not at all* to 6 = *very much*. Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .89 and .96 respectively.

Task performance. I measured task performance using five items from Williams and Anderson's (1991) measure. Participants self-reported their task-focused contributions using a scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*. A sample item was "I adequately complete assigned duties". Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .92 and .93 respectively.

OCB. I measured OCB using five items from van Dyne and LePine's (1998) scale. Participants rated their frequency to engage in behaviors beneficial to work group described in

items on a scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 6 = *always*. A sample item was "I assist others in this group with their work for the benefit of the group". Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .75 and .93 respectively.

Work withdrawal. I assessed work withdrawal using three items adapted from Hammer, Bauer, and Grandey's (2003) scale. Participants rated their frequency to engage in withdrawal behaviors like "Be late to work" on a scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 6 = *always.* Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .78 and .93 respectively.

Coworker support. I measured this variable using items adapted from Mossholder, Settoon, and Henagan's (2005) 6-item scale. A sample item was "My coworkers are willing to extend themselves in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability". Participants rated their agreement on items using a scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*. Cronbach's alphas for leader sample and member sample were .83 and .79 respectively.

Controls. First, dyadic tenure is not only positively associated with LMX perception (e.g., Sears & Hackett, 2011; Sin et al., 2009), but also influences the future effort in maintaining this relationship (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2002). Hence, I controlled for leader-member dyadic tenure. It was based on participants' reports of how long they had been working with the member/leader they thought of in survey completion. Second, I controlled for participants' attachment style. Attachment style describes "the propensity of human beings to make strong affectional bonds to particular others" (Bowlby, 1977, p. 201). It has been found to be a predictor of conflict resolution and relationship satisfaction in interpersonal relationships (e.g., Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Pistole, 1989). Researchers have even argued that leader-member relations can be conceptualized in attachment-theory (Bowlby, 1973; Davidovitz, Mikulincer, Shaver, Izsak, & Popper, 2007). Scholars have identified four

types of attachment style: secure, preoccupied, dismissing, and fearful (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Pistole, 1989). As the current study examines relational experiences in high-quality LMX, I focused on only two types: secure and dismissing. Secure indicates a sense of lovability and an expectation that others are generally accepting and responsive. Dismissing also presents a sense of lovability, but individuals with a dismissing style maintain a sense of independence and invulnerability to avoid disappointments in close relationships. Attachment style was assessed using Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) self-report attachment style prototypes.

Study 2 Results

I utilized path analysis in Mplus 7.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to test hypotheses.

Leader Outcomes

As a manipulation check, I measured participants' LMX with the subordinates they thought about during survey completion. LMX was assessed using Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) 7-item scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree,* α = .80). The average LMX was 4.34 (*SD* = .83).

Table 6 presents bivariate correlations and descriptive statistics of variables based on leader sample data. Table 7-9 shows results of path analyses with DIR, FAV, and DEP as the independent variable. Supporting H1a-H1c, DIR (b = .15, p <.01), FAV (b = .16, p < .01), and DEP (b= .22, p <.001) were positively related to stress. H3a-H3c proposed that DIR, FAV, and DEP were positively related to leader negative affect. As shown in Table 6-8, H3a and H3c were supported (DIR: b = .12, p < .01; DEP: b =.11, p < .05). The positive association between FAV

and leader negative affect was marginally significant (*b* = .08, *p* = .09). H5a-5c hypothesized that the positive relationships between DIR, FAV, and DEP and stress would be moderated by coworker support. Yet none of the hypotheses were supported (DIR: *b* = .00, *n.s.*; FAV: *b* = .03, *n.s.*; DEP: *b* = -.09, *n.s.*). Similarly, H7a-7c expected the associations between DIR, FAV, and DEP and negative affect were conditioned by coworker support, but none were supported (DIR: *b* = .07, *n.s.*; FAV: *b* = .07, *n.s.*; DEP: *b* = .07, *n.s.*).

To test the indirect effects of leader LMX tensions on outcome variables through stress and negative affect, I used 10,000 bootstrap samples to obtain confidence internals for the proposed indirect effects. H9 predicted that stress mediated the associations between leader LMX tensions and leader relationship satisfaction. As shown in Table 10, only H9a was supported, as the indirect effect of stress on the relationship between DIR and relationship satisfaction was significant (*indirect effect* = -.014, *95% CI* [-.046, -.001]). Other indirect effects were not significant (FAV: *indirect effect* = -.013, *95% CI* [-.047, .001]; DEP: *indirect effect* = -.022, *95% CI* [-.061, .002]). The indirect effects of leader LMX tensions on leader relationship commitment (DIR: *indirect effect* = .001, *95% CI* [-.019, .020]; FAV: *indirect effect* = .001, *95% CI* [-.014, .030]; DEP: *indirect effect* = .000, *95% CI* [-.027, .033]), and leader relationship disengagement intention (DIR: *indirect effect* = .000, *95% CI* [-.024, .022]; FAV: *indirect effect* = -.002, *95% CI* [-.042, .015]; DEP: *indirect effect* = -.006, *95% CI* [-.051, .025]) through stress were not significant either, thus H10 and H11 were not supported. H15-H17 proposed that leader LMX tensions negatively related to leader task performance, and OCB, and positively related to withdrawal behaviors through stress. I did not find support for these hypotheses (task performance: *indirect effects* = -.015, -.017, -.026, *95% CIs* [-.073, .010; -.086, .008; -.099, .028] respectively for DIR, FAV, and DEP; OCB: *indirect effects* = -.009; -.010, -.019, *95% CIs* [-

.053, .016; -.057, .014; -.076, .033] respectively for DIR, FAV, and DEP; withdrawal: *indirect effects* = -.002; -.004, -.008, *95% CIs* [-.021, .012; -.029, .008; -.036, .017] respectively for DIR, FAV, and DEP).

Table 10 also shows the indirect effects of negative affect on the relationships between leader LMX tensions and leader outcomes. Again, I failed to find support for H21-23, or H27-29. Specifically, H21 expected that leader negative affect mediated the associations between a) DIR, b) FAV, c) DEP and leader relationship satisfaction. The results showed that the indirect effects were not significant for each leader LMX tension (DIR: *indirect effect* = -.014, *95% CI* [-.050, .000]; FAV: *indirect effect* = -.008, *95% CI* [-.039, .004]; DEP: *indirect effect* = -.014, *95% CI* [-.051, .004]). Similarly, the results did not show significant indirect effects of negative affect on the links between leader LMX tensions and leader relationship commitment and disengagement intention (relationship commitment: DIR: *indirect effect* = -.004, *95% CI* [-.036, .015]; FAV: *indirect effect* = -.002, *95% CI* [-.029, .008]; DEP: *indirect effect* = -.005, *95% CI* [-.040, .014]; relationship disengagement intention: DIR: *indirect effect* = .003, *95% CI* [-.018, .032]; FAV: *indirect effect* = .002, *95% CI* [-.009, .028]; DEP: *indirect effect* = .003, *95% CI* [-.019, .034]). H27-29 concerns behavioral outcomes. Respectively, the results of indirect effects of negative affect on DIR, FAV, DEP and leader task performance were -.004; -.001; -.002 with 95% CIs [-.039, .024], [-.030, .015], [-.036, .032] respectively. The indirect effects of negative affect on DIR, FAV, DEP and leader OCB were -.012; -.007; -.013 with 95% CIs [-.049, .005], [-.042, .004], [-.056, .005]. The indirect effects of negative affect on DIR, FAV, DEP and leader withdrawal behavior were .00; -.001; -.001 with 95% CIs [-.021, .018], [-.017, .001], [-.024, .017].

