UNIVERSITY OF Hull

A Study of the Influence of Economic and Social Leader-Member Exchange Relationships on Job Performance, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and Turnover Intention: and the Mediation Effects of Self-Efficacy and Social Loafing

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Abstract

This research studied the influence of leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships on employee job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and turnover intention. Mediation effects of self-efficacy and social loafing are also examined. Leader-member relationships were examined from the two different perspectives of social LMX and economic LMX proposed by Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik and Haeram (2012) and results compared with Scandura and Graen's (1984) traditional LMX-7 construct. Temporal effects of LMX relationship building were also investigated by considering the influence of dyad tenure on both the quality of economic and social LMX relationships and other study variables.

The framework for the research adopted a hypothetico-deductive methodology. The sampling frame comprised 227 leader-subordinate dyads drawn from Omani Higher Education Institutions. Subjects completed the following instruments: Kuvaas et al's,. (2012) economic and social leader-member exchange relationship scale; Scandura and Graen's (1984) LMX-7 scale; Williams and Anderson's (1991) employee job performance; Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) organizational citizenship behavior; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkiins, and Klesh's (1979) employee turnover intention; Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt, and Hooker's (1994) employee self-efficacy scale; and George's (1992) social loafing scale. Data were analyzed using structural equation modeling and analysis of variance.

Findings support the use of the two distinct economic and social LMX scales proposed by Kuvaas et al., (2012). Results revealed that ELMX was negatively associated with work performance and positively associated with employee turnover intention. Results also revealed that SLMX was positively associated with work performance and negatively associated with employee turnover intention. Social loafing and self-efficacy were found to mediate the relationships between SLMX/ELMX exchanges and employee job performance and turnover intention. These results provide further support for the two-dimensional SLMX/ELMX model. The study has also revealed that the quality of SLMX and ELMX relationships differed as dyad tenure increased. Those whose tenure ranged from 13 to 24 months produced the highest scores of ELMX and social loafing, and the lowest scores on job performance. Dyads whose tenure was in the highest category had the highest job performance and the lowest ELMX relationships.

This study provides further empirical evidence that LMX relationships have consequential effects on employee outcomes in the workplace, and new evidence of the influence of dyad tenure on the development of LMX relationship over time. Findings also provide a cross-cultural comparison of LMX research by conducting the field study in a non-western culture. It also brings new evidence to the LMX differentiation literature by explaining how a leader can respond to different employees' needs and requirements. Human resource implications for practice are highlighted. Considering the economic aspect of the relationship would likely assist managers to restructure rewarding systems/compensation and benefits packages that would further enhance subordinates positive outcomes. Managerial training programs seem a worthwhile for supervisors to enable them respond to both aspects of the relationship. Recommendations for future research are also discussed.

Keywords: leader-member exchange, economic leader-member exchange, social leader-member exchange, dyad tenure, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, turnover intention, self-efficacy, social loafing.

Dedication

To my beloved parents for everlasting love and support

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First and for most, praise to Allah for all His blessings and bountiful provision in giving me strength, patience and hope to endure this challenging and long study.

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Abbreviations

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMIN	Chi-square
ELMX	Economic Leader-member Exchange
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
HCT	Higher College of Technology
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
JP	Job Performance
LMX	Leader-member Exchange
LMX7	7-otem Leader-member Exchange
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCBO	Organizational- target Citizenship Behavior
RMR	Root Mean Square Residual
RMSEA	Root mean square error approximation

SCT	Salalah College of Technology
SE	Self-efficacy
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SL	Social Loafing
SLMX	Social Leader-member Exchange
TI	Turnover Intention
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index

1 Introduction

1.1 Research Background

Leadership plays a significant role in an organization's ability to motivate its employees to work effectively for the benefit of the firm. As leaders are considered as the representative of their organizations for employees, many leadership theories have been suggested to study effective leadership behaviors that enhance employees' motivation and efforts to maximize the benefits of the organization. Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) is among the most influential theories in the field of leadership for understanding supervisor-subordinate relationships. This dyadic relationship is regarded as one of the most potentially significant predictors of employee work outcomes (Manzoni & Barsoux, 2002).

The term leader-member exchange has attracted significant attention over the last forty years. LMX has become a mature research area as researchers made it as a vital construct in the leadership realm. Over the years, researchers have accumulated an impressive body of empirical research showing a relationship between the quality of LMX relationships and employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Investigating LMX relationship is getting stronger and popular among researchers as evidenced by Bauer & Erdogan, (2015), where they found that Web of Science contained 1,824 articles with LMX as a key word and nearly 55% of those articles were published between 2010 and 2014.

The central premise behind LMX theory is that different types of relationships develop between leaders and their members, where leaders tend to develop high quality exchanges with only a few subordinates. The theory challenged the existing concept of "the average leadership style" (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Likert, 1967; Taylor & Bowers, 1972), which suggest that leaders enact one leadership style with all members. Research on leader-member exchange (LMX) showed that leaders are likely to develop distinctive types of varying quality relationships with their various subordinates (e.g, Dansereau et al., 1975; Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen, 1973; Graen, Dansereau, Minami, & Cashman, 1973; Graen, Dansereau, & Minami, 1972). LMX theory assumes a leader would differentiate relations with subordinates due to the limited resources of the organization and limited leader's time (Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen, 1973; Graen et al., 1972; Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973). Traditional theories assumed that leaders adopt the same leadership style towards all members in the unit. However, an average style of leadership cannot be applied to all employees and few high quality relations are established. Therefore, the quality of leader –member exchange relationships will vary between subordinates leading to different relationships that fall on a continuum from low quality relations, featured with limited exchanges, to high quality relations that extend the boundaries of the employment contract (for details see Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

High LMX relationships are built on trust, respect, and commitment and they are based on long-term mutual obligations and reciprocity. It is suggested that employees can gain access to different organizational resources when involved in such relationships with their supervisors (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Leaders in these high quality exchanges show support and influence beyond what is specified in formal contracts, and more responsibility, communication and rewards are given to employees. Members with high quality exchanges are likely to exert extra efforts due to their sense of obligations to reciprocate the support, motivation and reward they receive from the leader. In contrast, members involved in lower quality relationships are more restricted to formal exchanges and to the employment contract, where employees do not enjoy additional support, benefits and autonomy like the ones in higher quality exchanges (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Both, the leader and follower, expect direct reciprocity featured with short-term exchanges based on the transactional part of the employment relationship (Kuvaas et al., 2012).

LMX theory draws from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to explain the development of this dyadic relationship and the nature of the exchange involved. According to social exchange theory, employee involvement in a high quality relationship creates an obligation on the part of the employee to reciprocate (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960), and this provides an explanation of the reasons why subordinates are motivated to exert efforts on behalf of their leaders (Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & & Goldman, 2011). This was supported by the findings of empirical research on the impact of LMX relationship on employee outcomes such as performance, satisfaction and commitment (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Existing research on LMX has linked positive employee attitudes and work outcomes with high quality LMX relationships (Benin Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Gerstner & Day, 1997). One of the widely investigated outcomes of this dyadic relationship is employee job performance (JP). LMX research has generally suggested that employees' performance related positively to the development of higher quality LMX (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). This behavior has been largely explained due to employees' increased sense of obligation in high-quality exchanges to reciprocate, in a positive way, leader's support and resources. This positive reciprocation makes employees preform more effectively and go beyond the call their employment contract.

Previous studies have also shown that LMX has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Employees in high quality LMX tend to perform beyond their job requirements as mentioned earlier by exhibiting OCB. High-quality LMX relationships create an obligation in employees to reciprocate the support and trust they received from their supervisors, and consequently they reciprocate by demonstrating more OCB. Employees in high-quality exchanges are involved in a special, advantageous relationship with their leaders, and in turn feel obligated to help their leaders through contributing to the efficiency and effectiveness of the work unit and engaging more in citizenship behaviors (Sun, Chow, Chiu, & Pan, 2013).

Another employee outcome that has been documented as a critical consequence of poor LMX relationship is employee turnover intention (TI). Previous studies indicated that the quality of LMX is negatively related to employee turnover intention (Gerstner & Day, 1997) as well as actual turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Building good relationships between leaders and members make employees' more committed to their leaders and organizations. According to Graen, Liden, & Hoel, (1982), members tend to stay in the organization if they see themselves exchanging support, resources, and other benefits actively with their leaders. They described that employees in lower quality exchanges complained that their leaders did not support them enough nor helped them to deal with difficult assignments. Lack of support, motivation and limited access to benefits are likely to increase employees' intention to leave the organization.

However, findings in the LMX literature were varying. Dunegan et al. (2002) argued that at least two lines of LMX investigations have produced inconsistent results. For example, the relationship between LMX and turnover intention has been showing varying results (Kim, Lee, & Carlson, 2010). Likewise, there has not been a uniformed positive results linking LMX with subordinates performance. Numerous studies found high relationship between subordinate performance and high LMX quality (Dansereau et al., 1975) mixed (Wayne & Ferris, 1990) or not significant (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). OCB was also found to be associated positively to LMX (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003), however, other study revealed a negative relation between LMX quality and OCB (Loi & Ngo, 2009).

One possible explanation for these varying results is that most of the existing LMX research have solely focused on measuring the social aspect of the exchange relationships (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2007). LMX have been conceptualized to fall on a continuum from low-quality exchange relationships (more contractual character, economic or quasi-economic, short-term and immediate self-interest exchanges) to high-quality exchange relationships (more emphasis on socio-emotional aspects, no need of an immediate return and not restricted to the employment contract), although social exchange theory represents social and economic exchange as two different relationships rather than one relationship of different qualities (Blau, 1964; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006). This single continuum approach as pointed by Kuvaas et al (2012) is insufficient in evaluating subordinates psychological sense-making of both the social and the economic aspects of the LMX relationships and their results should be taken as an early warning about economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) relationships.

As stated by Sun et al., (2013) , LMX research places unbalanced emphasis on social-emotional exchange; that is the intangible and symbolic resources exchanged between the leader and the member, and this is considered as a major weakness in the literature. They argued that research highlights the impact of high-quality LMX on these socio-emotional factors like trust, affective attachment and obligations towards the leader and little was done to explore the tangible and concrete exchange, such as the exchange of economic resources.

A central concept in social exchange research is that followers develop exchanges for both socioemotional and economic reasons, where the type of exchange relationship can predict employee motivation, attitudes, and behavior in relation to the employer (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009). A comprehensive understanding of how LMX affects various employee outcomes are clear; yet, the role of the economic construct in this relationship has not received enough attention, as most of the previous studies have taken a narrow view of the social exchange theory. Blau, (1964) recognized two types of exchange relationships: social and economic. Whereas the social exchange focused more on socio-emotional resources over a lengthy period of time, economic exchange gives more attention to material or economic goods over short-term relationships. LMX research has depended mainly on the social exchange theory. The social part of this relationship has been the dominant interest for researchers when investigating employees relationship with their leader or organization, though empirical findings suggested that social and economic exchanges are distinct (Shore, Bommer, Rao, & Seo, 2009) and relate differently to outcomes such as employee job performance (Buch, Kuvaas, & Dysvik, 2011; Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Haerem, 2012), OCB (Kuvaas et al., 2012), commitment (Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003) as well as employee intention to leave the organization (Buch et al., 2011).

It is proposed that positive and beneficial actions directed towards employees are expected to create conditions for employees to reciprocate in positive ways (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). Hence, leaders are required to give concern to both types of exchanges to build more high quality relationships. So, it is possible that variables that were positively linked to high quality relations would have different positions in the LMX relation when considering both qualities of exchange.

It is assumed that as the values of both tangible and intangible resources are high, the quality of the relationship is likely to be high. Sun et al., (2013) indicated that prior studies gave priority to the exchange of intangible resources and largely neglected the examination of how leaders could use their power in distributing tangible resources as a means to affect employees' behaviors. They found that outcome favorability has an intermediate role in LMX relationships and highlighted that their outcome sheds the light on the negligent aspect of social exchange process. Outcome variability is referred to as the perceived benefits and costs of a decisional resource allocation outcome and mainly includes tangible and concrete economic and social resources. Prior to that, researchers have suggested that future studies should give more concern to the economic aspect of the LMX relationship. Macneil, (1985) stated that employment relationships are conceptualized in two forms of exchange: economic and social. Taking both economic and social exchanges into account will likely assist in capturing the nature of both types of exchange in a relationship and consequently understand their effect on employee outcomes. Goodwin et al. (2009) suggested that future research should consider the instrumental aspects of the LMX relationship in conjunction with the traditional social perspective on quality relationships to enhance understanding of the leaders, subordinate and their relationships, specifically, in high quality exchange relationships.

Considering these limitations of the application of social exchange theory is of importance for understanding exchange relationships in organizational context. Shore et al., (2006), further studied the social exchange theory in work settings and found that economic and social exchanges are two distinct forms of exchange in the employee-organization relationships. This finding was also extended to the dyadic relationship of leader and members, where Kuvaas et al., (2012) measures were based on the 16 item scale developed by Shore et al., (2006). Kuvaas and his colleagues (2012) found that job performance and OCB related positively to social LMX (SLMX), whilst negatively to economic LMX (ELMX). This finding clearly indicted the need to reconsider the dominant traditional conception of LMX. The study was followed by a modest number of research studies reemphasizing the conceptualization of social and economic LMX as two separate dimensions (Buch et al., 2011; Buch, Kuvaas, Dysvik, & Schyns, 2014; Buch, 2015; Dysvik, Buch, & Kuvaas, 2015).

Accordingly, Although LMX theory has increased our understanding of how the nature of the exchange between a leader and a member is contributing to employees' attitudes, the theory's treatment for the economic aspect of the relations is limited. That is, this single continuum approach does not assess the LMX relationship sufficiently (Kuvaas et al., 2012). Hence, one of the main objectives of the present study was to investigate the extent to which the same conceptualization of social leader-member exchange (SLMX) and economic leader member exchange (ELMX) as two separate dimensions of LMX can be generalized to other non-western countries. In order to add validity to this investigation, this study has taken a further step in the current literature and examined the traditional LMX relationship along with the two-dimensional conceptualization to reach a comprehensive picture of the nature of leader-employee relationships. Measurements of the new conceptualization of economic and social LMX along with the measurement of the traditional LMX perspective were utilized in this study to investigate their relation to three common outcomes linked to the quality of LMX. These outcomes have been showing inconsistent results with LMX, namely employee job performance (JP), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and employee turnover intention (TI). This study is a step toward understanding the confusion of how to conceptualize LMX relationship where the results are likely to provide more clarification of the economic and social exchanges.

Moreover, including mediation variables in the investigation are likely to bring more clarification about the nature of the exchange and possible causal relationships that might exsit between variables. A second purpose of the current study was to further extend the investigation of the two-dimensional new conceptualization of LMX, and consider the mediating role of social loafing between economic and social LMX and employee job performance, OCB and turnover intention. Social loafing is suggested to have a negative impact on employee outcomes as a result of their tendency to reduce their efforts (Murphy, Wayne, Liden, & Erdogan, 2003). It is likely that social loafing could have negative influence on employee outcomes. Not much consideration was given to this variable in relation to LMX relationships. Moreover, as some evidence in the LMX literature suggested that employee self-efficacy seems to increase employee effectiveness and mediates the relationship between LMX relationship and job performance (Walumbwa et al., 2011), this study also investigated the mediating role of self-efficacy in SLMX and ELMX relationships. The involvements of the mediating variables would likely enhance more understanding of the instrumental and social aspects of LMX relationships.

Another theory that contributed to understanding the LMX is the role theory (Graen & Scandura, 1987). This theory explained how work roles are developed or negotiated over time through a series of exchanges between the leader and the member (Dienesch & Liden, 1986a). LMX relationships inherently occur over time and antecedents of LMX may take different stages, play different roles and change in their importance (Bauer & Green, 1996; Graen & Scandura, 1987). As a consequence, outcomes and attitudes resulting from LMX would also vary in accordance with any change in any of these antecedents. However, there is a gap in our knowledge regarding the role of timing in the development of reciprocity and whether the type of reciprocity remains stable over time or whether it changes.

A major point of concern in the current research is to examine the quality of these two distinct exchanges, economic and social, within the relationship between a leader and a member as they progress through time. Research on LMX development has always suggested that LMX relationships progress over time through various stages of interactions (Bauer & Green, 1996; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Ilies, 2009). A social exchange involves a series of interactions between a leader and a member and these interactions are perceived as interdependent and contingent on the actions of the other party (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960). Gouldner, (1960) defined reciprocity as a mutually contingent exchange of benefits between two or more units and these exchanged benefits may be identical or equal. Blau, (1964) also described social exchange as an exchange based on an expectation for some future return. That is, an individual will have a particular expectation towards the behavior of the other person and these expectations will define future reciprocity. It is as described by Bernerth et al. (2007) that a social exchange is a behaviorally- oriented construct. This assumption is supported by the findings of Liden et al. (1993), where they investigated the development process of LMX using expectations, job performance, and compatibility as possible determinant variables of the initial LMX development. They suggested that both leaders and members' initial expectations of each other play a vital role in predicting their relations. Hence, it is obvious that an LMX exchange is affected by prior expectations.

Social exchange theory suggests that employees tend to reciprocate beneficial treatment they receive with positive work-related behaviors and vice versa, negative work-related behaviors are reciprocated for the detrimental treatment (Hekman, Bigley, Steensma, & Hereford, 2009). These interactions are guided by the idea of reciprocity, where the action of one member of the exchange can be either conditional or a response to the other party's behavior (Cropanzano &

Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960). Blau, (1964) suggested that social exchange is all about expectations of people to receive equal benefits in return for the benefits they give. LMX describes subordinates attitudes and behavior as a contingent response to leader treatment (Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012). Research findings suggest that employees engage in different reciprocation efforts depending on the other partner in the exchange process (McNeely & Meglino, 1994). That is, attitudes and behaviors are likely to change over time.

Given that more research is needed to understand SLMX and ELMX as relationships with different qualities, one of the questions raised by Kuvaas et al., (2012) is how stable are these qualities over time. As per traditional LMX conceptualization, LMX relationships tend to develop from lower quality to higher quality relationships over time. However, there is still a need to unravel how it develops as the relationship progresses. According to the norms of positive and negative reciprocity in the social exchange theory, employees respond to what they perceive as either beneficial or detrimental treatment respectively (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Hekman et al, (2009) elaborated that members within an organization tend to reciprocate beneficial treatment they receive by showing positive work outcomes (e.g. showing more help towards those who have treated them well) and tend to reciprocate detrimental treatment they receive with negative work outcomes (e.g. showing less help towards those who have treated them poorly). Any interaction is usually based on expectations from the other party, which in turn is likely to affect future actions (Lawler, 1971). Conway & Coyle-Shapiro (2012), for example within the field of psychological contract, tested the consequences of psychological contract fulfillment on employee performance and found that this fulfillment predicts actual sales performance and changes in sales performance.

The exchange in relationship is an ongoing process in nature. There should be more consideration about the implications of ELMX and SLMX on the dyadic relationships and how they differently affect employee outcomes as the dyadic relationship progresses through time. Although high quality relationships are characterized by trust, respect and mutual obligation compared to low quality relations (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Katerberg & Hom, 1981), Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, (2012) argued that all of these would not be present if a leader fails to give back recognition and reward in return for members good performance. This could mean that members sense of mutual obligation in high exchange relationships would be reduced if their expectations are unmet by their respective leaders, and this would contradict the common theme of an LMX relationship as a dynamic process that develops from lower quality to higher quality relationships over time (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991).

Continuing with the above idea, the leader make judgments about the current employees based on past experience they have built from previous exchanges. These expectations are developed at an earlier stage of the dyadic relations and continuous to develop as the relationship progresses. Liden et al., (1993), has referred to the ‘Pygmalion effect’ to further understand the development of this relationship in a longitudinal study. It is estimated that the incremental and cumulative effects of leader delegation and member performance are related to LMX development (Bauer & Green, 1996).

While it is needed to study different dyads interactions to stand on these different qualities, considering the duration of the dyad as another possible independent factor could be of benefit. It is assumed that the duration of LMX is likely to have implications on partners exchange relationship (Zhou & Schriesheim, 2009). These inconsistent results in LMX findings could be also attributed to failure to include the role of time in LMX studies. Some variables are likely to increase over time whilst some could remain the same or decline (Shamir, 2011). A very limited number of studies have directly acknowledged the possible influence of temporal element on the leadership process, although recent research has suggested that time is a basic dimension of organizations (Mossholder, Niebuhr, & Norris, 1990). The development of a dyad quality depends largely on the duration of the dyad (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Schyns & Wolfram, 2008). Therefore, it is likely that examining the ELMX and SLMX relationships at different dyad tenures provide useful insights and an in depth picture about the development of these exchanges over time. Based on the above, another purpose of this study was to fill this gap by investigating the role of dyad tenure in affecting the social and economic LMX relationship. A comparison of three groups with different dyad tenures will be examined for this purpose.

1.2 Research questions

The preceding discussion revealed the gaps in the current literature. These gaps are put forward as research questions and will be refined in chapter two into detailed research hypotheses and a research framework. Research questions to be addressed in this investigation are as follows:

Research question 1: what is the relationship between SLMX, ELMX relationships and employee job performance?

Research question 2: What is the relationship between SLMX, ELMX relationships and organizational citizenship behavior?

Research question 3: what is the relationship between SLMX, ELMX relationships and employee turnover intention?

Research question 4: To what extent does self-efficacy influences the relationship between economic and social relationships and employee job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention?

Research question 5: To what extent does social loafing influences the relationship between economic and social relationships and employee job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention?

Research question 6: To what extent the two-dimensional conceptualization of social leader-member exchange (SLMX) and economic leader member exchange (ELMX) of LMX can be generalized to other non-western countries (Oman in particular)?

Research question 7: What is the role of dyad tenure in affecting the economic and social leader-member exchange relationships, employee job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention? Do they develop; remain the same or decrease over time?

1.3 Research significance and contribution

The present study contributes to the current leader-member exchange literature in several different ways. First, although much has been written on LMX relationship and the impact of the quality of this relationship on employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, the majority of these findings were based on the unitary conceptualization of LMX that considers social and economic exchanges as two extremes. However, some recent initial empirical studies have obtained evidence that the propositions of economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) and social leader-member exchange (SLMX) represent two different forms of relationships (Buch et al., 2011, 2014; Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, et al., 2012a). Few studies based their investigation on this new conceptualization and further investigation for this new two-dimensional concept of LMX is needed to capture the effect of the instrumental factor in developing higher quality LMX relationships. Hence, this study contributes to the literature of LMX by providing a resolution of the confusion between the two different perspectives of LMX relationship. To further gain a broader idea of this new conceptualization, it would be more useful to examine the traditional concept of LMX on the same sample and compare results. This research investigates the outcomes of using the LMX-7 measure of the traditional conceptualization of LMX and the new measures of both SLMX and ELMX in the same study. This is likely to provide further exploration and explanation regarding the dyadic relation between leaders and members. It will also generate knowledge and give rise to new theoretical and practical insights of the economic aspect of the relationship and how this neglected aspect of the exchange process can be further enhanced to generate favorable employees outcomes. Many findings from research on organizational exchange perceptions suggested the importance of economic exchanges in motivating productive employee behavior along with the social exchanges (Kuvaas, & Dysvik, 2009; Loi, Mao, & Ngo, 2009; Song, Tsui, & & Law, 2009; Sun et al., 2013). This study questions the established standpoint of LMX theory by further exploring and revisiting the economic exchange in this dyadic relationship and its impact on employee job performance and OCB. It has also been asserted that supervision plays a meaningful role in employees' voluntary turnover decisions (Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben, & Pautsch, 2005). Therefore, more work is necessary to explore the intervening process of social and economic exchanges in reducing employee intent to leave.

Secondly, the study further extends this two-dimensional model of LMX by drawing on bodies of research on self-efficacy and social loafing, while proposing them as potential mediators between ELMX and SLMX relationships and employee outcomes; performance, OCB and turnover intention. Leader-employee relationships have a salient role in predicting employee social loafing (Murphy et al., 2003). Hence, extending the investigation of this phenomenon in the current research explains how it could hinder positive exchange and eventually impact employee outcomes negatively. Additionally, employee self-efficacy is likely to have an influence on this relationship. Studies have indicated the positive effect of self-efficacy as it prompts more OCB and higher job performance (Walumbwa et al., 2011). The current study will further examine how self-efficacy mediates the impact of economic and social exchanges on employee outcomes. Results are likely to bring advanced resolution when comparing the effects of both mediators on the outcomes of the traditional and the new conceptualizations of LMX.

LMX has been described as a combination of both transactional and transformational leadership. Although these two types of leadership focus mainly on leaders behaviors, however, the nature and quality of the relationship are basic to connect leaders behavior to follower response (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Literature in LMX relationship has linked low quality LMX to transactional leadership, where this relationship is more into economic exchange that focuses on pay for performance (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). The findings of this research contributes to literature by providing further understanding of the possibility of how to pull up these LMX relationships that are low in quality and maintain those with high quality exchange at the same time. One might argue that it is not practical in a real work context to have enough tangible resources that satisfies all followers. This is likely to be true and here it is the role of the leader to balance between both the social and economic sides of the relationship rather than giving weight to one over the other. Supervisors are seen as agents of the organization (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002), hence it is of importance to know how both aspects of an LMX relationship can be enhanced and developed which is a further aim of the current study.

Taking into consideration the role of time in LMX theory, this study also offers the opportunity to examine important theoretical questions regarding the development of LMX and during more mature stages (Mitchell & James, 2001; Park, Sturman, Vanderpool, & Chan, 2015). Many researchers have expressed the need for future research to focus on enhancing our understanding of cause-effect mechanism of LMX development and go beyond the traditional focus on LMX outcomes (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003; Park et al., 2015). Out of the studies that have been performed to date, results obtained for some variables relationship with LMX were contradictory or non-linear (e.g. Harris, Kacmar, & Witt, 2005; Rockstuhl et al., 2012), indicating the need to include time in future investigations.

This study contributes to the literature through addressing this problem. Further exploration is required regarding the nature of ELMX and SLMX development over time. The inclusion of time in this investigation is estimated to assist leaders and organizations to better understand how LMX relationships develop. According to Blau, (1964), social exchange includes indefinite obligations between the two parties, where there is an expectation of some future return. However, no one is clear of when and in what form this return will be, which is likely to create an opportunity for those involved in the exchange to show their trustworthiness (Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick, 2009). Yet, if these expectations are unmet, there is a likely that the quality of the relationship will not remain the same.

Since scholars are calling to conduct more longitudinal studies in the field of LMX (e.g., Dulebohn et al., 2012) and due to the difficulty of practically collecting longitudinal data of dyadic relationships, this study follows a different approach to empirically investigate the role of dyad tenure to overcome this difficulty. By dividing the study sample into three groups of different dyad tenures, findings from this research are likely to contribute to the literature as they provide some representation of what happens to these exchange relationships over time. Capturing the different dyad tenures that are likely to be observed (newly developed to mature ones) will potentially add to our understanding of how quality of LMX relationships change and develop over time. This will significantly contribute to the literature since most of the longitudinal studies, as noted by Park et al., (2015) have captured LMX at intervals of only few weeks or months (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1996; Nahrgang et al., 2009).

Another potential significant outcome of this study is to explore the role of culture in ELMX and SLMX relationships. It has been argued that theories developed in one cultural context might not be applicable equally in other cultural contexts (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007). With regard to LMX theory in particular, Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, (2012) meta-analysis revealed that national culture has a moderating effect on the relationship between LMX and its correlates. Hence, this study is regarded as the first to investigate the two dimensional conceptualization of LMX in a non-western country. This shed the light on the nature of the economic and social exchanges in the Omani culture, which operates differently in more collectivistic culture. Such investigation revealed whether the economic construct of a relationship is affected by the nature of the operating culture or it is an aspect that could appear to exist simultaneously with the social aspect in any dyadic relationship.

1.4 Methodology overview

Positivism is the paradigm of this study. This study is consistent with the tradition of developing theoretical framework and examining hypothesis to test it. This study is following the deductive approach that is based on rational conclusions. As the study seeks to investigate causal association between economic and social LMX relationships and employee outcomes, the deductive approach is the most appropriate.

Using a purposive sampling approach to meet data prerequisites, semi-structured questionnaires were used for data collection. This study takes place in two colleges of technology in Oman. Target population was identified as lecturers and their direct head of sections. Attention to all ethical considerations was paid. Respondents' details and responses were strictly anonymized and confidential. Different techniques were used for data analyses; T-tests, ANOVA and Structural equation modeling. More details about the site and context of the study are discussed in the following chapter.

2 Leader-member exchange Theory

The purpose of this chapter is to present, evaluate and summarize the previous research relevant, critical, meaningful and valid to this particular topic of ‘Leader-member exchange’. This chapter examines LMX from the traditional concept as a single continuum and also from the two different perspectives (SLMX and ELMX). The chapter examines the definitions, development, and different measures of LMX and its impact on employee outcomes and attitudes. The constructs of LMX, SLMX and ELMX encompasses the process to perceive, understand and examine the quality of the relationship between leaders and their members in the context of a particular situation. It also involves understanding the effect of low and high equality LMX exchange on the relationship and the consequences of this on employees’ different outcomes. Thereafter, discussion of the importance of temporal aspects is reviewed.

The chapter includes agreement and argument with the current knowledge in the selected field and justifications for the proposed frameworks. The flow and structure of the chapter was presented and divided into subsections and titles that lead to the research hypotheses.

2.1 Emergence of Leader-Member Exchange Theory

The concept of leadership has received a great amount of attention in the literature throughout the years. Leadership is about the ability of a leader to inspire followers to achieve collective goals (Yukl, 2002). It is described as the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organization they belong to (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Leadership has become one of the central concepts in organizational research and various definitions have been provided by different scholars in previous years. These definitions evolve around the notions of traits, behaviors, role relationship, interaction patterns, and occupation of administrative position (Yukl, 2013). Leadership was developed as " an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990, p. 19). Pierce & Newstorm (2006), also provided a definition for leadership that is based on Katz & Kahn's, (1978) definition, where they stated that leadership is seen as " a sociological phenomenon (a process) involving the intentional exercise of influence exercised by one person over one or more individuals, in an effort to guide activities toward the attainment of some mutual goal, a goal that requires independent action among members of a group" (p 10).

According to Bass & Bass, (2009) , the definitions and meanings of the concept of leadership are categorized in three systematic taxonomies. The first category captures definitions related to the traits and behaviors of the leader which are assumed to have the capacity to influence others towards a specific objective – the 'leader centric' definitions. This includes different types of definitions such as leaders' personality and characteristics, leadership as an attribution, leaders as the Foci of Group, and leadership as a symbol. The second categorization of leadership definitions is considering leadership as an effect, in either causing goal achievement or as an effect of group interaction. This categorization incudes different streams of definitions such as; the leader as an instrument of goal achievement, and the leadership as an effect of interaction stream. The final categorization of leadership definitions covers explanations of leadership as an interaction between the leader and the follower. Definitions in this categorization look at leadership from different streams like, leadership as a process approach, leadership as a power relationship group, and leadership as differentiated role perspective.

In contrast to traditional leadership theories, a new approach to investigating the concept of leadership within organization was proposed. With a focus on the dyadic effect of the relation instead of the sole focus on leader, Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory stands out among the many scholarly leadership approaches. Gerstner & Day, (1997), stated that the relationship with a members' leader acts as the lens through which the whole work experience is viewed.

LMX is about the proposition that leaders build separate exchange relations with every single member and they both, the leader and member, define the member's roles (Dansereau et al., 1975). According to Gerstner & Day (1997) LMX is differentiated from other traditional leadership theories by providing a focus on the dyadic relationship between a leader and a member rather than looking at it as a function of leader characteristics or features of the situation or the relation between the two. Moreover, Dulebohn et al., (2012), believed that this theory is a path-breaking one for two reasons; first, the theory focuses on the relation between the leader and every single follower separately. Second, the leader will not develop the same relation with every follower.

For more than four decades, Leader-member exchange (LMX theory) has made many valuable contributions in advancing the scholarly leadership literature (Day & Miscenko, 2015). The origins of LMX theory can be traced to the mid-1970s. In the recent publication of the Oxford Handbook of Leader-member exchange, Day & Miscenko, (2015) discussed the evolution of the LMX construct. They provided an overview of the evolution of LMX theory with a focus on the more influential or pivotal pieces of LMX scholarship by decade from the 1970s to the present.

According to them, the mid-1970s was the introduction of the LMX theory, where most of the early work focused on developing the theoretical foundation for the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) theory and establishing its constructs validity (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Schiemann, 1978). The traditional leadership theory rested on two assumptions as explained by Dansereau et al., (1975). The first assumption was that members of a particular group or organizational unit reporting to the same leader are relatively homogenous with respect to their perceptions, interpretations, and reactions. That is, members could be considered as a single entity or work group. The second assumption is that a supervisor's behavior towards each of his or her subordinates is in the same prescribed manner and they develop undifferentiated exchanges with their direct reports. This is referred to the *average leadership style* assumption, where most of leadership approaches apply it on the bases of descriptions from the Ohio State leadership studies (Stoodigil & Coons, 1957). Danseraeu claimed that these models 'have failed to develop beyond rather primitive levels' (p. 47). Day & Miscenko, (2015) have also argued that these assumptions are legitimate compared to what we know today about aggregation statistics. Moreover, they indicated that the focus on the role making process was another unique feature of the VDL theory. That is, the degree of latitude a supervisor provides a subordinate in order to negotiate a work role was found to be related over time to subsequent behavior on the part of both the supervisor and the subordinate. The *negotiation latitude* notion is the extent to which a supervisor was willing to consider subordinates request on matters concerning role development.

Day & Miscenko, (2015), elaborated that the theoretical focus during the 1980s shifted from VDL to LMX, bringing with it the first empirical tests of the latter construct (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). This shift was due to potential biases and other problems with data non-independence where multiple followers report to the same leader (Bliese & Hanges, 2004). The

LMX focus was advanced to focusing on relational domains of jobs in addition to task domains that is subtle with VDL emphasizing the notion of differentiated exchanges. Day & Miscenko, (2015), stated that this decade was a transitional one in terms of theoretical focus; where a nearly equal number of articles focusing on VDL as on LMX. Ninety percent of these publications found that leaders develop differentiated exchanges with their followers.

The following decade, as described by Day & Miscenko, (2015), LMX literature started coming into its own. The era of the 1990s, where the beginning of the decade witnessed the integration of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) construct into the LMX literature by some scholars (Deluga, 1994; S. J Wayne & Green, 1993). This was followed by studies of LMX and perceived organizational support (POS) at the end of the decade (Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999; Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Day & Miscenko, (2015), have also described that an accumulated body of literature was there in this decade that could be quantitatively reviewed using meta-analytic techniques, e.g. (Gerstner & Day, 1997). One of the main findings of this meta-analysis is the reported average corrected correlation of .46 between LMX and job satisfaction and .35 for organizational commitment, which according to Day & Miscenko, (2015), suggested some very robust relationships between LMX and job attitudes and these effects are likely to be upwardly biased to some extent as they are measured from the follower perspective only.

In the new millennium from 2000 to present, LMX research pulled more interest from researchers and new interesting ways of integrating LMX with different constructs, theories, and processes were discovered. Day & Miscenko, (2015), provided examples of these integrated constructs such as trust building (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000), attribution theory (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Davis & Gardner, 2004), social network perspectives

(Sparrowe & Liden, 2005), nonlinear effects (Harris & Kacmar, 2006), employee voice (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008), organizational justice (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & Hartnell, 2009), and empowerment (G. Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Z. Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007; Gómez & Rosen, 2001). Along with OCB and POS, which remained popular constructs to study in conjunction with LMX across variety of contexts (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008; Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002), some antecedents of LMX were proposed such as efforts (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001), and implicit leadership (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

Day & Miscenko, (2015), continued their summary of the decade by stating that the second half of the decade involved the construct of LMX differentiation, variability in LMX quality among members of a workgroup. They considered this as an important development in the LMX literature as it widens the lens in considering multilevel and group effects associated with LMX. They finally concluded that this decade is starting to study the notion of LMX differentiation in groups using multilevel modeling procedures; that is evolving from primarily an individual and dyadic focus to one that crosses dyad-group levels.

Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995) have also described the different developmental stages of LMX theory, where each stage represents a shift in focus and a progression in thinking about the LMX process within organizations.

2.1.1 Stage 1: Discovery of Differentiated Dyads

Initial studies into leader-member exchange were related to the study of work socialization (Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973; Johnson & Graen, 1973) and vertical dyad linkage (Dansereau et al., 1975; George Graen & Cashman, 1975). The first stage started with the discovery of differentiation between different dyads, which is contrary to the prevailing assumptions of the Ohio State and Michigan studies of effective supervision (average leadership style). Managerial process in organizations was found to occur on a dyadic basis, where managers develop differentiated relationships with direct employees. These findings were obtained from longitudinal studies of management teams, where both managers and their direct reports were asked to describe their work and work relationship in terms of inputs, process, and outcomes. Findings indicated different description of the same person when described by his or her reporting employees. Some reports were describing high-quality exchanges (referred to "in-group"), characterized by high degree of mutual trust, respect, and obligation. Employees in these relations were considered as "trusted assistants" to the manager and can perform duties beyond their job descriptions. On the other hand, some employees described the relationship with low quality exchanges (referred to "out-group"). These employees were acted essentially as " hired hands", who perform only what is required by their job descriptions (Zalesny & Graen, 1987). These relationships are characterized with low trust, respect, and obligation.

The theory was first known as the Vertical Dyad Linkage theory (VDL) (Dansereau et al., 1975), where leaders adopt different styles to different subordinates in a work unit. Time and resources constrains force a leader to develop limited high working relations with few members and high quality exchanges required additional investment of the leader's limited time and social resources (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). As a result, work unit relations divide into an 'out-group' including members with superficial contacts with leader and an 'in-group', which includes members with strong contacts with the leader. High quality relations are characterized by mutual trust, respect and rewards as opposite to low quality relations (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). The focus in this stage was mainly on leader behavior as described by the leader and the follower. Leader-member dyads became the unit of analysis with the discovery of significant variations in followers responses to questions about their leaders, and the theory started to develop within the relationship domains.

2.1.2 Stage 2: Focus on the relationship and its outcomes

More investigations were conducted which further validated the existence of the distinctive different relationships within the same units and their implications for organizations. The Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) theory was then renamed as the Leader–Member Exchange which elaborated the investigation of LMX relationships and how differentiated dyadic relationships develop (Graen et al., 1982). Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), categorized the work in this stage to two tracts of investigation: (1) studies evaluating characteristics of the LMX relationship, and (2) studies that analyzed the relationship between LMX and organizational variables.

A series of conceptual and empirical pieces that delve into the relationship itself was involved in the first category. This includes work on dyadic role-making process (Graen et al., 1973; Graen et al., 1982), communication frequency (Baker & Ganster, 1985; Borchgrevink & Donohue, 1991), interactive communication patterns (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989), leader-member value agreement (Graen & Schiemann, 1978), antecedents to and/ or determinants of LMX (Graen, 1976; Liden et al., 1993), upward maintenance tactics and interaction patterns (Waldron, 1991), subordinate loyalty (Scandura & Graen, 1984), decision influence (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986), influence tactics (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), and member affect about the relationship (Day & Crain, 1992; Liden, 1985). The second category in this stage addressed the issues related to understand how these differentiated LMX relationships are related to organizational variables.

Studies for example investigated LMX and performance (Graen et al., 1982; Terri a. Scandura & Graen, 1984; Vecchio, 1987), turnover (Ferris, 1985; Graen et al., 1982; Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977), job satisfaction (Graen et al., 1982), organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990; Seers & Graen, 1984), performance appraisal (Timothy A Judge & Ferris, 1993), job climate (Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Bien, 1992), innovation (Basu, 1991), organizational citizenship behavior (Scandura et al., 1986), empowerment (M Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1993), procedural and distributive justice (Manogran, Stauffer, & Conlon, 1994), career progress (Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984), and relational demography (Tsui, Xin, & Egan, 1994) .

Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), indicated that validation of the existence of differentiated relationships as well as descriptions of the relationship themselves and how they are developed were the key findings of this stage. Many outcomes of interest were also documented to be positively related to high quality LMX relationships. The findings also suggested that development of LMX relationships is influenced by characteristics and behaviors of both leaders and members and occur through a role-making process.

2.1.3 Stage 3: description of dyadic partnership building

Work in this stage has involved moving beyond “ in-group” and “outgroup” to focus on how to generate more of effective leadership process through development of effective leadership relationships (leadership making) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This approach seeks to understand how managers can work with each person on a one-on-one basis to develop partnership with each of them rather than focusing on how managers discriminate among their members. Here, the focus is shifted beyond traditional thinking about leaders and members to an examination of leadership as a “partnership” among dyadic members. This will result in having more equitable relations and more high quality relationships, which increases potential for more effective leadership and expanded organizational capability. This stage provides more prescriptive approach compared to the previous two earlier stages that considered the descriptive approach.