Member Outcomes

As a manipulation check, I measured participants' LMX with the subordinates they thought about during survey completion. LMX was assessed using Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) 7-item scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree,* α = .87). The average LMX was 4.02 (*SD* = .99).

Table 11 presents the means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations of study 2 variables using member data. H2 expected that the six types of member tensions a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, and f) OC were positively related to stress. Consistent with H2a, CBC was positively related to stress (see table 11, b = .19, p < .001). Supporting H2b, H2e, and H2f, WLD (b =.09, p < .05), WLB (b =.10, p <.05), and OC (b =.13, p <.05) were associated with stress positively as well. However, as shown in Table 14, WQE was not related to stress, thus H2c was not supported (b = -.05, *n.s.*). WAR was marginally related to stress, so H2d was only marginally supported (b =.09, p = .05). H4 proposed that member LMX tensions: a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC were positively related to negative affect. CBC (b = .21, p < .001), WLD (b = .21, p < .001), WAR (b = .14, p < .05), WLB (b = .27, p < .001), OC (b = .42, p < .001) were positively linked with negative affect, supporting H4a-4b, and H4d-4f. Yet, the association between WQE and negative affect was only marginally supported (H3c, b =.12, p = .098). H6 predicted that the positive relationships between a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and stress were moderated by coworker support. H8 proposed that coworker support would moderate the positive associations between a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and negative affect. Table 12-17 provides the results. They show that none of the interaction terms were significant, thus neither H6 nor H8 were supported.

Table 18 shows the results of indirect effects of member LMX tensions on member outcomes through two mediators - stress and negative affect using 10,000 bootstrapping samples. H12 stated that stress mediated the associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship satisfaction. H12a was supported, as the indirect effect of stress on the link between CBC and relationship satisfaction was significant (*indirect effect* = -.046, *95% CI* [-.114, -.006]). H12e was also supported (*indirect effect* = -.030, *95% CI* [-.081, -.002]). H12b-12d and H12f were not supported. Similarly, although H13 proposed the mediating effect of stress on the associations between member LMX tensions on relationship commitment, stress only significantly mediated the links between CBC, WLB and relationship commitment, supporting H13a and H13e (CBC: *indirect effect* = -.045, *95% CI* [-.107, -.008]; WLB *indirect effect* = -.028, *95% CI* [-.078, -.002]). H13b-13d and H13f were not supported. H14 expected that stress mediated the associations between member LMX tensions, a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship disengagement intention. Again, only H14a and H14e were supported, as their indirect effects were significant (CBC: *indirect effect* = .067, *95% CI* [.023, .138]; WLD: *indirect effect* = .041, *95%CI* [.002, .105]). For behavioral outcomes, H18 expected that a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, and f) OC influenced member task performance through stress. I only found support for H18a and H18e (CBC: *indirect effect* = -.045, *95% CI* [-.099, -.013]; WLD: *indirect effect* = -.081, *95%CI* [-.001, -.014]). H19 proposed that stress mediated the associations between a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, and f) OC and OCB. H20 expected the mediation effect of stress on links between a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, and f) OC and withdrawal behaviors. I failed to find support for H19 and H20.

H24 proposed that negative affect mediated the associations between a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship satisfaction. H24a, H24b, H24e, and H24f were supported, as the indirect effects of negative affect on links between CBC (*indirect effect* = -.077, *95% CI* [-.164, -.023]), WLD (*indirect effect* = -.082, *95% CI* [-.162, -.034]), WLB (*indirect effect* = -.111, *95% CI* [-.217, -.047]), and OC (*indirect effect* = -.186, *95% CI* [-.352, -.091]) and relationship satisfaction were significant. H24b and H24c were not supported. H25 concerned the mediating effect of negative affect on relationships between a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship commitment. Except H25b and H25c, the hypotheses were supported. CBC (*indirect effect* = -.071, *95% CI* [-.146, -.024]), WLD (*indirect effect* = -.073, *95% CI* [-.139, -.033]), WLB (*indirect effect* = -.101, *95% CI* [-.192, -.044]), and OC (*indirect effect* = -.170, *95% CI* [-.327, -.085]) affected member relationship commitment through negative affect. H26 predicted that negative affect mediated the relationships between a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC, and member relationship disengagement intention. Again, I did not find support for neither H26b nor H26c. H26a H26b, H26e, and H26f were supported. The indirect effects of CBC, WLD, WLB, and OC were .064 (*95% CI* [.017, .145]), .061(*95% CI* [.014, .138]), .092(*95% CI* [.032, .195]), .154 (*95% CI* [.061, .318]) respectively.

In terms of behavioral outcomes, H30 proposed that a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC influenced member task performance via negative affect. Supporting H30b, H30e, and H30f, the indirect effects of negative affect were significant on relationships between WLD (*indirect effect* = -.047, *95% CI* [-.114, -.011]), WLB (*indirect effect* = -.041, *95% CI* [-.108, -.004]), and OC (*indirect effect* = -.08, *95% CI* [-.186, -.021]), and task performance. H30a and H30b-30c were not supported. H31 expected that negative affect mediated the associations

between a) CBC, b) WLD, c) WQE, d) WAR, e) WLB, f) OC and member OCB. The indirect effects of negative affect was significant for the links between CBC (*indirect effect* = -.027, *95% CI*[-.077, -.021]), WLD(*indirect effect* = -.039, *95% CI*[-.095, -.007]), WLB(*indirect effect* = -.047, *95% CI*[-.120, -.007]), and OC(*indirect effect* = -.085, *95% CI*[-.185, -.003]) and OCB, supporting H31a-31b, and H31e-31f. H31c and H31d were not supported. H32 expected the indirect effects of negative affect on the links between the six types of member tensions and withdrawal behaviors. However, no support was found for H32. So negative affect did not mediate the relationships between member tensions and withdrawal behaviors.

In sum, for members, except that WQE was marginally significant, all other member tensions were positively related to negative affect. Member tensions were positively linked with stress except WQE and WAR (marginally). Negative affect mediated the relationships between some member LMX tensions with relationship attitudes, task performance, and OCB. For stress, it mediated the associations between some member LMX tensions and relationship attitudes and task performance. Its indirect effects on OCB and withdrawal behaviors were not significant. For leaders, DIR, and DEP were positively associated with leader negative affect, with FAV as marginally significant. All three types of leader tensions were positively related to stress. However, the indirect effects of negative affect on leader relationship attitudes and work behaviors were not supported. Stress only exerted significant indirect effect on the relationship between DIR and relationship satisfaction. Other indirect effects were not supported.

In sum, in terms of leader tensions, DIR and DEP were positively related to stress and negative affect. FAV only significantly related to stress. Only the indirect effect of stress on the relationship between DIR and leader relationship satisfaction was supported. Regarding member tensions, CBC, WLD, WLB, and OC were positively associated with stress and negative affect.

WAR only significantly linked with negative affect. WQE was not related to stress or negative affect. Neither WQE nor WAR influenced member outcomes through negative affect or stress. Through negative affect, WLD, WLB, and OC affected relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment, relationship disengagement, task performance, and OCB. Negative affect also mediated the relationships between CBC and relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment, relationship disengagement, and OCB, but not task performance and withdrawal. However, stress only showed significant mediating effects on links between CBC, WLB and member outcomes including relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment, relationship disengagement intention, and task performance.

Table 6: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations between Variables-Leader Data

	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. LMX tenure	4.87	3.53														
2. Secure	3.68	.91	-.04													
3. Dismissing	4.11	.93	.07	.05												
4. DIR	2.87	1.24	.03	.00	-.10											
5. FAV	2.62	1.14	-.06	-.01	.05	.28**										
6. DEP	2.78	1.12	-.08	.02	.08	.37**	.51**									
7. Coworker support	4.17	.89	.05	.11	.11	-.18**	-.11	.01								
8. Stress	3.03	.87	-.12	.05	-.10	.14*	.11	.22**	-.29**							
9. Negative affect	2.24	.80	-.10	-.12	.05	.18**	.06	.12	-.29**	.25**						
10. Relationship satisfaction	4.79	.69	.07	.05	.14*	-.07	-.11	-.12	.14*	-.14*	-.12					
11. Relationship commitment	4.37	.67	.07	.04	.09	-.03	-.02	.02	.09	-.01	-.04	.66**				
12. Disengagement intention	2.32	.73	.01	-.02	.01	.10	.17**	.16*	-.06	.00	.04	-.36**	-.39**			
13. Task performance	4.81	.95	.12	.19	.16	.05	.06	-.07	.32**	-.17	-.07	.32**	.25**	-.16		
14. OCB	3.85	.82	.09	.08	.10	-.04	.01	.04	.36**	-.10	-.14	.35**	.30**	-.08	.44**	
15. Withdrawal	2.03	.64	.02	-.06	-.01	.04	.10	.01	-.07	-.06	.02	.11	-.01	.01	-.42**	-.09

Note. $N = 103$.

$^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 7: Relationships between DIR, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	-.03	-.02	-.03	-.03	.01	.01	.01	.01	.00	.00	.02	.03	.02	.02	.00	.00
Secure	-.13*	-.12*	.01	.03	.05*	.07	.03	.04	-.03	-.03	.20*	.21*	.06	.08	-.05	-.05
Dismissing	.06	.09	-.05	-.03	.09	.07	.09	.08	.01	.01	.15	.14	.04	.03	-.01	-.01
Independent variable																
DIR	.12**	.10*	.15**	.12*	-.02	-.02	-.01	-.02	.06	.07	.04	.04	-.03	-.03	.01	.01
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.19**		-.27**												
DIR X Coworker support		.07		.00												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.14†		-.04		.03		-.04		-.12		.00	
Stress						-.12†		.01		-.03		-.13		-.08		-.02
R^2	.08†	.14**	.07†	.13**	.05	.05	.03	.02	.02	.02	.08	.09†	.04	.03	.01	.01

Note. $N = 103$.

$^{\dagger} p < .10$; $^{*} p < .05$; $^{**} p < .01$.

Table 8: Relationships between FAV, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	-.02	-.02	-.03	-.02	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.03	.03	.01	.01	.01	.01
Secure	-.13*	-.12†	.01	.03	.05*	.07	.03	.04	-.03	-.03	.18†	.18†	.06	.08	-.05	-.05
Dismissing	.03	.06	-.09	-.05	.10	.08	.09	.09	-.01	-.01	.13	.11	.04	.03	-.01	-.02
Independent variable																
FAV	.08†	.06	.16**	.12*	-.08†	-.07	-.02	-.02	.13**	.13*	.07	.09	.02	.02	.07	.07
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.21**		-.26**												
FAV X Coworker support		.07		.03												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.13†		-.04		.03		-.03		-.12		-.01	
Stress						-.11†		.01		-.02		-.15		-.09		-.03
R^2	.05	.12*	.06†	.13**	.07†	.07†	.03	.02	.05	.05	.07	.10†	.03	.03	.02	.02

Note. $N = 103$.

$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 9: Relationships between DEP, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.02	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.03	.03	.01	.01	.01	.01
Secure	-.14*	-.13*	.01	.01	.05	.07	.03	.04	-.03	-.03	.21*	.21*	.06	.08	-.05	-.05
Dismissing	.03	.04	-.10	-.09	.10†	.09	.09	.09	-.01	-.02	.15	.13	.04	.03	-.01	-.02
Independent variable																
DEP	.11*	.11*	.22***	.22***	-.07	-.06	.01	.00	.11	.12*	-.04	-.02	.02	.02	.05	.06
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.24***		-.30***												
DEP X Coworker support		-.07		-.09												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.13†		-.05		.03*		-.02		-.12		-.01	
Stress						-.10		.00		-.03		-.12		-.09		-.04
R^2	.07†	.14**	.11*	.19**	.06†	.06†	.03	.02	.04	.04	.08	.09	.03	.03	.01	.02

Note. $N = 103$.

$^{\dagger} p < .10$; $^{*} p < .05$; $^{**} p < .01$; $^{***} p < .001$.