2.1.3.1 Leadership making model

According to Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), the concept of leadership making was originated from two longitudinal experiments that investigated relationship development among supervisors and subordinates (Graen et al., 1982; Scandura & Graen, 1984). These studies examined and analyzed what would happen if leaders were trained to be able to offer the opportunity of developing high-quality relationships to all of their members. The results revealed that members who accepted the offer by the leader to develop a high-quality LMX improved their performance dramatically. Based on these outcomes, the Leadership Making model was developed in order to identify the significance of generating more high-quality relationships within organizations and to explain the process for how these may be realized in real work contexts (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1993).

The process starts with a phase called "stranger", in which the employees' first join the organization and come together as strangers occupying interdependent organizational roles. Interactions in this phase are more of a "cash and carry" economic exchange exercise. Exchanges are purely contractual; where leaders provide followers with what they need to perform only, and followers only behave as required as per their prescribed job. An offer for an improved working relationships through career-oriented social exchange must be made and accepted (this offer may be made by either party). If this occurs, the dyads move from this stage to the second stage of relationships development which is referred to the "acquaintance" stage. This stage is characterized with more social exchange that occurs between the members, and not necessarily all exchanges are contractual. Parties start to share greater amount of information and resources, both on a personal and work level. However, these exchanges are still limited and considered to be part of a testing stage. Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), indicated that in this stage, there is still an equitable return of favors, and these occur within a limited time frame.

As these relationships progress to the next level, they become classified as “mature partnership” exchanges. Exchanges between the members are highly developed and may have a long time span of reciprocation. At this stage, individual can count on each other for loyalty and support, where exchanges are not only behavioral but also emotional - as trust and obligation grow throughout the process. For employees who make it to this stage, Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995) indicted that payoffs can be tremendous as the mature relationship developed between the dyadic members throughout the history of the exchange, which leads to progressively higher degrees of mutual trust, respect, and obligation within the relationship. Leaders for example rely on a follower to take extra duties without pay and/ or provide honest, constructive criticism where others could feel intimidated. Likewise, employees could rely on the leader for needed support, encouragement, and career investments.

However, how each dyad progresses through these stages varies in real work context. Some relationship dyads may not advance much beyond the stranger stage, where both the leader and the member have limited interaction. Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995) stated that these relationships are considered to be within the analogous of transactional leadership. Here, exchanges are based upon subordination to the leader, leader makes the requests based on his or her hierarchical status in the organization, and subordinates complies due to his or her formal obligation to the leader and because of the economic rewards the leader controls. In a similar way, member’s motivation is based upon the satisfaction of his or her self-interest, without consideration of the good of the group. However, some dyads may advance beyond the “stranger” stage into the “acquaintance” stage, where more involved relationships are developed.

2.1.4 Stage 4: Expansion of dyadic partnership to group and network levels.

Although much research on LMX has focused on LMX relationships as dyads within work groups and independent dyads, Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995) emphasized that this was not representative of the nature of leadership situations in complex organizations, as leaders often have multiple members working together is some sort of interacting collectivity. It was suggested to look at dyadic relationship as systems of interdependent dyadic relationships, or network assemblies (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Scandura, 1995). These network assemblies constitute of the leadership structure within the organization, where relationships in the structure are not limited to the work unit. Rather, they cut across work unit, functional, divisional, and even organizational boundaries. Moreover, Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995) elaborated that these relationships are not limited to formal supervisor-subordinate relationship but also include relationship among peers, team-mates, and across organizational levels and organizations. Research investigation at this stage attempts to look at task interdependencies and the quality of the relationships that develop among organizational participants as a result of these interdependencies. Such investigations are significant as more effective leadership relationships among organizational participants would facilitate completion of task requirements. Research at this stage would obviously address issues at several levels like, immediate work group level, across work groups and crossing organizational boundaries. Figure 2.1 below shows the stages in the development of LMX theory as explained by (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

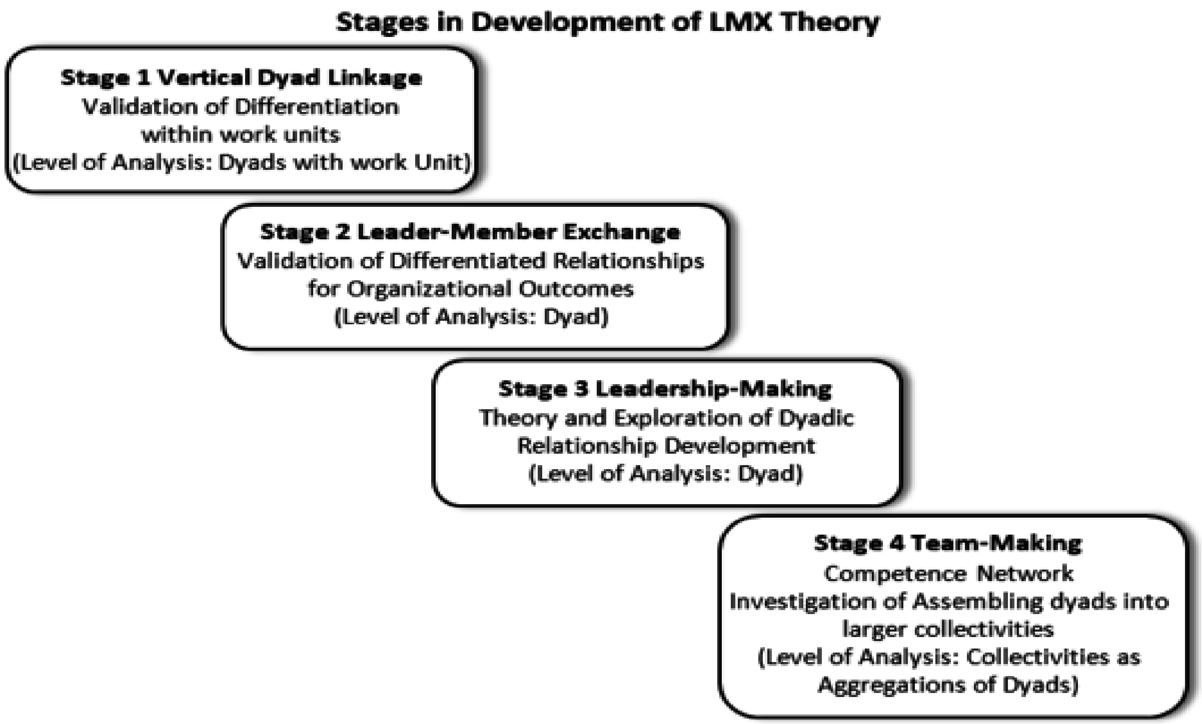


Figure 2.1 Stages of LMX theory development by Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995)

2.2 Definition of Leader-member exchange

It is critical here to understand the meaning of Leader-member exchange. Although, LMX construct has never been clearly defined (Sheer, 2014), this section looks into the different definitions and constructs of LMX throughout the literature.

The theory was originally, known as the Vertical Dyad Linkage theory (VDL) (Dansereau et al., 1975; Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen, 1973; George Graen & Cashman, 1975). VDL is about the discovery of differentiated dyads. According to Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) documented that leaders do not use an average leadership style but instead develop differentiated relationships with their direct reports (dyads within units). They explained that the central concept of this early VDL work was that these differentiated relationships was a result of resource constraints on the managers that required them to develop a cadre of trusted assistance to help in the functioning of the work unit. This assumption of VDL differed from previous theories of leadership which often had an underlying assumption that leaders treated all members the same. Documentation of the differentiated relationship in the VDL research was obtained from longitudinal studies of management teams by asking managers and their direct reports to describe their work and working relationships in terms of input, process and outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, (1999), explained that the VDL model of leadership subsequently evolved along two different lines of development. The first is the most common branch called the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) model (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982) , which has also been given other names (e.g., " The Leadership Making" model proposed by (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991), was discussed in the previous section. The second branch of VDL development has been the " Individualized Leadership" model (Dansereau et al., 1995).

The transition from VDL approaches to what became LMX beginning in the early 1980s is one of the major evolutions in the history of LMX theory (Day & Miscenko, 2015). The later research of LMX focused on investigating how many high-quality exchanges a leader could profitably develop and maintain where findings documented significant, positive relationships between quality of exchange (LMX) and many outcome variables of interest. However, Gerstner & Days', (1997), meta-analysis has shown that interest in the first branch of VDL approach, the LMX model, has been growing considerably over the years. Nevertheless, they highlighted some fundamental problems related to the validity of the LMX construct.

The current theory is far different from the initial work of (VDL). Although most of the scholars agreed to define LMX as the quality of the exchange between leader and subordinate, they could not reach a common agreement on the sub-dimensions or sub-contents of the construct. Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, (1999), indicated that there is disagreement as to the basic definition of the construct. For example, Graen, (1976) indicated that LMX was an exchange based on competence, interpersonal skill, and trust. Support, reward, and satisfaction were added later (Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977). Schriesheim et al., (1999), indicated that eighteen additional sub dimensions/ contents were included in 13 studies by Graen and colleagues including trust, competence, motivation, assistance and support, understanding, latitude, authority, information, influence in decision making, communication, confidence, consideration, talent, delegation, innovativeness, expertise, control of organizational resources, and mutual control. These are along with other more diverse conceptualizations and sub-contents addressed by other LMX scholars. They indicated that mutual support, trust, liking, latitude, attention, and loyalty appear to be predominant in a majority of the studies.

Moreover, Sheer, (2014), argued that the absence of an explicit conceptual definition of LMX in earlier theoretical works and later research is the most salient problem along with other problems. She indicated that a definition of the central construct of LMX was missing from readings of the early works on the theory and has never been explicitly defined since, where she referred to 70+ LMX studies. She elaborated that the LMX referenced in one study often is not the same LMX cited in other studies. The term exchange must involve at least two parties, where they must switch something tangible or intangible simultaneously or at a later time. She indicated that most of the LMX studies did not label exchange itself as a construct. Sheer, (2014), elaborated that the vast majority of the LMX definitions as per the definitions collected in Schriesheim et al.,'s (1999) review, depict (1) attributes of the leader, (2) attributes of the subordinate, and / or (3) the attributes of the relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate, its quality or some other characteristics of the relationship. She assumes that LMX definitions were written without any consistent principles; overlapping in substance and lacking clear boundaries. All LMX definitions have one commonality, and that is the conspicuous absence of "exchange" itself.

However, for the sake of this research, it is beneficial to provide an understanding of this term and give examples of some of its definitions. Leader-member exchange (LMX) is defined as a dyadic approach to understanding the manager-employee working relationship, where one person has direct authority over the other (BeomCheol Peter Kim, Lee, & Carlson, 2010). Prior to that, Scandura, Graen, & Novak, (1986), provided a clear and detailed definition of LMX as follows:

> *" Leader-member exchange is (a) a system of components and their relationship (b) involving both members of a dyad (c) involving interdependent patterns of behavior (d) sharing mutual outcome instrumentalities and (e) producing conceptions of environments, cause maps and value" (Scandura et al., 1986, p. 580).*

Sheer, (2014) have also further defined LMX as a two way interaction process, in which a leader and subordinate exchange tangible or intangible commodities voluntarily, where these exchanges directly pertain to work tasks and social intentions. This two way process allows the leader and the member to co-contribute to the leadership process instead of a leader-defined one way process.

2.3 Measurements of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Given that the LMX was defined in the last section, this section discusses the history of LMX measurements. According to Liden et al., (2015), measures were established initially to capture the focus on dyads composed of a supervisor and subordinate, developing to ones that put more emphasis on the interplay between leaders and follower, including the exchange of resources and the support between the two parties of the relationship, and eventually evolving to multilevel measures. Following the review of Liden et al., (2015), this section tracks the development of the LMX measurements beginning from the start of the idea of leader-member exchange discovered by Graen, Dansereau, & Minami, (1972) until recent times.

2.3.1 Past VDL and LMX measures

2.3.1.1 Negotiating Latitude (measuring VDL)

The first measure used to study the differentiated relationships was used in the study conducted by (Graen et al., 1972) , the measure of Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The results indicated substantial variance across responses to LBDQ items among followers reporting to the same leader. After this, Dansereau and his colleagues (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen et al., 1972) represented two items based on their definition of negotiation latitude, which were used in several of the initial studies (Cashman, Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1976; Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977). These studies used 4 point response scales which are summed to represent scores ranging from 2 to 8. Scores from 2 to 7 represented subordinates of an out-group whereas those with 8 score represented the in-group members. Results of these studies revealed the need to include more than two items in the scale to better capture the variability in leader-member relationships.

2.3.1.2 VDL/ LMX

In their review of LMX measurements, Liden, Wu, Cao, & Wayne, (2015) elaborated that scholars later augmented the latitude/VDL scale from a two-item scale to four items (Graen & Schiemann, 1978; Liden & Graen, 1980). This was to better capture the domain of the construct as well as additional variance in relationships between leaders and their followers. The added item was about loyalty, “To what extent can you count on your supervisor to “bail you out,” at his expense, when you really need him?” The other item was added to capture subordinates’ contribution to the relationship “How often do you take your suggestions regarding your work to your supervisor?”

2.3.1.3 Leader-member exchange

Continuing with Liden and his colleagues, (2015) review of LMX measurements, George Graen & Cashman, (1975), were regarded to be the first to label the measurement scale leader-member exchange, which included the same four items used to capture VDL. A fifth item was added later which aimed to investigate the overall assessment of relationship quality by Graen, Liden, & Hoel, (1982). In this measure, Graen and his colleagues operationalized LMX as the difference between a focal individual’s LMX score and the average LMX score across his or her workgroup. This operationalization was referred to as “deviation LMX” as it aimed to illustrate clearly the difference between examining leadership at the dyadic level as opposed to the more traditional “average leadership style” approach. However, Liden et al., (2015), indicated that apart from Ferris's (1985) replication of Graen, Liden and Hoel (1982), the operationalization approach lay dormant until its revival again by Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, (2008) and referred to it as “ relative LMX” or RLMX, and from their other studies have appeared on RLMX (e.g. Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Herman, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2012; Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, 2010).

Other measures were used subsequently like the 13-item LMX scale used in many studies like (Settoon et al., 1996), which was a preliminary version of the LMX-Multidimensional Measure (LMX-MDM). The LMX-MDM measure was replaced by the 12 item LMX-MDM scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The LMX-7 version presented by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and the LMX-MDM (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) are considered as the two most frequently used measures by researchers (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Liden et al., 2015). However, many researchers have found varied response anchors for the LMX-7; since LMX-7 evolved through a piecemeal process over many years, ad hoc additions and deletions of items from scale can alter psychometric properties (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Keller & Dansereau, 2001; Liden et al., 2015; Terri a. Scandura & Graen, 1984).

2.3.2 Current LMX measures

2.3.2.1 Supervisor versions of LMX

LMX relationship is concerned with both parties of the relation. LMX is a dyadic approach, it concerns perceptions of both subordinates' and leaders'(Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; George Graen & Cashman, 1975). It is therefore suggested that data should be collected from both members of the dyad rather than only from subordinate's' perspective in LMX research (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). Liden et al., (2015), observed that the researchers generally transform subordinate versions of LMX measures to make the corresponding supervisor versions of LMX scales. They elaborated that researchers generally used two approaches to modify subordinate reported LMX items to assess supervisor's perspective on LMX – the mirroring approach and the parallel approach. The mirroring approach is when supervisor version are “ mirrors” of the items measured from subordinate’s perspective (e.g, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). Using the example provided in the review, an item from the subordinate reported LMX measure is “I can count on my supervisor to ‘bail me out’, even at his or her expense, when I really need it” (Liden., 1993, p. 666). When mirroring a corresponding supervisor reported LMX item for this subordinate LMX item it would be “I would be willing to ‘bail out’ my subordinate, even at my own expense, if he or she really needed it” (Liden., 1993, p. 666). In mirroring, the LMX item from the perspectives of both, subordinate and supervisor are capturing the same information related to the extent to which the supervisor would be willing to “bail out” a subordinate.

The other way to capture the exchange in the dyadic relationship between leader and his or her respective follower is the parallel approach (Greguras & Ford, 2006). They suggested that measuring the view of the supervisor towards LMX should focus on how subordinates treat the supervisor. An example of this was provided in Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, (2001) research where they utilized the parallel approach such as “ regardless of the amount of formal authority your employee has, what are the chances that he/she would ‘bail you out’ at his/ her expense?’’. Furthermore, different mirrored versions of LMX-7 measure was (SLMX-7) which were provided by Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995). For example, they changed the wording of the subordinate reported LMX-7 item, “how well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?” and the corresponding supervisor reported (SLMX-7) item is, “How well do you understand your follower’s job problems and needs?” (Graen & Uhl-Bien,1995, p. 237). Liden and his colleagues, (2015), continued their review of the LMX measurements and reported the Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, (2001) different version of SLMX-7 based on Graen & Uhl-Bien's, (1995) LMX 7. Their way was consistent with the parallel approach of Greguras & Ford, (2006), aimed to assess how subordinates interact with their supervisor from the perspective of the supervisor. Furthermore, based on Liden & Maslyn's, (1998) multidimensional subordinate LMX measure, the multidimensional supervisor LMX scale was developed by Greguras & Ford, (2006). This measure aimed to capture the mutual exchange nature of the LMX relationship and converted Liden & Maslyn's, (1998) LMX-MDM items into SLMX-MDM items in a parallel fashion.

2.3.2.2 LMX Social Comparison

LMXSC captures the perceptions of one's own LMX relative to the LMXs of coworkers (Erdogan, 2002; Vidyarthi et al., 2010). This was to find if a particular employee has better and more effective relationship with the supervisor, compared with coworkers LMXs. This scale, LMXSC, was distinct from LMX. Erdogan, (2002), found that after controlling for LMX, LMXSC was able to explain interactional justice, where LMXSC positively related to employee in-role and extra-role performance.

2.3.2.3 Perceived LMX variability

A single –item measure of LMX distribution was developed by Hooper & Martin, (2008), in order to assess the quality of subordinates' relationships with their leaders. This item allowed subordinates to rate their relationship quality as well as every other team's member's relationship quality with the leader. These scores which were reported by a focal employee, a perceived LMX variability score for the focal employee was obtained by calculating the coefficient of variation. Liden et al., (2015) elaborated that results showed that perceived LMX variability negatively associates with employee job satisfaction and well-being.

2.3.2.4 Social and Economic exchange

The social and economic measures were introduced by Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, (2006) in order to further investigate the general forms of employee exchange relationships with the organization from employees' perspectives. The social exchange aims to examine the social-emotional side of the exchange relationship between employee and employer, whereas the economic exchange measure reflects the financial and material exchange relationship. Each of the final scales of social exchange and economic exchange included eight items, and show acceptable internal consistency, α= .87 for social exchange; and α= .78 for economic exchange.

After a series of CFAs tests, these two measures, social and economic, were shown to be distinct constructs and were distinct from other related constructs. Liden et al., (2015), indicated that these two measures of social and economic exchange were used, in their original forms or with modifications, together or individually, further in different studies in the area of social exchange theory and beyond (Hom et al., 2009; Rousseau, Hornung, & Kim, 2009; Shore, Bommer, Rao, & Seo, 2009; Song, Tsui, & Law, 2009).

2.3.2.5 Social LMX and Economic LMX

Other measures of the LMX exchange include the social and economic exchange of leader-member exchange, which is of primary concern to this thesis. Instead of looking at the exchange relationship as a single continuum, where the quality of the relation ranges from low to high, Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Haerem (2012) developed items adapted from Shore and colleagues' (2006) social/economic exchange scale. These scales were developed in order to measure the two aspects of the exchange relationship between leader and subordinate – social LMX (SLMX) and economic LMX (ELMX). SLMX is similar to the traditional conceptualization of LMX and the exchange relationship is characterized with mutual trust, diffuse obligation, long-term orientation and social-emotional exchange (Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Haerem, 2012).

On the other hand, ELMX refers to an exchange that is characterized with transactional, short-term, economic and contract-based exchanges (Kuvaas et al., 2012). As per the definitions and findings, SLMX and ELMX are two theoretically different constructs that assess two sides of the leader-member exchange relationship (Liden et al., 2015). Kuvaas et al. (2012), retained four items measuring SLMX ($\alpha = .78$) and four items measuring ELMX ($\alpha = .74$) after deleting cross-loaded items from the original 16 items adapted from Shore and colleagues (2006). SLMX was found to relate positively with work performance and organizational citizenship behavior, while ELMX associated negatively with work performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

2.3.2.6 Reciprocity

Most measures of LMX do not directly assess the aspect of reciprocity although LMX is based on the notion of reciprocity (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). Reciprocity is considered as a critical component of high-quality exchange relationships, however, the majority of LMX measures attempt to assess the quality of the relationship rather than the degree of reciprocity (Liden et al., 2015).

A measure was develop by Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, (2003) to address this gap by assessing subordinates perceptions of reciprocity in their relationship with their leaders. The basis of this measure was integrated from the work of previous research (Liden et al., 1997; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). As explained by Liden et al., (2015), the work of Gouldner, (1960) and Sahlins, (1972) on forms of reciprocity were integrated by Liden et al., (1997) and Sparrowe & Liden, (1997), which in turn formed the basis for the Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, (2003, p 519) measure: (a) equivalence (the extent to which what is given is equivalent to what is received); (b) immediacy (the duration of time between the receipt of an exchange and reciprocation); and (c) interest (identify the type of interest of the dyadic partner's motive for exchange and whether it is based on self-interest, mutual interest and other interest). The findings of this measure showed that subordinate's reports of immediacy, equivalence, and self-interest were negatively related to relationship quality whereas mutual interest related positively to LMX quality. Liden et al., (2015) suggested that this measure is best suited to assess the differences in leader-employee relationship based on reciprocation process.

2.3.2.7 Perceived Supervisor Support

The final measure to be discussed in this section is the measure that assesses the employees' impression of the degree to which the organization appreciates their contributions and cares about their well-being. This is referred to as perceived organizational support (POS) (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). Employees differentiate between support received from their organizations versus that received from their supervisors. The later, perceived supervisor support (PSS) reflects employees general perceptions concerning whether their supervisor values and appreciates their contributions and cares about their well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Liden et al., (2015) argued that PSS could affect relationship formation and development and serve as an important construct in evaluating the quality of the relationship from employees' perspectives. The PSS scale was created by Rhoades/Shanock and her colleagues (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006), where they selected four POS items and replaced the word " organization" with "supervisor" and their work demonstrated that psychometric characteristics of PSS mirrored POS. Rhoades/Shanock and her colleagues work was in consistent with Kottke & Sharafinski, (1988).

2.3.3 Critique of LMX measures

In their meta-analysis, Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, (2012) indicated that LMX measurement has been criticized for different reasons. For example, scholars criticized it for questionable construct validity (Dienesch & Liden, 1986), absence of rigorous scale development procedures which leads to dubious psychometric properties (Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Schriesheim et al., 1999), and adding or deleting of items across studies (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Keller & Dansereau, 2001). These criticisms raise the questions of whether the available scales produce different results. Measurements used to assess LMX have varied considerably with no explanation provided, and the analytic procedures utilized have not been aligned with the proposed and tested theory (Schriesheim et al., 1999). Most current LMX scales do not measure exchange, and few measure the reciprocity between the leader and the member, although the conceptualization of LMX is based on reciprocity as an exchange process (Bernerth et al., 2007; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Dulebohn et al., (2012), further highlighted the importance of rethinking how leadership scholars explore and measure the relationship between leaders and behaviors.

Moreover, several problems have persisted in the voluminous body of LMX literature to date, including the absence of a clear definition of LMX construct cause inconsistencies and posed challenges for interpreting the findings that have been gleaned with LMX measures of varied conceptualizations (Sheer, 2014). She elaborated that the varied conceptual definitions of LMX such as role making, negotiation latitude, exchange, quality of exchange, and quality of exchange relationships seem to be afterthoughts or post hoc rationalization for the measures used already in early LMX research. Later LMX measures were markedly different from early ones and different operationalization of LMX across empirical studies lead to incomparable meanings and consequently different constructs of measures.

2.4 Relationship between Leader-member exchange and other Leadership theories

LMX theory is not isolated from other leadership theories. Literature that investigates LMX theory as a dyadic relationship found an interaction with different leadership theories as they provided further understanding of the interaction between leaders and members. This section takes a relational perspective where it focus on examining how LMX theory is related to other prominent leadership approaches including trait theories, contextual theories and new leadership theories. Having wider understanding of how leadership theories can be integrated with other leadership theories would likely foster more integrative ways of researching leadership (David V Day & Miscenko, 2015).

2.4.1 Trait theories of leadership

One of the oldest approaches to study leadership is the one related to study the core traits of effective leaders. The Big Five factors of personality were introduced to the leadership research. Current models have mainly been grouped around "big" factors, which seek to measure the most salient aspects of personality, as leader personality matter for leader outcomes (Ashton et al., 2004; Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Goldberg, 1990; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). This personality framework provided researchers with a common language to the study of human personality, and research was not restricted to studying leaders traits, they further investigated follower rather than leaders traits as antecedents of LMX quality (David V Day & Miscenko, 2015). Surprisingly, there has been limited empirical attention in research examining the Big Five dimensions (conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, and neuroticism) and their relation to LMX (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012). Day & Miscenko, (2015) have also noted that there are fewer studies in the literature that have examined the relationship between leader (compared with follower) traits and LMX. They stated that traits and relational theories are among the most influential and longstanding theories in the scholarly of leadership literature and recommended more investigations of LMX as a potential mediator of the relationship between leader traits and employee outcomes or leadership effectiveness. The recent meta-analysis by Dulebohn et al., (2012) found that 11 studies have examined follower extraversion as a predictor of LMX while four studies only have looked at leader extraversion. Their results have also indicated that leader extraversion and agreeableness are significantly associated with LMX quality. Prior to that Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Ilies, (2009), examined the development of leader-member relationships from the initial interaction through the early stages of the relationship (the first 8 weeks). They found that team member extraversion and leader agreeableness influenced the ratings of the relationship quality at the initial interaction.

Along with the Big Five personality factors, a number of personality variables have also received some attention in the existing literature, specifically, locus of control, positive affectivity (PA), and negative affectivity (NA). For example, some research has investigated a leader’s locus of control which has been found to be positively associated with LMX quality (Barbuto, Weltmer, & Pennisi, 2010). Similarity in leader-follower emotional intelligence, personality and cognitive style were another key area of investigation. Findings, for example, revealed that similarity in emotional intelligence was related to higher quality LMX relationship (Sears & Holmvall, 2010). In addition, Allinson, Armstrong, & Hayes, (2001) found that the degree of difference between leaders and their followers cognitive styles could impact the nature of the exchange in their relationship; that is intuitive leaders were likely less dominating and more nurturing compared to their analytic colleagues. Intuitive leaders were also found to be more liked and respected by analytic followers than analytic supervisors by intuitive members.

2.4.2 Contextual schools of Leadership

The contextual schools of leadership are assumed to emerge as an extension to the contingency theories of leadership, where they are thought to enhance or inhibit specific leadership behaviors or their dispositional antecedents (Liden & Antonakis, 2009). They indicated that although context has been acknowledge as salient to leadership for decades, only recent years have witnessed research widespread attention to the context. *"the context of leadership is the milieu – the physical and social environment – in which leadership is observed* (Liden & Antonakis, 2009. p. 1587). As per the summary of Day & Miscenko, (2015), the contextual factors of national culture, levels of analysis (workgroups and organizations), and LMX as a contextual variable itself have been of particular interest to LMX researchers.

2.4.2.1 National culture

Many scholars have suggested that national culture moderates the relationship between LMX quality and employee outcomes. For example, Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, (2012), have found that LMX relationships differ between individualistic and collectivistic cultures with regard to OCB, justice perceptions, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. However, the national culture in the same meta-analysis did not influence the relationship between LMX and task performance and organizational commitment. More evidence was also revealed within similar eastern cultures. For example, work turnover intentions was negatively related with LMX quality in china but not in Korea (Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2013).

2.4.2.2 Workgroup level

Research has moved from looking at LMX research as a dyadic level and looked at the various contextual variables of LMX quality at the workgroup level. The theme behind this development is that LMX cannot be isolated from other relationships that occur within workgroups (Day & Miscenko, 2015).

A stream of research has emerged based on this perspective. For example, workgroup climate was found to moderate the relationship between LMX and safety citizenship role definitions (Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003). Different findings were reveled from research integrating across workgroup variables and suggested that the LMX development and effects might not depend only on the characteristics of a focal leader and follower, but rather are influenced by the quality of relationships with others as well as by the overall workgroup climate (Day & Miscenko, 2015). Another example is related to coworkers exchange (CWX) which investigates the quality of the exchange between coworkers reporting to the same supervisor. It was found that employees with similar levels of LMX quality relationship (high or low) had a higher CWX quality compared to those with dissimilar LMX relations (Sherony & Green, 2002). Moreover, size and cohesiveness of workgroup were found to be significantly related to LMX at the group level (Cogliser & Schriesheim, 2000).

2.4.2.3 Organizational level

Day & Miscenko, (2015) stated that organizational climate and culture has an influence on the relationship between LMX quality and employee outcomes. Perceived organizational support (POS) has been largely studied in the field of LMX. Results indicated that POS moderates the relationship between LMX, job satisfaction, and job performance (Erdogan & Enders, 2007). Leader's position and status in the organization were also proposed to have an effect on the quality of the LMX relationship. Tangirala, Green, & Ramanujam, (2007), found that the relationship between LMX quality and the employees' attitudes toward the organization and its customers was moderated by the positive LMX relationship between a leader and the leader's boss. Learning organizational culture was also found to positively moderate the relationship between LMX quality and in-role job performance (Joo & Ready, 2012).

Day & Miscenko, (2015) argued that both variables in the workgroup level and organizational levels moderate relationships between LMX and employee outcomes. However, the nature of this relationship between these variables at different levels is not totally clear and they suggested a further investigation that adopts available multilevel methodologies to concurrently consider dyad, workgroup, and organizational levels in the development and effects of LMX.

2.4.2.4 LMX as a contextual variable

LMX quality has also been proposed to be a contextual variable that may explain the effects of employee antecedents on outcomes such as performance. For example, employees high quality relationships with leader can reduce the effect of employee perceptions of negative work conditions on performance (Rosen, Harris, & Kacmar, 2011). That is when the LMX conditions are low; perceptions of distributive injustice had a negative effect on employee performance. Moreover, LMX was found to positively moderate the relationship between performance goal orientation and career satisfaction (Joo & Ready, 2012) and also compensate for low levels of employee conscientiousness in predicting contextual performance (Jawahar & Carr, 2007).

In ddition, Day & Miscenko, (2015) suggested that LMX differentiation can also be a vital contextual variable at the workgroup level. Liao, Liu, & Loi, (2010) found that LMX differentiation attenuate the direct effects of LMX quality on self-efficay and the indirect effect on creativity.

2.4.3 Transformational/ visionary leadership

The new leadership school extends the foundational work on leader behavior and promotes the transformational, charismatic, and visionary leadership (Day & Miscenko, 2015). They elaborated that these leadership approaches represent the most dominant focus in leadership research over the past decade or so. Transformational leadership includes different leaders' behaviors like articulating an appealing vision, behaving in a way consistent with that vision, and encouraging the acceptance of group goals (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987).

Transformational leadership is a complex construct that consist of several dimension like individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence. However, Day & Miscenko, (2015) suggested that some of these dimensions of the transformational leadership are more related to the study of LMX; relations-oriented aspects of the transformational leadership could have more effect on LMX than the change oriented aspects (Yukl, O'Donnell, & Taber, 2009). Dulebohn et al.,(2012) indicated that few studies have examined specific dimensions of transformational leadership and not all transformational leadership dimensions are related to LMX. They have also indicted in their meta-analysis that contingent reward behavior and transformational leadership have received the most attention in the extant literature. They elaborated that transformational leadership may create an environment that is conductive for the development of high-quality LMX relationship (Anand, Hu, Liden, & Vidyarthi, 2011; Wang et al., 2005), where followers tend to respond more to leaders who are able to inspire and motivate them (Timothy A Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The findings from their meta-analysis have also shown that the quality of LMX relationships was influenced by leaders' use of transformational leadership, and their expectations of followers' success. They suggested that LMX is more strongly influenced by leaders rather than members where LMX quality is significantly affected by leaders (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Research has actually provided some findings that support this relationship between LMX and transformational leadership, however, studies reports mixed results. For example, whilst Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, (2005) found that LMX fully mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and task performance as well as organizational citizenship behavior, a different result was obtained by Tse, Huang, & Lam, (2013) and results did not show any mediation role of LMX on the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intentions but the relationship was mediated by organization based social exchange. That is, their finding showed that affect is a stronger social mechanism that translates the leadership effect into turnover intention and lends support to a key feature of transformational leadership; that is the likely role of leaders to induce employees to stay is not because of the high –quality exchange relationship with their subordinates. It is rather attributed to their ability to inspire employees to transcend their individual interests and orient themselves to the collective interests of the organization and to make a high level commitment to their organization (Day & Miscenko, 2015).

Another finding that supports the relation between LMX and transformational leadership is the findings of Epitropaki & Martin, (2013), who found that LMX quality moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee influence tactics, specifically, employees who report to a transformational leader with higher LMX relationship were more likely to use soft influence tactics rather than hard influence tactics. Furthermore, the relationship between transformational leadership and task performance/ core characteristics perceptions was more positive when employees had higher LMX quality (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006).

Some researchers have indicated that LMX relationship contains both transactional (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987) and transformational leadership (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Burns,(1978), identified two types of political leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership is referred to "leaders approach followers with an eye toward exchanging" (p.4). It occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of something valuable. Transformational leadership on the other hand, extends the aspect of employees' compliance toward shifts in the beliefs, the needs and the values of followers. According to Burns, Transformational leadership is defined as "a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (p. 4). Transformational leaders establish high-quality relationship with their respective members by citing appropriate examples and giving individualized attention, which in turn encourage followers to work better and achieve organizational goals (Graen, 1976).

Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), provided more explanation of how LMX is a combination of both transactional and transformational leadership. They stated that some aspects of LMX are transactional due to its position as an exchange-based approach, and social exchange is what comprises the LMX process. This exchange includes primarily material (compensation for fulfillment of employment contract), social, and psychological benefits or favors (approval, trust, esteem, support, and consideration). As relationship progress, greater amount of social exchange is involved and some relationships experience a "transformation" from self-interest to a larger interest. Overall, Day & Miscenko, (2015) suggested that furture studies should give further cosnideration to the relationship between LMX and transformational leadership and could extnd these research to charismatic leadership and LMX, given the similarity between trasformational leadership and charismatic leadership.

2.5 The Dimension of Leader-member Exchange (LMX)

Although LMX was originally defined as a uni-dimensional variable according to work-related exchange and work behaviors from both a leader and a member (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Graen, 1976; Graen & Scandura, 1987), some scholars argue that there is a lack of theoretical and empirical evidence to support this (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). There are some theories that support the multidimensional construct of LMX. The multidimensional construct of LMX resulted from the concept of role, which is defined as " . . . *standardized patterns of behavior required for all persons playing a part in a given functional relationship*…" (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 43). It was argued that the development of LMX results from different role making episodes (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Both, the leader and the member can take different roles in the organization. Leaders' roles for example are assumed to take multiple factors or activities, such as supervising activities, and distributing resources (Kim & Yukl, 1995; Tsui, 1984). Some followers may also focus on non-job specific behaviors instead of task-related aspects (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Therefore, the LMX construct may be looked at as a multi-dimensional construct. The multidimensional LMX relationship is defined as having three perspectives. The first is contribution, which is defined by Dienesch & Liden, (1986, p. 624) as *" perception of the amount, direction, and quality of work-oriented activity each member puts forth toward the mutual goals (explicit or implicit) of the dyad".* The second perspective is loyalty, which is referred to as "*the extent to which both leader and the member publicly support each other's* *actions and character."* (Liden & Maslyn, 1998, p. 46). The final perspective is affect, which is considered as " *the mutual affection members of the dyad have for each other based primarily on interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional values*" (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 625). A fourth dimension, professional respect, was added to the leader-member exchange multi-dimensional measure (LMX-MDM) (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). LMX-MDM consists of 12 items, where it evaluates the LMX relationships based on the idea of followers and has demonstrated high reliability and validity (Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992).

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) indicated that the alpha of multidimensional LMX constructs ranges from .8 to .9 which make it possible to conclude that the LMX construct includes several dimensions. However, Gerstner & Day, (1997), indicated that LMX is appropriately measured by a unidimensional measure since all dimensions of multiple LMX are highly correlated, and three dimensions of LMX "*respect for competence, trust in motivation and commitment to common values"* are quite similar (Graen, 2008, p. 5). Furthermore, Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995) indicated that the most consistent results from the testing across multidimensional studies is the homogeneity on the single dimension, where α ranges from .8- .9 and majority of these studies fail to find multiple elements in exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

The LMX-MDM instrument (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) was the main base of the multidimensional LMX construct, whereas research using the unidimensional LMX construct is mainly developed based on the LMX7 measurement. These two measurements, although highly related, are different in the assumption of dimensions (while LMX7 is based on responses from a leader, follower, or both of them, the LMX-MDM instrument is based on responses from a follower) as well as they both report different relationships with other variables.

The current study treats LMX as a unidimensional construct. This is because 94% of studies consider LMX as a single, broad construct rather than a multidimensional set of constructs (Joseph, Newman, & Sin, 2011). Gerstner & Day, (1997), further suggested that it is appropriate for researchers to use LMX7 as a measurement instrument if they are interested in unidimensional LMX studies.

2.6 Consequences of LMX

A considerable amount of research has revealed that workplace relationships, LMX relationships in particular, have a significant impact on different employee attitudes and behaviors. The vast majority of the LMX research has focused on the outcomes of LMX relationships like job attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors (Epitropaki & Martin, 2015). The central theoretical premise behind these outcomes is that low quality leader-member exchanges, which are restricted to the employment contract, lead to less positive consequences as employees do not feel they are obligated to exert any extra efforts, whereas LMX relationships with high quality exchanges results in more employees favorable outcomes as they tend to go beyond the employment contract due to their commitment and sense of obligation to return the benefits, support and rewards they receive from their leaders (Liden et al., 1997).

This section focuses on the outcomes of leader member exchange relationship. It considers particular employee outcomes, which are the concern of the current research. These outcomes include: employee job performance (JP), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and employee turnover intention (TI).

2.6.1 LMX and employee job performance

Research has widely shown that high LMX quality relates to a range of positive follower outcomes (for reviews see Anand et al., 2011; Martin, Epitropaki, Thomas, & Topakas, 2010; van Breukelen et al., 2006). The LMX relationship to performance is considered to be critically important due to the implications that performance has for employees, leaders, and organizations (Matta & Van Dyne, 2015). " Job performance is the most widely studied criterion variable in the organizational behavior and human resource management" (Bommer, Johnson, Rich, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 1995, p 587). Job performance is considered as one of the popular outcomes and correlates of high-quality LMX relationships. Meta-analysis results (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997) revealed that the relationship between LMX and performance is one of the most largely researched topics in the LMX literature.

The relationship between LMX and performance is complex as job performance is a multidimensional construct that continues to evolve with the changing requirements of the workforce (Campbell, 1990; Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999).

2.6.1.1 Performance definition

According to Matta & Van Dyne, (2015), the conceptualization of performance and how it is studied has increased dramatically over the past half century. Researchers have identified the four basic types of performance; task performance, affiliative extra-role behavior, change-oriented extra-role behavior, and adaptive performance. For the sake of this research, attention will be paid to the first type of performance.

Task performance is the degree to which an employee can meet the known expectations and requirements of a particular role (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). It also refers to " *a group of behaviors involved in the completion of tasks … (and) includes behaviors that contribute to the production of a good or the provision of a service"* (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p 67). Task performance covers issues related to the quantity and quality of work output and the accomplishment of work duties and responsibilities related to the job. Performance has been conceptualized in different ways (Campbell et al., 1993). Rotundo & Sackett, (2002) captured performance in a three component model: task, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive performance.

The first two studies that investigated the relationship between LMX and task performance were those of Dansereau et al., (1975) and Liden & Graen, (1980). Both studies revealed that there is a positive relationship between LMX and supervisor appraised performance. Researchers have also considered different mediators in this relationships like; supervisor liking (Timothy A Judge & Ferris, 1993), employee empowerment (Chen et al., 2007), and negative feedback seeking (Chen et al., 2007), and multiple mediators like commitment to the supervisor, self-efficacy, and means-efficacy (Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & & Goldman, 2011). Research have also considered the role of some moderators to the LMX and performance relationships like; employee characteristics (Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006; Graen et al., 1982), leader characteristics (Chen et al., 2007), and contextual factors (Duarte, Goodson, & Klich, 1994; Dunegan et al., 1992; Takeuchi, Yun, & Wong, 2011).