Table 10: Indirect Effects of Leader LMX Tensions on Outcomes via Negative Affect and Stress

	Relationship satisfaction			Relationship commitment			Disengagement intention			Task performance			OCB			Withdrawal		
	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H
Negative affect																		
DIR	-.014	-.050	.000	-.004	-.036	.015	.003	-.018	.032	-.004	-.039	.024	-.012	-.049	.005	.000	-.021	.018
FAV	-.008	-.039	.004	-.002	-.029	.008	.002	-.009	.028	-.001	-.030	.015	-.007	-.042	.004	-.001	-.017	.001
DEP	-.014	-.051	.004	-.005	-.040	.014	.003	-.019	.034	-.002	-.036	.032	-.013	-.056	.005	-.001	-.024	.017
Stress																		
DIR	-.014	-.046	-.001	.001	-.019	.020	.000	-.024	.022	-.015	-.073	.010	-.009	-.053	.016	-.002	-.021	.012
FAV	-.013	-.047	.001	.001	-.014	.030	-.002	-.042	.015	-.017	-.086	.008	-.010	-.057	.014	-.004	-.029	.008
DEP	-.022	-.061	.002	.000	-.027	.033	-.006	-.051	.025	-.026	-.099	.028	-.019	-.076	.033	-.008	-.036	.017

Notes: N = 103. Bootstrap = 10,000. Est. = Effect size estimate.

Table 11: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations between Variables-Member Data

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. LMX tenure	3.50	3.24																	
2. Secure	3.67	1.08	.05																
3. Dismissing	3.81	.96	.03	.47**															
4. CBC	2.30	1.09	-.06	-.06	-.01														
5. WLD	2.90	1.40	.10	.19**	.06	.35**													
6. WQE	4.10	1.00	.12	.27**	.16*	.10	.32**												
7. WAR	2.66	1.17	.15*	.11	.00	.48**	.58**	.29**											
8. WLB	1.91	1.12	.06	-.01	-.06	.49**	.35**	.17**	.56**										
9. OC	1.94	.79	.13	.07	-.01	.22**	.30**	.18**	.37**	.44**									
10. Cosupport	3.77	.89	.00	.28**	.10	-.14*	-.12	.14*	-.13*	-.13	-.13*								
11. Stress	3.21	.78	.09	-.15*	-.17*	.26**	.10	-.08	.10	.15*	.11	-.21**							
12. NA	2.16	.97	.07	-.06	-.07	.25**	.26**	.12	.19**	.31**	.33**	-.25**	.40**						
13. Resat	4.34	1.17	.03	.16	.19*	-.28**	-.16	.21*	-.08	-.23*	-.07	.33**	-.22*	-.38**					
14. Recom	4.19	.99	.14	.21*	.11	-.29**	-.19*	.22*	-.12	-.20*	-.05	.27**	-.26**	-.36**	.77**				
15. DisenIntent	2.76	1.25	-.08	.01	.07	.30**	.24**	-.03	.20*	.23*	.12	-.18*	.26**	.30**	-.40**	-.44**			
16. Task performance	4.68	1.02	.09	.15	.16	-.37**	.04	.09	-.09	-.28**	-.09	.04	-.30**	-.14	.36**	.43**	-.20*		
17. OCB	3.74	1.00	.23*	.20*	.09	-.21*	.03	.31**	.18*	.00	.11	.14	-.15	-.17	.39**	.36**	-.19*	.42**	
18. Withdrawal	1.89	.74	-.10	.18*	.01	.29**	.23**	.03	.21*	.28**	.12	-.01	.07	.12	-.18*	-.20*	.19*	-.29**	-.07

Note. $N = 152$. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Cosupport = Coworker support; NA = Negative affect; Resat = Relationship satisfaction; Recom = Relationship commitment; DisenIntent = Disengagement intention.

Table 12: Relationships between CBC, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	.03	.02	.03†	.03†	.00	-.01	.04	.03	-.03	-.02	.01	.01	.06*	.06*	-.03	-.03
Secure	.00	.06	-.10†	-.07	.03	.00	.11	.09	.08	.12	.04	.02	.12	.11	.18**	.18**
Dismissing	-.08	-.09	-.09	-.10	.16	.18	.01	.03	.14	.14	.16	.16†	-.01	.00	-.07	-.07
Independent variable																
CBC	.21***	.18**	.19***	.18***	-.24**	-.25*	-.19*	-.20*	.30**	.27**	-.33***	-.30***	-.16*	-.16*	.21***	.22***
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.26***		-.12*												
CBC X Coworker support		.07		.07												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.41***		-.38***		.34**		-.13		-.14		.09	
Stress						-.27**		-.27*		.40**		-.27*		-.10		.01
R^2	.07*	.13**	.13**	.16***	.25**	.16*	.25***	.16**	.21**	.19**	.24**	.27***	.14*	.13*	.18**	.17**

Note. $N = 152$.

$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 13: Relationships between WLD, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	.01	.01	.02	.02	.01	.00	.04	.04	-.04	-.03	.02	.01	.07	.07*	-.04	-.04
Secure	-.06	.02	-.13*	-.09	.08	.07	.16*	.15†	-.01	.03	.07	.13	.13	.13	.13†	.13*
Dismissing	-.06	-.08	-.08	-.09	.13	.14	-.01	.00	.17	.17	.13	.13	-.03	-.02	-.05	-.05
Independent variable																
WLD	.21***	.19***	.09*	.10*	-.09	-.17**	-.10	-.17**	.17*	.23**	.04	.00	.03	-.02	.10†	.11*
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.24**		-.14*												
WLD X Coworker support		.11		.06												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.41***		-.36***		.30*		-.23*		-.19†		.08	
Stress						-.35**		-.33**		.48***		-.39**		-.17		.09
R^2	.10**	.18***	.08*	.12**	.20**	.16*	.21**	.18**	.16**	.22**	.10†	.15*	.11*	.09†	.11*	.11*

Note. $N = 152$.

$^{\dagger} p < .10$; $^{*} p < .05$; $^{**} p < .01$; $^{***} p < .001$.

Table 14: Relationships between WQE, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	.02	.02	.03†	.03	-.01	-.01	.03	.03	-.04	-.03	.02	.02	.05	.05	-.03	-.03
Secure	-.04	.04	-.11†	-.06	.02	.00	.10	.09	.05	.08	.08	.05	.09	.08	.15*	.16*
Dismissing	-.07	-.09	-.09	-.09	.13	.15	-.02	.00	.17	.16	.13	.13	-.04	-.03	-.05	-.05
Independent variable																
WQE	.12†	.14*	-.05	-.07	.22*	.14	.19*	.12	-.03	.06	.01	-.05	.29**	.26**	-.01	.02
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.33***		-.17**												
WQE X Coworker support		-.03		-.07												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.47***		-.43***		.41**		-.21*		-.20*		.14†	
Stress						-.34**		-.33**		.52***		-.40***		-.12		.11
R^2	.02	.01***	.06†	.10**	.22**	.11*	.23**	.12*	.14*	.14*	.10†	.16*	.18**	.15*	.09†	.06

Note. $N = 152$.

$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 15: Relationships between WAR, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	.05	.01	.02	.02	.01	.01	.05†	.05	-.06	-.05	.03	.02	.06†	.06†	-.05*	-.05†
Secure	-.04	.05	-.13*	-.08	.07	.04	.15†	.12	.01	.06	.10	.06	.13	.11	.14*	.14*
Dismissing	-.05	-.08	-.08	-.10	.12	.14	-.03	-.02	.20†	.20†	.11	.11	-.01	-.01	-.03	-.03
Independent variable																
WAR	.14*	.10†	.09†	.11*	-.08	-.11	-.40***	-.15*	.26**	.27**	-.11	-.11	.10	.09	.15**	.16**
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.28***		-.15*												
WAR X Coworker support		.06		.09												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.45***		-.13†		.36**		-.19*		-.20*		.11	
Stress						-.36**		-.33**		.47***		-.38**		-.18		.08
R^2	.04	.10**	.08*	.12**	.20**	.12*	.23**	.15**	.21**	.21**	.11*	.17**	.12*	.10†	.15*	.14*

Note. $N = 152$.

$^{\dagger} p < .10$; $^{*} p < .05$; $^{**} p < .01$; $^{***} p < .001$.

Table 16: Relationships between WLB, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	.02	.02	.02	.02†	.01	.00	.04	.04	-.04	-.03	.03	.02	.07	.07*	-.04	-.04
Secure	-.02	.06	-.12*	-.08	.06	.03	.14†	.11	.04	.09	.09	.05	.14†	.12	.15*	.16*
Dismissing	-.05	-.06	-.08	-.09	.11	.11	-.03	-.03	.21	.22†	.09	.08	-.03	-.03	-.01	-.01
Independent variable																
WLB	.27***	.23***	.10*	.10†	-.15†	-.20*	-.12	-.16*	.23*	.26**	-.22**	-.23**	.00	-.02	.20**	.21***
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.29***		-.15*												
WLB X Coworker support		-.10		.02												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.42***		-.39***		.36**		-.16†		-.18†		.09	
Stress						-.36**		-.34**		.49***		-.37***		-.17		.09
R^2	.11**	.17***	.08*	.11**	.22**	.15*	.23**	.21**	.20**	.23**	.16*	.09†	.11†	.17**	.18**	.11**

Note. $N = 152$.

$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 17: Relationships between WLB, Negative Affect, Stress, and Outcomes

	Negative affect		Stress		Relationship satisfaction		Relationship commitment		Disengagement intention		Task performance		OCB		Withdrawal	
Controls																
LMX tenure	.01	.01	.02	.02	.00	.00	.04	.04	-.05	-.04	.02	.02	.06†	.06†	-.04†	-.04†
Secure	-.03	.04	-.12*	-.08	.06	.02	.14†	.10	.05	.11	.08	.04	.15†	.13	.16*	.17**
Dismissing	-.06	-.07	-.08	-.09	.14	.14	-.01	.00	.18	.19	.12	.11	-.02	-.01	-.04	-.04
Independent variable																
OC	.42***	.38***	.13*	.13†	.03	-.12	.03	-.10	.13	.26*	-.06	-.14	.18†	.12	.14	.18*
Moderator																
Coworker support		-.26***		-.16*												
OC X Coworker support		-.12		.05												
Mediator																
Negative affect					-.46***		-.43***		.39**		-.20*		-.21*		.11	
Stress						-.38**		-.36**		.53***		-.40***		-.16		.12
R^2	.14**	.19***	.08*	.11**	.19**	.12†	.21**	.13*	.15*	.19**	.10†	.18*	.12*	.10†	.12†	.12†

Note. $N = 152$.

$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 18: Indirect Effects of Member LMX Tensions on Outcomes via Negative Affect and Stress

	Relationship satisfaction			Relationship commitment			Disengagement intention			Task performance			OCB			Withdrawal		
	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H	Est.	95% CI L	95% CI H
Negative affect																		
CBC	-.077	-.164	-.023	-.071	-.146	-.024	.064	.017	.145	-.025	-.074	.000	-.027	-.077	-.001	.017	-.008	.061
WLD	-.082	-.162	-.034	-.073	-.139	-.033	.061	.014	.138	-.047	-.114	-.011	-.039	-.095	-.007	.016	-.014	.060
WQE	-.069	-.177	.003	-.063	-.161	.002	.060	-.002	.159	-.031	-.095	.000	-.029	-.096	.001	.020	-.003	.071
WAR	-.052	-.135	.007	-.046	-.118	.006	.042	-.003	.115	-.022	-.074	.002	-.023	-.075	.002	.013	-.004	.054
WLB	-.111	-.217	-.047	-.102	-.192	-.044	.092	.032	.195	-.041	-.108	-.004	-.047	-.120	-.007	.024	-.014	.077
OC	-.186	-.352	-.091	-.170	-.327	-.085	.154	.061	.318	-.080	-.186	-.021	-.085	-.185	-.030	.045	-.009	.132
Stress																		
CBC	-.046	-.114	-.006	-.045	-.107	-.008	.067	.023	.138	-.045	-.099	-.013	-.017	-.065	.016	.020	-.034	.033
WLD	-.023	-.070	.001	-.022	-.064	.001	.032	-.003	.074	-.026	-.066	.002	-.011	-.044	.001	.006	-.004	.032
WQE	.011	-.025	.064	.010	-.024	.059	-.016	-.085	.040	.012	-.030	.064	.004	-.008	.034	-.003	-.031	.008
WAR	-.021	-.070	.009	-.019	-.065	.008	.027	-.014	.080	-.022	-.065	.012	-.010	-.043	.004	.005	-.004	.030
WLB	-.030	-.081	-.002	-.028	-.078	-.002	.041	.002	.105	-.031	-.081	-.001	-.014	-.051	.001	.007	-.006	.035
OC	-.038	-.111	.000	-.036	-.104	.001	.053	-.004	.133	-.040	-.109	.005	-.016	-.064	.002	.012	-.004	.053

Notes: N = 103. Bootstrap = 10,000. Est. = Effect size estimate.

Study 2 Discussion

Although both leader and member tensions can lead to negative affect and stress, they showed greater influence directly and indirectly on member relationship attitudes and behaviors relative to leader outcomes. For example, the indirect effects of negative affect or stress on leader outcomes through leader LMX tensions were mostly unsupported, whereas some indirect effects were supported in member data. Additionally, as shown in Table 7-9, most of the direct links of leader tensions on leader outcomes were not significant, while the direct relationships between member tensions and member outcomes were significant.