LMX quality has been largely linked to various employee outcomes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997). The positive effect of high quality LMX relationship has been widely attributed to psychological aspects related to the motivational process. It is critical to note that follower job performance has been showing inconsistent results related to LMX, with results emerging as positive (Kacmar et al., 2003), weak (Rosse & Kraut, 1983), equivocal (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), or non-significant (Vecchio, 1982).

2.6.1.2 Effect of LMX quality on Job performance

It is critical here to explain the process of how high quality LMX relationship is expected to increase employee job performance. Role theory and social exchange theory have been used traditionally in the field of LMX to explain the development of different types of LMX relationships. It has been stated largely that LMX relationships with low quality are restricted to the employment contract and mainly involve economic exchanges (Blau, 1964). Employees with low quality LMX relationships are put at a relative disadvantages in terms of job benefits and career progress (Vecchio, 1997). Members receive less access to the supervisor, fewer resources, and restricted information, which potentially lead to dissatisfaction in the job, lower performance, and lower organization commitment (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In contrast, leaders and followers in high quality LMX relationships reported higher levels of satisfaction, job performance, and effectiveness, as well as mutual influence, greater access to resources, honest communication, and more extra-role behaviors (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Exchanges here go beyond the call of the duty, where each party trust the other and time span for exchange is extended. Exchanges in high LMX relationships are more social in nature and involve mutual respect, affect, support, loyalty, and felt obligation (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003), which in turn increase follower's ability and motivation to perform at a high level.

Reciprocity is the main norm that governs the patterns of exchanges between leaders and members (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). In their meta-analysis review of the LMX and performance, Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, (2015) indicated that the favorable treatment the follower receives from the leader leads to feelings of obligation; that is to “ pay back” the leader good treatment by working hard as a means of reciprocation. Moreover, these feelings of liking and affect towards the leader are increased as a result of the positive exchanges between the leader and the follower, which in turn motivate followers to want to meet the leader’s work demands. This in turn enhances task and contextual performance of the employee as there is a perceived obligation on their part to reciprocate higher quality relationships (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). The opposite is true for employees involved in lower quality LMX relationships. Lower trust, interaction, support and rewards demotivate employees to reciprocate beyond the specified employment contract.

2.6.2 LMX and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)

Scholars have largely recognized the importance of LMX relationships for a host of important employee outcomes, including satisfaction, performance, and citizenship behavior. Employee research has shown that positive relationships between subordinates and leaders are related to lower stress and turnover intentions, increased employee job satisfaction, and increased performance and citizenship behaviors (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007). George & Brief, (1992) indicated that OCBs are vital for productivity as organizations are unable to anticipate through formally stated in-role job descriptions the entire array of subordinate behavior needed for achieving goals.

Interest in the domain of OCB has increased largely over the past two decades (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). OCB is the extra-role behaviors which are beyond the prescribed job requirements. More about the meaning, dimensions of Organizational citizenship behavior and how it is related to LMX relationship is explained in the following sections.

2.6.2.1 Definition and dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

The term "organizational citizenship behavior" (OCB) was first introduced in the 1980s by Bateman & Organ, (1983) and Smith, Organ, & Near, (1983), where it came from the definition of " willingness to cooperate" (Barnard, 1938) and the difference between " innovative and spontaneous behavior" and dependable role performance (Katz & Kahn, 1978; D. Katz, 1964). Organ, (1997) has provided definition where OCB "*supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place"* (p. 95). OCB represents employees' voluntary and spontaneous behavior. It is referred to discretionary behaviors that are not defined by a formal reward system of the organization and are likely to enhance organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988).

Two main categories of OCB were identified by Smith et al., (1983): 'Altruism' and 'Generalized Compliance'. Whilst altruism refers to behavior that benefits a particular person, generalized compliance refers to behavior that supports the overall well-being of the organization. Later, Organ, (1988) proposed a five factor OCB model that consists of altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue. Altruism refers to prosocial behaviors, for example helping behaviors towards other person with a task or problem relevant to the organization. Courtesy is when an employee behavior's aimed at preventing work-related problem. The willingness of workers to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining is referred to sportsmanship. Conscientiousness is about the internal acceptance and obeying of organizational rules and regulations. Civic virtue is the macro-level behavior towards the organization or the work group that an employee works with.

There was an interest in the relationship between LMX and citizenship behavior at work by researchers and work in this area has increased exponentially in the past two decades (see

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Schriesheim et al., 1999). Different labels were used by some scholars to explain Organizational citizenship behavior, such as prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), contextual performance (Motowildo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997), and organizational spontaneity (George & Jones, 1997). OCB was also defined from different dimensions. For example Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, (1993) and Podsakoff et al., (2000) demonstrated that altruism and courtesy are assumed to load together on a second-order helping dimension. Later studies have indicated that these labels have many differences between them and the term OCB. Motowidlo, (2000), indicated that the contextual factor is considered as a formal reward system and does not require behaviors to be extra-role, whereas OCB in not considered as a formal reward system and it is recognized as a type of extra role-behavior. More than 30 dimensions were included later in the OCB literature including compliance, personal initiative taking, loyalty altruism, courtesy and voice behavior (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002).

Scholars have not agreed on a particular definition for the term OCB. However, VanDyne, Cummings, & Parks, (1995) have identified two particular traits related to the term OCB. The first is that behaviors an employee perform are considered to be carried out willingly and not limited to formal job duties. The second trait is that behaviors are assumed to occur haphazardly within the organization and benefit the organization directly or indirectly. OCB is seen as significant for organizational functioning since managers cannot possibly anticipate all opportunities for employee contribution, monitor all employee behaviors, or coerce employees into “ going the extra mile” for the organization (Burris et al., 2008).

In addition, some scholars consider OCB as a unidimensional (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007; LePine et al., 2002), where both their reviews revealed that Organ’s five dimensions of OCB are strongly correlated with each other. These various dimensions of OCB do not provide an explanation for the variance beyond an overall measure of the OCB construct. However, others argue that OCB should be considered as multi-dimensional (e.g, Podsakoff, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Maynes, & Spoelma, 2014), where there appear to be some differences between these five dimensions, and these dimensions are organized in different consequences and therefore should be regarded as individual constructs.

2.6.2.2 Effect of LMX quality on OCB

LMX relationships with high quality exchanges are characterized as mentioned earlier by high levels of trust, interaction, support, and formal and informal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). These relationships usually include exchanges of material and nonmaterial goods that extend the specified formal job description, and thus subordinates are likely to go beyond the required in-role behavior and engage in citizenship behaviors. This is in order to reciprocate the benefits gained from high LMX relationships and to maintain a balanced or equitable social exchange with the leader (Liden et al., 1997; S. Wayne et al., 1997). In contrast, LMX relationships with low quality exchanges are limited to exchanges that take place according to the employment contract and are characterized by low trust, interaction, support, and rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Hence employees reduce their efforts and restrict them to the prescribed employment contract only as they feel they are not obligated to provide any extra help, and extra in-role behaviors. Especially that OCB behaviors are not recognized by the formal reward system of their organization as explained by Motowidlo, (2000), hence employees feel that they are not gaining any benefits of involving in such behaviors.

However, there appears to be a high degree of variability in results from studies investigating the strength of the relationship between LMX and OCB. For example, a relatively weak relationship was found between LMX and citizenship behavior by Wayne et al., (2002). A much stronger relationship was found later by Tekleab & Taylor, (2003). An opposite correlations was also obtained between LMX relationship and OCB, where Loi & Ngo, (2009) found a negative relation between LMX and OCB in a study that took place in china.

Hackett, Farh, Song, & Lapierre, (2003), proposed that this variability in results could be attributed to sampling error and differential reliability. Moreover, researchers have related to different types of citizenship behaviors (e.g., helping, job dedication) to LMX relationship, and this could results in LMX differentially influence citizenship behaviors that are examined in particular studies, which could have influenced the nature and magnitude of the observed relationship with LMX (Ilies et al., 2007). Another explanations for these variations in estimates of LMX and OCB correlations could be attributed to the different contexts of LMX, particularly collectivistic/ individualistic cultures (Anand et al., 2011; Rockstuhl et al., 2012).

2.6.3 LMX and employee turnover intention

Due to the high cost and deleterious effects associated with employee turnover, there has been a large interest in investigating how to retain employees within organizations. Employees with high turnover intentions usually have undesirable attitudes that infect other employees with whom they interact (Griffeth et al., 2000). Turnover intention has been supported as the most critical precursor of actual turnover behavior (Dalessio, Silverman, & Schuck, 1986). This section highlights the issue of employee turnover intention, its definition and how it is considered as a critical outcome of the LMX relationship.

2.6.3.1 Definition of employee turnover intention

As stated above, research on turnover intention and actual turnover has been one of the most studied topics in management research (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom & Kinicki, 2001). Turnover is defined as "*the departure of an employee from (the formally defined organization*)" (March & Simon, 1958:99). When considering turnover intent in particular, Tett & Meyer, (1993) defined turnover intention as "*a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization*" (p. 261). Turnover intention was also explained by Gaertner & Nollen, (1992: p. 448) as " *a behavioral intention resulting from company polices, labor market characteristics, and employee perceptions*". It is suggested that the final cognitive step in decision making process of voluntary turnover is employee's intent to stay or leave a job (Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

According to Holland's (1973,1997) congruence theory, individual's work behavior is partially mediated by the congruence between their interests and the extent to which the environment supports their interests. If these interest are congruent with a given work environment, individuals will (a) be more likely to enter the environment, (b) be more satisfied in that environment, and (c) choose to remain and stay in that environment longer than individuals whose interests are incongruent with that environment.

As indicated by Vandenberg & Nelson, (1999), the intention to leave or quit the organization is referred to the subjective norms that influence an employee to leave the current job to another one in the near future; that is, an employee's attention to leave the organization is because of employees dissatisfaction with the job or particular elements of it.

2.6.3.2 Effect of LMX quality on employee turnover intention

Turnover intention is not an explicit behavior, however employee behaviors and attitudes could be considered as a sign for this intention. Employee turnover intention is one of the common studied outcomes in relation to the quality of LMX. Different findings have revealed that there is a negative relationship between LMX quality and turnover intention (e.g., Ferris, 1985; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen et al., 1982; Harris et al., 2005). This is attributed to the impact of high quality LMX relationships in increasing levels of trust, emotional support, and related favorable benefits that employees receive in such relationships (Dansereau et al., 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Literature suggest that those employees involved in higher exchanges with their leaders are more committed to their organizations and less likely to quit their jobs (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984). Supervisors efforts to develop high quality LMX relationships with high performing and potential high performing subordinates is likely to decrease turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2005). On the other hand, when the LMX relationship quality is low, this leads to a decrease in trust, communication, and other benefits which in turn lead to negative feelings or affective responses of employees toward their supervisors and organizations. These poor quality relationship with supervisors' will eventually increase subordinates' intention to voluntarily leave the organization (Graen et al., 1982). Harris et al., (2005) indicated that these relationships are not desired, where employees want to take actions in order to avoid the discomfort or displeasure of working in these situations.

Out of the eight motivational forces identified by Maertz & Griffeth, (2004) (i.e., affective, calculative, contractual, behavioral, alternative, normative, moral/ethical, and constituent), Harris, Kacmar, & Witt, (2005) have specified three of these forces as critical when examining the relationship between LMX quality and employee turnover intention; affective, calculative, and alternative. These three motivational forces, together, deal with the core components of the LMX and the turnover process. They stated that affective forces are referred to the positive or negative emotional responses that are directed at the organization and that can cause comfortable or uncomfortable feelings. Individuals' calculation of the probability of attaining valued goals in the future through continued membership, where a favorable calculation motivate to stay while an unfavorable calculation motivate employee quitting, is referred to calculative forces. Finally, alternative forces are about an individual's belief about obtaining alternative jobs or roles, where the attractiveness and certainty of these alternatives play a significant role in the decision to quit.

In situations of employee involvement in lower quality LMX relationships, employees usually would have an effective force for entertaining quitting, as subordinates develop negative affective responses and, in efforts to improve these situations, there is a likely option to think about working for a new organization as an alternative. Employees will have calculative forces that involve cognitive evaluations of future prospects. Their calculations about future prospects in their organizations might appear as non-promising in terms of emotional support, trust, communication, or social network connections, therefore, they will begin to entertain thoughts of leaving so as to achieve their valued goals and think about new employment opportunities.

In addition, researchers assume that this relationship between LMX qualities and turnover intention are linear; that is as relationship qualities become higher, turnover intentions become lower. However, opposite to these expectations, research examining the exact nature of this relationship has produced inconsistent results. Harris et al., (2005) found a U-shaped curvilinear relationship between LMX and turnover intent, which implies that regardless of both very good and very bad LMX quality, turnover intention is non-linear. They stated that although generally the relationship between LMX quality and intent to leave is negative, there are a number of reasons that may make this linear relationship appear to be curvilinear. Their results revealed that those employees who rated their LMX relationships to be of highest quality, a positive relationship between LMX quality and turnover intention was also recorded. Employees who are involved in higher quality relationships may think that they could get other job opportunities that are more attractive – an alternative force- or that they are possibly able to achieve future goals at a different organization – a calculative force- and hence, they begin entertaining thoughts of leaving their organization. Harris and colleagues stated that there is a potential that higher LMX relationships could lead to negative consequences, opposite to the exclusive idea of the positive outcomes resulting from high quality LMX relationships (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Schriesheim et al., 1999).

2.7 Social exchange theory

It is important here to refer to social exchange theory which is strongly linked to leader-member exchange theory. LMX theory is underpinned by the broader social exchange theory. The framework draws upon social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity that describe the motivational basis for the development of LMX (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Power and distance between leaders and members are conditioned by the availability of alternative exchange patterns from whom these leaders and members can gain valued resources (Emerson, 1962).

To better understand relationships that involve an exchange between two individuals, social exchange theory has been largely used (Horne, du Plessis, & Nkomo, 2015). Blau defined social exchange relationship as '*favors that create diffuse future obligations, not precisely defined ones, and the nature of the return cannot be bargained about but must be left to the discretion of the* *one who makes it'* (p. 93). A common rule in the LMX research is assumed to govern the patterns of exchange between dyad members is that of reciprocity , where the actions of one person lead to the expectation that the other person will reciprocate with an equally amount of exchange (Blau, 1964; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997).

Social exchange theory is a critical paradigm in organizational behavior, where it has been used to explain different behaviors like task performance, organizational citizenship behavior leadership, and employee-organization relationship. It is stated by Settoon et al., (1996) that contemporary social exchange theories are used to explain why employees express loyalty to their leaders and organizations and engage in behaviors that are neither formally rewarded nor contractually enforceable. A central tent in the exchange theory is that employees develop exchanges for two reasons, socioemotional and economic, and the type of exchange relationship may predict employee motivation, attitudes, and behavior in relation to the employer/ leader (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009). That is, Blau has originally proposed that the basis of any exchange relationship can be described in terms of either social or economic reasons and employees respond differently to their leaders depending on the treatment they receive. Socio-emotional exchange focus on resources exchange over a lengthy period of time, whereas the focus in an economic exchange is on short-term exchanges of material or economic goods (Song et al., 2009).

Surprisingly, little research has been conducted to explore the tangible and concrete resources in the exchange relationship and the current literature in the social exchange process is overwhelmingly articulated as exchange of social-emotional resources (Song et al., 2009). Even though much of the work on LMX research relies on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Walumbwa et al., 2011), most research did not take into account that social and economic exchanges as exchanges with different qualities, despite several calls for research that explicitly incorporates both transactional and transformational process (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Kuvaas et al., 2012a; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994).

According to Sparrowe & Liden, (1997), the distinction between economic and social exchange provided by Blau, (1964) has been helpful in describing the underlying process occurring between both leaders and members in the LMX relationship. However, they stated that LMX research has several limitations in its application to this distinction. They specified that "*the dimensions of actual exchange behavior that differentiate economic from social exchange have not been specified in a way that facilitates empirical verification*" (p. 524). They also indicated that the differences between actual social and economic exchanges have not been described in ways that would specify why social exchange leads to trust (Blau, 1964; McAllister, 1995) but economic exchange to vigilance (Zahn & Wolf, 1981). Moreover, Sparrowe & Liden, (1997) added that the distinction between social and economic exchange omits the engagement of a leader or a member in actively negative forms of exchange in leader-member relationships (Zahn & Wolf, 1981).

More views on social exchange can be obtained from the work of Sahlins, (1972) who provided three dimensions as the basis of exchange types. The first dimension is related to *the immediacy of return*, which captures the amount of time that recipients take to reciprocate to discharge the obligation. This time could range from immediate exchange to an indefinite period. The second dimension specifies the extent to which parties in the relationship reciprocate in kind and in quantity and is referred to as *the equivalence of returns*. A case of a low equivalence occurs when a reciprocation of a good with one that is more or less valuable or to exchanges in which one that contents are so different and difficult to impute a measure of comparable value takes place. On the contrary, if the exchange involves equal or highly comparable goods then the exchange is considered as highly equivalence. The third dimension according to Sahlins, (1972) is related to *the degree and nature of the interest of each party in the exchange*. This interest can be ranged from self-interest, through mutual interest, to interest in and concern for the other. These three dimensions establish a continuum of reciprocities where the actual types of exchange can be located. Sparrowe & Liden, (1997), provided a summary of this continuum of Sahlins, (1972) as shown in figure 2.2. The three dimensions were used to describe three commonly found forms of reciprocity: generalized, balances, and negative. Exchanges that are characterized with generalized reciprocity are indefinite in the obligation in terms of equality and immediacy of returns. It also reflects a kind of altruistic interest in others and flow of materials follow social relations. Balanced reciprocity is characterized by immediacy of the return of a customary and recognized equivalent. It also reflects mutuality in interests between the exchange parties. The final form of exchange is negative reciprocity, which reflects the antithesis of generalized reciprocity, where giving is replaced by taking and complete self-interest. Negative reciprocity "*is the attempt to get something for nothing with impunity"* (Sahlins, 1972: 195). This reciprocity continuum of Sahlins, (1972) is shown in the figure 2.2 below as adapted by Sparrowe & Liden, (1997).

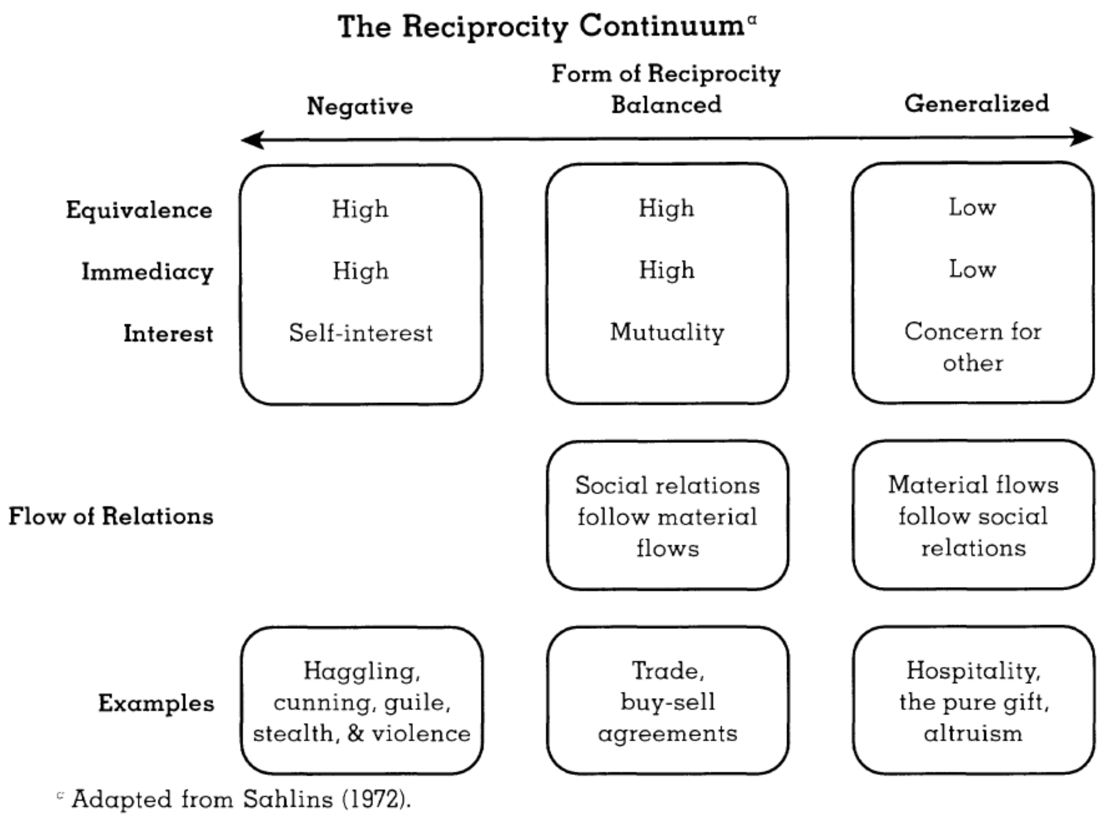


Figure 2.2 Sparrowe & Liden, (1997) reciprocity continuum adapted from Sahlins's, (1972)

According to Sparrowe & Liden, (1997), Sahlins's, (1972) formulation of exchange process addressed the limitations of the application of Blau's (1964) dichotomy between social and economic exchanges in the research of LMX. They stated that several benefits can be gained from the application of Sahlins's reciprocity continuum. For example, the notion that reciprocity takes different forms along a continuum which ranges from negative through balanced to generalized exchange, this is parallel with the continuous nature of LMX quality but with the added advantage of including the fuller range of exchange relationships. Moreover, Sparrowe & Liden, (1997) indicated that the dimensions of immediacy of returns, equivalence of returns, and interest describe the character of actual exchange, whilst negotiating latitude is a proxy for exchange processes (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Another benefit is that these characteristics of actual exchange could be linked to relational quality as explained in experimental research by (Tognoli, 1975).

However, although social exchange theory has provided the dominant basis for understanding exchange relationships between leaders and their members as well as in the overall organizational settings, the economic exchange in these relationships was not addressed appropriately as they did not differentiate between economic and social exchanges (Kuvaas et al., 2012; Shore et al., 2006). The LMX theory did not take into account both types of exchanges (social and economic) although much of the research of LMX relies on this theory. However, Shore et al., (2006) made a substantial empirical contribution to social exchange theory by developing measures of followers' social and economic exchange relationships with their organizations. Their findings revealed that these two elements operate independently. Relying on this conceptualization, Kuvaas and colleagues (2012) proposed that the LMX relationship can also be represented by both social leader-member exchange (SLMX) relationships and economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) relationships. Their results revealed support for their two-dimensional model of LMX relationships, where both work performance and OCB related negatively to ELMX relationships and positively to SLMX relationships. The following section will provide more details about these two exchanges which are at the core of the current study.

2.8 ELMX and SLMX relationships

As mentioned above, most of the LMX research does not capture the overall picture of the leader-member exchange relationship. High quality LMX relationships indicate the high social exchange between leaders and follower (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). These relationships tend to be more open-ended, long term and not in an immediate need of "pay off". In contrast, low- quality relationships involve economic or quasi-economic goods and demand repayment within a specific period of time. High and low quality relationships are represented as two ends of a single continuum, where social and economic transactions are the extreme ends of the same continuum. The exchange literature suggests that employees may develop exchanges for socioemotional reasons, as well as for economic, reasons (Shore et al., 2006). According to Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick, (2009), social exchange can be differentiated from an economic exchange with the following dimensions: resources exchanges, type and strength of obligations, reciprocity and the quality of the relationship that develops over time. Some scholars have criticized the ignorance of the economic side of the exchange relationship. Much of the LMX research still has not taken into account that social and economic exchanges are exchanges with different qualities despite several calls to incorporate both transactional and transformational processes (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994).

Shore et al., (2006) introduced the social and economic exchange measures in order to measure the broad forms of employee exchange relationship with the organization from employees' perspectives. Two samples were used in their study, 384 master of business administration students participated in study 1, and 181 aerospace and their managers participated in study 2. As mentioned earlier, the series of CFA tests showed that these two measures of the social exchange and the economic exchange are two distinct constructs. Their findings of both studies supported the proposition that there are two independent aspects of exchange in the employment relationship, economic and social exchange and these two forms of exchange can operate concurrently. They suggested that this finding is considered as a departure from the either/or types of distinctions that are often discussed in the employment relationship literature where employees are placed in categories of relationship types, social or economic.

The focus on social and economic exchange was studied in different disciplines like organizational commitment and the psychological contract literature. Both literatures focused on the importance of employee perceptions of the exchange relationship with the organization (Shore et al. , 2006). This literature rests heavily on social exchange theory (Kuvaas et al.,2012). However, Loi et al., (2009) argued that considering social exchange by itself does not help in understanding why and how a leader-member exchange leads to employees reciprocation towards their organization. Prior to that, Shore et al. (2006) has supported the distinctiveness between economic and social exchange as two relatively independent aspects of exchange in the employment relationship, and the usefulness of explicitly measuring employee perceptions of the social and economic exchange they have with their employers. They added that employee-organization relationship is governed by both social and economic exchanges.

Shore et al. (2006) provided a detailed differentiation between social and economic exchanges. First, they pointed out that *trust* is considered as the basis in social exchange relationships compared to economic exchanges, where trust is not emphasized. Trust plays a critical role in providing the basis for ongoing exchanges between the leader and the employees. Second, *investment* is crucial in the social exchanges but not an aspect in the economic exchange, where both parties invest in the other party with some inherent risk that the investment might not be repaid requiring trust. Therefore, trust and investment are intertwined. Third, social exchanges require long term orientation since the exchange is based on feelings and is ongoing. On the contrary, economic exchanges do not imply long-term or open ended and diffuse obligations compared to social exchanges that narrowly define financial obligations without long- term obligations. Exchanges in economic agreements emphasize economic aspects such as pay for performance. Thus, employees expectations about the *duration* of the exchange are considered to be long-term and open ended in social exchanges or narrowly defined financial obligations without long-term implications in economic exchanges. Therefore, economic exchanges are usually shorter in their duration compared to social exchanges. A final distinction between the economic and social exchange is the emphasis that each exchange considers in the relation. Economic exchanges consider the *financial* rewards of the relationship (e.g., pay and benefits), whereas social exchanges pay more attention to *socio-emotional* side (e.g., give and take, being taken care of by the organization/leader).

In the LMX literature, Kuvaas et al.(2012) proposed that this relationship can be presented by both social leader-member exchange (SLMX) and economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) relationships. Accordingly, they considered that this relationship can be represented as two different qualities that differentiate economic exchanges from social exchanges, where SLMX and ELMX are relationships with different qualities rather than different levels of quality. They stated that considering SLMX and ELMX as two distinct constructs instead of two ends of one continuum, does not conceptualize transactional relational experiences merely as a deviation from social relational experiences, but rather as a phenomenon that contributes to the totality of the dyadic leader-member exchange relationship. This was previously justified by Goodwin et al (2009), where they indicated that employee economic or instrumental behaviours associated with a low quality relationship can exist over time and continue even if the relationship develops to a higher quality relationship. The findings of Kuvaas and colleagues supported this distinction, where ELMX relationships related negatively to work performance and OCB whilst SLMX relationships related positively to those outcomes.

Few later studies have also duplicated these results and further supported that SLMX and ELMX are two different perspectives of LMX relationships (Buch et al., 2011, 2014; Buch, 2015). The following sections discuss the relationship between SLMX and ELMX with employee job performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, and employee turnover intention.

2.8.1 ELMX, SLMX and Employee job performance

Securing satisfying performance from subordinates is of crucial importance to organizations. Performance has been found to correlate positively with LMX and considered as one of the most important outcomes of high quality relationship (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In spite of this, there has been inconsistent findings that have shown performance fluctuating in its relation with LMX (Cogliser, Schriesheim, Scandura, & Gardner, 2009). There are existing theoretical and empirical evidence that guide the development of hypothesis relating ELMX relationships to work and contextual performance and suggest both positive and negative effects (Kuvaas et al., 2012). They argue that ELMX relationships have a clear transactional character that share similarities with the definitions of the two sub dimensions used in transformational and transactional leadership research, “contingent reward” and “active management by exception”. Moreover, they stated that social exchange theory acknowledges that the social and economic exchanges together are assumed to motivate productive behavior. According to the meta-analysis of Rhoades & Eisenberger, (2002), it can be assumed that both tangible and social organizational inducements are positively related to perceived organizational support, which in turn is positively related to both work performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, in their meta-analysis of the pay-for performance literature, Jenkins, Mitra, Gupta, & Shaw, (1998) found that the instrumental performance-outcomes relationship influences performance quantity.

Kuvaas et al., (2012) stated that these theories and empirical findings indicate that there should either be a positive relationship between ELMX and both work performance and OCB or no relationship at all. However, they viewed these results of the meta-analysis with respect to organizational support theory (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) as weak evidence for predicting the outcomes of ELMX as the measure of perceived organizational support is one-dimensional and focuses primarily on the social reward side rather than the tangible rewards or specific obligations that would be more relevant for ELMX. Moreover, Kuvaas and his colleagues argued that the MLQ measures of transactional leadership are far from being purely transactional (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008), and the contingent reward subscale is obfuscated by the inclusion of the tangible material rewards and the psychological rewards (Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008). Accordingly, these scales represent the social and economic sides of the exchange relationships, therefore they are less informative in predicting the consequences of ELMX (Kuvaas et al., 2012). Earlier, it was observed that there is a negative relationship between economic exchange perceptions and both work performance and OCB (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Song et al., 2009). Song et al. (2009:p.63), stated that employees with an economic exchange with their organization "…worry about the equivalence of returns, calculate and negotiate with their employer for rewards, have no patience for or expectations of future returns, and finally resort to the pursuit of self-interest…".

Empirical research on organizational exchange perceptions has observed that economic exchange perception was found to relate negatively with work performance and OCB (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Song et al., 2009). For example, in organizational commitment literature, continuance commitment was negatively related with work performance (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Based on this indirect evidence, Kuvaas et al. (2012) have also proposed a negative relationship between ELMX and work performance and their findings supported this notion. Gerstner & Day, (1997) suggested in their Meta-analysis that LMX should be positively associated with performance, and an SLMX relationship aligns with the traditional theme and measures of LMX (Walumbwa et al., 2011).

Kuvaas et al. (2012) study is the first to examine ELMX relationships and hence, they call for further investigation of LMX relationships with respect to economic versus social qualities in order to generalize these results. So, to confirm the findings suggested by Kuvaas et al.(2012), this study re-investigates their hypothesis related to follower performance. Along with SLMX and ELMX relationships, this study also examines relationships with the traditional theme and measures of LMX in order to compare the findings from the same sample. Therefore, the following hypotheses are retested:

$H_{1.1}$*: There will be a positive relationship between LMX relationships and job performance.*

$H_{1.2}$: *There will be a negative relationship between ELMX relationships and job performance.*

$H_{1.3}$: *There will be a positive relationship between SLMX relationships and job performance.*

2.8.2 ELMX, SLMX and OCB

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is widely studied as an outcome of LMX relationship. OCB was found to relate positively to high LMX (Ilies et al., 2007). Employees with high quality relations tend to engage in activities that exceed the requirements of their roles and feel accountable for accomplishing large number of tasks that are considered as outside the job description compared to employees with lower quality LMX (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). According to Kuvaas et al.(2012), meta-analysis showed that SLMX relationships should be positively related to both work performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997) and organizational citizenship behavior (Ilies et al., 2007). These behaviors were explained by Walumbwa et al., (2011), who revealed that supervisors in high-quality LMX relationships enhance their subordinates' work performance and organizational citizenship behavior through increased commitment to their supervisors and higher levels of self-efficacy and means efficacy. The opposite is expected when ELMX relationship will be more impersonal, contingent, transactional, and short-term and will negatively reduce employees OCB. This is likely expected as OCB is not included in the formal reward system of the organization, and hence no clear, short term benefits are expected. In fact, these expectations were supported by Kuvaas et al. (2012), who found that OCB was negatively related to ELMX relationships and positively to SLMX relationships. Therefore, the following hypotheses are retested:

$H_{2.1}$: *There will be a positive relationship between LMX relationships and organizational citizenship behavior.*

$H_{2.2}$: *There will be a negative relationship between ELMX relationships and OCB.*

$H_{2.3}$: *There will be a positive relationship between SLMX relationships and OCB.*

2.8.3 ELMX, SLMX and Employee Turnover Intention

It has been widely assumed that employees with low-quality LMX relationships are more inclined to leave the organization compared to those with high- quality LMX relationships (gBauer et al., 2006; Gerstner & Day, 1997). As relationship quality improves, more social exchanges will take place and this in turn increases employees' obligations and commitment towards their organization, resulting in lower levels of turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Kuvaas et al. (2012) stated that a positive relationship should exist between tenure and SLMX if we consider the unitary LMX continuum. However, their results only revealed a significant relationship between ELMX and tenure. They elaborated that this could indicate a strong positive relation between ELMX relationships and intention to leave the organization. Shore et al., (2009), argued that economic exchange is usually associated with an "easy exit" since the form of exchange implies a short-term rather than an ongoing relationship. Employees involved in high levels of ELMX should be more likely to search for better job opportunities and have higher intentions to leave the organization.

Moreover, these kinds of high ELMX relationships also involve exchanges that are instrumental in nature, narrow time frame, and involve low level of investment, obligation, and trust (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003), which can also lead to higher levels of employee turnover intentions. On the contrary, higher levels of SLMX relationships are likely to increase employee commitment, trust, and obligation to the leader and the organization, leading to reduced amounts of employee turnover intentions. Employees in these exchanges enjoy access to organizational resources and are given more responsibilities and development opportunities resulting in higher levels of satisfaction and eventually low desires to leave the organization. This is consistent with the traditional LMX since SLMX and LMX carry the same concept. Furthermore, Buch, Kuvaas, & Dysvik, (2011) have found evidence that ELMX relationship was positively related to turnover intention and negatively to SLMX relationships. Therefore, it is possible to hypothesize the following,

$H_{3.1}$: *There will be a negative relationship between LMX relationships and employee turnover intention.*

$H_{3.2}$: *There will be a positive relationship between ELMX relationships and employee turnover intention.*

$H_{3.3}$: *There will be a negative relationship between SLMX relationships and employee turnover intention.*

2.9 Mediation Effects

Mediation variables are prominent in organizational behavior theory and research. Mediation plays an important role in explaining how or why two variables are related. Mediation is said to occur when a causal effect of variable X on an outcome Y is explained by some intervening variable M. Mediation in its simplist form represents the addition of a third variable to the X → Y relationship. A mediation structure suggests a particular conceptualization of the mechanism through which an independent variable could influence a dependent variable, not directly, but rather through an intervening process, captured by a mediator variable (Iacobucci, 2008). According to MacKinnon & Fairchild, (2009) " *a mediating variable transmits the effect of an antecedent variable on to a dependent variable, thereby providing more detailed understanding of relations among variables*" (p:16). Instead of looking at a direct causal relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, a mediation model proposes that the independent variable influences the mediator variable, which in turn influences the dependent variable, therefore, the mediator variable act to clarify the nature of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (MacKinnon, 2008).

A detailed description of how mediation can be detected statistically was given by (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Casual statements about interrelationships are usually made by researchers when testing for mediation. Mediation help us to better understand a particular phenomenon when we can answer not only whether X affects Y, but also how X exerts its effect on Y, and when X affects Y and when it does not (Hayes, 2013). A mediating variable improves understanding of the relation as it is considered as part of the causal sequence of X →M → Y. Figure 2.3 below illustrates a simple statistical mediation model.

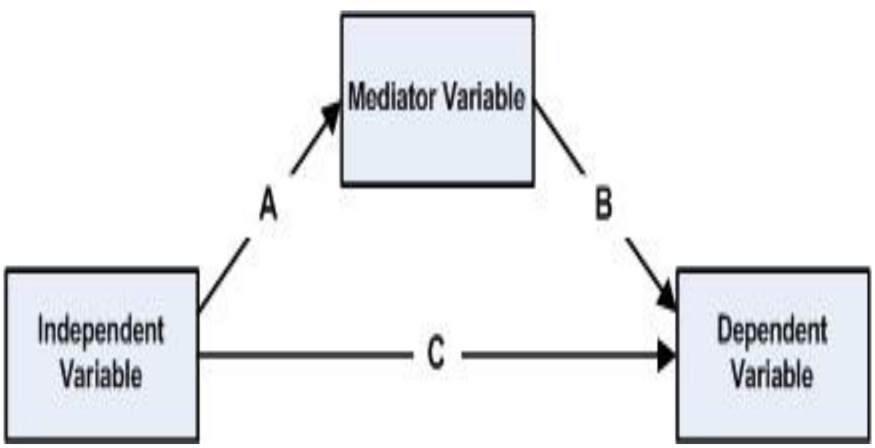


Figure 2.3 A simple statistical mediation model

The causal steps procedure of Baron & Kenny, (1986) is the most widely implemented procedure for testin a mediation affect. This procedure requires the researcher to conduct a set of hypothesis testing for each link in a path diagram. This testing of mediation includes estimating three regression equations: (a) regressing the mediator on the independent variable ; (b) regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable ; (c) regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variable and on the mediator. Baron & Kenny (1986) explained that these three regression equations provide the tests of the linkages of the mediational model. However, there are particular conditions that must be met in order to establish mediation: first, the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; secondly, the independent variable must affect the dependent variable in the second equation; and finally, the mediator should affect the dependent variable in the third equation. Baron & Kenny (1986) stated that if all of these conditions are met in the predicted direction, then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second.

However, some researchers critise this procedure and stated that there are other procedures that should be considered instead of Baron & Kenny (1986) procedure (Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Two of the common procedures used nowadays to test mediation effects are product of coefficinets approach and bootstrapping.

Product of coefficients approach acknowledges that the researcher has an estimate of an indirect effect and inferences about the indirect effcts and mediation is based on that estimate. This procedure is popularly known as the Sobel test (after Sobel, 1982). The researcher here is interested in testing the null hypothesis that the population indirect effect is equal to zero. When the null hypothesis are rejected, this indicates that there is an indirect effect of X on Y through a given mediator M. However, this approach is not without limitations. According to Hayes, Preacher, & Myers, (2011), the product of coefficient approach relies on the assumption of a normally distributed sampling distribution of the indirect effect. this procedure also relies on a standard error formula that is based on mathematical theory that is based on certain assumptions. Hayes and collegueas elaborated that these assumtions are not always justified or met. It is difficult sometimes to know in a particular application whether this assumption is reasonable, making it hard to justify the use of the normal distribution as the reference distribution for generating a *p*-value for the Sobel test.

Another method that does not rely on the normality assumptions for making inferences about indirect effects is bootstrapping. The idea behind bootstrapping is considering the original study sample as the population. According to Byrne, (2010), the main idea behind the bootstrapping method is that it enables the researcher to create multiple subsamples from an original database. The primary advantage of bootstrapping is that it allows researchers to assess the stability of parameter estimates and report their values with a greater degree of accuracy. The resampling of the data set allows the researcher to relax many of the assumptions that ordinary inferential statistics require. Moreover, this sample is a remedy for samples that are too small to give a meaningful test results (Blunch, 2012).

This study is following the causal steps procedure of Baron & Kenny (1986). Although other procedures are there, this causal steps approach is popular and known. Although bootstrapping is very common nowadays, Yung & Bentler, (1996) stated that it might not provide accurate and trustworthy data. They elaborated that although bootstrapping procedure is helpful in estimating standard errors in the face of nonnormal data, it should not be regarded as the absolutely only and best method. Since bootstrapping is more appropriate to dealing with data that are multivariate nonnormal, Byrne, (2010) pointed that using bootstrapping with normal data could lead to bias results. Therefore, as the sample of the current study is large enough for achieving valid data and data is normally distribted, bootstrapping is not needed for the current study.

2.9.1 LMX and mediation

LMX has produced a flourishing and successful area of research, however, LMX research could benefit from further theoretical refinements; that is, although it is widely accepted that LMX causes higher subordinate performance and more OCB, we do not understand the how and why of these relationships (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Walumbwa et al., (2011) further elaborated that more work in needed in order to fully articulate the intervening process whereby a high quality LMX relationship influences effective subordinate work behavior. Researches have not yet fully articulated the intervening process by which a high quality SLMX and ELMX relationships relate to workplace outcomes. Understanding the process by which both economic and social LMX relationships produces effective work behaviors is important. Giving attention to mediators could bring important practical benefits by identifying the specific and proximal process that enhance positive employee outcomes, which in turn could provide an improved framework for managerial training (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Considering different mediators in this relationship would likely enhance more understanding of how to enhance better employee outcomes. This research considers two variables as potential mediators in the ELMX and SLMX relationship, namely, self-efficacy and social loafing. Including these two variables as possible mediators is likely to provide further examination of the distinction of these two exchanges.

Self-efficacy is an important intervening variable in the LMX literature by which a high quality LMXs relates to workplace outcomes (Walumbwa et al., 2011). They suggested that the efficacy approach explains how employees gain the sense of personal effectiveness that motivates them to exert extra efforts in high quality LMX relationship. Furthermore, social loafing is also related to employee efforts in the workplace. Employees who are involved in such behavior experience reduction in their motivation to exert extra efforts (Karau & Williams, 1993) . In addition, it is likely that employees may be influenced by their leaders' treatment of other members in a work group or their colleagues (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Sherony & Green, 2002). This in turn leads them to form perceptions of their relationships with their leaders compared to others in the work group, and consequently may adjust their job performance and citizenship behavior (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). This comparison between the differences in the quality of the relationship is considered to have a significant impact on employee self-efficacy and their confidence. In consequence, lower motivation may lead employees to loaf their duties and reduce their efforts in case of lower LMX quality relationships and vice versa. It is likely that including these two mediators in this research investigation could provide theoretical and practical benefits.

2.9.2 Self-efficacy as a potential mediator

This section looks at the definition of self-efficacy and its relationship with LMX. It also explains the intermediary role of self-efficacy between SLMX and ELMX and employee job performance, OCB, and employee turnover intention.

2.9.2.1 Definition of Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy was initially introduced by Bandura, (1977) as a critical construct in Social Cognitive theory and from there started to promote this concept as a major characteristic of individuals used in different interventions. Efficacy is about the confidence people hold to accomplish tasks in different conditions, not about the evaluation of oneself (Biao & Cheng, 2014). Bandura, (1986) defined social efficacy as "*judgments of a person's capabilities to* *organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances*" (p. 391). According to Eden & Sulimani,(2002), self-efficacy refers to the confidence of successful completion of the task by using internal resources which reflects the self-knowledge dimension. It also refers to one's subjective assessment of all the available resources, internal and external, that could be applied toward performing a job successfully (Eden, 2001). It is someone's belief in his or her own ability to successfully accomplish something.

The theory further proposes that the perception of self-efficacy is influenced by four factors: mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and somatic and emotional state (Bandura, 1994, 1997). *Mastery experience* is the experience we gain when we do something and are successful. This is enhanced through practice, training and workshops which enhance experience, thereby become proficient at new skills and increase self-efficacy. Observing the success and failure of other models who are similar to one's self is another factor that influences self-efficacy of a person. This is referred to as *vicarious experience*. *Verbal persuasion* affects self-efficacy when receiving verbal support and persuaded that they can achieve or master a task. On the contrary, people tend to give up quickly when they are told they do not have the skills required to do something (Bandura, 1994). Finally, the *physical and emotional state* of individual that occur when contemplates doing something, offers clues to the likelihood of success or failure in accomplishing the task. Individuals with high self-efficacy for a task tend to work harder at the task and experience more positive emotions relating to the task (Bandura, 1997).

2.9.2.2 General self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is usually regarded as being either task specific or domain specific. Some researchers have further conceptualized self-efficacy as a being a generalized sense that refer to a broad and stable sense of personal competence to deal effectively with a variety of stressful situations (Sherer et al., 1982). The general dimension of self-efficacy has pulled the attention of many scholars (e.g., Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). General self-efficacy is assumed to capture differences among individuals on how they view themselves as capable of meeting task demands in a broad array of contexts (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). They elaborated that although both specific and general self-efficacy shares similar antecedents (e.g. actual experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, psychological states); general self-efficacy is more resistant to ephemeral influences than specified self-efficacy. Whereas specific self-efficacy is more related to a particular task, general self-efficacy reflects the general judgement of people on how efficacious they are across various domain of functioning (Luszczynska, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005). When referring to Bandura's social cognitive theory, it is suggested that self-efficacy beliefs vary on three dimensions. One of these dimensions refers to the extent to which the magnitude and strength beliefs generalize across tasks and situations. This has largely restricted research in self-efficacy and studying it as a task-specific construct. However, research has become interested in individuals' perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations. General self-efficacy is more about the aggregation of previous experiences and these experiences emerges over one's life span across different task domains (Shelton, 1990).

According to Sherer et al., (1982), the theory of self-efficacy asserts that personal mastery expectations are the main determinants of behavioral change. They explained that individual differences in past experience and attribution of success to skill or chance lead to different levels of generalized self-efficacy expectations. Self-efficacy has been widely conceptualized as a situation-specific concept. However, more evidence are there that support the notion that experiences of personal mastery that contributes to efficacy expectations can be generalized to actions other than the target/specific behavior (Albert Bandura, 1977). It is assumed that individuals with numerous experiences of success are expected to have positive self-efficacy expectancies in different situations compared to individuals with experiences of limited success. Sherer and colleagues suggested that individual differences in general self-efficacy expectancies exist and these differences have behavioral correlates. An individual's past experience, whether related to success or failure, in different situations would result in a general set of expectations that a person carries into new situations.

Moreover, there is an argument that self-esteem and general self-efficacy are related and measures of these two traits may have underlying broad common core (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). These two constructs are the most commonly studied self-evaluation constructs that examine task specific states and generalized traits (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2004). However, it is assumed that General self-efficacy is different from the concept of self-esteem. While GSE captures enduring individual differences in their tendency to view oneself as capable or incapable of meeting task demands and requirements in a wide variety of situations, self-esteem is a trait that refers to individuals' degree of liking or disliking of themselves. Chen et al., (2004) elaborated that the significant difference between these two traits is that GSE captures more of the motivational belief regarding task capabilities, whereas self-esteem is more towards capturing the affective evaluation of the self. GSE and self-esteem differ with respect to their relative focus on motivational versus affective components. It is common that some variables that are assumed to be highly related does not necessarily mean that they are the same constructs and yield systematically the same relationships with other constructs (Chen et al., 2004).

The nature of an LMX relationship is an ongoing process. Employees' expectations about leaders' future actions are likely to influence their overall response and actions. Considering the nature of reciprocity in this dyadic exchange and how it develops over repetitive exchanges, it is assumed that it would likely influence employees outcomes and future actions. This research is considering the broader concept of self-efficacy as seeking to capture the overall picture of self-efficacy with relations to other study variables. GSE is assumed to give broader picture of the development of employees' beliefs and motivation in the dyadic exchange and how this in return will influence their outcomes.

2.9.2.3 Self-efficacy and LMX relationship

Self-efficacy with regard to LMX is a member's personal evaluation of his or her own abilities and capabilities to deal with task requirements as requested by the direct leader. Various researches have argued that leaders can effectively enhance their subordinates' self-efficacy. Employees with high self-efficacy are more successful in the workplace compared to those with lower self-efficacy (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). In the LMX discipline, different scholars assumed that employees self-efficacy can be increased when LMX relationships quality are high (see Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Schyns, Paul, Mohr, & Blank, 2005; Schyns, 2004)

Performance can be increased with high levels of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986, 1977). Bandura stated that high self-efficacy increases the possibility that individuals will set difficult personal goals. Previous research has revealed how high quality LMX relationships increase subordinates self-efficacy (Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Schyns et al , 2005). Schyns and colleagues further explained that leaders provide beneficial delegation opportunities to subordinates with high quality LMX relationships, which in turn tend to improve subordinates self-efficacy. For several decades, research has repetitively found a high LMX relationships improves employee work performance. As per the social exchange theory, the continuity of this effect depends on favorable reciprocal exchanges between leader and member (Volmer et al. ,2011).

LMX has been found to motivate employees toward high job performance (Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Gerstner & Day, 1997), and increasing employee willingness to engage in OCBs (Ilies et al., 2007). Although the social exchange theory and efficacy approach are theoretically distinct, Walumbwa et al., (2011) indicated that both perspectives reinforces one another to explain the relationship between LMX and effective work behavior. Whereas social exchange theory, with its focus on reciprocation, explains how a high quality LMX relationship motivates employees to exert extra efforts in behalf of their organizations, it does not specify how employees gain the confidence and assurance necessary to improve job performance (Masterson et al., 2000; Wayne et al., 1997). On the contrary, efficacy theory explains how workers acquire the assurance to preform effectively and provides an explanation for how high quality LMX enhances worker self-efficacy. However, an efficacy approach does not specify the reason why workers are willing to exert extra efforts for the benefit of their leaders. Walumbwa et al., (2011) stated that each one of these two theories explain the mediation mechanisms that lie between LMX relationships and effective work behavior. They stressed the importance of taking both theories into consideration to provide a complete explanation of the mechanism of LMX and improve work behavior in organizations.

The most significant implication of self-efficacy is its effect on motivated efforts as its aim is to increase efforts and performance (Bandura, 1997). In their meta-analysis, Stajkovic & Luthans, (1998) confirmed the strong positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance. Previous research has suggested that LMX boosts effective work behaviors by increasing the self-efficacy of employees (Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Schyns et al., 2005), where high quality LMX relationships provide employees with an opportunity to develop new skills and to gain confidence in their own ability, which in turn improve their job performance (Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Schyns, 2004). In this regard, Biao & Cheng, (2014) also provided an explanation of how self-efficacy is assumed to increase employees job performance. They suggested that in the case of a high quality LMX, a signal of trust and recognition is sent to employees and it is also an important signal of leader investment in employees. This recognition by the leader increases the sense of obligation between both leader and employee. As a consequence, employees tend to work harder as an obligation to pay back their leaders and this will have a positive effect on employees work performance. Leaders assign tasks with different levels to employees where some employees will get difficult and important tasks compared to others. Leader express their high expectations from employees with high quality LMX (Eden, 1990). This in turn enhances employees self-efficacy and positive work outomces.

Furthermore, Walumbwa et al., (2011), proposed and tested an integrative theory of leader-member exchange, where they argued that LMX enhances job performance and organizationl citizenship behavior through two sets of processes. First, as a consequence of a social exchange process, obligations are encouraged in high LMX relationships, where these obligations are manifested as subordintae commitment to their leaders. As a result, this commitment prompts higher job perfomrance and more OCBs. The second process explains how supervisors in high quality LMX relationships enhance their subordinates' self-eficacy and means efficacy, thereby improving job performance.

Since performance and OCB are negatively related to ELMX relationship, it can be assumed that employees with high ELMX relationships would have lower trust in their leaders and would have limited expectations from them as well. Employees would have lower self-efficacy in response to the expectations they carry about their relation with their leaders. This would lead to lower performance and OCB. In contrast, SLMX relationships are built on trust and long term investment. Leaders provide their employees with more opportunities to develop and involve them in more difficult tasks. This is expected to increase employees' self-efficacy. Employees would have higher expectations from their leaders and tend to exert more efforts in job as an obligation. This in turn would increase employee performance and willing to involve in other duties a part from their role. Bandura, (1982) declared that higher levels of perceived self-efficacy leads to greater performance accomplishments, and the more likely are people to persist in their efforts until they succeed.

It is noteworthy here to mention that Walumbwa et al, (2011) found that self-efficacy partially mediates the relationship between LMX and job performance. Self-efficacy is also expected to mediate the relationship between ELMX and SLMX relationships and turnover intention. When ELMX relationships are high, employees would have expectations for immediate return. Failing to meet these expectations would likely make employees exert less effort and eventually increase their intention to leave the organization to search for better opportunities. Rousseau,(1995) suggested that economic exchange is related with 'easy exit' as this type of exchange does not imply a long-term or ongoing relationship. In contrast, higher SLMX relationships are likely to increase employees' self- efficacy as the employees have trust and faith that their expectations will be met eventually. The benefits they gain from their leaders increases their confidence and motivation to perform better. Therefore, they are likely to remain in the organization for longer time. Hence, the above discussion leads to the following hypotheses:

$H_{4.1}$: The positive relationship between LMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Self-efficacy.

$H_{4.2}$: The negative relationship between LMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

$H_{4.3}$: The negative relationship between ELMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

$H_{4.4}$: The positive relationship between ELMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

$H_{4.5}$: The positive relationship between SLMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

$H_{4.6}$: The negative relationship between SLMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

2.9.3 Social loafing as a potential mediator

This section discusses social loafing as another possible mediator in the two-dimension model of leader-member exchange relationship. Details about the definition of social loafing and its possible influence on LMX relationship are followed.

2.9.3.1 Definition of social loafing

Extensive research has focused on individuals' productivity in workplace settings. When people work in groups, there will be a tendency for individuals' effort to decrease compared to when working individually (Latane et al, 1979). Individuals who are taking part in a task with others and act as members of a group reduce their performance, independent of any potential loss caused from distraction or lack of coordination during actual group performance (Steiner, 1972).

Social loafing (SL) is based on the de-individuation that might occur when people work in groups as opposed to working alone (Liden et al. , 2004).

Social loafing refers to the reduced performance of individuals who are a part of a group rather than alone (Harkins & Petty, 1982; Ingham, Levinger, Graves, & Peckham, 1974; Latane et al., 1979). When individual believe that they are taking part in a task with others, they tend to reduce their performance. It is seen as a motivation loss in groups caused by reduced identifiability or evaluation (Kerr & Bruun, 1983; Szymanski & Harkins, 1987).

It is worth mentioning here the comprehensive model of withholding effort suggested by Kidwell & Bennett, (1993). They identified rational choice, normative conformity, and affective bonding as alternative motives for engaging in social loafing. When the rational choice is operating, individuals tend to withhold effort because of their belief that benefits of withholding efforts outweigh costs. With regard to normative conformity motive, it refers to exerting or withholding efforts due to perceived group and social norms. The final motive is affective bonding which is defined as the case of exerting effort due to interpersonal relationships with team members and commitment to the team.

Different research has examined these three motives of social loafing. For example, when looking at research that adopted a rational choice perspective, identifiability of individuals contributions (Gagné & Zuckerman, 1999), task visibility (George, 1992), potential for evaluation of individual contributions (Harkins, 1987; Karau & Williams, 1993), and incentives for high performance (Miles & Greenberg, 1993; Shepperd & Wright, 1989), were found to be negatively related to social loafing. Researches that examined the effects of social norms showed that collectivism was related negatively to social loafing (Erez & Somech, 1996). For research examining the role of affective bonding, or interpersonal relationships, results revealed a negative relationship between group cohesiveness and social loafing (Karau & Hart, 1998; Karau & Williams, 1997).

Determining the conditions under which employees engage in social loafing is a problem of both theoretical and practical importance (Karau & Williams, 1993). According to Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, (2010), LMX is not working in isolation as employees are typically nested within groups, where the magnitude of the difference between an employee's own LMX and others' LMX is likely to drive the employee to evaluate the relationship with the leader as well as subsequent attitudinal and behavioral process. This difference has been referred to as relative LMX (RLMX) (Henderson et al., 2008). The premise of LMX is that employees who have high-quality LMX relationships with leaders are privileged to have access to more attention, resources from their leaders. Hence, such comparison of how close an employee is to the leader compared to other members would likely have an influence on the outcomes of this employee. It can also increase their tendency toward reducing their efforts and engaging in social loafing behaviors.

Although extending group size beyond two is an important and necessary step to understand the quantitative influence of larger groups and other processes that emerge in larger groups, still the primary question always begins at the dyadic level (Williams, 2010). He elaborated that dyads, in most instances, can be considered as groups of two and operate under the same principles and theories that explain group dynamics for groups of three and larger.

Social loafing is defined as a reduction in a person's efforts when working with others in a group. It is assumed that these effects are larger as group size increases, but they are highly visible in dyads (Williams, 2010). He pointed that an increase from sole individual to the dyad produces the largest incremental in loafing between any two groups sizes. He concluded that social loafing behavior can be studied in dyads as dyads offer the smallest and most basic form of social impact. Any group phenomena can be studied and understood through social impact theory can also be studied in dyads. Based on this logic, dyads can be used to study a plethora of group phenomena (Williams, 2010). Therefore, the current study investigates the effect of social loafing in the dyadic relationships.

2.9.3.2 Social loafing and LMX relationship

Individuals usually work together in groups in order to accomplish various goals. Some tasks can be performed by different employees, in which members' contributions are pooled with those of their co-workers. Most of the studies revealed that employees expend less effort collectively than individually. Different factors were suggested to reduce or eliminate the occurrence of social loafing. For example elevating the uniqueness of individual contributions (Harkins & Petty, 1982), or strengthening the cohesiveness of the group. In addition to group performance, social loafing has been linked to a number of negative outcomes for groups. For example Duffy & Shaw, (2000), showed that social loafing was negatively related to group cohesiveness and potency, which in turn were related to different variables like performance, absenteeism, and group satisfaction.

With regard to LMX theory, it has been agreed that leaders do not form uniform relationships with their subordinates, where some subordinates will have higher quality exchange relationships that are characterized with trust, affect, and mutual respect, whilst others will have lower quality relationships which are limited to individual's role definition. As mentioned earlier, LMX quality has been found to be a predictor of job-related attitudes such as commitment and satisfaction, and behaviors such as performance and organizational citizenship behavior (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden et al., 1997). LMX relationship draws heavily from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory differentiates between social exchange that involves high levels of obligations, trust, and affect, and economic exchanges that are characterized with lower levels of trust, confidence and short-term obligations.

It is logical to assume that when leader evaluate his or her members' involvement in group tasks, those who are involved in higher LMX exchange relationships are likely to perform better and avoid loafing when compared to those who are involved in lower quality LMX relationship. Employees in Higher LMX quality get better development opportunities, challenging tasks, and benefit to different resources. This creates a desire in employees, according to the social exchange theory, to reciprocate, avoid loafing their duties, performing better and exerting extra efforts. On the contrary, employees with lower quality LMX would not feel any obligation as they have lower commitment and trust and do not exceed any extra efforts. They could feel that they are not getting enough chances like their colleagues who are involved in higher quality LMX relationship. This in turn makes employees with lower exchanges loaf their duties and depend on those with higher exchanges to perform them, leading to reduced amounts of efforts and eventually performance and OCB.

High quality LMX relationships are associated with higher employee performance, OCB and lower turnover intention. It can be assumed that employees in these relationships will not be involved in social loafing as they feel that they are obligated to reciprocate. This can be extended to SLMX and ELMX relationship. Kuvaas et al., (2012) found that SLMX relationships relate positively to employee work performance and OCB, whereas ELMX relationships were negatively related to the same outcomes. Moreover, it was found that subordinates' work effort, the amount of energy an individual put into his/her job, is positively related to SLMX and negatively to ELMX (Buch et al., 2014).

Moreover, little attention was paid to the experience of negative emotions at work, like jealousy and envy and its consequences. Some research has examined the phenomenon of jealousy in the workplace in order to support the notion that a supervisor's differential treatment of subordinates could affect communication among those subordinates. For example, Miner (1989, 1990) findings suggested that differential treatment from a leader to his or her members may cause some of the group members to feel jealous of the target peer or peers, leading them to talk to their coworkers about the situation. Often confused with jealousy, envy occurs when the perception that a "person lacks another's superior quality, achievements, or possession and either desires it or wishes that the other lacked it" (Parrott & Smith, 1993, p. 906). It is very possible to suggest that these negative emotions are likely to appear as a result of the different forms of LMX exchange a supervisor make with different employees. A subordinate with lower quality LMX relationships would not enjoy the benefits and resources compared to his or her colleagues who are involved in higher quality LMX relationships. Duffy & Shaw, (2000) indicated that these negative emotions among employees often lead to a variety of negative employee outcomes such as propensity to quit, job dissatisfaction, supervisor dissatisfaction and individual engagement in deviant behaviors (e.g. social loafing, sabotage) and reduced performance.

Consequently, in addition to contributing to the current LMX literature by further investigating the social and economic dimension of the dyadic leader-member relationship, this study is investigating the intermediary role of social loafing on the relationship between LMX, SLMX, ELMX and employee job performance, OCB and turnover intention. Hence, the following hypotheses can be proposed:

$H_{5.1}$: The positive relationship between LMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing

$H_{5.2:}$ The negative relationship between LMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.

$H_{5.3:}$ The negative relationship between ELMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing.

$H_{5.4:}$ The positive relationship between ELMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.

$H_{5.5:}$ The positive relationship between SLMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing

$H_{5.6:}$ The negative relationship between SLMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.

2.10 ELMX, SLMX and Dyad Tenure

Time is considered to be a basic dimension in organizations. A critical element that constitute the social exchange theory is time, where individuals are more likely to reciprocate beneficial treatments and benefits received from others when they expect to trade benefits with them over time (Blau, 1964). According to Bluedorn & Jaussi (2008), the temporal variable plays a vital role in leadership, as the relation between leader and follower occurs over time. However, there has been scant attention to its role in leadership research. Investigating the role of dyad tenure and its effect on the quality of the exchange relationships is of crucial importance. The term dyad tenure here refers to the length of time a follower has worked for the same supervisor. A significant characteristic of the social exchange relationship is that it is an ongoing process, where reciprocity involves interaction among individuals and requires amount of time to allow parties to exchange tangible and intangible benefits (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Kuvaas et al.(2012) has encouraged future research to explicitly include measures of the length of the follower-supervisor relationship to further gain an understanding of this exchangeable relationship. As stated by Shamir (2011), the dominant paradigm of leadership thories is a temporal, that it takes time for the majority of leadership inputs to produce the outcomes and the possibility that inputs, the outcomes, and relationships between them may change over time.

Time has a substantial effect on leader-member exchange and its quality. For example, it is known that the development of a dyad quality depends largely on the duration of the dyad (Graen & Uhl-Bien,1995; Schyns & Wolfram, 2008). A social exchange is usually a long term relation with unspecified mutual commitment as described by Blau, (1964). An exchange or set of transfers would be counted as “reciprocity” if there are things to be exchanged continuously between the two parties; where each will be a receiver and a giver in the same time (Moody ,2008). Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995) have also indicated that relationships in a dyadic process could vary over time or with amount of work to be performed. The same idea was also mentioned by Gerstner & Day, (1997), where they stated that a relationship evolves over time and could go up or down as the time has an effect on the nature of the relationship.

It is important to decide when, for how long, and how often to measure the key variables of any relation (Mitchell & James, 2001). However, how can we know the critical variables that are considered to be evolving, strong or weak with an LMX relationship? In order to fully understand the nature and impact of time over an LMX relationship, it is necessary to examine how it changes over time from low to high or the opposite. Understanding the effect of time and whether and in what ways the amount of time working with the same supervisor might alter these effects is important.

It is very possible that a variable which was found to be positive with high quality LMX relationship at a point of time to have a weaker relation at another point in time, just like the performance example provided earlier in this study. Previous research has revealed inconsistent results of job performance and its relation to LMX, where results emerging as positive (Kacmar et al., 2003), weak (Rosse & Kraut, 1983), equivocal (Wayne & Ferris, 1990), or non-significance (Vecchio, 1982). Moreover, other research has also produced inconsistent results by showing a U-shaped curvilinear relationship between LMX and turnover intentions. For example, Kim (2010) results indicated a U-shaped curvilinear relationship between LMX quality and turnover intention for non-supervisory employees. Prior to this study, Harris et al. (2005) have also investigated the same variables and they argued that this relationship might be expressed as a U-shaped curvilinear as opposed to strictly linear. Harris and colleagues further explained that members with low LMX quality perceive their current job negatively and tend to report high levels of turnover intention, where they feel pushed out of the organization, whilst members with high LMX relationships would also have high turnover intention as they feel that they have better job opportunities. This finding clearly indicates that employee outcomes and attitudes are vulnerable to change at different points of an LMX relationship opposite to the common notion of increased quality and employee outcomes as the dyad relationship progress.

Mossholder et al. (1990) suggested that dyadic duration could play a role in the relationship between perceived leader behaviours' and follower performance. Some studies investigated the amount of consideration and structuring leaders gave to their subordinates. For example, Sheridan & Vredenburgh, (1979) found that nursing personnel with more experience received less considerate leadership from head nurses which resulted in increased tension and mixed effects on performance. Experience was measured as the length of time worked in present position. Reduced supervision among employees with greater experience was attributed that less mature members needed more structuring and guidance from their supervisors, and a leader has limited time to supervise all employees (Vecchio, 1987). Another longitudinal study was conducted by Greene & Schriesheim, (1980), aimed at investigating relationships among subordinates perceptions of instrumental and supportive leader behavior and group arousal and cohesiveness. They found that instrumental and supportive leader behavior played a great role on the arousal and cohesion in newly formed groups than in mature groups. However, neither study measured the duration of the LMX relationship. With consideration to the reciprocal nature of the leadership process, it is suggested that leader-member interaction may affect the relationship of leader behavior with members attitudes and behaviors over time (Mossholder et al., 1990). They elaborated that the variable *dyadic duration* is a variable that better reflects a temporal quality of leader-member exchange relationship.

Most of the scholars suggest that the LMX relationship quality would increase over time (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). It is argued that the leader-member relationship developed or negotiated over time through a series of interactions between both the leader and the member. Nahrgang et al., (2009) suggested that although leaders diferentiate between members in terms of higher quality and lower quality relationships, both types of exchanges will evolve and develop over time. Low to high- quality continuum of LMX is often understood as a dynamic process, where a LMX relationship develops from lower to high quality continuum over time (Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1991). This is attributed to the repetivtive exchanges between leaders and members, where both will have new and different experience and learn more about each other, which will assist in the development of their relationship (Gerstner & Day, 1997). So, since one of the objectives of this study is to examine the nature of the relationship quality over time, it can be proposed that LMX relationship as a single continuum, and SLMX relationship as one of the two different perspectives of LMX will have a positive relationship with dyad tenure. The following hypothesis is therfore postulated:

$H_{6.1}$: There will be a positive relationship between LMX, SLMX and dyad tenure

However, the development of the different variables with regard to time is still vague. Progressing from one stage to another in an LMX relationship has received very little attention. It is still unclear how the process of a reciprocal exchange relationship develops, matures, and declines. Models that describe different stages of a dyad relationship life cycle consider the instrumental and social variables (see Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995, the life cycle of leadership making; Ferris et al. 2009, integrative model of work relationship). Both models assume that instrumentality is strong at the initial stage of the relationship where interactions between parties focus more on the social aspects as they progress with time. Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995) attributed this to the amount of information and resurces exchanged, both on personal and work level. These exchanges will continue until they mature and are characterized with a long term span of reciprocation. Unfortunately, there is not enough evidence in the literature to explain the degree of reciprocity and trajectories of change over a longer time period.

Day & Miscenko, (2015) stated that LMX has a dynamic and developmental nature. When trying to undestand the process of how a LMX relationship develops, it would be beneficial to look at three stages of a typical leader-member exchange relationship in relation to role making activites (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987). The first stage at a typical relationship starts with the role taking stage, where the supervisor attempts to determine the skills and abilites of the member as well as his/her limitations. A sent role to the member is intiated followed by a reaction, feedback, and behaviors of the members. Based on these outcomes, a leader evaluates the members and decides whether to intiate another sent role to the member. This is follwed by the role making stage, where the nature of the relationship begins to be clearer and more well defined. The final stage of the relationship development process is the role routinization stage where relationships are characterised with clear mutual understandings and expectations usually develop and the relationship stabilizes (George & Scandura, 1987).

In this regard, Kim, Liu, & Diefendorff, (2015) stated that it is critical to understand the different conditions, process or mechanisms under which high-quality LMX leads to favourable work outcomes like job performance. Using a sample of 212 employee-supervisor pairs from eight chinese companies, they investigated the role of organizational tenure, referred to as the length of time that an indiviudal employee has worked for a particular organization, and found that it significantly moderated the relationship between taking charge and job performance, such that the positive effect of taking charge on job performance becomes weaker as organizational tenure increased. They discussed two arguments for the moderating effect of organizational tenure. The first argument suggested that new insights and perspectives on how to perform work, shorter tenured employees would possibly realize more benefits from trying out new strategies aimed at improving the work context compared to longer tenured employees who may have already obtained a wide repertoire of work strategies through years of expereince. As a consequence, the relationship between taking charge and performance may be stronger for new emlployees than for more tenured employees. This suggests that giving charge to employees at the start of their organizational tenure, encourages them to work harder to prove thier abilities and gain further benefits. On the contrary, the other argument shows that employees with longer organizational tenure have accumulated relationship specific skills and knowledge (Ng & Feldman, 2010). This accumulated knowledge allows their taking charge behaviors to be even more effecive. That is, employees with longer organizational tenure may have skills at bieng proactive and this leads to stronger job performance when taking charge. However, the second argument was not supported in their findings. Prior to that, Ng & Feldman, (2010) provided a meta-analysis across 350 empirical studies on the relationship between organizational tenure and three classes of job behaviors: core-task behaviors, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive behaviors. The study revealed that employees with longer organizational tenure have greater in-role performance and citizenship behavior. Moreover, there was an evidence of a curvilinear relationship between organizational tenure and job perfromance. These variations in the findings of the above studies highlights the possiblity that the effects of some variables may increase over time, while some may reach a particular level and remian stable, others might decline (Shamir, 2011).

With regard to ELMX relationships, some scholars have suggested that the economic or instrumental factor continues to persist even in high quality LMX relationships. Specifically, subordinates with high quality relations would always expect high economic returns from their leaders due to their good social relations (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Moreover, expectations would play a substantial role in determining the level of efforts exerted by an individual. Research has suggested that both - leader and member- could vary in the assumption they carry about the quality of their dyad (Cogliser et al., 2009; Markham, Yammarino, Murry, & Palanski, 2010) and this variation would likely lead to a variation in performance over time. The ongoing exchange is based on feelings of obligation toward the other party (Blau, 1964). There is reciprocal exchange process between the two parties, where the greater the perceived value of the tangible and intangible benefits, the higher will be the quality of LMX (Wayne et al., 1997) and the positive employee outcomes (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Followers in LMX relationships would assume return for their efforts. Following the principle of reciprocity, individuals tend to believe that each member in the social exchange relationship is obligated to repay any benefits received, and this mutual exchange of goods and services could be balanced out in the long run (Loi et al., 2009). It is normal to expect that ELMX relationships are high at the beginning of the relationship, however, no evidence showed that these relationship decline as the relationship progress. Regardless of the common trend of lower instrumentality in High LMX relationships (Ferris et al., 2009; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), there is a need to further investigate the role of ELMX relationships and the extent to which instrumentality could still appear within high-quality LMX relationships (Kuvaas et al. 2012). Goodwin et al. (2009) indicated that although relationships may evolve over time, this does not necessarily mean that a relation switches totally from an economic, or instrumental, relationship to a purely social one. They argued that both the instrumental and social aspects of the relationship appear to exist simultaneously. However, there is still ambiguity about how this relationship develops over time.

To understand this process clearly, we can refer to what is called the “Pygmalion effect”. Pygmalion effect plays a major role in this process of exchange. It refers to the expectations an individual has concerning another individual, which in turn affects the future actions. Pygmalion effect (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968) explains how a person develops expectations about a particular person and these expectations’ are communicated to that particular person, directly or indirectly. That person receives and internalizes these expectations and tries to justify his or her actions in order to respond to those expectations (Sutton & Woodman, 1989). According to Collins et al,(2009), the Pygmalion effect suggests that higher expectations from leaders prompt more effective performance, whereas lower expectations elicit less effective performance.

Within the interpersonal communication literature, Knapp, (1978) provided a model that describes how relationships escalate, stabilize and descend over time through communicative process. This model assumes a social exchange framework where individuals involved in romantic relationships try to maximize the rewards they gain from the relation and minimize their costs (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), and their choice to whether engage or disengage from relationships will be based on the equity of costs and rewards they gain from it (Hatfield, Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). Therefore, it can be assumed that employees in a dyad LMX relationship would be concerned with the rewards (social and economic) they will get as return for their efforts. When employees perceive that they are being treated fairly by their leaders, it is more likely that they would reciprocate positive attitudes and work outcomes (Wat & Shaffer, 2005). This is consistent with the above discussion about the Pygmalion effect and expectations.

In the psychological contract literature, Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, (2012) mentioned that the outcomes from one stage in the relationship would become the input for the next exchange. They indicated that employees with longer tenure may have developed a clear understanding of the link between performance and rewards. This could indicate that followers with longer LMX dyadic relationship might experience a stable or even reduction in employee performance in case they are not happy with their ELMX relationships and eventually leaving the organization. Indirect evidence to support these assumptions could be obtained from literature investigating the relationship between LMX quality, employee job performance and employee turnover intention. For example, in their meta-analysis Dulebohn et al., (2012) indicated that the effect of LMX quality on job performance are not consistent, indicating the importance of investigating the circumstances of how high quality LMX leads to better performance. Furthermore, turnover intention also showed inconsistent results with regard to LMX quality showing a non-linear relationship (Harris et al., 2005; Kim, Lee, & Carlson, 2010).

It is suggested that economic exchanges provide the foundation for the relationships between leaders and employees and this foundation is used to further build better social exchange relationships (Song, Tsui, & Law, 2008). Despite the common notion of exchange relationships in organizations as a continuum, ranging from pure economic at one pole to an increasing degree of social exchange at the other pole, many scholars suggest that it is important to understand that relationships can engage in both forms of exchange (Goodwin et al., 2009; Shore et al., 2006; Song et al., 2008). Moreover, the direction of the relationship that dyad tenure could have on ELMX is not clear, nor on other study variables due to the inconsistent findings from the literature. However, it is likely that dyad tenure would have an influence on these variables. In light of the above discussion, the following hypotheses can be proposed:

$H_{6.2}$: There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and ELMX

$H_{6.3}$: There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure, employee performance, OCB and employee turnover intention

Furthermore, self-efficacy and social loafing are another two variables that are expected to vary as the dyad tenure increases. As suggested earlier, both self-efficacy and social loafing could possibly mediate the relationship between LMX, SLMX, ELMX relationships and employee job performance, OCB and turnover intention, hence it is logical to expect that these mediators would also vary over time.

$H_{6.4}$: There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and social loafing

$H_{6.5}$: There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and self-efficacy

2.11 Research Framework

As a continuation of the literature review, this section aims to map the hypotheses of the research into two proposed frameworks to give a better understanding of the research design. The main focus of this research is to investigate the LMX relationship as two different perspectives, SLMX and ELMX, and how the quality of these two distinct qualities influence employee job performance, OCB and employee turnover intention. In order to a gain clearer explanation, the study has also considered examining the traditional LMX conceptualization to enable comparison between these findings. As a result of the literature review, two frameworks are designed that integrates the entire hypotheses of this research to give a better understanding of its objectives. Theoretical relationships among all the variables are depicted, with arrows showing the proposed relationships between variables within figures 2.4 and 2.5 below. Figure 2.4 depicts the economic/social exchanges as two distinct relationships and their influence on job performance, OCB and turnover intention, including the mediation effects of both self-efficacy and social loafing on these relationships. Figure 2.5 reflects the same exchanges when considering the unitary dimension of LMX.

Figure 2.4 Hypothesized model 1 (Two-dimension LMX)

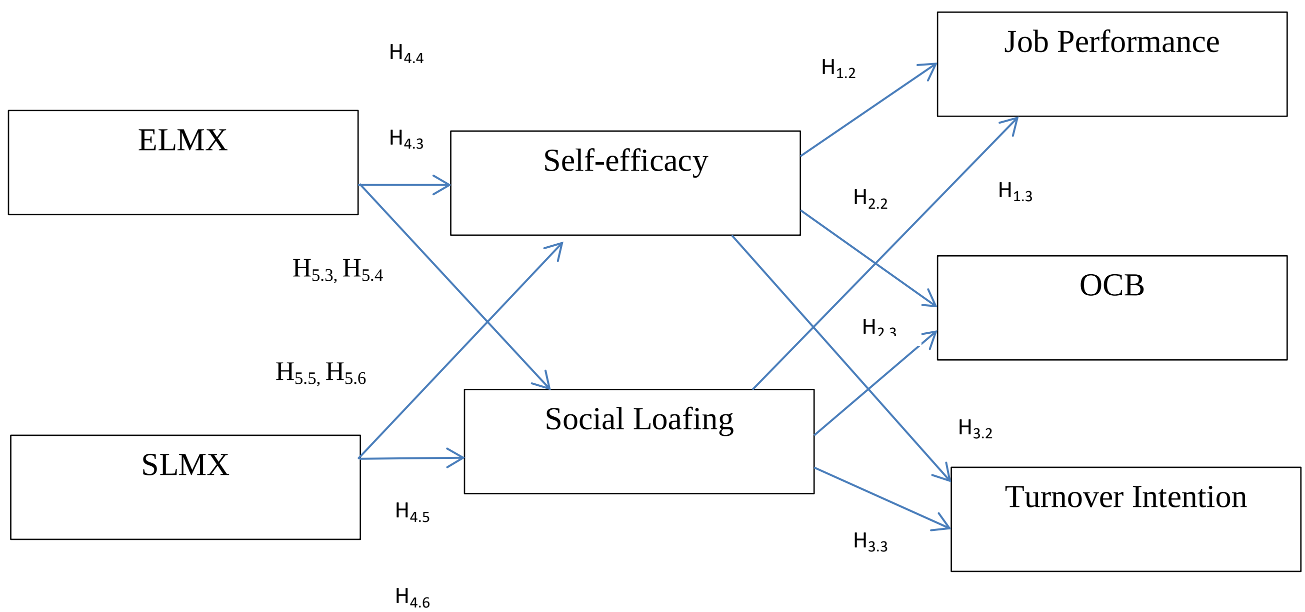
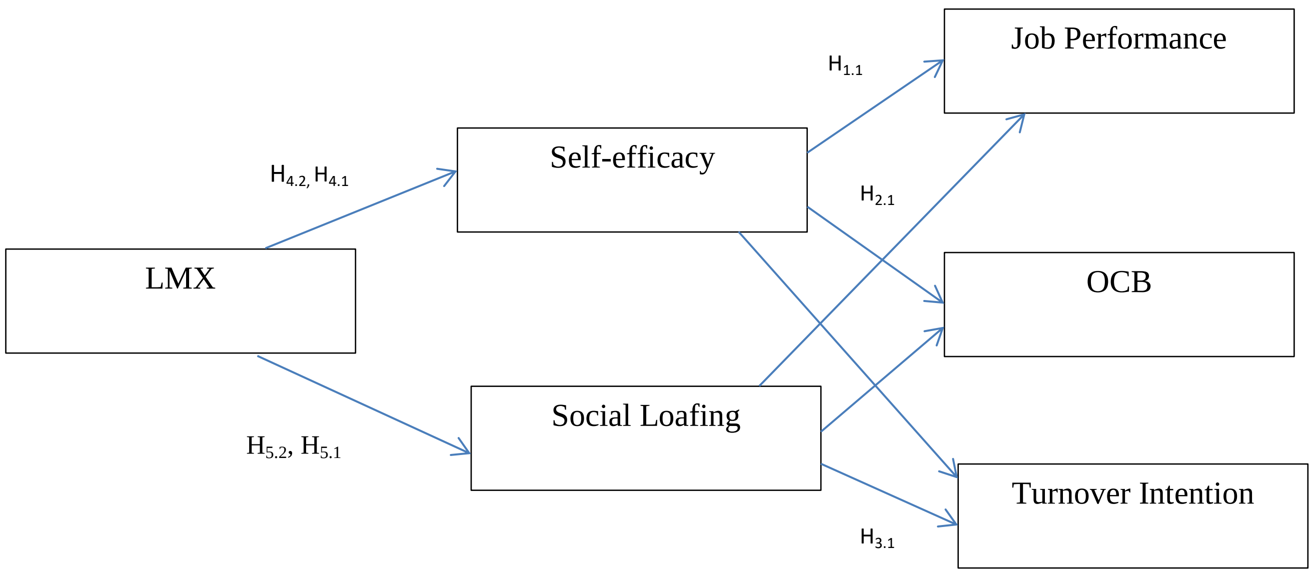


Figure 2.5 Hypothesized model 2 (unitary dimension of LMX)

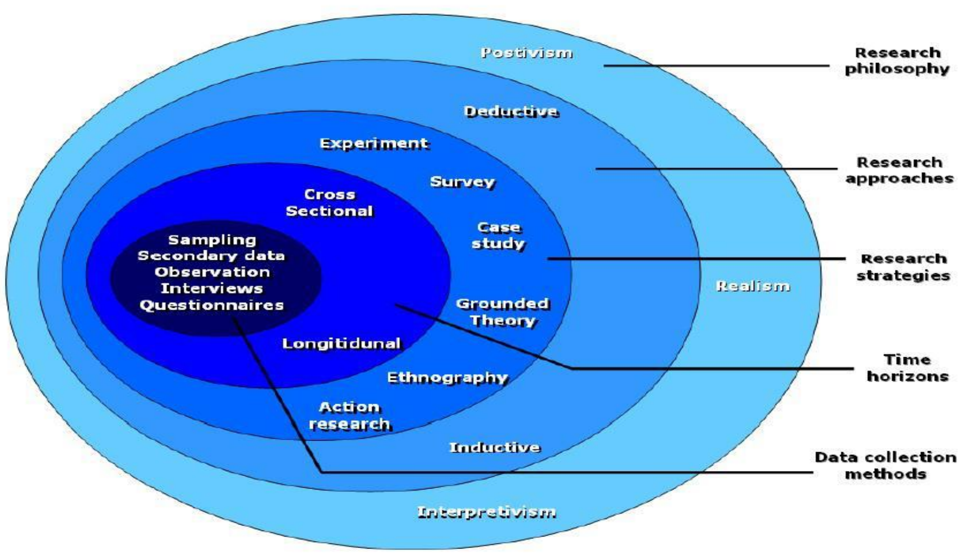


3 Methodology Chapter

This chapter is concerned with research methodology and the appropriate methods involved to examine the research framework. The chapter also elucidates the philosophical paradigm that aligns with this research, the research methods and the study design.