Such difference might result from different tensions members and leaders in high-quality LMX experienced. For example, although DEP, one leader LMX tension, adds extra work demands on leaders, it indirectly recognizes the leader's competence to guide the member. Member's over-dependence also grants the more powerful position the leader holds in the leader-member relationship, as a person's dependence is reversely related to their power (Emerson, 1972; Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009). Also because they have more relational power, leaders are more confident and secure with regard to the relationship, and more controllable over important relationship decisions (Farrell, Simpson, & Rothman, 2015; Overall, Hammond, McNulty, & Finkel, 2016; Vanderdrift, Agnew, Harvey, & Warren, 2013). Accordingly, when faced with relationship challenges, they react more positively (Berman & Frazier, 2005; Kuehn, Chen, & Gordon, 2015; Overall et al., 2016). Another reason behind this could the leaders' greater access to more resources in the workplace that help them better address the negative affect and stress caused by LMX tensions.

The results also showed that neither leader nor member tensions affected work withdrawal directly or indirectly. This may be because work withdrawal behaviors reflect the

underlying negative attitudes toward a group or an organization (Hulin, 1991). Reduced task performance and OCB can be a result of insufficient resources in dealing with exceeding demands. Undesirable as they are, they do not necessarily cause detriment to an organization. Yet, withdrawal behaviors are harmful counter-productive behaviors (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2004; Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). For high-quality LMX partners, despite of the tensions, they may not be so angry to blame the group or the organization and act adversely to harm group or organizational performance.

I did not find support for the moderating effect of coworker support in both the leader and member data. This may be because of small sample sizes of both leader and member data constrain the power to detect the moderating effect. . However, it may also be because the benefits of coworker support cannot reduce the negative impact of LMX tensions. That is, the resources gained from coworkers may insufficiently compensate for the resources depleted by LMX tensions (Hobfoll, Freedy, Lane, & Geller, 1990; Halbesleben, Jonathon, Neveu, Paustian-Underdalh, & Westman, 2014), as coworker support cannot meet the resource demands high-quality LMX partners have when they feel LMX tensions.

Due to sample size, the results presented so far were based on models with one type of tension as the main independent factor. However, it is more desirable to test a model with all independent variables, mediators, and outcome variables included. Figure 2-3 showed the results of path analyses with all variables included for leader tensions and member tensions. The model fit for leader model was $\chi^2 = 42.11$ ($p = .47$), $df = 42$, $CFI = 1.00$, $RMSEA = .00$, $SRMR = .06$. The model fit for member model was $\chi^2 = 93.03$ ($p < .01$), $df = 60$, $CFI = .93$, $RMSEA = .05$, $SRMR = .04$.

One interesting finding in the SEM model results was that coworker support moderated the associations between WLD and negative affect ($b = .12, p < .05$) and WLB and negative affect ($b = -.18, p < .05$), which differs from results based on models with one tension as the main independent factor, wherein no support was found for the moderating effect of coworker support. Also interesting is the pattern of the moderating effect. For the link between WLD and negative affect, the relationship was enhanced with high coworker support, while it would was attenuated with low coworker. This conflicts with the prediction that high coworker support should weaken this association. For the relationship between WLB and negative affect however, the pattern of coworker support's moderating effect was as expected, such that the link between WLB and negative affect was weaker when coworker support was high. Again, these results should be interpreted with caution. That is, the reliability of the results is doubtful, as I tested this complicated model with a relatively small sample.

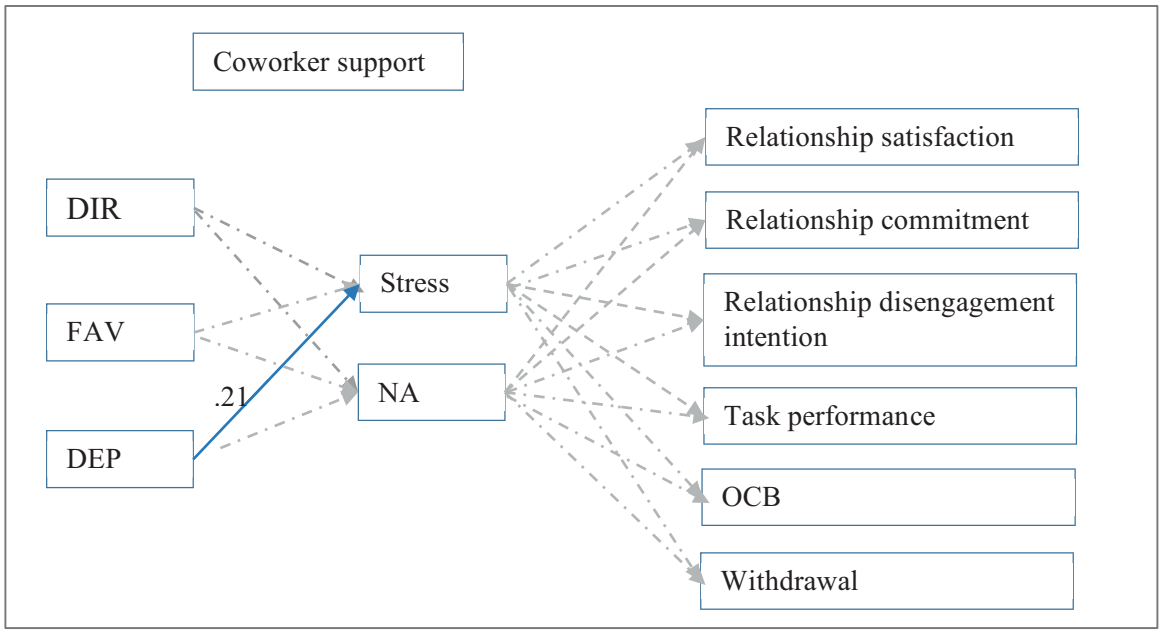

Figure 2: Results of Path Analysis for the Consequences of Leader LMX Tensions

Notes: Numbers shown are unstandardized path estimates; dashed lines indicate non-significant relationships ($p > .05$). Control variables are LMX tenure, secure, dismissing.