As per Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, (2012) "*research onion*" depicted in figure 3.1 below, this research process was conducted from surface to the center, where research philosophy, approach, strategy, method, and procedures of both data collection and data analysis were chosen in accordance with literature review. The chapter also discusses issues related to ethical concerns, validity, reliability and generalizability.

Figure 3.1 The research onion diagram of Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, (2012)



3.1 Research Philosophy and paradigm

'*All theories of organization are based upon a philosophy of science and theory of society'* (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p:1). Research philosophy relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge, where it describes precisely what the researcher is doing when investigating something to develop knowledge in a specific field. As indicated by Lehaney & Clarke, (1995) "*All research is undertaken within a philosophical paradigm*" (p: 16). Research philosophy is an all-encompassing term that connects with the nature and development of knowledge (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). The research process includes a series of steps, judgments and application of techniques for the purpose of curiosity (Williams and May, 1996). Philosophy of the research reflects the way in which a researcher views the world. As indicated by Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, (2012), it is easy to fall into the trap that one research philosophy is better than the other, while in fact, they are appropriate for attaining different things. Organizational theories are all based on a philosophy of science and a theory of society (Burrell, & Morgan, 1979).

According to May, (2011), the actual practice of science shows that there are different perspectives on a given phenomenon, as well as alternative methods of gathering and analyzing data. The philosophical debate in social science is basically around two distinct perspectives, 'functionalism' or 'positivism' and 'phenomenology' or 'interpretivism'. These two extremes resemble objectivity and subjectivity in social science and research.

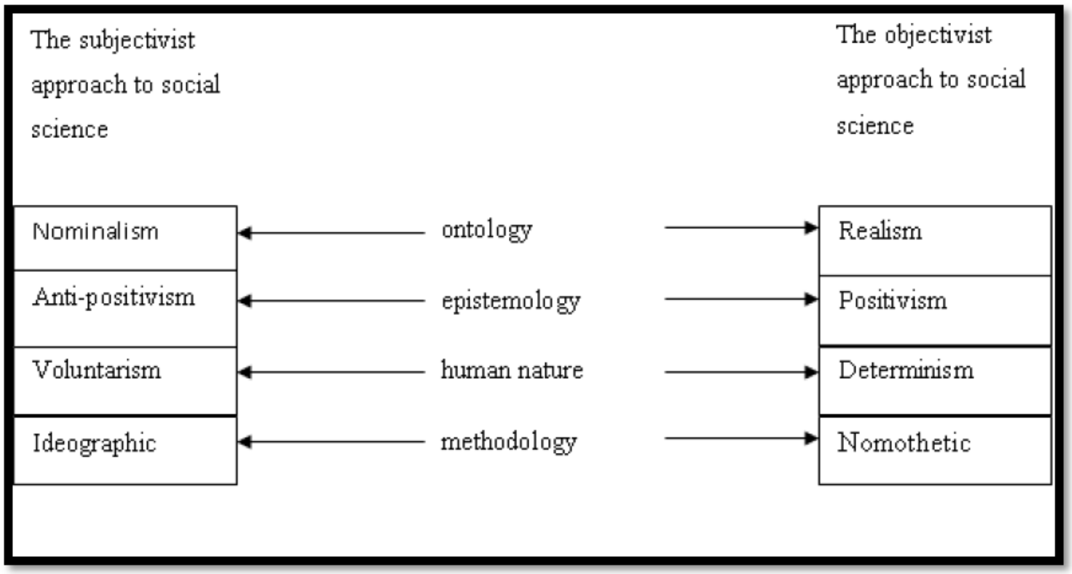
3.2 Assumptions of social science nature

Different philosophical assumptions make leaders develop different understanding about the nature of reality that may connect to the phenomenon under study (ontology). As a consequence, scholars follow different philosophical assumptions in order to think about what they know from reality (epistemology). Hence, they use the most proper methods to derive knowledge from the phenomena (methodology). Denzin & Lincoln, (1994) also explained the role of these terms in the research process as follows:

> *"The researcher approaches the world with a set of ideas, a framework (theory, ontology) that specifies a set of questions (epistemology) that he or she then examines in specific ways (methodology, analysis)" (79)*

In order to employ the most appropriate research philosophy, it is important to conceptualize the philosophical issues underpinning any research design related to ontology, epistemology, human nature, and methodology before we adopt our research philosophy (Burrell, & Morgan, 1979). Figure 3.2 below depicts these four sets of assumptions as the subjective-objective dimension.

Figure 3.2 The subjective-objective dimension about the nature of social science



(Burrell & Morgan, 1979: 3)

Ontology and epistemology are the main ways of thinking. Ontology is about the nature of reality, whether it is objective reality (independent of social actors) or subjective reality (assumptions of social actor). Ontological nature involves assumptions that concern the very essence of the phenomena under investigation (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). It concerns to study the nature of being existence, or those things that exist (Williams and May, 1996). Ontology raises questions of the assumptions scientist have about how the world operates and the commitment held to particular views. According to Burrell & Morgan, (1979), the nominalist represents the position that the social world external to individual cognition is made up of nothing more than names, labels and concepts that are used in order to structure reality, whereas realism postulates that the social world external to individual cognition is real; that is made up of hard, tangible and relatively immutable structures. For the realist, the social world exists independently of an individual’s appreciation of it. Whereas Realism involves the presence of concrete structure, Nominalism is a subjective dimension of the nature of human cognition in implementation.

Secondly, Epistemology is what constitutes reality. These are assumptions about the ground of knowledge, how an individual begin to understand the world and communicate this knowledge to fellow human beings (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Epistemology asks questions related to what researchers think constitute acceptable knowledge in a field of study. The main inquiry posed by the epistemology of a research is, whether the researcher is autonomous from the investigation or does he/she intermingle with that which is being researched (Collis & Hussey, 2009). The positivism and anti-positivism continuum embodies epistemological assumptions. Positivist epistemology search to explain and predict what happens in the social world by investigating regularities and causal relationships between its constituent elements. Positivist epistemology is based upon the traditional approached which dominate the natural sciences. Positivism treats the researcher as independent of the work researched, where neither the researcher affects the subject of investigation, nor is she/he affected by the subject (Remenyi & Williams, 1998). It is accepted that the growth of knowledge is basically a cumulative process in which new insights are added to the existing stock of knowledge and false hypothesis eliminated. On the other hand, the epistemology of anti-positivism may assume several forms, namely phenomenology or interpretivism, feminism and so on. Anti-Positivism considers that the social world is mainly relativistic and can be understood only from the point of view of individuals, who are directly involved in the activities that are studied (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). They maintain that an individual can only understand by occupying the frame of reference of the participants in action, where one has to understand from the inside rather than the outside. The researcher becomes a part of the research process whereby his/her findings might be influenced by his/her viewpoints.

Hence, social science is seen as being mainly a subjective rather than an objective enterprise. Anti-positivist tends to reject the notion that science can generate objective knowledge.

The third assumption is of human nature that concerns the relationship between human beings and their environment, where human life is essentially the subject and object of the investigation (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). At one extreme, determinism assumption considers a person and his/her activities as being completely determined by the situation or environment he or she is located in; a situation in which humans are conditioned by their external circumstances. At the other extreme is voluntarism, which assume that a person is completely autonomous and free-willed (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). This extreme assumes that human beings are creative; where a man is considered as the creator of his environment, the controller. Social science theories are concerned to understand human activity where they must incline implicitly or explicitly to one or the other points of view, or adopt an intermediate standpoint that allows for the influence of both situational and voluntary factors in accounting for human beings activities.

These three sets of assumptions have direct implications for a methodological nature, where each assumption has a significant consequence that is defining the way a researcher attempts to investigate and obtain knowledge about the social world. Methodology is the overall process and approach of research, the methods used and the procedures. Methodology questions the validity and reliability of such instruments to arrive the truth. It is the operational "framework within which research is conducted" (Remenyi & Williams, 1998, p:28). Different ontologies, epistemologies and models of human nature are expected to incline social scientist towards different methodologies (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Methodology ranges on a continuum with two extremes of Nomotheism and Ideography. Nomothetic methodology, at one extreme, adopts approaches and methods that are employed in the natural science. This make methodology in this extreme preoccupied with the construction of scientific tests and the use of quantitative techniques for analyzing the data. It emphasizes the use of systematic protocol and techniques (Burrell & Morgan, 1979) or tangible modus operandi such as testing hypothesis, benchmarks of scientific rigour, which may adopt quantitative forms like survey and personality tests. Surveys, questionnaires, personality tests are prominent among the tools which comprise nomothetic methodology. One the other extreme is the ideographic approach to social science, which assumes that one can only understand the social world by obtaining firsthand knowledge of the subject under investigation. It therefore stresses proximity to the subject and development of a detailed insight to their historical reality. Ideographic approach highlights the analyses of the subjective accounts which an individual generates by 'getting inside' situations and involving oneself in the everyday flow of life. Such methodology does not follow predefined research method but gradually allows for the disclosure of the subject's characteristics and components as the inquiry proceeds (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Remenyi & Williams, 1998).

3.3 Research paradigms and approaches

The term paradigm is a collection of basic beliefs or metaphysics that represent a world view based on ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As per the onion model introduced by Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, (2012), there are four major research philosophies in management research namely, Positivism, Realism, Interpretivism, and Pragmatism. Table 3.1 below depicts these four philosophies based on the research onion model.

Table 3.1 The Research 'onion'

Layer	Approaches
1: Research philosophies	Positivism, Realism, Interpretivism, and Pragmatism
2: Research approaches	Deductive, Inductive
3: Research strategies	Experiment, Survey, Case study, Action research, Ground theory, Ethnography, Archival research
4: Choices	Mono method, Mixed method, Multi method
5: Time horizons	Cross sectional, Longitudinal
6: Techniques and procedures	Data collection and data analysis

Source: Saunders et al. (2009: 108)

Pragmatism holds that the most significant determinant of the epistemology, ontology, and axiology adopted is the research question. Realism is another position that relates to scientific enquiry. Realism evolves around the idea of what we sense is reality: that objectives have an existence independent of the human mind (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). They elaborated that the philosophy behind realism assumes that there is a reality that is quite independent of the mind.

The debate on ontology and epistemology is often framed with regard to the choice between positivist and interpretivist paradigms or between quantitative and qualitative methods (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). Positivism and interpretivism are considered to be the two most dominant paradigms with the social science research. Each of these paradigms carries their own ontological and epistemological assumptions. As articulated by Brewerton & Millward, (2001), positivism aims to search objective truth that is assumed to be made up of general principles and laws. Positivism in organizational science try to find the general theories about organizations and their members (Tsoukas & Knudsen, 2005). They elaborated that positivist social theories help to explain human behavior by causes that lie in the situation and constrain the individual to act in certain ways, which confirms the pressure from the environment. Knowledge is derived in this paradigm by forming and testing hypotheses. This paradigm assumes that the social world is objective and knowledge is gained through observing the external reality. As indicated by Smith, (1993), positivism allows researchers to observe 'real reality' by removing bias which might have a negative influence on the research process.

However, this paradigm was challenged and considered as inappropriate for the study of psychological and social phenomena, which spawned other non-positivist paradigms like interpretivism. It was highlighted that the critique of positivism's tendency to adopt a reductionist approach towards human behavior caused a rise of interpretivism research approaches (Gill, Johnson, & Clark, 2010). Interpretive or constructivist approaches assume that reality is constructed and the research focus should be on understanding the different meanings and interpretations of 'social actors' where these points of view are highly contextual and hence, the possibility for generalization is less. Interpretivism is an epistemology which advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to know the differences between humans in our role as social actors. It holds that one's experience and memories play a significant part in making sense of the social world and is closely associated with qualitative research. A contrast between these two paradigms is better understood by looking at the different axioms related to each of them (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). These axioms are depicted in table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 Comparison between positivism and iterpretivism axioms

Item	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontology	*Single reality*	*Multiple constructed realities*
Epistemology	*The knower and the known are independent*	*The knower and the known are inseparable*
Axiology	*Inquiry is value free*	*Inquiry is value bound*
Generalization	*Possible*	*Not possible*
Causal Linkage	*Causes could be temporally precedent to or simultaneous with effects.*	*It is impossible to distinguish causes from effects*
Logic	*'Deductive' from particular to general.*	*'Inductive' from general to particular*

Since the current research seeks to determine the causal relations of the two different perspectives of LMX (ELMX and SLMX) on employee job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention, how they affect the quality of the LMX exchange, and how dyad tenure influences these two relations, this research follows the positivist philosophy. The process of this research is considered to be value free from the researcher. Objectivity is drawn from positivism, where the researcher should remain at a distance from what they study, so results will depend on the nature of what was studied rather than on the personality (Payne & Payne, 2004). It can be claimed that data collected are minimized in terms of bias and are therefore more objective; unlike the interpretivist where the research approach is the reflection of one's own values and researcher involvement with what is being researched (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Due to the subjective nature of interpretivism, where an individual's understanding might reflect the real situation of the research, this interpretivist approach cannot be applied. This paradigm emphasizes dialogue rather than the cause and effects of the relationships between study variables. Moreover, the findings of such approach, interpretivist, cannot be replicated to different backgrounds due to the unique characteristics of influential elements in each organization (Kim, 2003).

In relation to applied theories, leader-member exchange theory is largely consistent with the aims of the positivist paradigms. LMX investigates the causal relationships between leaders and members; hence correlations between elements are stressed. The primary objective in the positivist paradigm is to find whether a change in one variable will have an impact on another variable. The nature of the current research investigated is a representing causal relationship when considering the theoretical background of this study.

3.3.1 Research approach

The extent to which a researcher is clear about the theory at the beginning of the research raises an important questions regarding the design of the research project, where this is often portrayed into two approaches based upon the reasoning a researcher adopts: deductive or inductive (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012).

A *deductive* approach is a highly structured way of testing hypothesis by collecting quantitative data as opposed to the inductive research that develop a theory using qualitative research

(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). If the research starts with theory developed from literature and a research strategy is designed to test the theory, then a researcher is using a deductive approach. Deductive reasoning occurs when the conclusion is derived logically from a set of premises; where the conclusion is regarded as true when all the premises are true (Ketokivi & Mantere, 2010). It is argued that a deductive approach has several important characteristics and advantages. This paradigm seeks to explain the causal relationships between variables, where a researcher can establish reasons for particular phenomenon. Deductive approach also allows researchers to adopt a highly structured methodology to facilitate replication, which enables researchers to ensure reliability (Gill, Johnson, & Clark, 2010). The investigated concept needs to be operationalized in a way that allows facts to be measured, often using quantitative methods. Generalization is another characteristic of deduction, where this approach allows for results generalization about regularities in human social behavior, where a sufficient sample should be selected.

Robson, (2011), provided a detailed steps about how a deductive research process. These steps include five sequential stages. The first step involves the deduction of hypothesis, a testable propositions about the relationship between two or more variables from a particular theory. The second step is about expressing the hypothesis in operational terms and defining the measurement of the concepts or variables, which propose a relationship between two particular concepts or variables. Later, the researcher will test the operationalized hypothesis followed by an examination of the specific outcomes of the inquiry; where this examination either tends to confirm the theory or indicate the need for modification. The final step in this process, if necessary, is modifying the theory in the light of the study findings.

An alternative approach to conducting research is the *inductive* approach. This approach is the one where the results of the analysis will lead to the formulation of a theory. It is used when the research starts by collecting data to explore a phenomenon and from the conceptual framework a theory is generated. It tends to study small sample of subjects since it is more appropriate compared to larger samples. Followers of this approach criticize deduction because of its tendency to construct a rigid methodology that does not allow alternative explanations of what is going on (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). Researchers using this approach for reasoning are usually concerned with a particular context in which events being investigated are taking place. Researchers using this approach are more likely to use qualitative methods. Table 3.3 below provides more comparison between these two approaches.

Table 3.3 Comparison between deductive and inductive approach

	Deduction	Induction
Logic	In a deductive inference, when the premises are true, the conclusion is also true.	In an inductive inference, known premises are utilized to generate untested conclusions.
Generalizability	Generalizing from the general to specific	Generalizing from the specific to the general
Usage of data	Data is collected to evaluate propositions or hypothesis related to an existing theory	Data is collected to explore a phenomenon, identify themes and patterns and create a conceptual framework

Theory	Falsification or verification of a theory	Generation and building of a theory

(Taken from Saunders et. al., 2012: 145)

The purpose of this study is to test a theory whereby the investigation has developed a series of hypotheses based on existing theories for the purpose of empirical testing. Therefore, this study employs the deductive approach. One of the primary objectives of this research is to discover the causal relationships between variables. After reviewing the LMX literature, there appeared to be potential relationship between the two different perspectives of LMX (ELMX and SLMX) and employee outcomes. This is along with the potential mediation role of Social loafing and self-efficacy variables. Therefore, a series of hypothesis were developed to capture the relationship between the independent variables (LMX, ELMX, and SLMX) and the dependent variables (job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention). Applying the deductive approach owes more to positivism, which helps in testing the hypotheses of the research, explaining causal relations between different variables and generalizing the findings. This approach helps the researcher to observe the real situation by removing any possible bias that could affect the research process.

3.3.2 Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods

There is a discussion on which methods or techniques are more suitable to apply in a research. As pointed out by Ghauri & Grønhaug, (2005), research methods are referred to '*systematic, focused and orderly collection of data for the purpose of obtaining information from them, to solve/answer a particular research problem or question (p: 109)*'. Methods refer to individual tools and techniques adopted in order to conduct research and they are broadly classified as Quantitative (objective) and Qualitative (subjective). These two terms are used widely in business and management research to differentiate between both data collection techniques and data analysis procedures. One way to distinguish quantitative research from qualitative research is to differentiate between numeric data (numbers) and non-numeric data (words, images, and videos) (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). According to Ghauri & Grønhaug, (2005), the main distinction between qualitative and quantitative methods and approach is not only a question of quantification, but also a reflection of different perspectives on knowledge and research objectives. Whereas Quantitative researchers employ measurement techniques, qualitative research do not (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Below is table 3.4 that emphasizes the basic differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods.

Table 3.4 Comparison between qualitative and quantitative research methods

Qualitative methods	Quantitative methods
Emphasis on understanding	Emphasis on testing and verification
Focus on understanding from respondent’s/informant’s point of view	Focus on facts and/or reasons for social events
Interpretation and rational approach	Logical and critical approach
Observations and measurements in natural settings	Controlled measurements
Subjective ‘insider view’ and closeness to data	Objective ‘outsider view’ distant from data
Explorative orientation	Hypothetical deductive, focus on hypothesis testing
Process oriented	Result oriented

Holistic perspective	Particularistic and analytical
Generalization by comparison of properties and contexts of individual organism	Generalization by population membership

Source: Based on Reichardt, & Cook, (1979)

Moreover, Quantitative research allows collection of data from a huge group of respondents (Morgan, 1998). There are three research strategies that can be used to collect quantitative data: scientific experiment, survey and secondary data. Quantitative methods allude to positivist, empirical techniques, where data is represented in a concrete or numerical, cardinal or ordinal form (Jary & Jary, 2000). In contrast, qualitative methods are used mainly as a synonym for any data collection technique (like interviews) or data analysis procedure (such as categorizing data) that generates or uses non-numerical data. Qualitative research is associated with interpretive philosophy, where researchers tend to make sense of the subjective and socially constructed meanings about the phenomenon being studied. Data collection here in non-standardized so that questions and procedures might change and emerge during the research process.

This study used quantitative approach for data collection. Quantitative approach is usually associated with a deductive approach, which allows using data to test theory. The use of quantitative approach and survey-based questionnaire for collecting data are dominant in the field of LMX. In fact, this is also extended to leadership field, where quantitative approach is often used. Antonakis et al., (2004) observed that the vast majority of research conducted in the field of leadership utilized quantitative methods due to the nature of research. Hence, the author decided to utilize the quantitative approach to test hypothesis and reach objective and controlled results.

3.4 Time horizons

Researchers can make their study at a particular time horizon or a diary or series of snapshots. A study can be undertaken in which the data are collected just once, perhaps over a period of days or weeks or months, to answer research questions, such studies are referred to as one-shot or cross-sectional study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). A cross-sectional study is the study of a specific phenomenon or phenomena at a particular time. According to Robson, (2011), cross-sectional studies usually employ the survey strategy and investigates the relationship between different factors. In contrast, longitudinal study is the study that takes more akin to a diary or a series of snapshots and be representative of events over a given period. "*Longitudinal analyses study the development of a phenomenon over the course of time. These developments can concern organizations, individuals, concepts or variables; they are the origin of the data to be analyzed"* (Thietart, 2001, p: 332). That is, it analysis any change in the investigated variables over time.

Regardless of the criticism, this research adopts a cross-sectional time horizon as it is considered the most appropriate for this study. Cross-sectional design has been criticized due to its lack of sufficient temporal insight to afford causality between variables (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). They added that it is important to manage time and sequence between constructs in order to consider causality. However, all the study hypotheses were built on the base of strong conceptual and theoretical reasoning from LMX literature, therefore such criticism is overcome. Moreover, it is difficult to conduct a longitudinal study here, as it was hard to identify when the effect of a predictor variable begin and ends. In fact, LMX research lacks accurate findings of identifying how a dyad progress over time and this was seen clearly in the inconsistent findings of some variables. This indicates that it is difficult to decide the time of study of when a dyad quality exactly increases and at which point a follow up survey can be conducted. This is along with the difficulty and complexity of collecting data from the same dyads over time. Sekaran & Bougie, (2010) indicated that longitudinal studies require more time and effort from the researcher and they cost more than cross-sectional studies. Therefore, this study employs a cross-sectional design due to the difficulty of conducting a longitudinal one. Along with the above mentioned reasons, time for this study is limited that does not allow sufficient time for a longitudinal one.

3.5 Population and Sampling

Since it is impractical to survey the entire population, due to budget and time constraints, we need to sample. Thus, sampling was designed in order to test the theoretical framework (Bernard, 2002). Sampling is the process where a subset or smaller parts of the larger population is used to arrive at conclusions that can be generalized to the whole population (Zikmund, 2000). Sapsford, (1999), defined sampling as '*finding a group to survey which is sufficiently like the population under investigation that valid generalization can be made from the population on the basis of the sample*' (p. 50). It is important to get a sample with the same characteristics of the population (May, 2011). Target population is the "*specific, complete group relevant to the research project"* (Zikmund, 2000: 342).

Choosing a sample is of importance to the study as it will have a determining effect on the external and internal validity of the study. According to Thietart, (2001), external validity is the possibility of extrapolating the findings obtained from a sample to other elements under different conditions of time and place. On the other hand, internal validity is concerned with ensuring the relevance and internal coherence of the results in accordance with the researcher's stated objectives.

According to Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, (2012), sampling techniques can be classified to two types: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. *Probability sampling* involves random selection of elements. It allows known and equal probability for each case to be selected from the population. It is a process where individuals are selected from a sampling frame that lists all the cases of the population. Probability sampling is frequently associated with survey and experimental research strategies (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). In this type of sampling, everyone has an equal chance of being selected (Bernard & Bernard, 2012). This means that it is possible to answer questions of this research and to achieve objectives which require estimating statistically the characteristics of the population from this sample.

On the other hand, *non-probability sampling* is the sampling where the possibility for selecting each case is unknown because of the limited knowledge of a large population (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). It is not possible to answer research questions or address objectives that require making statistical inferences. Therefore, inferences cannot be generalized to the wider population. Table 3.5 below provides a summary of these two different sampling techniques along with their different types.

Table 3.5 Different techniques of probability and non-probability sampling techniques

Sampling technique	**Nature of the technique**
Probability sampling: Is the technique where cases or elements have an equal chance of being selected as the sample subject. It involves selecting elements randomly, following a random procedure. The selection of any one case is independent of the selection of the other cases. It is	

assumed to have higher representation of the characteristics of the targeted population. This technique is often associated with quantitative methods. It is vital for a probability sample to have a complete list of the population that exists, which is called a *sampling frame.*	
Random sample (simple sample)	Every case has an equal possibility or probability of being selected. It can be labeled as 'an equal probability sample'. The main disadvantage of this technique is the need to have a comprehensive numbered list of the whole population, which is sometimes difficult and extremely costly.
Systematic sampling	An appropriate sampling fraction is selected and thereafter every *nth* case in the population list is chosen. It does not require a list of the population elements. This method could be biased as it would not closely approximate a simple random sample. Sampling fraction is calculated by dividing the actual sample size by the total population.
Stratified sampling	The population is initially segmented on the basis of one or more pre-established criteria. Select group or 'strata' from a population and then use the simple random sampling within each of those groups. It is based on hypothesis that there is a correlation between the phenomenon being investigated and the criteria chosen for segmenting the population.
Cluster sampling	Also called 'multilevel sampling'. It is a particular type of

	two-stage sampling. It involves a process of stratification or segregation, followed by a random selection of subjects from every stratum. Elements are not selected one by one, but rather by subsets known as clusters. It involves randomly sampling convenient clusters of the population one or more times before using random sampling to choose respondents from those clusters.
Non-probability sampling: The possibility of any member of the population being selected is unknown. It is difficult to answer questions or to address objectives that require a researcher to make statistical inferences about the characteristics of the population. This technique is usually associated with qualitative methods.	
Convenience sampling	Also called as the ‘opportunity sample’. It refers to the collection of data from members of the population who are conveniently available to provide it. It is the least justifiable sample and the most widely used one. Often termed as accidental sampling, where units are chosen because the researcher find it convenient for some reasons.
Snowball sampling	Is also referred to as ‘volunteer sampling’, where participants are volunteered to be part of the research rather than being chosen. A researcher get cases using referrals from one or a few cases and then referrals from those cases, and so on.

Quota sampling	This type ensures that particular groups are adequately represented in the study through the assignment of a quota. It allows the researcher to obtain a relatively representative sample of a population. Certain subgroups of units are represented in the sample in approximately the same proportions as they are represented in the population.
Haphazard sampling	Sample cases are selected without any obvious principles of organization in relation to your research question. A researcher selects cases haphazardly only because they are easily available.
Purposive sampling	The sample is gathered deliberately with a purpose in mind but not randomly. Choose all possible cases that fit particular criteria. It is confined to specific types of individuals who can provide the desired information. A researcher uses judgment to select cases that will best enable him/her to answer research questions and meet objectives. It is the most common type in experiments and quasi-experiments.
Compiled from (May, 2011; Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, 2012; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Thietart, 2001; Vogt, 2007; Zikmund, 2000)	

It is impractical in this research to collect data from the whole population due to the limitations of time and money. Although this research aligns with positivist process, a non-probability, purposive sampling approach was used in this study. This is in order to satisfy the criteria of the target population who can provide the desired information (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). This study required collecting information from large number of dyads and hence selecting section heads in colleges of technology was the option. This is to guarantee a large number of respondents, where each head of section is responsible of at least six lecturers. These sections exhibit formal and hierarchical structures with clear lines of responsibility and accountability. Hence, this satisfied the purpose of the research to collect data from leaders and their direct members. Moreover, these respondents were considered as a good representative of a dyadic relationship, and were able to comment on the questions of the research survey. Purposive sampling is about selecting informants according to the qualities of the informant process (Tongco, 2007).

3.5.1 Target sample

The full set of cases from which a sample is taken is referred to the 'target sample'. It is the " *specific , complete group relevant to the research project*" (Zikmund, 2000: 342). The purpose of this study was to investigate the economic and social perspectives of the Leader-member exchange dyadic relationship. Therefore, the data collection needed to focus on both leaders and their reporting members in a non-western organization. The academic sector was the main target of this study, particularly academicians in College of technology. It was important to highlight the impact of the LMX relationship in an academic context to further understand the critical role of head of departments as leaders in enhancing effective lecturers' performance and OCB as well as minimizing their turnover intention.

Colleges of Technologies have different departments (Business Studies, Engineering, English studies and Information Technology). Each of these departments is divided to different sections that offer different specializations. Lecturers are grouped in sections as per their specialization e.g., Marketing section, Human Resource section, and Accounting section in Business department while Engineering department would have sections like; Electrical, Mechanical and Civil Engineering and so on. For the sake of this study, Head of sections in every department were asked to fill a separate questionnaire for each of their reporting lecturers. For example, a head of section with six reporting lecturers was responsible to fill the leader's questionnaire six times for every specific follower. Lecturers on the other hand were asked to fill the subordinate's questionnaire for their direct head of section.

3.5.2 Sample size

A role of thumb method has been adopted in this research. Fowler, (2013) stated that a sample of 150 individual will describe a population of 15,000 or 15 million with virtually the same degree of accuracy, assuming that all other aspects of the sample design and sampling procedures were the same. The targeted sample size of this study was 400 dyads for the survey. As indicated by Sekaran & Bougie, (2010), *"sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research"* (p. 296). The final sample of this study consisted of 227 dyads collected from two colleges of technology. This response rate outnumbered the (150) which is the required number of role of thumb.

Different findings in LMX theory suggested that a relationship between leaders and members develops early in the dyad durations (Liden et al., 1993; Nahrgang et al., 2009). However, it is crucial here to notice that major changes in a relationship takes place in the first three years of the dyad. For example, when considering literature in the romantic relationships, Levenson & Gottman, (1985) obtained the continuous measures of the physiological state of each spouse and results showed that there was over 80% of variance in marital satisfaction change over a 3year period. Also, a meta-analysis of 37 studies revealed that relationship satisfaction for male and female newlyweds' have decreased in the first or second year of marriage (Mitnick, Heyman, & Smith Slep, 2009). Moreover, in an attempt to understand newcomers adjustment and their likely for turnover, Kenexa Research Institute, (2007) revealed that 57% of newly hired employees were inclined to leave their organizations in less than two years period. This result was based on a survey that targeted multi-national companies in both the USA and the UK. These findings clearly showed that the first three years of a relationship are very critical.

Therefore, for the purpose of investigating the effect of dyad tenure on the LMX relationship, the sample of the current study consisted of three groups; the first group included lecturers with dyad tenure of less than one year. This group was assumed to reflect early exchanges of an LMX relationship. The second group consisted of lecturers with dyad tenures ranging from one to two years. The final group targeted lecturers who have worked for the same supervisor for more than two years. This distribution is assumed to reflect the changes in the quality of the LMX, ELMX and SLMX relationships and consequently capture any variations in employee outcomes.

3.6 Site of the study

This study was carried in two Colleges of Technology in Oman, Higher college of technology and Salalah College of technology. In fact, choosing the place of the study is a response to many calls to conduct LMX research in a different context. According to Rockstuhl et al., (2012), most of the LMX studies were conducted in the western context. Therefore, this research aimed to collect data in a non-western context. Moreover, In accordance with the Omani government's efforts for developing a sustainable economy that requires improvements in infrastructure, innovation and education, higher education institutions in Oman are under pressure to develop the skills of the Omani graduates to fill the existing shortages in a number of sectors. Therefore, more specific emphasis is needed in the higher education sector in Oman.

3.6.1 Higher college of Technology

The higher College of technology (HCT) is located in Muscat, the capital of Oman. It is considered as the second largest higher education institution in Oman catering for nearly 12,154 students. The college was established in 1984 at the initiative of his majesty Sultan Qaboos Bin Said in order to educate the citizens of Oman by implementing high quality programs in different fields. The college was first known as Oman Technical Industrial College, but was renamed and upgraded in 2001.

The current programs of the HCT were implemented from September 2003 as a result of extensive research to ensure the suitability of the programs with the needs of the industry. The student progress from one level to another depends on the fulfillment of the criteria of each level. The college has grown enormously from a student population of about 200 to around 12 thousands students currently. The facilities have expanded from three initial buildings to a total built-up area of more than 49,700 m2. The college has more than 975 staff in its faculty and the annual intake is nearly 2000 students into the foundation program, besides transferred students in upper levels.

3.6.2 Salalah College of Technology

Salalah College of Technology (SCT) is considered as one of the leading providers of technological education in Oman. The college is located in Salalah, which is known as the "Perfume capital of Arabia", with about 1000 kilometers from Muscat, the capital. The college started as a vocational training center in 1979 with only 89 students enrolled. However, in 1993, the center was converted to a Technical Industrial College, taking the first batch for the first semester 1993-1994 and adopting Arabic language as the medium of instruction. In 2001, the College was renamed by its current name.

With a number of around 200 staff and more than 2500 students, the college offers programs in Business Studies, Engineering, and Information Technology. The college offers the Diploma and higher Diploma level, however, due to the increased demand of the region and the far location of the college, SCT started to offer the Bachelor degree since 2013 and become the second college of technology that provides Bachelor degree along with the Higher College of Technology.

3.7 Research Methods

There are different sources that are used to collect data in research for the purposes of analyzing, testing hypothesis, and answering the research questions. Data can be obtained from primary or secondary data. Primary data refer to the information that is obtained first-hand by the researcher about the variables of interest for specific purpose of the study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). They also explained secondary data as when the information gathered by someone else, other than the researcher, and can be accessed through the internet or perusal of recorded or published information.

Since this study is applying a quantitative approach, a survey strategy is applied. A survey is a primary tool for collecting quantitative data. This method is used widely in business and management research to collect quantitative data and find answers for questions like who, what, where, how much and how many (Collis, & Hussey, 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). A survey strategy is often associated with a deductive research approach. Using the survey methodology has many benefits as described by Chauvel & Despres, (2002). Survey method enables the researcher to directly question individuals about particular issues. Thietart, (2001) indicated that survey '*allows the researcher to work with large samples and to establish statistical relationships or numerical comparisons'* (p: 173). Moreover, one of the advantages of survey is that it helps the researcher to focus on the specific issue by defining its various characteristics. Since it produces quantifiable results, using survey lead to precision and accuracy in the data collected. This method, compared to other research methods, is considered to be fast and straightforward (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, (2012) indicated that survey, using questionnaires, are very common as they allow the researcher to collect standardized data from a sizeable population in a highly economic way. Using statistical inferences allows the researcher to generalize the results from a particular sample to a larger population, thus permitting more global statements. So, the chance of generating findings that represent the whole population at lower cost is possible.

The technique of survey research gives an opportunity to introduce and clarify the research to participants. A survey strategy is assumed to offer more control to the researcher over the research process. However, when choosing this strategy, researchers need to spend enough time to ensure that the sample is representative and they would acquire a good response rate. When compared to other methods, experiments are costly and may not provide a good representative sample.

May, (2011) demonstrated that surveys are characterized by collecting data from large numbers of people in order to describe the characteristics or opinions from that representing sample. They also indicated that surveys provide a rigorous approach that aims to remove as much bias as possible from the research process and produce replicable results by following the same method. In addition, data collected using a survey method allows the researcher to suggest possible reasons for particular relationships between variables and to produce models of these relationships. Since this research aims to understand relationships between different study variables, and how the quality of leader-member exchange influence employee job performance, OCB and turnover intention, this strategy is assumed to be the most appropriate one. Especially, survey method is a common approach in the LMX field.

Collecting data in a survey method involves three major steps: initial crafting of the survey and choosing scales, pre-test to check the validity and reliability of the survey, and finally the actual administration of the final version (Thietart, 2001).

3.7.1 Research instruments

The main technique for collecting data in this research was an in-depth questionnaire targeting college lecturers. A self-administrated questionnaire was used in this study. Questionnaires are designed to collect structured data and so offer options from which the respondents can select an answer (Matthews, and Ross, 2010). Questionnaires save researchers' time and they are lower in cost as well.

However, questionnaires might have some issues related to data quality in terms of accuracy and completeness. This is because respondents might hesitate to complete the questionnaire or return it back, or they lack strong motivation to go through it (Gillham, 2008). Nevertheless, the researcher emphasized the importance of respondents' collaboration to the colleges Deans and head of sections and they in turn encouraged their subordinates to participate. In addition, Social desirability could influence participants' response to the questionnaire. Social desirability is referred to the propensity or disposition of individuals to portray themselves in a favorable light, which knowingly or unknowingly lead to the production of responses to self-report questionnaires in a manner that has the possibility to represent their behavior and attitudes inaccurately (Mukhuty, 2013). It implies participants' tendency to choose a 'good answer', which might represent them in a better light. Anonymity and confidentiality were assured to participants' to encourage them to take part in the process and provide accurate and truthful information. When questionnaires are applied, it is likely that participants may feel relatively free when using an anonymous style of response, and thus possible to avoid researcher bias (Gillham, 2008).

Prior to tackling the problem of wording the questions and organizing the structure of the questionnaire, Thietart, (2001) suggested that the researcher must first choose the scales that will be used in the questionnaire, and whether they will use pre-existing scales or create their own one. Since the variables in this study have been widely investigated, where different measures exist for every variable and has been tested, the questionnaires of this study consisted of pre-existing scales. These scales are discussed in the next section.

3.7.2 Assessment Measures

The questionnaires of this study included different assessment measures aimed to measure the variables of the study. These measures included: Buch et al. (2011) ELMX and SLMX quality, Scandura and Graen's (1984) LMX-7, Williams & Anderson, (1991) employee job performance, Van Dyne & LePine, (1998) organizational citizenship behavior, Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, (1979) employee turnover intention, Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt, & Hooker, (1994) employee self-efficacy and George, (1992) for social loafing. All of these measurements were adopted based on previous studies. It is assumed that the original version of the questionnaires could avoid wording issues, such as ambiguous questions and implication assumptions. Since there was no need to translate the questionnaires to another language, the researcher assumed that it was not necessary to conduct a pilot test. Details of these measures are discussed in below.

3.7.2.1 Social and economic leader-member exchange (SLMX and ELMX)

Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Haerem, (2012) have developed separate measures of SLMX and ELMX. However, they encouraged further development of the scale because they excluded some of the more contingent *quid pro quo* items from the ELMX scale since they either cross-loaded or did not display satisfactory strong factor loadings. In a follow-up study, Buch, Kuvaas, & Dysvik, (2011) developed additional items to further capture all aspects of ELMX relationships. These additions were based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Their scales for ELMX and SLMX demonstrated high internal consistency with reliability estimates of $\alpha = .85$ and $\alpha = .93$, respectively. The refined scales of Buch et al. (2011) (as shown in Appendix B) are employed and the term Head of section (HOS) was collateral to the word supervisor. The scale were anchored on a 5-point format ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree.*

Sample items intended to measure SLMX relationship include '*I don't mind working hard today – I know I will eventually be rewarded by my immediate supervisor (HOS)* and '*Even though I may not always receive the recognition I deserve from my immediate supervisor (HOS), I know that he or she will take good care of me in the future'*. Sample items intended to measure ELMX relationship include '*I am only willing to exert extra effort for the benefit of my immediate supervisor (HOS) if I believe it will increase my chances of achieving personal benefits such as more attractive work assignments or a promotion*' and '*I rarely or never perform a favor for my immediate supervisor (HOS) without having a clear expectation that this favor will be returned within a short space of time'*. ELMX and SLMX demonstrated a high internal reliability where results were 0.95 and 0.70 respectively.

3.7.2.2 LMX

Since the study is also seeking to examine the role of instrumentality within high quality relationships and compare between the traditional LMX and the two distinct perspectives, Scandura & Graen, (1984) LMX-7 scale was used to measure LMX quality as recommended by Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995). Meta-analytical evidence has showed that LMX 7 provides the soundest psychometric properties and the highest correlations with outcomes when compared to all other instruments (Gerstner & Day, 1997). It has been reported that reliability coefficients for LMX7 range from 0.78 to 0.93 (Hooper & Martin, 2008). The scale were anchored on a 5-point format ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Sample item include '*Do you know where you stand with your HOS? Do you usually know how satisfied your HOS is with what you do?'* Cronbach's alpha of LMX in this study showed a very reliable results (0.90).

3.7.2.3 Job performance

Employee job performance was measured using ten items from Williams & Anderson, (1991) in-role job performance. Their scale included in-role behaviors (IRBs) and behaviors that benefit the organization in general (OCBO) as separate dimensions of performance. The IRB and OCBO had reliabilities of 0.91 and 0.75 respectively in their study. The internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha for IRB and OCBO in the current study was higher than 0.7 which is considered as reliable.