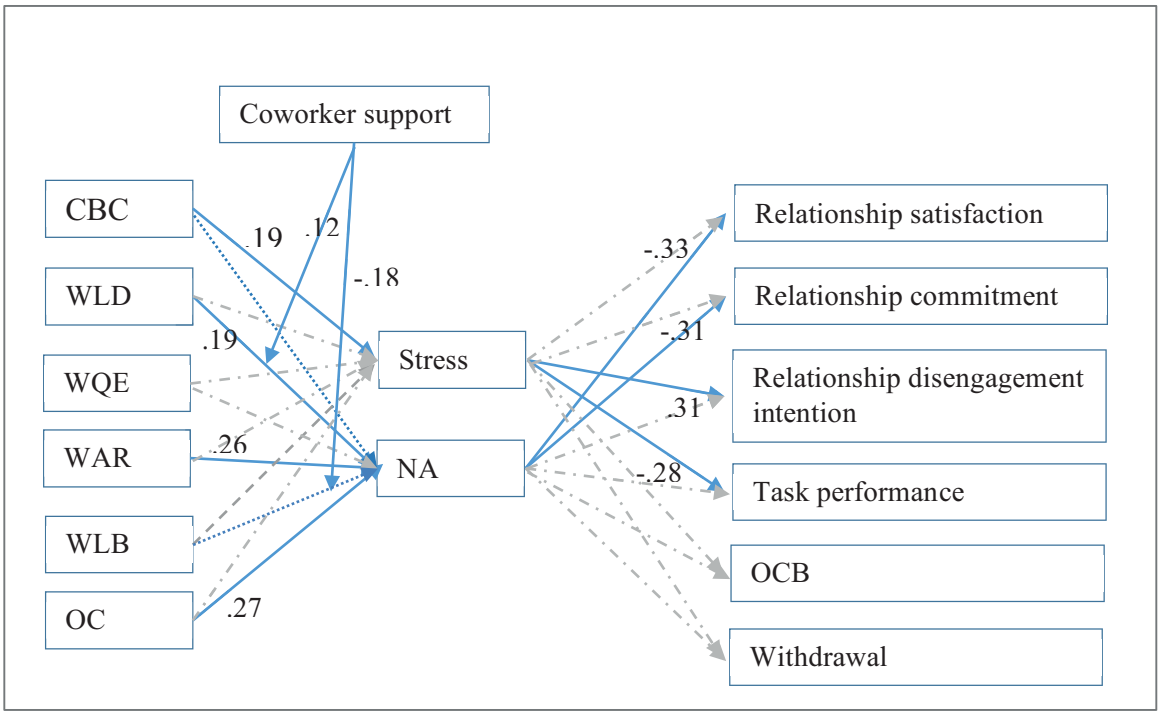

Figure 3: Results of Path Analysis for the Consequences of Leader LMX Tensions

Notes: Numbers shown are unstandardized path estimates; grey dashed lines indicate non-significant relationships ($p > .05$); dot dashed lines indicate marginally significant relationships ($p < .10$). Blue solid lines indicate significant relationships ($p < .05$). Control variables are LMX tenure, secure, dismissing

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Theoretical Implications

Recent years have seen an increasing use of "dialectical approach" to study work phenomena. Scholars have spent more efforts investigating the dark or light side of phenomena that have been prevailingly considered as positive or negative. For instance, the negative aspects of OCB (e.g., Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004; Spector, 2013) and potential beneficial side of abusive behavior (e.g., Oh & Farh, 2017) have been discussed and tested. There is also an increase in "too much of a good thing" work, in which scholars explore the unwanted outcomes of a desirable situation when it overwhelms the individual (e.g., Antonakis, House, & Simonton, 2017; Harris & Kacmar, 2006; Langfred, 2004). Such exploration provides a more balanced and thorough view of the phenomena of interest.

Following this trend, this dissertation draws on Relational Dialectics Theory and proposes that high-quality LMX can bring tensional and constraining experiences to LMX partners. Applying a mixed-method approach, this dissertation finds that high-quality leaders can feel three types of tensions: DIR, FAV, and DEP, and high-quality members can experience CBC, WLB, WAR, WLD, WQE, and OC. Such tensions can lead to negative affect and stress, through which some members' relationship attitude and work behaviors are negatively impacted. These findings illustrate the potential dark side of high-quality LMX and provides a more comprehensive picture of leader-member relationship. They also suggest that LMX, especially high-quality LMX, is far more complex than is generally considered. A complete understanding of LMX requires a broader scholarly exploration on factors that might make high-quality LMX a

stressor for LMX partners. Moreover, as LMX serves as a form of leadership based on relationship, the findings add evidence on the paradox or contradictions leaders confront in people management (Smith & Lewis, 2011; Zhang, Waldman, Han, & Li, 2015).

Besides, as both leader and member outcomes are considered in the model, the dissertation answers the call for more research on "what about leaders?" in LMX (Liden et al., 1997; Wilson et al., 2010). Although pointed out by Liden, Sparrowe and Wayne (1997) that "more research is needed on outcomes of LMX for leaders" (p. 73), till today LMX research mainly examines member outcomes (Wilson et al., 2010). Our understanding of the impact of LMX on leaders is very limited. Being one party of the dyadic relationship, leaders likely face tensions in high-quality LMX just like members. For example, because leaders have access to more organizational resources (Anderson et al., 2012; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004), members may rely on leaders for special favors. Providing such favors to close members will violate management rules while rejecting such requests fails members' expectations, creating tensions in the relationship. I do find in high-quality LMX leaders experience the tension between favoritism and impartiality. They need to address the tension between directness and indirectness in communicating negative feedback with close subordinates and the tension between dependence and autonomy in managing close members. These tensions add challenges in leadership, as they give rise to stress and negative affect among leaders. Studying relational tensions that leaders encounter helps to address the void of leader outcomes in LMX research.

In addition, the exploration of dialectical tensions in high-quality LMX provides theoretical insights on LMX change, especially LMX decline. Extant LMX literature argues that once developed, high-quality LMX remains stable and gradually improves over time (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Nahrgang et al., 2009). However, all interpersonal relationships are inherently

dialectical (Baxter, 2004, 2015). Relationship partners are constantly adjusting to the presence of oppositional, relational forces (Montgomery, 1993). These adjustments transform the relationship from one moment to the next, resulting in continuous relational change (Cupach, 1992; Montgomery, 1993; Montgomery & Baxter, 1998; Sias, 2009). The current study presents that LMX tensions strain LMX partners, which reduces relationship satisfaction, relationship commitment and fosters relationship disengagement intentions. If relational tensions are not managed properly, intention to disengage from the relationship can result in actual relationship disengagement behaviors (Baxter & Erbert, 1999; Sias, 2009). Thus, although the decline process of LMX is not the focus of the present dissertation, it provides an initial indication that LMX may be subject to change or decline even after it reaches a high-quality level.

Practical Implications

LMX tensions in high-quality LMX relationships undoubtedly require LMX partners to effectively manage the leader-member relationship in order to reap the benefits of high-quality LMX and avoid the potential negative impacts. Because leaders acquire more resources, are more powerful, and less subject to LMX tensions in high-quality LMX (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004), they need to realize the existence of tensions high-quality LMX members might experience, and be more cautious about whether their demands, expectations, and offerings – even out of good intention – create pressure for members. They need to know that members, being more dependent in the LMX relationship, tend to refrain from saying no to leaders' requests even though they honestly want to. Thus, one thing leaders can do is encourage open discussions with their high-quality LMX members about their true feelings and adjust their demands, expectations, and offerings to fit members' capabilities and present situations.