Each head of section were asked to provide ratings for their direct subordinates on a 5-point response from 1= *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Sample items included "*This individual . . . adequately completes assigned duties", "Complains about insignificant things at work"* and "*performs tasks that are expected of him or her*."

3.7.2.4 OCB

Employee citizenship behavior was measures by using seven items from Van Dyne & LePine, (1998). Sample item intended to measure citizenship behavior include '*I attend functions that are not required but that help the college'* and '*I volunteer for things that are not required'*. These items were rated on a 5-point response from 1= *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The Cronbach alpha reported for this instrument has been reported to range from 0.85 to 0.93 (Kim, Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Johnson, 2013). OCB revealed a strong internal reliability in this study (0.82).

3.7.2.5 Employee turnover intention

Employee intent to turnover was measured using the three items from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, (1979) scale. The internal consistency reliability was ranging from 0.79 to

0.85 (Ostroff, 1992). It is a 5- point scale (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree). Sample items intended to measure TI included *'I will probably look for a new job in the near future*' and '*I often think about quitting'*. The internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha for this measure in the current study was (0.87) which is considered as reliable for this instrument.

3.7.2.6 Self-efficacy

10 items were used from Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt, & Hooker, (1994) to measure employee self-efficacy. This scale is reliable and has been used in past research (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The scale was anchored on a 5-point response format ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. Sample items included *'I have confidence in my ability to do my job'*, '*Most people in my line of work can do this job better than I can*' and '*My future in this job is limited because of my lack of skills*'. The internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha for self-efficacy in this study was (0.77) which is considered as reliable for this instrument.

3.7.2.7 Social loafing

Social loafing was measured with eight items adapted from George, (1992). This measure aimed to assess the extent to which subordinates tend to put forth low levels of efforts on the job in the present of other employees to do the work. Example items include '*defers responsibilities he or she should assume to other group members'* and '*spends less time helping students if other section members are around to do the work'*. Leaders were instructed to provide their responses about their employees on a 5 point scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. This measure has reported strong reliability coefficients (e.g., Murphy et al., 2003 reported internal reliability of 0.96). In this study, the Cronbach's alpha of the social loafing is 0.95 indicating strong reliability of the construct.

3.7.3 Administration of the questionnaire

Questionnaires were distributed separately to leaders and followers. The leaders' version was titled with head of section questionnaire, whereas members' questionnaire was tilted with subordinate questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed and collected by neutral persons appointed by the researcher. Both questionnaires were introduced by a cover letter. A covering letter plays a significant role in introducing a research survey to participants (Czaja, and Blair, 1996). The cover letter in this research informed respondents about the researcher, aim of the study and its significance. It also stressed the issue of confidentiality and respondents freedom to withdraw consent at any time. Finally, the cover letter provided details of how to communicate with the researcher for any further inquiries.

As indicated by Churchill, (2001), the layout of the questionnaire should looks professional and easy to answer, this is because unprofessional looking design might reduce the response rate of the study. The two versions of the questionnaire were divided into different sections to make them clearer and easier to be followed by the respondent. Each section started with a topic heading to make participants aware of the objective of each section.

The first part of both questionnaires included a section requesting the demographic information of the participant such as: gender, nationality, age, educational level and employment contract type. The second section was asking the respondent to provide details about the head/subordinate being appraised. This information included: gender, nationality, educational level and the length of time they both, leader and member, have been working together. Detailed description of the demographic questions is provided in table 3.6 below.

Table 3.6 Demographic questions for research participants

Question	Purpose
Gender	This is to identify the sex of the respondent and to find out the number of males and females.
Nationality	This was to identify the country of origin of the respondent.
Age	To state their current age
Marital status	To define if they are single/married
Education level	To define their highest level of education: University degree, Master degree, PhD or any other
Employment type	To find out if a respondent is employed through a ministry or an agency.
Name of the appraised subordinate (Leaders version only)	To be able to match between dyads. This information is not disclosed to anyone and highly confidential.
Length of the duration	How long the leader and member have been working together as a dyad.

3.7.4 Response rate

Achieving high response rate is an important point to take into account while planning a questionnaire survey. A researcher is required to obtain as high response rate as possible in order to reduce the risk of non-response bias and to ensure that the sample is representative (Groves & Peytcheva, 2008). A covering letter was enclosed along with the questionnaire to explain objectives and importance of the study. The covering letter also explained the criteria for selecting respondents, assuring confidentiality and pointed out the possible benefits of the project to a respondent. Reminders and follow up emails were sent during the process to ensure higher rates of response.

3.8 Data analyses methods

This section provides details on the data analysis methods used in analyzing the collected data. Data from surveys was anonymized and entered into a database created in SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science version 22 for windows). The collected data has been analyzed via the use of different statistical tools like T-tests, Correlation, ANOVA and structural equation modeling. A revision of these techniques along with justifications for their application is provided below.

3.8.1 T-TESTS

Independent sample *t* -test was used in this study to test for any significant difference between the means of two sets of data (e.g. gender, employment contract). This test is regarded as one of the best known parametric methods for comparing the average scores of two samples of interval data. The p value is the cutoff point that is used to define a statistic is significant or not. If a result had a p-value of less than 0.05, then it is considered to be statistically significant and the hypothesis is supported. Other p-values like .01 are also common.

Calculations of effect size were also accompanied with T-tests. Effect size is about the magnitude of the effect that has been observed. According to Field, (2013), this test provides an idea to the researcher about the importance of the effect or in other words, the strength of the relation. Eta-squared method was used here to compute the effect size (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2006; Pallant, 2010) and Cohen's (1988) guidelines as presented by Pallant (2010) have been employed to interpret the effect size value.

3.8.2 Correlations

The correlation technique is used to measure the strength of the association between the variables of the study (Oakshott, 2009). Pearson's correlation coefficient is a widely used measure of correlation. It gives a value between -1 and 1; where -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation (inverse relationship), whilst +1 reflects a positive correlation (move the same direction). The zero score in this measure indicates that there is no correlation, meaning that knowing about one variable tells you nothing about the other variable. Normality test is required prior to conducting the correlation test. This is because the Pearson's correlation coefficient is influenced by the distribution of the data and extreme outsiders. Strengths of correlation have also been interpreted following Cohen's (1988) guidelines.

3.8.3 ANOVA TESTS

Whereas t-test shows whether or not there is a significant mean difference in a dependent variable between two groups, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates the significant mean differences among more than two groups on an interval or ratio-scale dependent variable (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Because some of the study hypotheses were concerned with the difference between sampled groups and dyad tenure, an analysis of variance approach (ANOVA) was used to show whether or not the means of the three groups are significantly different from one another, as indicated by the *F* statistic. "*The F distribution is a probability distribution of sample variances and the family of distributions changes with changes in the sample size*" (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010, P: 347).

To find out more about strengths of correlation, eta-squared method was used and results were interpreted following Cohen's (1988) guidelines. Moreover, since results of ANOVA test do not indicate where the significant difference lies, a *post hoc* test was needed to determine which mean scores displayed significant differences. Among the variety of post hoc tests that exist, the Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test has been employed in this study. The justification of this choice has been discussed in chapter five.

3.8.4 Structural equation modeling

A structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the proposed hypothesis. This allows for the simultaneous evaluation of all hypothesized correlations and also provides an assessment of the model's overall fit with the observed data. According to Vogt, (2007), SEM combines several techniques into a new and analytically powerful whole. SEM uses regression analysis to assess the relations among variables, factor analysis to improve the measurement of the variables, and causal modeling along with regression to yield a way a picture and test regression models that are referred to path analysis (Vogt, 2007). SEM is regarded as a statistical method of confirmation, rather than an exploration one, to test the suitability of a theoretical or hypothesis model (Moustaki, Jöreskog, & Mavridis, 2004).

AMOS 22 analytical software was used. First, the fit of the measurement model using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were estimated. CFA provides the foundation for making meaningful inferences about theoretical constructs and their interrelations (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). After that, the fit of the structural models by path analysis were evaluated. Path analysis refers to dependencies between independent and dependent variables in the structural model. Overall model fit were examined by various fit indices including root mean square error approximation (RMSEA), incremental fit index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and comparative fit index (CFI). SEM requires a large sample size in order to estimate models that carry many observed indicators. This research has satisfied this requirement. Mediation effect was also examined using SEM, where the direct effects of the independent variables on the outcome variables were tested first. This was followed by a test of the effect of the mediation variables.

3.8.5 Control variables

Variables that scholars regarded in their studies to rule out alternative assessments of their studies are referred to '*Control Variables'* (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991). It is asserted that decisions about which control variables to involve could have an influence on the significance levels and the estimated effect sizes of other variables (Becker, 2005). He elaborated that there is a likely to generate misleading findings if improper control variables are involved.

A number of control variables were involved in this study. In the light of the findings that suggest a male preference for *quid pro quo* exchange in both leader-member exchange (Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Haerem, 2012) and organizational exchange relationships (Kuvaas, Buch, & Dysvik, 2012), gender was considered as a control variable. Gender was measured as a dichotomous variable coded such that 1 was male and 2 was female. Dyad tenure was also included as a control variable. The duration of the LMX may have implications for the study findings since they give the exchange partners opportunities to interact and communicate (Wayne et al., 1997; Zhou & Schriesheim, 2009). Buch, Kuvaas, Dysvik, & Schyns, (2014), also expected that followers could respond differently to SLMX and ELMX relationships the longer time they have been employed in the organization. Hence, the length of time reporting to the same leader was controlled. Dyad tenure in this study was measures by three categories ranging from two months to more than 25 months ("2-12 months" was coded as 1, "13-24 months" was coded as 2 and "25 months and above" was coded as 3). Finally, type of employment contract was controlled (1= Ministry, 2= agency). This is because long and short contract employees may hold different expectations against which they evaluate their employment relationship (Cuyper & Witte, 2006).

3.9 Validity and Reliability

It is important that a researcher should ask how their research can be both precise and of practical use to other researchers (Thietart, 2001). Therefore, tests for the reliability of the instrument and validity of the measure should be carried out. According to Sekaran & Bougie, (2010), *reliability* is a test of how consistency a measuring instrument measures whatever concept it is supposed to measure, whereas *validity* is a test of how well a developed instrument measures a specific concept it is intended to measure. Details of these two concepts are provided below.

3.9.1 Validity

According to Vogt, (2007), '*validity refers to the truth or accuracy of the research'* (p: 117). It entails the assurance that the test measures what it claims to measure. Validity plays a critical role in making sure that collected data represent the intention of the research (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Lack of construct validity indicates that the findings are meaningless. Sekaran & Bougie, (2010) stated that validity tests can be grouped into three broad types: content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity.

Content validity ensures that the measure contains an adequate and representative set of items that tap the concept. '*It gauges the degree to which the content of a test or survey matches the content it is intended to measure*' (Vogt, 2007, p: 118). *Criterion-related validity* is usually measured with a correlation coefficient. It is established when the measure differentiates individuals on a criterion it is expected to predict and this can be done through establishing *concurrent validity* or *predictive validity* (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). *Concurrent validity* is established when the scale discriminates individuals who are known to be different; that is they are supposed to score different results on the instrument. *Predictive validity* indicates the ability of the measuring instrument to differentiate between individuals with reference to a future criterion.

The final type *construct validity* testifies how well the results attained from the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). *It is the extent to which an operationalization measures the concept which it purports to measure* (Thietart, 2001, p: 198). Construct validity is assessed through convergent validity and discriminant validity. According to Sekaran & Bougie, (2010), '*convergent validity is established when the scores obtained with two different instruments measuring the same concept are highly correlated*' whereas, *discriminant validity is established when, based on theory, two variables are predicted to be uncorrelated, and the scores obtained by measuring them are indeed empirically found to be so'* (P: 160).

All the measurements used in this study are considered appropriate, where they have been tested in many studies for many years, demonstrated good construct validity and represented what they are intended to research. For example, LMX 7 have been tested for many years and Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), stated that it is the most appropriate measure.

3.9.2 Reliability

Evaluating the reliability of the research consists in establishing and verifying that the different process involved will be able to be repeated with the same results being obtained by other researchers and/ or at different periods (Thietart, 2001). Reliability refers to the extent to which consistent results are obtained using the same measures. It is about the consistency of either the measurement or the design, that is how consistent will multiple measurements be and is the design when different researchers using it to study the same phenomena will arrive at the same conclusions, or at least the same evidence (Vogt, 2007).

There are several forms of reliability that can be measured quite precisely. The common and basic measurement is *reliability coefficients*. These measures range from 0.0, indicating inconsistent results, to 1.0, that reflect a measurement that are entirely consistent. Another type of reliability is *Test-retest reliability*. It is the degree to which two administrations of a test give the same findings (Vogt, 2007). It assesses the consistency of a measure from one time to another. *Inter-rater reliability* is among the most popular and important types of reliability. It is the extent to which two or more raters or judges agree. That is, assessing the consistency of results across items within a test. *Internal consistency reliability* is another critical type of reliability. It refers to the degree to which different parts of a test or items in a test intended to measure the same things in fact do so. It assesses the degree to which different raters/observers give consistent estimates of the same phenomenon. Finally, *Split-half reliability* is often measured by computing the correlation between scores on the odd-numbered items that score on the even-numbered items. You can get an assessment of the consistency of the questions by dividing the questions in two and correlating individual's scores on the two halves.

3.9.2.1 Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's alpha is considered as the mother of all split-half reliabilities (Vogt, 2007). Researchers typically use it to find whether several items that they think measure the same thing are correlated. This measure is considered as the most popular test of the internal coherence of a scale. The value α varies between 0 and 1. The closer the value to 1, the stronger is the internal cohesion of the scale (that is, its reliability) (Thietart, 2001).

This research used Cronbach's alpha analysis to measure the reliability and confidence of the questions (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Results of this test revealed very good results for all the measures (results presented in the next chapter).

3.10 Research Ethics

Ethics are considered as one of the standards that guide the overall research process. Research ethics are a critical part when formulating the research design. Ensuring the well-being and welfare of the participants are not compromised and consideration of ethical issues in a research project is a must. According to Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, (2012), ethics refers to the standards and behaviors that provide guidance on your conduct in relation to the rights of those respondents in your research. They indicated that these concerns about ethics are greatest when research involves human participant, irrespective of whether the research is conducted person-to-person. Bryman & Bell, (2015) have also stated that ethical consideration include four important principles. The first is that researchers should not cause any sort of harm to participants. Secondly, researches must protect participants from invasion of privacy. Researchers should also conduct their research without any sort of deception. Finally, researchers are obligated to protect participant's data.

Although the objective paradigm applied in this research presents fewer ethical problems compared to the subjective paradigm, still the potential risk of ethical problems cannot be completely ignored. The key ethical concerns associated with this research have been highlighted below along with control steps followed by the researcher to address these ethical points.

3.10.1 The ethical approval process

This research has followed Hull University Business School's regulations and procedures for ensuring ethical research. Approval by the Business School's ethics committee was guaranteed prior to any data collection. The intended questionnaire and procedure for data collection across the time points were submitted in detail to the school research committee to gain permission.

Prior permission was also guaranteed from the Colleges of Technology, where this study took place, by email followed by a personal visit. This was to explain the nature and importance of the research in a face-to-face conversation. A formal letter was sought to enable the researcher to commence the fieldwork and distribute a survey among college lecturers. Fisher & Downes, (2008) stated that securing the right to privacy, access to personal record and confidential information, and information consent are major ethical dilemma in management when negotiating with the organization. All these issues were taken into account.

3.10.2 Participant's consent

Participant consent to take part in this study was solicited by providing them clear information; describing the aim of the research as well as explaining what they were expected to do if agreed to participate. Discussion of confidentiality was part of the informed consent process and the participant's had the option to withdraw from research at any time, if they wish to do so. The researcher's contact details were made available in case of any doubt.

3.10.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

According to Oliver, (2010), research in the social science is often concerned with collecting data from individual, hence questions about the way in which people, who provide the data, should be treated by researcher are raised. Respondents in this research were guaranteed with anonymity and confidentiality. Oliver, (2010) have indicated that anonymity provides several advantages to the research process. A principal advantage of anonymity in research is that it encourages objectivity throughout the research process. People are more encouraged to provide actual facts, feelings and data when they are confident that their actual identities are not revealed. Moreover, Oliver, (2010) stated that anonymity makes it easier to explore issues that might be somewhat unpopular or which are regarded as sensitive. The proposed plans for confidentiality should be made clear to potential participants before they are asked to give their informed consent to participate in the research.

The anonymity and confidentiality of respondents has been strictly maintained in this study. Anonymity was protected by coding each returned questionnaire for administrative purpose only. Leaders were requested to provide the name of the appraised member. This was to make it easier for the researcher to match between dyad. These identities were not revealed at all and were treated in high confidence.

3.10.4 The storage of data

Plans of retaining research data is another critical point related to research ethics. Passage of time is considered as the main difficulty with the storage of research. Careful thought was given to how these returned sheets are stored. All data of the study, including the original survey sheets and electronic files, have been secured carefully and kept in a safe place. Only the researcher had direct access to the completed questionnaires returned. Oliver, (2010) has suggested that it is the norm to present the summative analysis data collected from completed questionnaires in a quantitative research, and not to save all the primary data. All collected data were coded and entered in an excel sheet for further analysis and saved in private.

4 Data Analysis Chapter

This chapter examines the findings of this study and attempts to confirm or refute the hypothesis that have been argued pertaining to compare the leader-member exchange with different levels of quality versus social Leader-member exchange (SLMX) and economic Leader-member exchange (ELMX) as two different scales of LMX. This primarily includes testing the two models correlation and predictive linkage between LMX, SLMX and ELMX relationships and employee outcome's; namely job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention. Comparison has also considered social loafing and self-efficacy as potential mediators in these relationships. In the interest of generating a comprehensive analysis, results were also compared with respect to dyads tenure to investigate its effects on different study variables.

4.1 Data treatment

This section presents how the data gathered from respondents was treated. This treatment is important as it prepares the data for statistical analysis. All results were generated from the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 22 for windows.

Pallant, (2010) emphasized the importance of checking that data are not violating any of the assumptions underlying the statistical techniques used in the study to address research questions. Thus, before performing any data treatment in this study, it is a good practice to produce a range of descriptive analysis using frequencies, mean, standard deviation, and graphs to examine the distribution of the responses. Data treatment involved data screening; assessing the accuracy of data entry, determining outliers, estimating normality and collinearity. After that, Cronbach's alpha test was used in an attempt to examine reliability of the measurements. Next, data gathered for LMX, ELMX and SLMX relationships were analyzed by measuring the level of non-independence of the data for dyadic treatment. Further details are in the following subsections.

4.1.1 Study sample and response rate

The target population of this study consisted academic lecturers in colleges of Technology in the Sultanate of Oman. LMX is crucial in higher and distance education. Majority of the studies in LMX were examined in non- academic institutions when referring to different meta-analysis related to the field of LMX. LMX is crucial in higher and distance education. Higher education institutions have failed to transform themselves to meet the changing needs of the society (Keller, 2008; Latchem & Hanna, 2001). Power, (2013) indicated that LMX has been described as an ideal complement to transformational leaderships because of its support to the autonomous nature of the academic faculty, creating social capital, act as an antecedent to organizational citizenship behavior and transformative behaviors, and promote high quality relationships between employees. The current research targets academic context to further provide insight to higher education literature in Oman. It emphasized the concept of economic and social leader-member exchange as two different perspectives. This is critical for higher education institutions' in Oman as they recruit lecturers from different nationalities. Targeting dyads in an academic context is likely to reflect the nature of economic and social exchange relationships and their influence on study variables. The hierarchical structure in these colleges facilitates collecting dyadic data, where the sample compromised different head of sections among college departments as the leaders and their reporting lecturers.

Data has been collected from leaders, head of sections, and their reporting staff, lecturers, working in two Colleges of Technology. Majority of the respondents came from one college (N= 193). The final sample for this research comprised of 227 dyads. Independent sample t-tests were conducted between the two samples to test homogeneity. The results showed that there was no significant difference in the mean scores between the two sites of the study with respect to all variables for both leaders and members; herby, confirming that the data from both colleges are homogeneous and represent the same population. Hence, data from the leaders in both colleges have been reliably combined to form a single sample and same case for the rest of the study variables. The sample compromised of 25 leaders. In total, 400 questionnaires were sent out to both colleges, out of which 256 questionnaires were completed and returned. With 317 returns, the initial response rate was 64%; however, after filtering the responses, some questionnaires were not suitable for inclusion in the analysis; some questionnaires had more than half questions empty with no answers and others where single directions questionnaires (either leader with no employee and vice versa). The final response rate is 57%. Table 4.1 below exhibits the breakdown of questionnaires sent out and the final response rates.

Table 4.1 Research questionnaires breakdown

Research sites	**Questionnaires sent**	**Questionnaires returned**	**Usable responses**	**Response rate**
SCT	250	215	193	77%
HCT	150	41	34	23%
Total	**400**	**256**	**227**	**57%**

4.1.2 Sample Demographics

This section provides the characteristics of study sample for both leaders and members. Sample demographics presented here include participants' gender, marital status, age, nationality, educational level, employment type and finally the duration of the dyad. The demographic details helps in providing a generalized view about the sample involved in the study.

4.1.2.1 GENDER, MARITAL STATUS, AND AGE

Responses from leaders' questionnaires consisted mainly of males (60.8% males and 39.2% females). The majority of the leader's respondents reported being married (84.1%). The followers' sample compromised of (68.7%) of males and (31.3%) of females. The vast majority of member's respondent's sample were married with (87.2%).

The highest number of leader's respondents (39.6 %) belonged to the age group of 35-39 years old. The age group of 30-34 years old had the lowest percentage of leader's respondents with only (6.2%) of the total respondent. Most of the member's sample groups also belonged to the age group of 35-39 years old with a percentage of (30%). Tables 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 below show the frequency distribution of the gender, the age brackets of the respondents and the frequency distribution for marital status.

Table 4.2 Gender of leaders and members

	Leaders		Members	
Gender	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**

Male	138	60.8	156	68.7
Female	89	39.2	71	31.3
Total	**227**	**100**	**227**	**100**

Table 4.3 Marital status of leaders and members

	Leaders		**Members**	
Marital status	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Married	191	84.1	198	87.2
Single	36	15.9	29	12.8
Total	**227**	**100**	**227**	**100**

Table 4.4 Leaders and members age group

	Leaders		**Members**	
Gender	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
25-29	19	8.4	9	4.0

30-34	14	6.2	55	24.2
35-39	90	39.6	68	30.0
40-44	20	8.8	46	20.3
45+	84	37.0	49	21.6
Total	**227**	**100**	**227**	**100**

4.1.2.2 NATIONALITY AND EMPLOYEMENT CONTRACT

Majority of the study participants are non-Omani (89% for leaders and 92.1 % for members). Results also revealed that most of the respondents are having agency contracts (67 % for leaders and 71.4% for members). Agency contracts are yearly renewed contracts. The rest of the sample is employed directly by the ministry. Frequencies are shown in table 4.5 and 4.6 below.

Table 4.5 Nationality of leaders and members

	Leaders		**Members**	
Nationality	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Omani	25	11	18	7.9
Non-Omani	202	89	209	92.1
Total	**227**	**100**	**227**	**100**

Table 4.6 Employment contract of leaders and members

	Leaders		Members	
Employment Contract	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Ministry	75	33	65	28.6
Agency	152	67	162	71.4
Total	**227**	**100**	**227**	**100**

4.1.2.3 DYAD DURATION

Interestingly, (87.7%) of the respondents dyad tenure were two years and less, distributed as (41.9%) for dyads from 1-12 months and (45.8%) for 13-24 months dyad durations. Respondent's with higher dyad durations, 25 months and above, only compromised (12.3%) of the overall sample. Frequencies are shown in table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7 Dyad tenure of the overall sample

Dyad Durations	Frequency	Percentage
1-12 months	95	41.9
13-24 months	104	45.8

25 months and above	28	12.3
Total	**227**	**100**

4.1.2.4 Highest level of educational achievement

The respondents were also requested to state their highest academic qualification in order to investigate their formal education. Most of the sample indicated having a postgraduate qualification with the majority having a master degree (71.4% for leaders and 71.8% for followers) as the highest level of educational achievement. Table 4.8 below exhibits the frequency distribution for highest level of educational achievement for both leaders and followers.

Table 4.8 Highest educational achievement

	Leaders		Members	
Educational Level	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
BSC	1	.4	16	7.0
MSC	162	71.4	163	71.8
PhD	64	28.2	48	21.1
Total	**227**	**100**	**227**	**100**

4.1.3 Descriptive statistics of study key variables

The summaries of descriptive statistics are based on a total sample of N=227. These figures are from the original data. Generally, all the figures, namely, range, mean and standard deviation of the variables are reasonable. For example, LMX 7 with 7 items using a 5-point Likert scale, the minimum score is 12 while the maximum score is 34.5 with a mean score of 28. Table 4.9 below provides an overview of the descriptive statistics in relation to the overall (total) scores of the key variables of the study.

Table 4.9 Descriptive statistics if different study variables

Descriptive Statistics						
	N	**Range**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
LMX	227	22.5	12.0	34.5	27.76	3.266
ELMX	227	24.0	8.0	32.0	18.86	5.57
SLMX	227	20.5	13.5	34.0	25.97	3.17
J Performance	227	25.0	25.0	50.0	41.19	5.23
OCB	227	24.0	12.0	36.0	27.99	3.86
turnover intention	227	12.0	3.0	15.0	6.33	2.79
SL	227	28.0	8.0	36.0	15.81	5.96
SE	227	24.0	22.0	46.0	39.25	4.39
Valid N (listwise)	227					

4.1.4 Internal reliability

The internal reliability for the various instruments of the current study was tested using Cronbach's alpha. The purpose of Cronbach's alpha test is to provide an estimate of consistency across all items. Results revealed that the internal reliability for different study instruments are very good, being above 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2006; Hair et al. , 2010). Each of the scales used was measured using a scale that ranges from 1 to 5. The range is representing (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The negative worded items in this questionnaire, particularly job performance, SLMX, Self -efficacy and OCB were reversed before performing the reliability test. The reliability of both questionnaires (leaders and members) used in this study revealed sufficient strong results that support the study results. Details are depicted in table 4. 10 below.

Table 4.10 Overall reliability test of leader and member questionnaires

Questionnaire	N of items	Mean	Std. Deviation	α
Leader's Ques	41	131.55	10.79	.75
Member's Ques	43	145.51	13.76	.79

4.1.5 Data Treatment

Prior to any analysis, it is recommended to screen the data carefully (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Data accuracy was assured by proofreading the original data against the computerized data in both excel and SPSS sheets. Descriptive reports were also examined using graphics such as histogram, scatter-plot and box-plot. Data treatment involved data screening for any possible errors, assessing outliers, assessing normality, collinearity, checking for missing values and checking data assumptions.

4.1.5.1 Checking for error

This is where a researcher search for values that falls outside the range of possible values. An inspection of the frequencies of each variable and all the errors was performed. Some data entry errors were located and corrected. Having located these errors, the author entertained caution and surveyed the whole data set again to ensure rigour and make sure that all data was correctly entered. Descriptive statistics and frequencies were used to check for possible errors.

4.1.5.2 Outliers

Outliers are defined as observations with unique combination of characteristics which are defined as distinctly different from other observations (Hair et al., 2010). Outliers can have a substantial impact on analysis, where they can either be problematic or beneficiary depending on the context of the analysis. In the current study, Box plots were used to highlight outliers. All outliers were genuine, as data entry were checked for these items and no errors were found. Outliers can occur from procedural error, data entry error or coding mistake. Since the author entertained caution and surveyed the whole data to make sure that all data was correctly entered, this possibility is deleted.

Hair et al., (2010) suggested that some outliers appear as extraordinary observations without any explanation; they argue that these outliers should be retained unless specific evidence is available that discount them as outliers. Moreover, the researcher decided to further investigate these outliers by applying “The outlier labeling rule technique” (Hoaglin, (1986). This technique is based on multiplying the interquartile range (IQR) by a factor of 2.2. Most of the outliers identified earlier using the box-plot were not identified as outliers any more subsequent to the use of this technique. Nonetheless, comparing the mean scores and corresponding 5% trimmed means, very little difference can be seen which indicate the presence of a very small number of outliers. Hence based on the above discussion, it was decided to make no changes to flagged outliers and the data was retained in its true form for data analysis.

4.1.5.3 Assessing the assumptions

Testing for the assumptions underlying the statistical bases for multivariate analysis is the final step in investigating the data. When the assumptions are violated, the results may be distorted and biased in multivariate analysis. These assumptions can be tested for two levels; univariate and multivariate. Details of these tests are discussed in the subsequent subsections.

4.1.5.3.1 Testing normality

Normality is the most essential assumption in multivariate analysis. It refers to '*the shape of the data distribution for an individual metric variable and its correspondence to the normal distribution, the benchmark for statistical methods*' (Hair et al., 2010). Normality describes the symmetric bell curve of the sample, where the middle of the curve has the greatest frequency and smaller frequencies are towards the extremes (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2006). Departure form normality is claimed to lead to invalid statistical results. In order to assess data normality, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, skewness, kurtosis values were computed for leaders and followers ratings on the LMX, ELMX, SLMX, job performance, OCB, turnover intention, self-efficacy and social loafing.

Univariate normality for a particular variable can be tested by assessing the graphs including histogram and normal probability plot. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk tests are particularly used to test normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). These two tests compare the scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation. The Kolmogorove-Smirnov statistic quantifies a distance between the empirical distribution function of the sample and the cumulative distribution function of the reference distribution, or between the empirical distribution functions of two samples. The rule for interpreting the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is that if the result is non-significant (above 0.05), then the distribution is considered to be normal; that is the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution. However, significant caution is maintained, since the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test has a propensity to reach significant values when data sets are large; even when the data is normal. Given the large sample size, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality achieved significant results for all key variables. However this has been read in the light of the large data-sets (N=227). Normality test results are shown in table 4.11.

The skewness and kurtosis for all the distributions have also been numerically computed. The skewness value provides an indication of the symmetry of the distribution, whereas kurtosis value provides information about the 'peakedness' of the distribution (Pallant, 2010). The results showed that some skewness and kurtosis is present in all variables as expected. However, Hair et al. (2010) stated that for sample size larger than 200 units, the effects of non-normality tend to be negligible; as sample size has the effect of increasing statistical power by reducing sampling error with the result that larger sample size reduces the detrimental effect of non-normality. Pallant, (2010) also suggested that such results are quite common in larger samples. Furthermore, this does not necessarily indicate a problem with the scale, but rather reflects the underlying nature of the construct. Many scales and measures used in the social science have scales either positively or negatively (Pallant, 2010). Table 4.12 below shows the results of the skewness and kurtosis.

It can be concluded that the non-zero skewness and Kurtosis will not make a substantive difference to the analysis since the sample size of this study is 227 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Moreover, George, & Mallery, (2010), suggested that values that range between (-2 and 2) are considered to be acceptable for proving normal univariate distribution. All results ranged between these two values with the exception of LMX score. However, although LMX scored a little higher than this (2.171), it can be assumed as normal as the sample of the data is large. As the critical value is based on z distribution of significance level, this value is smaller than the value of the significant level of $p < .01$ which is 2.58.

Graphical representation including histograms, Q-Q plots and box-plots were drawn up in order to visually assess the normality of the data (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2010). When investigating the histogram and Q-Q plot visually, it can be seen that all the variables had a reasonable normal distribution. In case of non-normality, it is advisable to use non-parametric tests (Pallant, 2010). However, as indicated by Tabachnick & Fidell, (2007), some variables, by virtue of their definition will yield a skewed distribution as most people will receive scores at the higher or lower ends. They indicated that using parametric tests is acceptable. Hence, parametric tests were applied, taking all the above into account.

Table 4.11 The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LMX Av	.09	227	.000	.96	227	.000
ELMX Av	.07	227	.006	.98	227	.008
SLMX AV	.12	227	.000	.97	227	.000
turnover intention	.12	227	.000	.92	227	.000
Total OCB	.07	227	.004	.96	227	.000

Total SL	.13	227	.000	.92	227	.000
T Performance	.07	227	.002	.96	227	.000
T SE	.12	227	.000	.94	227	.000

Table 4.12 The results of the skewness and kurtosis

Variable	N	Mean	5% Trimmed Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
LMX	227	27.76	27.89	-.85	2.17
ELMX	227	18.86	18.78	.22	-.65
SLMX	227	25.97	26.06	-.63	1.32
JP	227	41.19	41.39	-.37	-.14
OCB	227	27.99	28.13	-.64	1.57
TI	227	6.33	6.15	.60	-.12
SL	227	15.81	15.51	.45	-.003
SE	227	39.25	39.47	-.83	.55

4.1.5.3.2 Linearity and Collinearity

Linearity of the relationship between dependent and independent variable represents the degree to which the change in the dependent variable is associated with the independent variable (Hair et al., 2010). This assumption checks the existence of a straight-line relationship between each pair of dependent variable (Pallant, 2010). All the variables showed an acceptable linearity.

Collinearity was also checked with variance inflation factor (VIF) values, using SPSS to assess its possibility. The VIF value for LMX and SLMX was well below the common cut-off threshold of 10.00, which indicates the absence of collinearity issue (Hair et al., 2010). Collinearity is therefore unlikely to threaten parameter estimates.

4.1.6 Measuring non-independence

Non-independence exists when two dyad members share something in common (Kenny et al., 2006). The present research is concerned with comparison of many dyads and a standard dyadic design, where each person has only one partner. It has been suggested that the analysis of a standard dyadic design should always begin with the collection of data from both partners of the dyad followed by an analysis of the degree of independence (Armstrong, 1999). Considerable amount of the research in interpersonal behavior ignore the complex, multi-attribute nature of the relationships in favor of single-item scales, which assess but a single relational property (Baxter, 1988). Kenny, (1988) argued that when measuring both members of the dyad, it is likely that their scores are correlated or not independent. He elaborated that when using person as the unit of analysis and dyad is ignored, the independence assumption is likely to be violated leading to misleading results in the significance test results. In case of interdependence, it is suggested that the two scores should be averaged for each dyad before comparison tests are carried out between groups and use 0.2 level of significance (Armstrong, 1999). Following this analysis, results revealed that there were significant correlations between LMX, SLMX and ELMX dyads at (0.2) level of significance, which indicate that interdependence do exist. The average score for each dyad was calculated and used for further analysis.

4.2 Correlations

Correlation analysis is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2010). Bivariate correlation analysis was conducted between different study variables. The relationships between variables were investigated using Pearson correlation coefficient. Preliminary analysis was performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality and linearity. Strength of correlation have been interpreted following Cohen's (1988, pp. 79-81) guideline, as presented in Pallant (2010: 134). The guidelines are presented in table 4.13 below. Overall correlation matrix is shown in table 4.14.

Table 4.13 Interpretation of correlation strength as per the guidelines of Cohen's (1988)

Strength of correlation	Corresponding value of correlation
Small	R = 0.1 to 0.29
Medium	R = 0.30 to 0.49
large	R = 0.50 to 1

Results generated using Pearson correlation coefficient showed that LMX had the following correlations:

- A small, negative correlation with ELMX, ($r = -.215$, $p = .001$).
- A small positive correlation with SLMX , ($r = .216$, $p = .001$)
- A medium positive correlation with job performance, ($r = .321$, $p = .00$).
- A medium negative correlation with social loafing ($r = -.380^{**}$, $p = .00$).

- A small positive correlation with dyad duration (r = .217, p = .01)

Results generated using Pearson correlation coefficient indicated that ELMX had the following correlations:

- A small positive correlation with SLMX , (r = .190, p =.004).
- Medium negative correlation with job performance (r= -.462, p = 0.000).
- Small negative correlation with self-efficacy (r= -.171, p = 0.01).
- Large positive correlation with social loafing (r= .615, p = .000).
- Small positive correlation with OCB (r= .175, p = .008).

Results generated using Pearson correlation coefficient revealed that SLMX had the following correlations

- Small positive correlation with job performance (r= .145, p = .029)
- Small positive correlation with OCB (r=. 142, p =.033)

Output from running Pearson correlation coefficient have also showed that there is a large negative correlation between job performance and social loafing (r= -.590 at the 0.01 level). Moreover, there was a small negative correlation between self-efficacy and turnover intention (r= -.288 at the 0.01 level) and a small positive correlation between self-efficacy and OCB (r= .157 at the 0.05 level). The final significant correlation was found between social loafing and turnover intention, where the relation revealed a small positive correlation (r= .133 at the 0.05 level).

Table 4.14 Results of Pearson correlation coefficient

		LMX Av	ELMX Av	SLMX Av	JP	SE total	Total SL	TI	OCB Total	dyad duration
LMX Av	Pearson Correlation	1	-.21**	.21**	.32**	-.056	-.38**	-.11	-.01	.21**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.001	.000	.400	.000	.09	.83	.001
	N (227)									
ELMX Av	Pearson Correlation		1	.19**	-.46**	-.17**	.61**	.12	.17**	-.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.004	.000	.010	.000	.064	.008	.76
	N (227)									
SLMX Av	Pearson Correlation			1	.14*	-.007	-.009	-.032	.14*	.10
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.02	.91	.88	.63	.03	.12
	N (227)									
JP	Pearson Correlation				1	-.055	-.59**	-.03	-.08	.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.40	.000	.63	.21	.26
	N (227)									
SE total	Pearson Correlation					1	-.02	-.28**	.15*	-.10
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.76	.000	.018	.11
	N (227)									

Total SL	Pearson Correlation						1	.13*	.12	-.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)							.046	.06	.17
	N (227)									
TI	Pearson Correlation							1	-.04	.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)								.51	.25
	N (227)									
OCB Total	Pearson Correlation								1	.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)									.41
	N (227)									
dyad duration	Pearson Correlation									1
	Sig. (2-tailed)									
	N (227)									

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.3 T-test results

Independent sample t-tests have been employed in this study to test for significant differences in the mean scores of two different groups of respondents. T-test has been conducted to identify whether there are significant differences between managers' and employees' demographic variables and their perspectives on LMX, ELMX, SLMX, job performance, OCB, turnover intention, self-efficacy, and social loafing.

4.3.1 The findings from the independent-sample t-test analysis based on Gender for both leaders and members

The mean scores obtained by both males and females subordinates genders are not significantly different for any of the variables investigated, therefore both males and females subordinates can be considered to be homogeneous. Homogeneity in gender was also obtained within leaders' responses except for SLMX. There was a significant difference in the mean score between male and female leaders as shown in table 4.15 below [*t* (5.261) = .312, p = .023]. However, when calculating the eta squared to know the magnitude of the difference in means (mean difference= .857), the score was very small (eta squared= .0002) according to the guidelines proposed by (Cohen, 1988), pp. 284-7 for interpreting this value. Therefore, we can assume that this mean difference would not affect further analysis.

Table 4.15 Results of T-test on leaders and members gender

	Group	N	Mean	F	Sig	T
SLMX	Males	138	20.23	5.26	.023	.31
	Females	89	20.11			

4.3.2 The findings from the independent-sample t-test analysis based on nationality and type of employment contract for both leaders and members

No significant difference was found between the mean scores of neither members nor leader's nationality with respect to LMX, ELMX, SLMX, JP, OCB, TI, SL, SE and homogeneity assumption was not violated. Moreover, respondents employment contract demonstrated no significant difference in the mean scores of different study variables expect for Leaders employment contract and ELMX relationships were there was a significant difference in the mean score [*t* (-2.099)= .037, p = .047]. This indicates that leaders with agency contracts are more concerned with ELMX relations compared to Ministry leaders. Yet this difference is considered to be small when calculating the eta squared score (.018). Consequently, we can assume that this mean difference would not affect further analysis. Table 4.16 below shows this analysis.

Table 4.16 Results of T-test on leaders employment contract and ELMX

	Group	N	Mean	F	Sig	T
ELMX	Ministry	75	17.82	-2.09	.047	.037
	Agency	152	19.38			

4.4 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test

ANOVA is so called because it compares the variance (variability in scores) between the different groups. F ratio is calculated and the larger the F ratio, the more variability is represented between groups. A significant F test reveals that we can reject the null hypothesis if there were any significant mean differences. One way ANOVA tests is conducted on a number of constructs being investigated when the independent variable has multiple categories i.e. dyad tenure in this study. The ANOVA F-ratio indicates that there is at least one mean difference among all the group sets that is significant.

For the purpose of this study, respondents were clustered into three groups according to the length of their dyads (relationship between leader and his or her respective member). The first group was for newly established dyads up to twelve months (N=95). The second group included relations that ranged between thirteen months to twenty four months (N=104). The last group comprised dyads that lasted for twenty five months and more (N=28). Having grouped respondents into the three categories of dyad tenures; one-way ANOVA tests were performed to see if there was any significant difference in the mean scores. The mean scores of LMX, ELMX, SLMX, job performance, OCB, turnover intention, self-efficacy, and social loafing were investigated to get clearer picture about the effect of dyad tenure on different thesis variables. Results indicated that there are some mean differences among some of the variables investigated. Details are shown in table 4.18 below.