Members also need to be aware of the inherent tensions in high-quality LMX relationships and try to manage them in the early stages of LMX development, because once the dyadic leader-member interactions become routinized, it is harder to make changes (Graen & Scandura, 1987). In early stages of LMX development, members can attentively set relationship boundaries with leaders. For example, a member can express their discomfort when his/her leader tries to mingle with their personal life the first time. Through this process, the leader can learn about the relationship boundary and adjust expectations and interaction behaviors accordingly.

Limitations and Future Research

Future research can benefit from considering the limitations of the current studies. First, data in all studies were collected from Chinese samples. Our results may largely reflect LMX tensions in Chinese context. For high-quality leader-member dyads in western culture, the tensions and their consequences might be different because of cultural background. For example, defined as "a style that combines strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence" (Farh & Cheng, 2000, p.91), paternalistic leadership is still effective and prevalent in Chinese business culture (Farh, Cheng, Chou, & Chu, 2004; Pellegrini & Scandura 2008). Authoritarianism describes leader behaviors that assert authority and control, whereas benevolence pertains to an individualized concern for subordinates' personal well-being. The benevolence in paternalistic leadership manifests in leaders' involvement in members' personal life, such as matchmaking for subordinates, while such involvement is perceived as intrusive in western culture (Pellegrini & Scandura 2008). Thus, WLB, a tension high-quality LMX member experiences, may not be a concern for high-quality LMX members in western culture, as leaders

are not expected to “manage” subordinates’ personal life in western context. Future research should explore the tensions high-quality LMX partners face in different cultures and examine whether the tensions identified in current studies stand in other cultural contexts. It will also be worthwhile to compare such tensions in different cultures in cross-cultural studies.

Second, although this research shows the potential troublesome side of high-quality LMX, it does not mean all high-quality LMX partners will experience these LMX tensions. That is, it may not necessarily always be the case that all leaders and members in high-quality LMX relationships will have such tension-filled experiences. There are high-quality LMX partners who manage LMX well and avoid LMX tensions and their negative influences. Indeed, there were participants in the pilot study who mentioned leaders with whom they had a perfect relationship during their LMX tenure. Some factors may play a role in whether high-quality LMX partners experience LMX tensions and suffer their influences. For example, as a key component of emotional intelligence, empathy refers to the ability to recognize and understand the feelings and emotions of others (Goleman, 1995). Leaders with high empathy are more likely to anticipate and understand the tensional feelings high-quality members might have for a certain demand or expectation. Hence, they will be more considerate in leader-member interactions and more cautious about their extra demands or offerings, which can reduce the possibility of LMX tensions. Further studies should explore the factors that affect the existence and intensity of LMX tensions in high-quality LMX to offer insights on high-quality LMX management and maintenance.

Third, this research focuses on tensional experiences in high-quality LMX. To ensure that the relational tensions found were unique to high-quality LMX partners, I asked participants’ tensional, stressful, and constraining experiences in low-quality LMX. It turns out that when

leaders and members talked about their low-quality LMX partners, they tended to attribute the unsatisfactory LMX to the LMX partner's leadership skills, work capabilities, personal traits, and even ethics, rather than tensions or stress in their dyadic relationships. Research in the future can explore the tensions or stress that low-quality LMX partners encounter and their impacts on leaders and members.

Fourth, the sample sizes of leader and member samples constrain the power to do path-analyses with all types of tensions included in the model. Instead, I conducted path-analyses for each LMX tension. However, with 136 member observations and 103 leader observations, the power of model testing still suffers. Besides, in study 1 and study 2, members and leaders did not come from matched high-quality LMX dyads. Participants were asked to think about the member/leader they have good relationship currently or have had in the recent past. Despite prompting respondents to consider a relationship partner with whom they had a high-quality LMX, measured LMX scores were lower than expected (average across all measurements = 4.13, ranging from 3.97 to 4.34). Future research can make a stronger case by collecting data from high-quality leader-member dyads. Ideally, the member and the leader should agree on their high-quality LMX. For example, scholars can ask leaders to identify a member they have high LMX and invite the member to participate in the study.

Fifth, I tested relational attitudes and work behaviors as outcomes of LMX tensions in Study 2. However, relative to work behaviors, more direct reactions to LMX tensions should be relational behaviors. When confronted with relational tensions, relationship partners are naturally driven to maintain important relationships like LMX at desired levels (Sias, et al., 2012). For instance, when a high-quality LMX member feels they are assigned too much work, they will likely discuss this issue with the leader as a way to keep a manageable workload and prevent

over workload from impairing LMX or work performance. Future studies should investigate the strategies LMX partners use to cope with LMX tensions and maintain desirable LMX.

Sixth, the relational tensions I found in this study differ from the five dialectal tensions identified in previous work leader-member friendship (e.g., Zorn, 1995), lending support for the notion that high-quality LMX is distinct from leader-member friendship. Yet it is highly possible that a leader and a member develop a close friendship because workplace provides a natural incubator for personal relationships that goes beyond professional boundary (Sias & Gallagher, 2009). When high-quality work leader-member relationship becomes confounded with liking-based friendship, the intensity of LMX tensions might be greater. Future research should explore leader-member friendship and its effects on LMX tensions and their consequences.

Seventh, this research explored the dark side of high-quality LMX by specifically focusing on tensional experiences high-quality LMX partners confront. LMX literature suggests other potential downsides of high-quality LMX. For example, high-quality LMX can impair the member's social network. In previous research on LMX and social network, being close to supervisors is viewed as a kind of social capital, leading to member social network centrality because peer employees want to be associated with them. This argument assumes that: a) being in high LMX relationship means access to more resources; b) coworkers always intend to build up connections with high-quality-LMX workers; c) those high-quality-LMX members are positively responsive to coworkers' networking behavior (e.g., Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Bowler & Brass, 2006; Kilduff & Krackhardt, 1994; Morrison, 2002; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997, 2005). Two recent studies challenged the last two assumptions and argued that coworkers might cognitively avoid seeking advice from high-LMX members (Erdogan et al., 2015) and some members were not motivated to form connections as they could rely on the leader's social capital

(Anderson & Sun, 2015). Moreover, because high-quality LMX forms members' social identity (Loi, Chan, & Lam, 2014), it can potentially impose constraints on member social network. The "enemies" of the leader will automatically assume the member will take the leader's side and treat the member with hostility rather friendless. It will be very interesting to examine the conditions under which high-quality LMX constrains members' social network forming.

CONCLUSION

High-quality LMX provides benefits to both leaders and members without doubt, yet it has a potentially dark side that high-quality LMX partners can experience relational tensions. These tensions can lead to higher stress and negative affect and negatively impact LMX partners' relationship attitudes and work behaviors. Research studying the negative side of high-quality LMX as the primary focus is critical to complete our understanding of LMX and broaden our knowledge of workplace relationships.

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