4.4.1 Post-hoc test

Post hoc tests can be further used to find out where the difference lies between groups. The results generated from the ANOVA test do not indicate where the significant difference lies. Therefore, a post hoc test or posttest is a follow up test. It is conducted to recognize which mean scores are displaying significant difference (Pallant, 2010). In choosing the appropriate post hoc test, Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (Tukey's HSD) test had to be discounted as this test can be employed only in the case of equal sample size for all the groups. The sample size for each of the groups being studied here is not the same. Therefore, Tukey's HSD pot hoc could not be used here (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2006).

As the treatment group sizes vary in this study, the post hoc test had to be selected with caution. Both Bonferroni, Scheffė and Tukey's tests need equal group sizes in order to produce correct findings (Field, 2013). He argued that in case of difference in group sizes, Hochberg's GT2 and Gabriel's pairwise test can be employed to identify mean difference. However, he argued that Gabriel's test can be too liberal if sample sizes vary markedly and advised using Hochberg's GT2 test if the group sizes are very different. The Games-Howell procedure is recommended in case of population variance are unequal and the sample sizes are unequal. However, the Games-Howell procedure is considered to be liberal for small group sizes (Field, 2013). It can be concluded from the above argument that Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test is the most appropriate test for this study and has been utilized to ascertain significant mean differences between groups with unequal variances.

4.4.2 Calculating effect size

Palant, (2010), illustrated that scoring a significant result does not always mean that the difference between mean is critical, especially in large samples where small differences can become statistically significant even if the difference between the groups is of little practical importance. She, elaborated that a researcher should always be careful in interpreting the significance of the results and considers other factors. Further investigation should be carried to investigate the effect size of the difference between groups. Eta squared is one of the most common effect size statistics. This value can be calculated by dividing the sum of squares between groups by the total sum of squares. Eta square for significant results identified by ANOVA test were calculated, this is to find the real difference between means. Cohen's (1988) classification of effect size was used (.01 small, .06 medium and .14 large).

4.4.3 Test of homogeneity of variance

The homogeneity of variance can be tested by Levene's test for homogeneity, which tests whether the variance in scores is the same for each of the three groups. It tests the null hypothesis which suggests equality of variance in different groups. The significant value should be greater than .05 to confirm that the assumption of homogeneity is not violated. The results of the Levene's test showed that the Sig. value for LMX, ELMX, SLMX, job performance, OCB, turnover intention, social loafing and self-efficacy is greater than 0.05. Hence, it can be concluded that the assumption of the homogeneity of variance is not violated for all study variables. Results are depicted in table 4.17 below.

Table 4.17 Homogeneity test results

Variable	Levene's statistic	Sig.
LMX	.36	.70
ELMX	.95	.38
SLMX	2.98	.053
Job performance	.49	.61
OCB	.17	.85
Turnover intention	.53	.59
Social loafing	2.79	.06
Self-efficacy	.336	. 72

4.4.4 ANOVA results

The following set of tables, indicate if there was any difference in the mean scores obtained. With respect to some of the variables, the ANOVA test yielded significant results implying that dyads tenure have an impact on some of the study variables as illustrated further in this section. Table 4.18 below summarizes the ANOVA results.

Table 4.18 ANOVA test results

Leader-member exchange (LMX)					
Dyad duration	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F-Ratio**	**Significance**
1-12 months	95	27.06	2.99	5.57	.004
13-24 months	104	28.01	3.52		
25 months and above	28	29.23	2.58		
Total	227	27.76	3.27		
Economic Leader-member exchange (ELMX)					
Dyad duration	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F-Ratio**	**Significance**
1-12 months	95	18.27	5.10	6.51	.002
13-24 months	104	20.11	5.74		
25 months and above	28	16.25	5.41		
Total	227	18.87	5.58		
Job Performance					
Dyad duration	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F-Ratio**	**Significance**

1 1-12 months	95	29.51	3.94		
2 13-24 months	104	28.88	4.39		
3 25 months and above	28	31.32	3.14	4.005	.02
Total	227	41.19	5.23		
			Social Loafing		
Dyad duration	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F-Ratio**	**Significance**
1 1-12 months	95	15.59	6.34		
2 13-24 months	104	17.07	5.72		
3 25 months and above	28	12.00	3.43	8.65	.00
Total	227	15.81	5.97		

One way ANOVA results for Leader-member exchange (LMX) (figure 4.1) revealed a statistically significant difference between groups, F (5.570), p=, 004. The effect size calculated using eta squared was .05 indicating a medium effect size of dyad tenure on LMX. Post hoc comparisons using Hochberg's GT test showed that dyad lengths of 25 months and above had LMX score that was significantly higher than dyad lengths of 1-12 months (mean difference=2.17 , p= .005). Dyads ranging from 1-12 months also had lower LMX score compared to the 13-24 months, yet not a significant difference. Dyad duration of 13-24 months did not score any significant mean difference with group 3. SLMX means plot showed a positive relationship with dyad tenure (figure 4.2), although results did not reveal any significant difference between groups. Means of these two variables showed a gradual increase as the dyad tenure increases. Based on these findings, *$H_{6.1}$ which stated that there will be a positive relationship between LMX, SLMX and dyad tenure* was supported. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 show the means plot for LMX and SLMX respectively.

Figure 4.1 Means plot for LMX construct

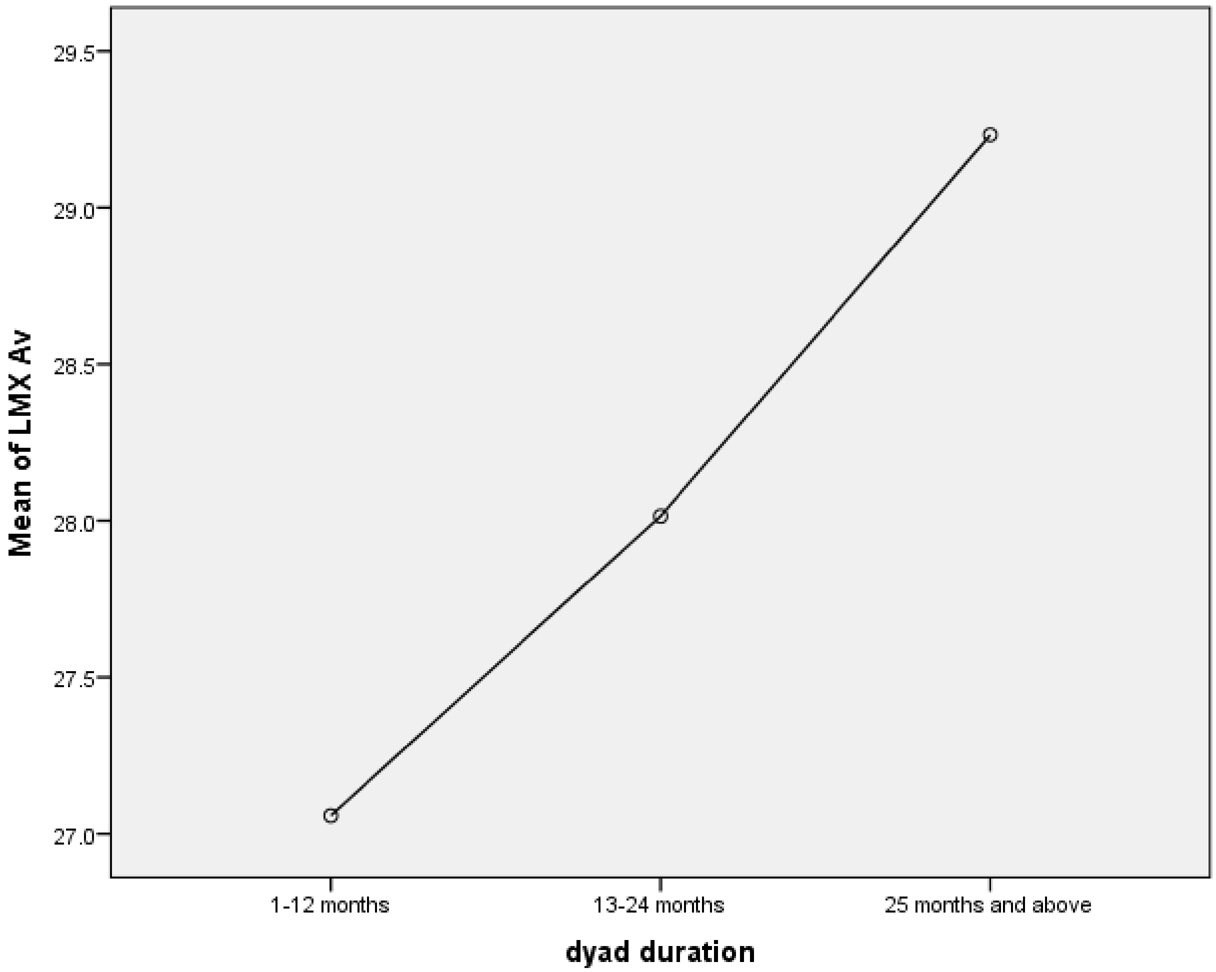
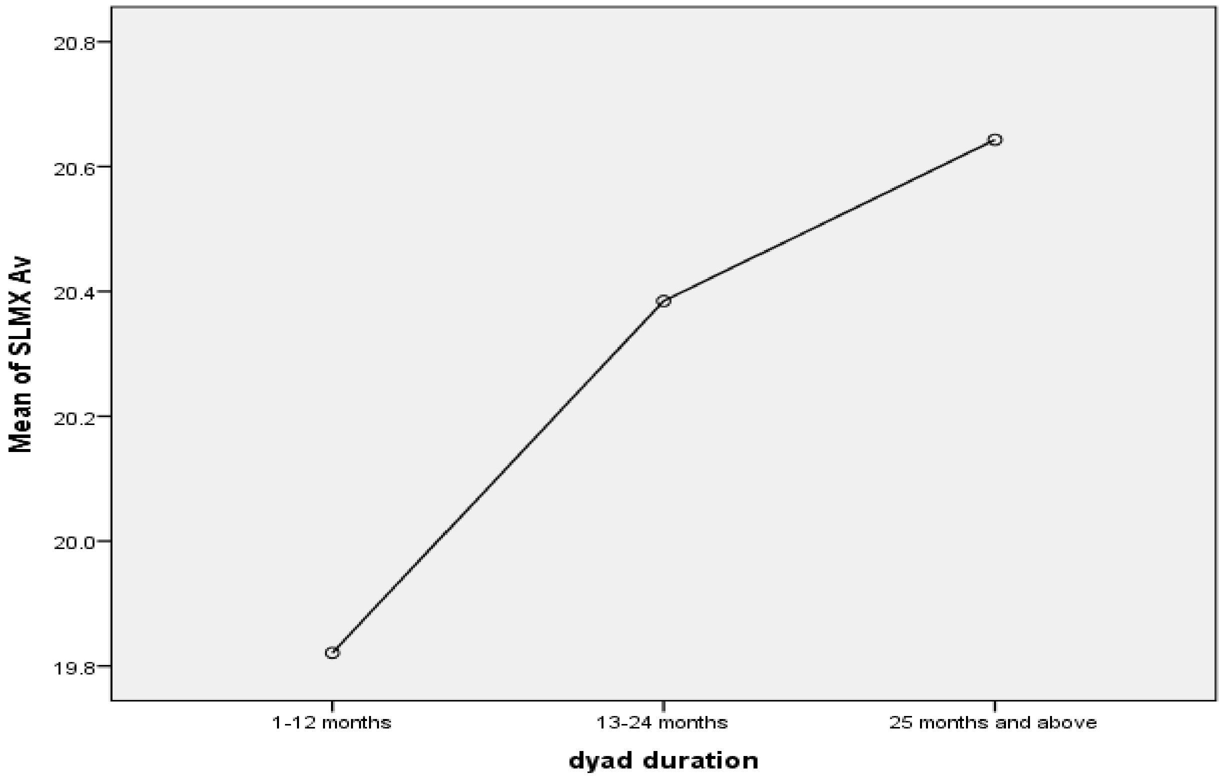
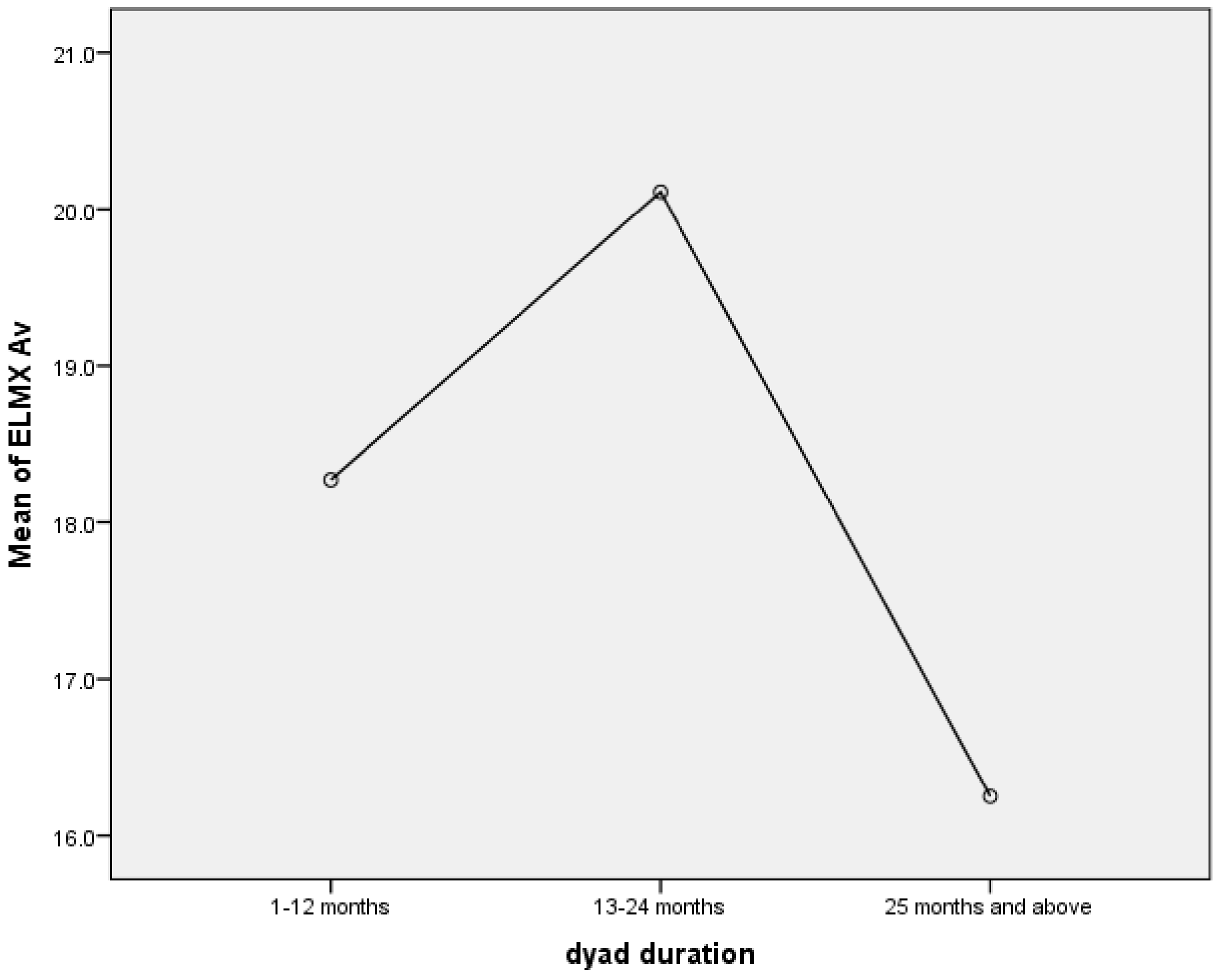


Figure 4.2 Means plot for SLMX construct



One way ANOVA results for Economic Leader-member exchange (ELMX) displayed a statistically significant difference between means, F (6.51), p= .002 (figure 4.3). The effect size was medium with an Eta squared value of .05. Hochberg's GT posttest revealed that dyad tenures with 13-24 months scored higher ELMX result in comparison with dyads of 25 months and above (mean difference = 3.86, p= .003). This finding support $H_{6.2}$ which stated that *"There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and ELMX"*. Figure 4.3 below shows the means plot for ELMX.

Figure 4.3 Means plot for ELMX construct



One way ANOVA result for job performance (JP) showed a statistically significant difference between groups, F (4.005), p= .020 (figure 4.4). The effect size was small with eta squared calculated at .03. Hochberg's GT posttest revealed that dyad durations of 25 months and above scored higher job performance compared to 13- 24 months (mean difference = 2.45, p= .015). Overall, dyads of 25 months and above scored the highest job performance scores compared to other groups. It can be concluded that $H_{6.3}$*: There will be a causal relationship between dyad* *tenure, employee performance, OCB and employee turnover intention* was partially supported for the job performance construct only as other constructs results were not significant. Figures 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6 below shows the means plot for job performance, turnover intention and OCB.

Figure 4.4 Means plot for job performance construct

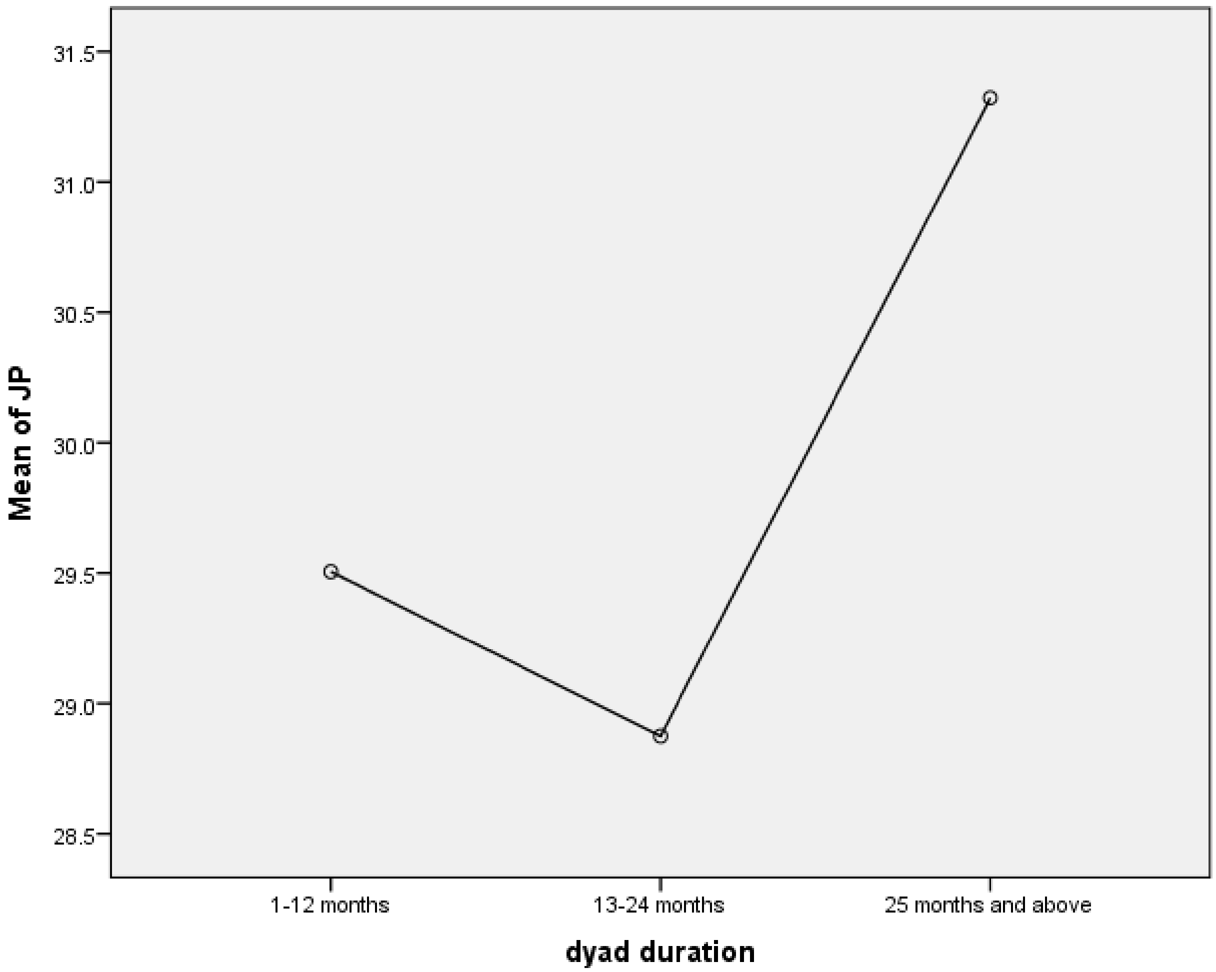


Figure 4.5 Means plot for turnover intention construct

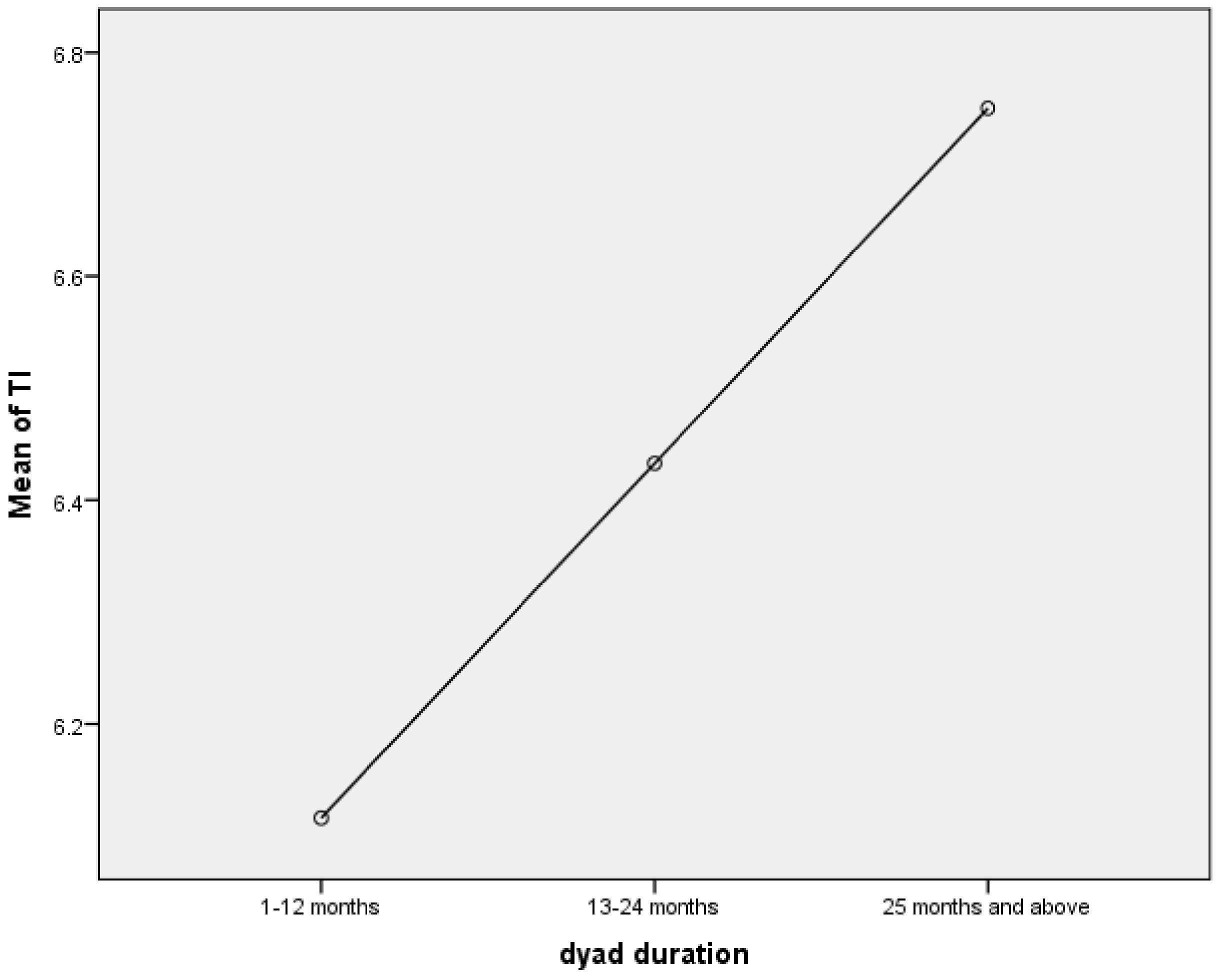
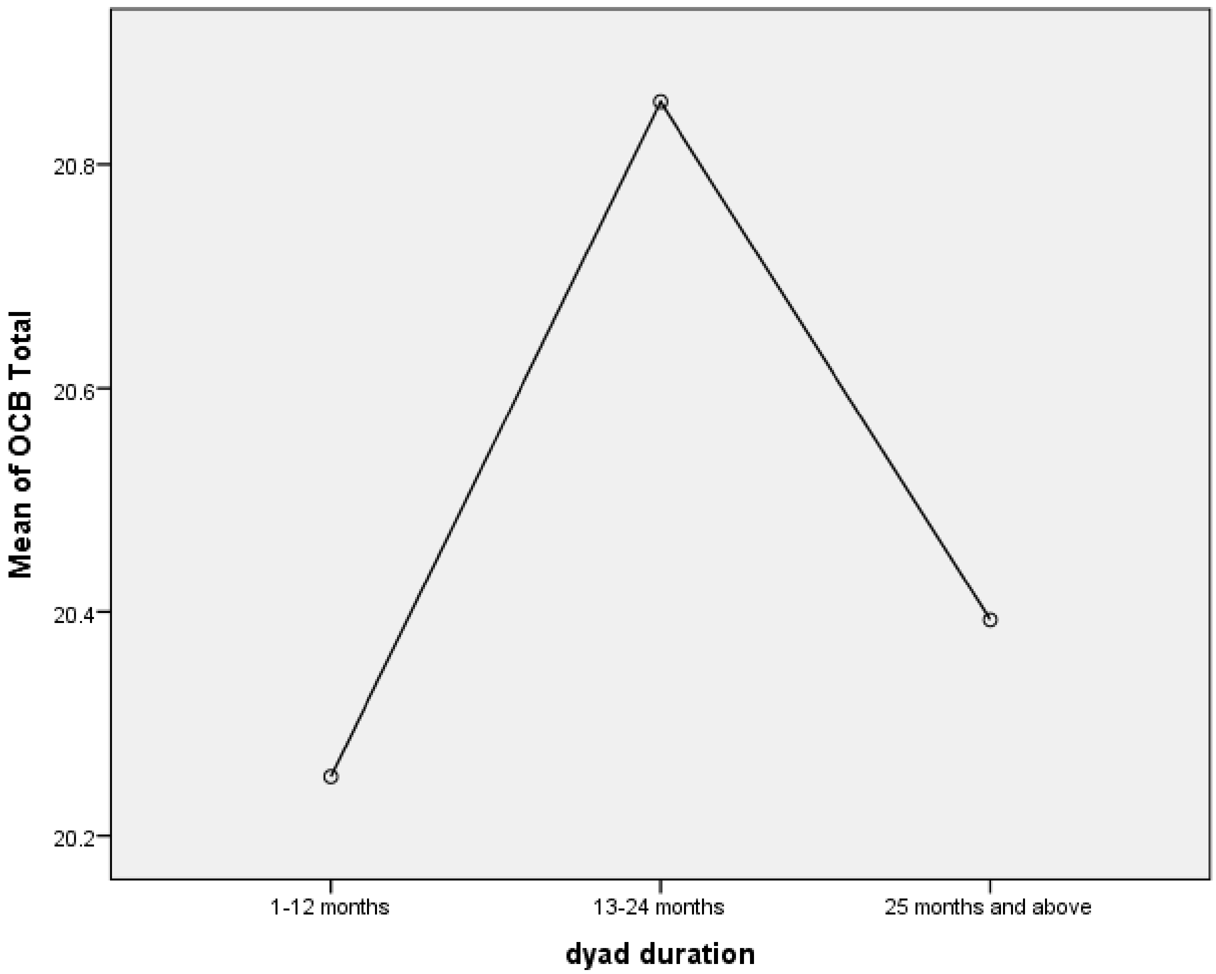
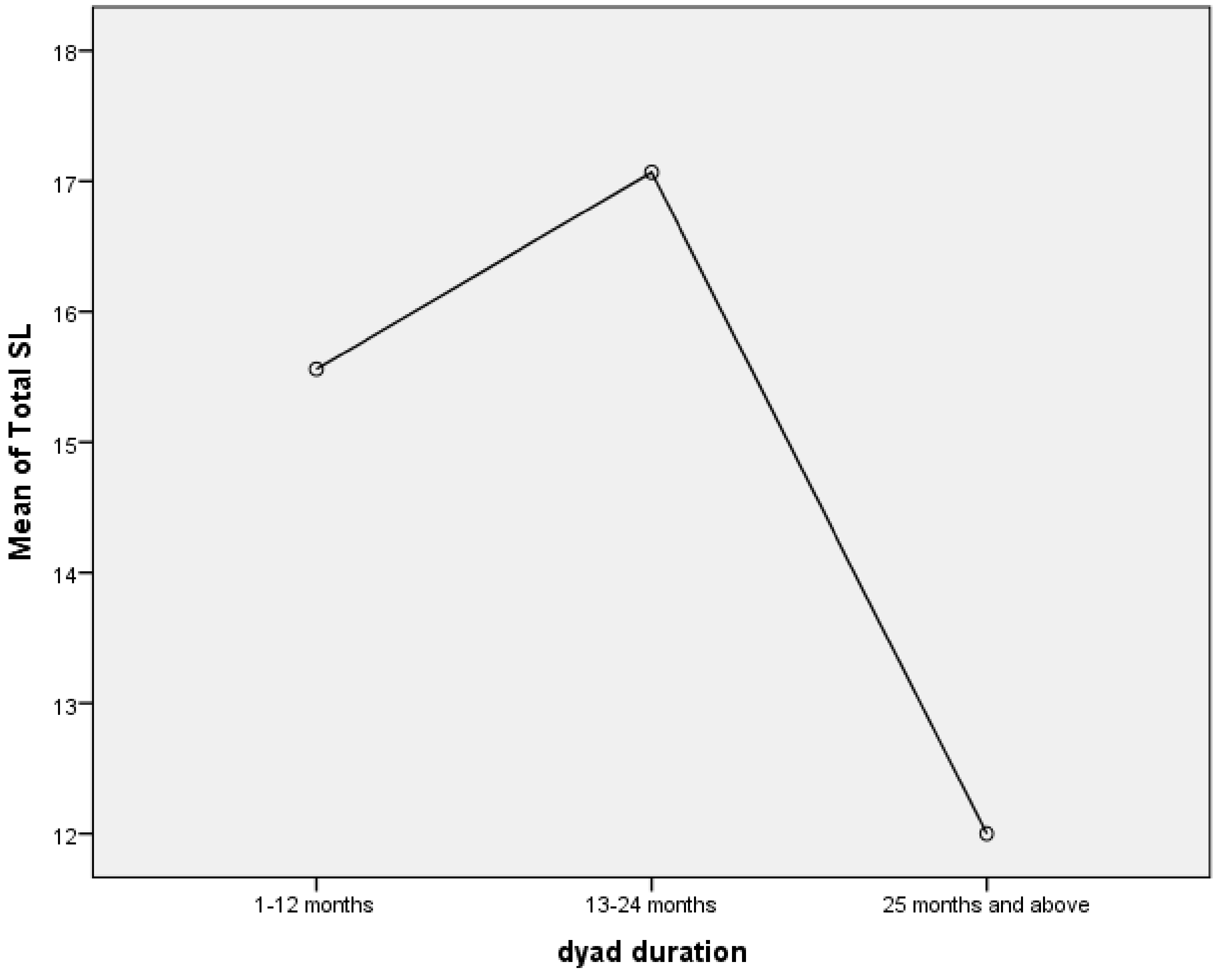


Figure 4.6 Means plot for OCB construct



One way ANOVA results for social loafing (SL) indicated that there was a significant difference between the mean of the groups (figure 4.7). Eta squared was .07 indicating a large effect size. Post hoc comparisons using Hochberg's GT test showed that dyad durations of 25 months and above scored significantly lower social loafing than dyads of 1-12 months (mean difference= -3.55, p= .014) and dyad durations of 13-24 months (mean difference= -5.06, p= .00). Therefore, it can be concluded that $H_{6.4}$: *There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and social loafing* is supported. Means plot for social loafing construct is shown in figure 4.7 below.

Figure 4.7 Means plot for social loafing construct



Self-efficacy did not reveal any significant results between groups with respect to dyad tenure. Accordingly, $H_{6.5}$ which proposed that *"there will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and self-efficacy"* is not supported.

4.5 Structural Equation Modeling

The data were analyzed using structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM estimates a series of separate but interdependent multiple regression equations at the same time by identifying the structure model (Hair et al., 2010). The main task in SEM is to determine the goodness of fit between the hypothesized model and the sample data and test how well the observed data fit into this restricted model (Byrne, 2010). The process of SEM centers around two steps: validating the measurement model and fitting the structure model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This section starts with explaining the fit indicators which are used in the current study. After that, it reported the findings of the measurement models and the fitting of both theoretical models with tested sample. The two theoretical models of both direct and indirect effects between involved factors were also tested and examined. Results were evaluated by employing AMOS 22 analytical software. As a rule of thumb, a sample size between 100 and 150 would be required for SEM analysis (Hair et al., 2010). The sample size of this research is 227, which can be considered as sufficient for running the structural model of this study.

4.5.1 Model fit indicators:

This research adopted Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software for SEM estimation. Four groups of model fit indicators are provided by AMOS: Chi-square (CMIN), the absolute fit indices, the incremental fit indices and Parsimony fit indices. These four types of model fit indices are further explained below.

Chi square (CMIN). This group presents the CMIN (minimum discrepancy), DF (degrees of freedom), P (probability value) and CMIN/DF. The Chi square value indicates the extent to which the observed matrix (S) differs from the estimated matrix (Z). It represents the discrepancy between the unrestricted sample covariance matrix (S) and the restricted covariance matrix (0) (Byrne, 2010). Researchers' seek to obtain a non-significant value that is less than the tabled value with associated df. However, large samples are critical to the obtaining of accurate parameter estimates. Thus, findings of well-fitting hypothesis models, where the X^2 value approximates the df, have proven to be unrealistic in most SEM empirical research (Byrne, 2010). Hair et al., (2010) indicated that X^2 is sensitive to sample size and that it is difficult for a model to achieve a statistically insignificant goodness of fit in larger sample size. Researchers have addressed the X^2 limitations; therefore since the sample of this study is larger than 200, it is likely to score a significant X^2, hence it is advisable to consider other model fit measurements as adjuncts to the X^2 statistic.

Turning to the next group is the *Absolute fit indices*. These measures allow detail to the extent where the model as a whole shows an acceptable fit to the data (Hair et al., 2010). The absolute fit indices include; Goodness of fit index (GFI), Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), and Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI), Root mean square residual (RMR). GFI is a measure of the relative amount of variance and covariance in S that is jointly explained by Σ, where the AFGI differs from GFI only in the fact that it adjusts for the number of df in the specified model (Byrne, 2010). These values range from 0 to 1, with values close to 1 being indicative of good of fit. Finally RMR is the average residual value obtained by calculating the square root of the mean squared differences between the individual observed and estimated covariance and variance terms (Hair et al., 2006:771). The standardized RMR represents the average value across all standardized residuals and it is a small value (.05 or less).

The next group is the *Incremental fit indices*. The incremental fit indices assess how well a model fits the data relative to some alternative baseline model (Hair et al., 2006). It assess how much better the model that assume some relationship in comparison to the null model in which no relationships among the variables are proposed (Bollen, 1986). Incremental fit indices contain critical indices: Normed fit index (NFI), Relative fit index (RFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Both NFI and CFI range from 0 to 1 with a value close to 1 indicating a better fit (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). CFI is the most widely used index.

The final group is the *Parsimony fit indices*. These indicators are designed to provide information about which model among a set of competing models is the best. Although they are not useful in examining the fit of a single model, however, they are quite useful in comparing the fit of several models with different degrees of complexity (Hair et al., 2010).

As stated by Byrne, (2010), all goodness of fit statistics is provided only for the initially hypothesized model in its first application; hereafter, only a selected group of fit statistics will be reported. This is for didactic as well as space reasons. Therefore, this study will use the selected fit statistics that are believed to be good representatives for fit. In measuring the overall fit of the model, the value of X^2 over DF (x^2 /df) is utilized as a substitute of the limitations of X^2. It is one of the first fit that was addressed to overcome X^2 problems. CMIN/DF should be smaller than 3 to attain a good-fitting model. Along with this measurement, other fit indices including Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (RMR), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were utilized. Table 4.19 below provides a summary of different fit statistics and their critical values.

Table 4.19 Criterions for model fit

Index	Cut-off criteria	Literature
RMR	< 0.05	Byrne, 2010
RMSEA	< 0.08 (< 0.05, fit very well; < 0.08 fit well)	Hu & Bentler,1999
GFI	> 0.95	Hu & Bentler,1999
AGFI	Close to 0.90	Hu & Bentler,1999
NFI	> 0.95	Byrne, 2010
CFI	> 0.95	Byrne, 2010
TLI	> 0.95	Hu & Bentler, 1999

4.5.2 Assessing the measurement model validity

The primary objective in this section is to determine the extent to which items designed to measure a particular factor actually do so. The measurement model is most commonly used to determine the patterns of interrelationships among several constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1982). They elaborated that a good measurement model is a requirement to the analysis of the casual relationships among the latent variables. The methodology takes a confirmatory (hypothesis- testing) rather than an exploratory approach to data analysis (Byrne, 2010:3). A measurement model was developed for each constructs of the study, goodness of fit statistics were evaluated and if needed, model re-specification was undertaken.

It is assumed that the greater the loading of the variables on a factor, the more the factor explains relationships among those variables. Specifying too few factors lead to the loss of important information by ignoring a factor or combining it with another (Zwick & Velicer, 1986). There are different methods a researcher use to decide how many factors to retain. According to Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, (2004) , researchers can include maximum likelihood estimation and less quantitative approaches for deciding how many factors to retain. These less quantitative approaches include choosing the most interpretable solutions relying on theoretical expectations. It is suggested that standardized loadings estimates, at minimum, should be 0.5 or higher (Hair et al., 2010). However, other researchers suggest using a cut-off of 0.4, irrespective of sample size, for interpretive purposes (Stevens, 1992) . Moreover, Hair et al.,(2010) suggested that for sample sizes of 250, a factor loading of 0.35 is acceptable. This study has considered this when examining factor loadings and used theoretical judgements to justify retaining of few low factor-loading of SLMX construct. Retained factors are retained based on theory which is the guidance force.

This section reported data analysis of the measurement models for Leader –Member Exchange, Economic Leader-Member Exchange, Social Leader-Member Exchange, Job performance, Organizational citizenship behavior, Turnover intention, Social Loafing, and Self-efficacy. This part discussed how data reliability and validity was tested, introduced the measurement model for the variables and identified the final factors that were brought in the structure model. The convergent and discriminant validity of each measurement construct are established before moving on to the analysis of the structure model.

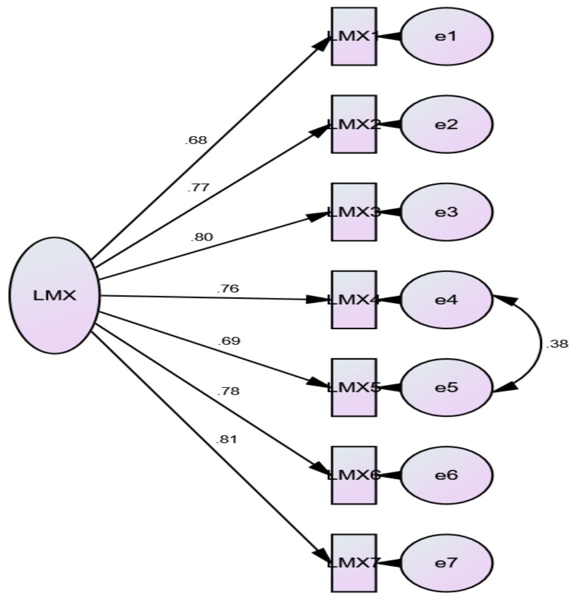
4.5.2.1 Confirmatory factor analysis for LMX

In this research, the researcher examined the Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for leader-member exchange (LMX). The measurement model for the LMX construct was developed using seven items linked to one latent variable (figure 4.8). Those items showed a good factor loadings ranging within 0.68 to 0.81. A well- fitted model for Leader-member exchange was found with a chi-square (X^2) at 33.207 with (df)13 and statistically significant, with p = .002. Although the model produced a significant chi-square with a p value smaller than 0.05, it is expected to reach significant result in large data samples according to many researchers. The final measurement model fit indices indicated a strong result (x2/df = 2.55; GFI = .96; AGFI = .90; RMR = .03; NFI =.96; CFI =.98, TLI = .96). Table 4.20 below represents the factor loadings for all LMX factors.

Table 4.20 Factor loadings for LMX construct

Items	**Factor loading**
LMX1	.68
LMX2	.76
LMX3	.80
LMX4	.75
LMX5	.68
LMX6	.78
LMX7	.80

Figure 4.8 CFA for LMX (standardized model)



4.5.2.2 Confirmatory factor analysis for Economic Leader- member exchange (ELMX)

The measurement model for Economic Leader-member exchange (ELMX) construct was developed. Eight items were used for this factor (figure 4.9). The measurement model for ELMX produced an excellent model fit. Those items showed a good factor loadings ranging within 0.77 to 0.90. The results are ($x2/df$ = 3.12; GFI = .95; AGFI = .88; RMR = .02; NFI =.97; CFI =.98, TLI =.97). Table 4.21 below represents the factor loadings for all ELMX factors.

Figure 4.9 CFA for ELMX (standardized model)

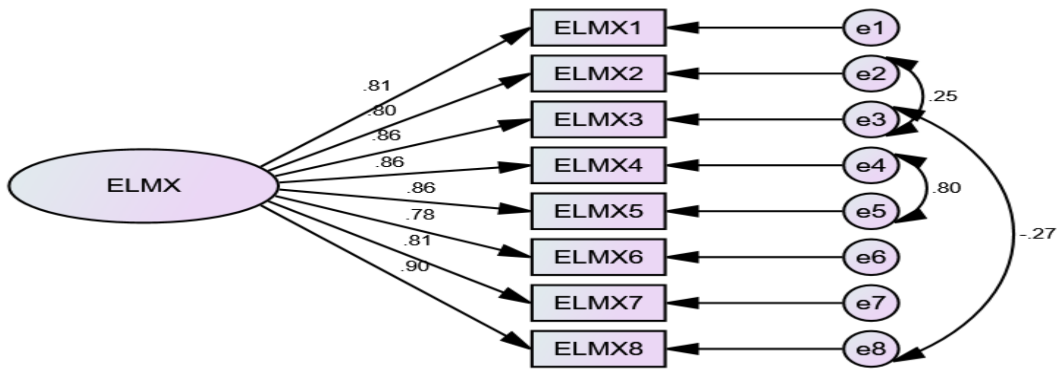


Table 4.21 Factor loadings for ELMX construct

Items	Factor loading
ELMX1	.81
ELMX2	.80
ELMX3	.85
ELMX4	.85
ELMX5	.86

Items	Factor loading
ELMX6	.77
ELMX7	.81
ELMX8	.90

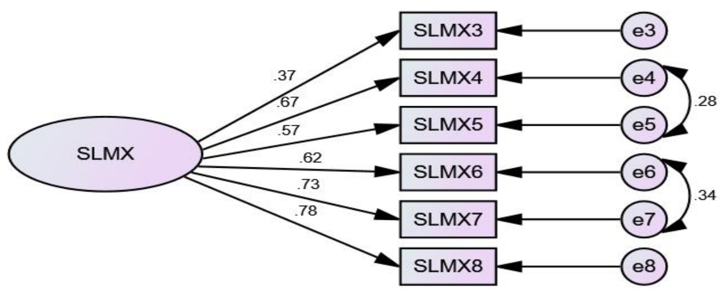
4.5.2.3 Confirmatory factor analysis for Social Leader- member exchange (SLMX)

An initial measurement model for SLMX consisting of eight-item scale was measured. The loading of two scales were deleted as they had low loadings (< 0.2). This resulted in a six-item scale for measuring SLMX (figure 4.10). Those items showed acceptable factor loadings ranging within 0.37 to 0.77. The author decided to maintain the loading of .37. After model re-specification, the model provided excellent fit to the data ($x2/df = 1.55$; GFI = .98; AGFI = .95; RMR = .03; NFI =.98; CFI =.99, TLI =.98). Table 4.22 below represents the factor loadings for all SLMX factors.

Table 4.22 Factor loadings for SLMX construct

Items	Loading factor
SLMX3	.37
SLMX4	.67
SLMX5	.56
SLMX6	.62
SLMX7	.73
SLMX8	.77

Figure 4.10 CFA for SLMX (standardized model)



4.5.2.4 Confirmatory factor analysis for Job Performance (JP)

The measurement model for employee job performance construct was developed with two different higher order factors (figure 4.11 and 4.12), including in-role behavior (IRB) and OCB towards the organization (OCBO) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). The measurement model for job performance consisted initially from eight constructs. One item was deleted from the OCBO construct as it showed lower factor loading. The rest of items showed acceptable factor loadings ranging within 0.47 to 0.92. The final model fit indices indicates strong results, where (x2/df = 1.51; GFI = .95; AGFI = .89; RMR = .048; NFI =.96; CFI =.97, TLI = .95). Table 4.23 and 4.24 below represents first and second order factor loadings for all job performance factors.

Table 4.23 Factor loadings for job performance construct (First order)

Items	Factor loading
JP1	.84
JP2	.92
JP3	.91
JP4	.87
JP6	.76
JP9	.50
JP10	.47

Figure 4.11 First order CFA for job performance (standardized model)

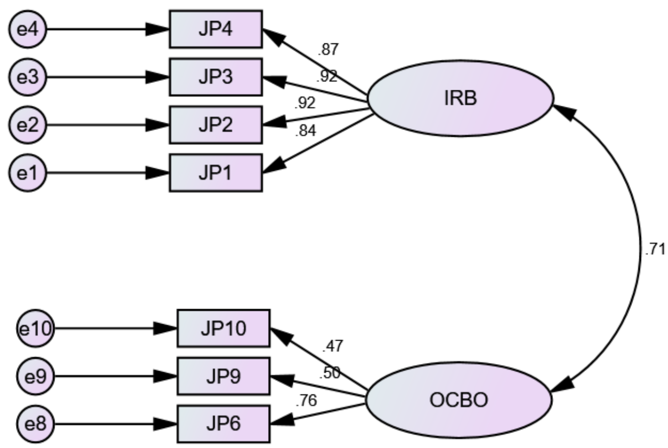


Figure 4.12 Second order CFA for job performance (standardized model)

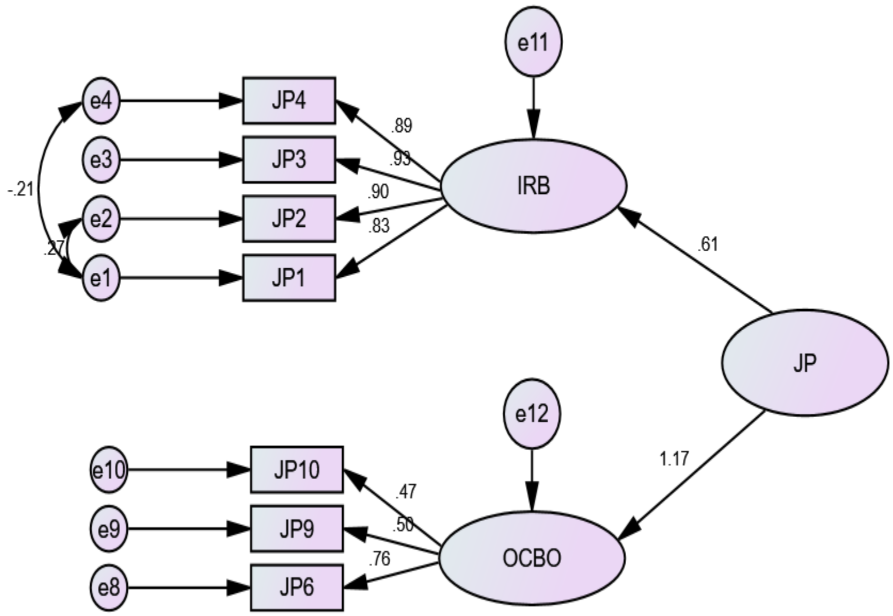


Table 4.24 Factor loadings for job performance construct (second order)

Items	Factor loadings
OCBO	1.17
IRB	.61
JP1	.82
JP2	.89

Items	Factor loadings
JP3	.92
JP4	.89
JP6	.76
JP9	.50
JP10	.47

4.5.2.5 Confirmatory factor analysis for Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)

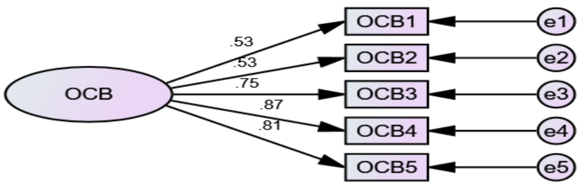
The initial model of Organizational citizenship behavior consisted of seven items. However, in order to acquire satisfactory model fit, irrelevant items were deleted from the model. Two items were deleted as they had very low loading estimates (figure 4.13). The rest of the items showed acceptable factor loadings ranging within 0.53 to 0.87. The final model fit indices indicated strong results, where (x2/df = 3.64; GFI = .97; AGFI = .90; RMR = .037; NFI =.95; CFI =.96, TLI = ,94). Table 4.25 below represents the factor loadings for all OCB factors.

Table 4.25 Factor loadings for OCB construct

Items	Factor loading
OCB1	.526
OCB2	.528
OCB3	.75

Items	Factor loading
OCB4	.87
OCB5	.81

Figure 4.13 CFA for OCB construct (standardized model)



4.5.2.6 Confirmatory factor analysis for Turnover Intention (TI)

A measurement model was initiated for employee turnover intention. The model consisted of three items (figure 4.14). These items showed acceptable factor loadings ranging within 0.68 to 0.93. The model showed excellent model fit where (GFI = 1.00; RMR = .00; NFI =1.00 ; CFI =1.00). Table 4.26 below represents the factor loadings for all turnover intention factors.

Figure 4.14 CFA for turnover intention construct (standardized model)

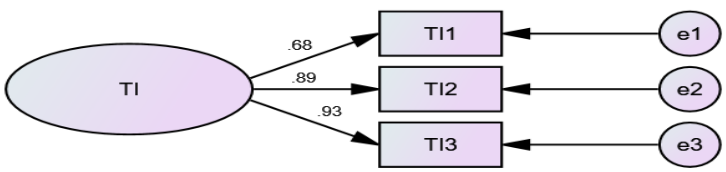


Table 4.26 Factor loadings for turnover intention construct

Items	Factor loadings
TI1	.68
TI2	.89
TI3	.93

4.5.2.7 Confirmatory factor analysis for Social Loafing (SL)

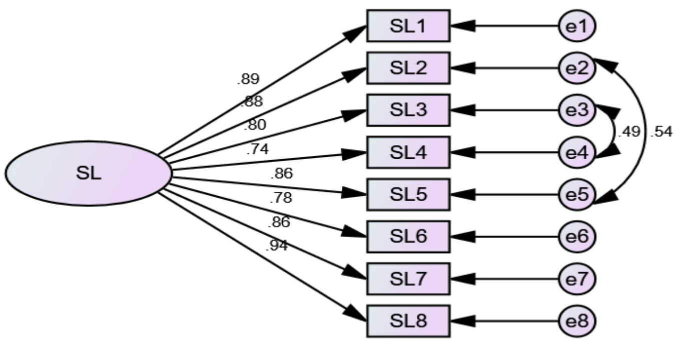
The measurement model for social loafing construct was created. It consisted of eight items (figure 4.15). All eight items revealed excellent factor loadings ranging within .74 to .94. The measurement model produced a very good model fit to the data. Results were as following:

($x2/df$ = 2.88; GFI = .94; AGFI = .89; RMR = .02; NFI =.97; CFI =.98, TLI = .97). Table 4.27 below represents the factor loadings for all social loafing factors.

Table 4.27 Factor loadings for social loafing construct

Items	Factor loading
SL1	.88
SL2	.88
SL3	.80
SL4	.73
SL5	.86
SL6	.78
SL7	.85
SL8	.94

Figure 4.15 CFA for social loafing construct (standardized model)



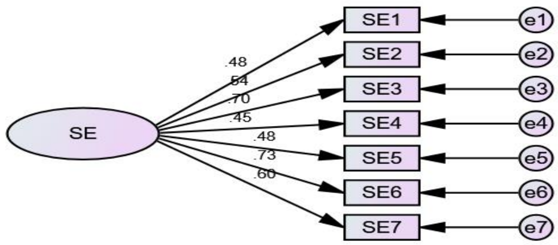
4.5.2.8 Confirmatory factor analysis for Self-efficacy (SE)

The final measurement model was developed for Self-efficacy construct. The initial model consisted of 10 items. However, three constructs were deleted as they showed very low loadings (figure 4.16). The rest of the items showed acceptable factor loadings ranging within 0.45 to 0.73. The overall model fit was very good (x2/df = 2.32; GFI = .96; AGFI = .92; RMR = .04; NFI =.91; CFI =.94, TLI = .91). Table 4.28 below represents the factor loadings for all self-efficacy factors.

Table 4.28 Factor loadings for self-efficacy construct

Items	Factor loading
SE1	.48
SE2	.54
SE3	.70
SE4	.45
SE5	.47
SE6	.73
SE7	.60

Figure 4.16 CFA for self-efficacy construct (standardized model)



4.5.3 Specification of Structural Model

Following the measurement model stage, the structural model was then specified by assigning the relationships between study constructs based on the conceptual framework that was developed earlier in the study. The structural model was used to test the hypotheses of the study.

This section reported data analysis for the first framework that was established in chapter two in order to compare between the LMX as one continuum and ELMX and SLMX as two different continuums. Parameters were estimated using maximum likelihood estimation. The measurement model for each construct was tested before testing the hypothesized model. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for each construct was tested. The convergent and discriminant validity of each measurement construct were established. All final factors for each construct that will be brought in the structure model were identified.

Specifically in this study, a mediation analysis within the structural model was conducted. A mediation analysis for structural model comprises different types of variables that form a chain of relations among the variables namely, direct effect relation and indirect relation which is also known as mediation effect (MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009). In mediation relationship, a direct effect involved between the independent variable (X) and the dependent variable (Y) with the strength of the mediator (M) relation removed, a mediation effect or indirect effect is the effect of X to Y execute the mediator and finally a total effect of X on Y is computed by the addition of the two effects (direct and indirect effect).

Prior to testing the hypothesis, a within and between analysis (WABA) was performed in order to examine the appropriate level of analysis for the social loafing variable (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984). This study measured social loafing from the perspective of the supervisor. A test was performed to compare the within-groups eta with the between-groups eta and yield an E ration. This WABA is to determine the locus of variation in the social loafing variable. Findings revealed that within-group variation in social loafing was greater than between group variation which indicates that it is appropriate to analyze the data at the individual level.

This section discuss the findings of testing the two structural models for LMX versus ELMX-SLMX. It covered the direct relations of both models and then tested the consequences of including the mediators, social loafing and self-efficacy on study variables. Dyad tenure, participant’s gender and employee contract type were included as control variables in the analysis.

4.5.3.1 LMX Model

This section discussed the findings of the LMX model as one continuum. The overall structural model incorporates six constructs; leader-member exchange, self-efficacy, social loafing, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention.

4.5.3.1.1 Direct LMX model on JP, OCB and TI

In this section, all hypotheses pertaining to the direct effect of LMX on employee performance, OCB and turnover intention are discussed. These hypotheses were proven in previous studies, yet, it is crucial to test these hypotheses again to reconfirm the results.

The first tested model was the model depicting the direct relationship between leader-member exchange, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention as shown in figure 4.17 below. The initial structural model was examined. A direct path from LMX to JP, OCB and TI was conducted. The direct structural model of LMX provided a relatively a good fit to the data. (X2/df = 1.71; CFI= .93; TLI =.92; RMSEA= .06).

In order to examine the effect of LMX on the members' outcomes, we first examined every particular path of the framework. Results from the standardized regression coefficients reconfirmed that LMX had a significant positive relationship to employee job performance (r= .30, p= .01), Thus, $H_{1.1}$*: There will be a positive relationship between LMX relationships and job performance* was reassured.

Hypothesis *"*$H_{2.1}$: *There will be a positive relationship between LMX relationships and organizational citizenship behavior* was not supported. However, although results were not significant, yet they supported the positive relation between LMX and OCB. Results for $H_{3.1}$: *There will be a negative relationship between LMX relationships and employee turnover* *intention"* was supported and assured the negative relation between LMX and Turnover intention. Findings for OCB and TI were (r= .01, p=.88 r= -.13, p= .04) respectively. These results are compatible with existing literature.

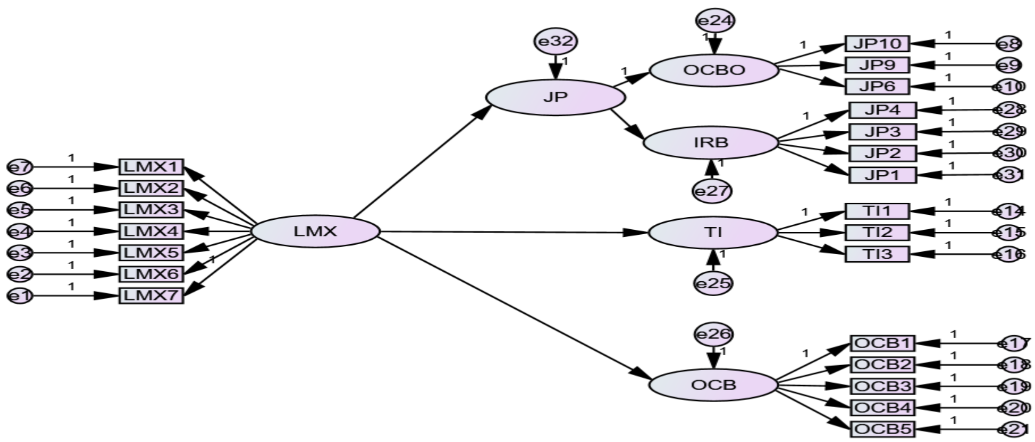
The correlations in the structure model are summarized below in table 4.29. The table includes standardized regression weight, standard error (SE), critical ratio (CR) and significance value (P). Detailed correlations are included in the appendices.

Table 4.29 Regression weights for LMX direct model

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
JP	<---	LMX	.30	.07	2.56	.01
TI	<---	LMX	-.13	.11	-1.74	.04
OCB	<---	LMX	.01	.06	.14	.88

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

Figure 4.17 Direct model for LMX



4.5.3.1.2 Self-efficacy as a mediator

Self-efficacy was included as a mediator between LMX, JP, OCB and TI as shown in figure 4.18. The findings revealed a good fit (X2/df = 1.45; CFI= .94; TLI =.93; RMSEA= .04).The following hypotheses was tested:

$H_{4.1}$: The positive relationship between LMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Self-efficacy.

$H_{4.2}$: The negative relationship between LMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

Results showed that there is a partial relation between leader-member exchange and job performance. There was a direct effect between leader-member exchange and job performance (r= .30 at p= .01). After including self-efficacy as a mediator in the model, the indirect effect between LMX and job performance remained significant with a slight reduction in the correlation (r= .30 at p= .01). With regard to Organizational Citizenship behavior, results were not supported, where both direct and indirect results between LMX and OCB were not significant r= .010, p= (.88) and r= .005, p= (.95) respectively. $H_{4.2}$ was not supported as results revealed a full mediation between LMX and employee turnover intention, where the results for both the direct and indirect relation are (r=-.13, p =.04, r= -.120 p= .094) respectively. However, since self-efficacy did not show a significant relationship with LMX, none of the above hypotheses can be supported. A summary of the standardized regression weights are summarized in table 4.30 below. Detailed correlations are included in the appendices

Figure 4.18 Indirect model for LMX (self-efficacy as a mediator)

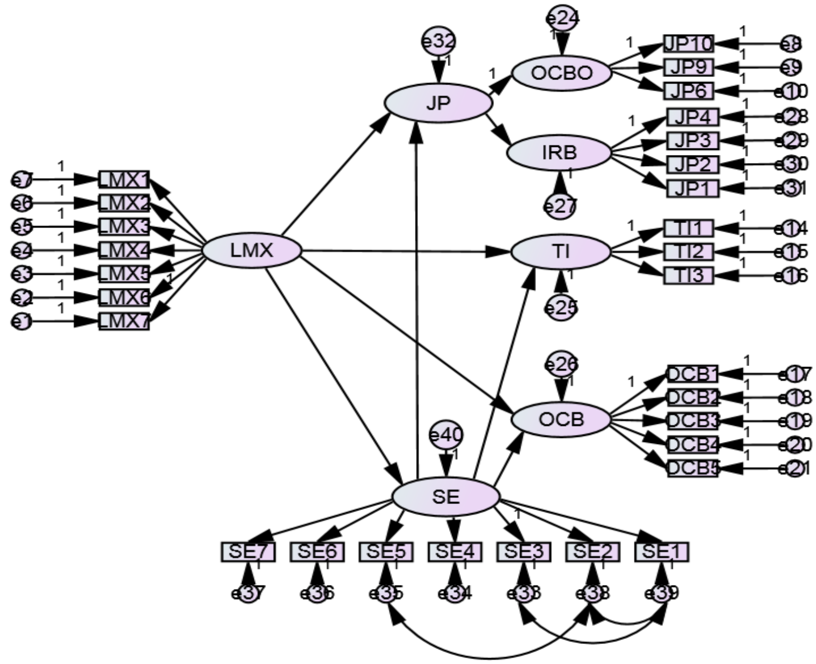


Table 4.30 Regression weights for LMX indirect model (self-efficacy as mediator)

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
SE	<---	LMX	.018	.12	.23	.81
JP	<---	LMX	.30	.07	2.52	.01
JP	<---	SE	.008	.02	.11	.91
TI	<---	LMX	-.12	.11	-1.67	.09
OCB	<---	LMX	.005	.06	.06	.95

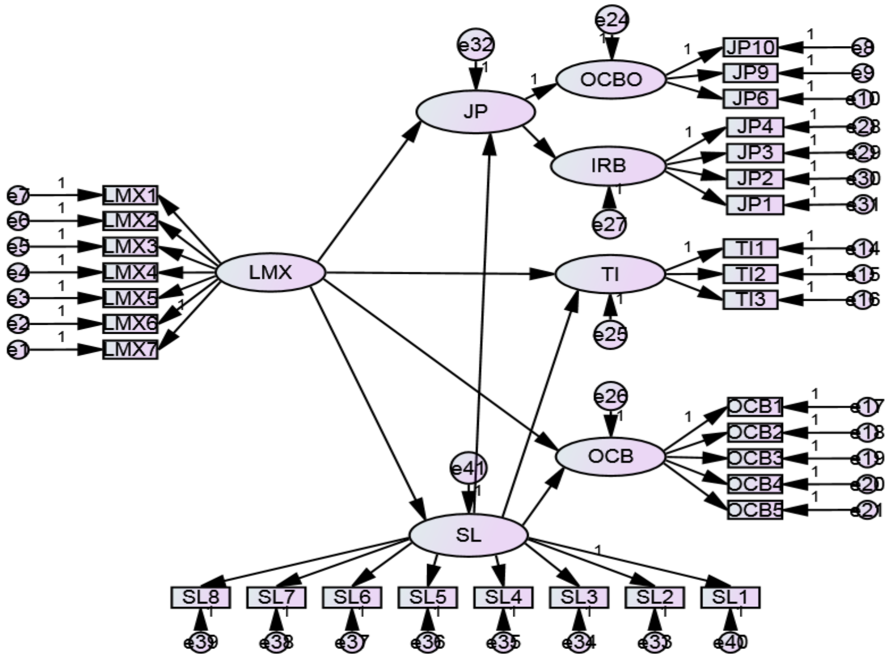
OCB	<---	SE	.24	.04	2.95	.003
TI	<---	SE	-.29	.07	-3.71	***

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

4.5.3.1.3 Social loafing as a mediator

Social loafing was considered as a mediator in the LMX model, where a partial mediation is hypothesized between variables (figure 4.19). The findings from the direct model test are reasonable where (x2/df = 1.66; CFI= .93; TLI =.92; RMSEA= .05). The following hypotheses were examined:

Figure 4.19 Indirect model for LMX (Social loafing as a mediator)



$H_{5.1}$: The positive relationship between LMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing

$H_{5.2}$: The negative relationship between LMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.

The results revealed a partial mediation of social loafing on LMX and Job performance, where the direct effect is r=.30 at p= .01 which dropped to r= .14 at significant borders of p= .04. Thus H5.1 is partially supported. Findings did not support the part of OCB as the results were not significant for both direct and indirect path at (r= .01, p=.88 and r= .05, p=.46) respectively.

In addition, results did not provide support for hypothesis H5.2, therefore it was rejected. Results are (r =-.13 at p= .04) for the direct path and (r =-.10 at p=. 19) for the indirect path. A summary of both standardized and unstandardized regression weights and direct and indirect results are summarized in tables 4.31 and 4.32 below. Detailed correlations are included in the appendices.

Table 4.31 Regression weights for LMX indirect model (social loafing as mediator)

Items			USR	SR	C.R.	P
SL	<---	LMX	-.73	-.36	-5.14	***
JP	<---	LMX	.14	.14	1.96	.044
JP	<---	SL	-.35	-.69	-7.24	***
TI	<---	LMX	-.15	-.10	-1.31	.19
OCB	<---	LMX	.05	.05	.73	.46
OCB	<---	SL	.05	.13	1.69	.09
TI	<---	SL	.08	.11	1.54	.12

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

Table 4.32 Direct and direct effect of the social loafing mediation effect on LMX model

Parameter	Direct	Indirect	Mediation effect
LMX—SL—JP	.30 (.01)	0.14 (.04)	partial mediation
LMX—SL—OCB	.01 (.88)	.05 (.46)	No mediation
LMX—SL—TI	-.13 (.04)	-.10 (.19)	Full mediation

4.5.3.2 ELMX and SLMX model

This section reports data analysis for the second framework of ELMX and SLMX as two different continuums. Findings from this analysis enhanced the concept of comparison of the current model and the LMX model handled in the previous section. The overall structural model incorporates seven constructs (Economic Leader-member exchange, Social Leader-member exchange, Self-efficacy, social loafing, Job performance, Organizational citizenship behavior and Turnover intention). The initial measurement model included eight-item scale for both ELMX and SLMX. Confirmatory factor analysis was tested for all model constructs. This resulted in a two-factor model representing the ELMX and SLMX, where an eight-item scale measuring ELMX and a six-item scale measuring the SLMX.

4.5.3.2.1 Direct ELMX and SLMX model

The hypothesized direct structural model of ELMX, SLMX shown in figure 4.20 fits the data very well as evidenced by model fit (x2/df = 1.45; CFI= .95; TLI =.94; RMSEA= .04). The following hypotheses were tested:

$H_{1.2}$: There will be a negative relationship between ELMX relationships and job performance.

$H_{1.3}$: There will be a positive relationship between SLMX relationships and job performance.

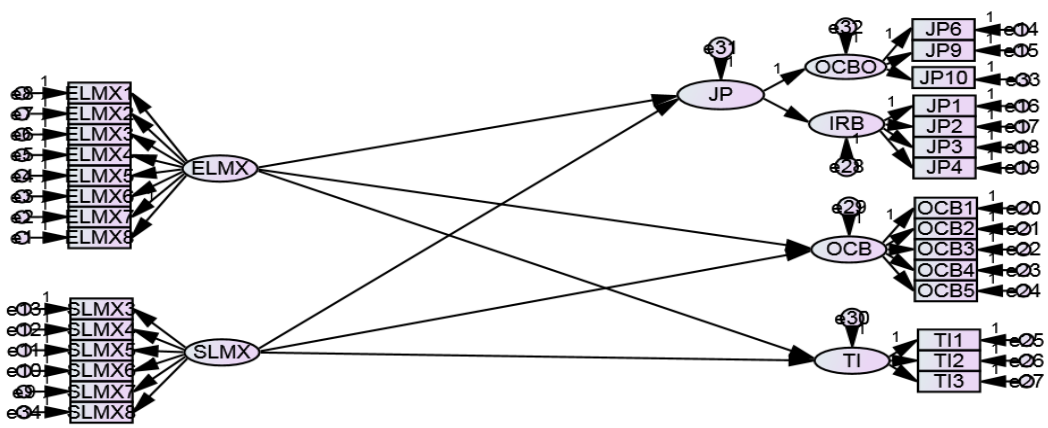
$H_{2.2}$: There will be a negative relationship between ELMX relationships and OCB.

$H_{2.3}$: There will be a positive relationship between SLMX relationships and OCB.

$H_{3.2}$: There will be a positive relationship between ELMX relationships and employee turnover intention.

$H_{3.3}$: There will be a negative relationship between SLMX relationships and employee turnover intention.

Figure 4.20 Direct model for ELMX and SLMX



Standardized regression weights showed support for the above hypotheses except for $H_{2.2}$, $H_{2.3}$ and $H_{3.3}$. Results indicated that SLMX is positively related to JP (r=.37, p < .001), and ELMX is negatively related to JP (r= -.63, p < .001), which supports the conceptualization of LMX from two different perspectives. OCB was related positively to both SLMX and ELMX which contradicts H2.2. However results were not significant (r= .13, p=.09 and r= .14, p= .06). When looking at employee turnover intention, results comply with the proposed hypotheses, where SLMX relates negatively with TI (r= -.10, p= .16) and relates positively to ELMX (r= .15, p= .038). A summary of standardized regression weights are summarized in table 4.33 below. Detailed correlations are included in the appendices.

Table 4.33 Regression weights for ELMX and SLMX direct model

		Items	Estimate	SR	C.R.	P
JP	<---	SLMX	.39	.37	4.33	***
JP	<---	ELMX	-.56	-.63	-6.61	***
OCB	<---	ELMX	.08	.14	1.83	.06
TI	<---	ELMX	.17	.15	2.07	.03
TI	<---	SLMX	-.13	-.10	-1.38	.16
OCB	<---	SLMX	.09	.13	1.68	.09

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

4.5.3.2.2 Social loafing as a mediator

Social loafing was included in the structural equation modeling to investigate the proposed hypotheses related to its role as a mediator between ELMX, SLMX, job performance, OCB and turnover intention (figure 4.21). The hypothesized model fit the data well as evidence (x2/df = 1. 54; CFI= .94; TLI =.93; RMSEA= .04). The following hypotheses were tested:

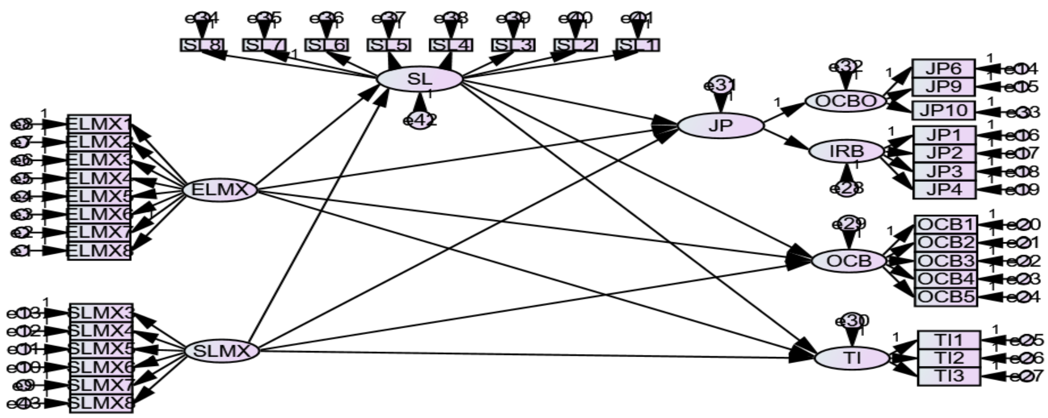
$H_{5.3:}$ *The negative relationship between ELMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing.*

$H_{5.4:}$ *The positive relationship between ELMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.*

$H_{5.5:}$ *The positive relationship between SLMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing*

$H_{5.6:}$ *The negative relationship between SLMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.*

Figure 4.21 Indirect model for ELMX and SLMX (social loafing as mediator)



The findings indicated that ELMX relates positively to social loafing (r= .69, p < .001) whereas, SL is related negatively to SLMX (r= -.22, p < .001). Moreover, results confirmed the negative relationship between JP and SL which supports previous studies (r= -.56, p < .001).

When considering the mediation effect of social loafing, the analysis revealed that social loafing partially mediates the relation between job performance and ELMX, and job performance and SLMX. There was a direct effect between ELMX and job performance (r= -.63 ***). After including social loafing as a mediator in the model, the indirect effect between ELMX and job performance remained significant with a slight reduction in the correlation (r= -.23 at p= . .013). Direct and indirect effect for SLMX and JP were (.37 ***) and (.26 ***) respectively. Both direct and indirect effects for OCB were non-significant. Hence, it can be concluded that H 5.3 and H 5.5 are supported for the job performance element only.

Furthermore, results revealed that social loafing has a full mediation on the relationship between ELMX and turnover intention where r= .15 (.03) for the direct effect and r= .111 (.28) for the indirect effect. However, as the relationship between social loafing and turnover intention is non-significant, H5.4 is rejected. A summary of standardized regression weights and mediation effects are summarized in tables 4.34 and 4.35 below. Detailed correlations are included in the appendices.

Table 4.34 Regression weights for ELMX and SLMX indirect model (social loafing as a mediator)

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
SL	<---	ELMX	.69	.08	10.50	***
SL	<---	SLMX	-.22	.09	-3.64	***
JP	<---	SLMX	.26	.08	3.55	***
JP	<---	ELMX	-.23	.09	-2.47	.01
JP	<---	SL	-.56	.06	-5.93	***
OCB	<---	ELMX	.11	.06	1.13	.25
TI	<---	ELMX	.11	.11	1.05	.28
TI	<---	SLMX	-.09	.10	-1.18	.23
OCB	<---	SLMX	.15	.06	1.81	.07
OCB	<---	SL	.05	.04	.52	.59
TI	<---	SL	.06	.08	.68	.49

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

Table 4.35 Direct and direct effect of the social loafing mediation effect on ELMX and SLMX model

Parameter	Direct	Indirect	Mediation effect
ELMX—SL—JP	-.630 (***)	-.230 (.013)	Partial mediation
SLMX—SL—JP	.375 (***)	.269 (***)	Partial mediation

4.5.3.2.3 Self-efficacy as a mediator

Self-efficacy was included in the structural equation modeling to investigate the proposed hypotheses related to its role as a mediator between ELMX, SLMX, job performance, OCB and turnover intention as shown in figure 4.22. The hypothesized model fit the data well as evidenced by the (x2/df = 1. 40; CFA= .94; TLI =.93; RMSEA= .04). The following hypotheses were tested:

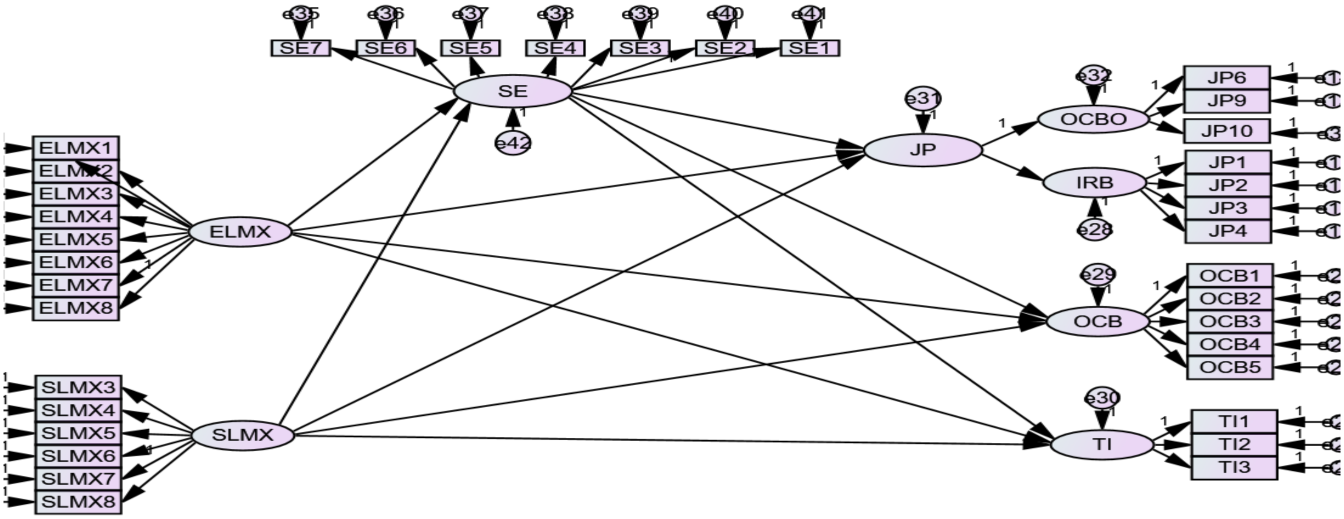
$H_{4.3}$: The negative relationship between ELMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

$H_{4.4}$: The positive relationship between ELMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

$H_{4.5}$: The positive relationship between SLMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

$H_{4.6}$: The negative relationship between SLMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.

Figure 4.22 Indirect model for ELMX and SLMX (self-efficacy as mediator)



Results of testing the model of ELMX, SLMX with self-efficacy as a mediator revealed that self-efficacy was significantly related to ELMX (r = -.24 , p= .003) but not to SLMX (r = .02, p = .75). Job performance results remained significant with both ELMX and SLMX (-.59, p < .01) and (.32, p < .01) but were reduced compared with the direct effect without any mediation (-.63, p < .01) and (.37, p < .01) respectively. As the direct effect between OCB and both SLMX and ELMX were not significant, mediation test could not be performed further. The final results provided evidence that self-efficacy partially mediates the relationship between ELMX and job performance and hence H4.3 was supported partially for job performance. Although results were significant for both direct and indirect results of SLMX and job performance, H4.5 was rejected as there was no significant relation between SLMX and self-efficacy.

H4.4 proposed that self-efficacy would mediate the positive relation between ELMX and TI. The direct and indirect effect are (r=.15, p=.03) and (r=.08, p=.23) respectively. Results did not reveal a supports for this hypothesis as the relationship was not significant any more with the indirect effect. This indicted that self-efficacy fully mediated the relationship between ELMX and TI. A summary of both standardized regression weights and direct and indirect results are summarized in tables 4.36 and 4.37 below. Detailed correlations are included in the appendices.

Table 4.36 Regression weights for ELMX and SLMX indirect model (self-efficacy as a mediator)

	Items		SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
SE	<---	ELMX	-.24	.072	-3.009	.003
SE	<---	SLMX	.02	.083	.316	.752
JP	<---	SLMX	.32	.084	4.003	***
JP	<---	ELMX	-.59	.076	-6.72	***
JP	<---	SE	-.15	.079	-1.92	.045
OCB	<---	ELMX	.22	.046	2.91	.004
TI	<---	ELMX	.08	.075	1.18	.23
TI	<---	SLMX	-.09	.091	-1.27	.20
OCB	<---	SLMX	.14	.054	1.89	.059
OCB	<---	SE	.29	.063	3.11	.002
TI	<---	SE	-.27	.103	-3.05	.002

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

Table 4.37 Direct and direct effect of the self-efficacy mediation effect on ELMX and SLMX model

Parameter	Direct	Indirect	Mediation effect
ELMX—SE—JP	-.630 (***)	-.594 (***)	Partial mediation
ELMX—SE—OCB	.141 (.067)	.224 (.004)	No mediation
ELMX—SE—TI	.159 (.038)	.086 (.236)	complete mediation
SLMX—SE—JP	.375 (***)	.329 (***)	Partial mediation
SLMX—SE—OCB	.131(.092)	.142 (.059)	No mediation
SLMX—SE—TI	-.107 (. 165)	-.094(.202)	No mediation

4.6 Summary of study finding

Table 4.38 below provides a summary of hypothesis testing of the study. Figures also provides the results of both models generrted from SEM analysis.

Table 4.38 Summary of study findings

Hypothesis	Findings
$H_{1.1}$: There will be a positive relationship between LMX relationships and job performance.	Supported
$H_{1.2}$: There will be a negative relationship between ELMX relationships and job performance.	Supported
$H_{1.3}$: There will be a positive relationship between SLMX	Supported

relationships and job performance.	
$H_{2.1}$: *There will be a positive relationship between LMX relationships and organizational citizenship behavior.*	Refuted
$H_{2.2}$: *There will be a negative relationship between ELMX relationships and OCB.*	Refuted
$H_{2.3}$: *There will be a positive relationship between SLMX relationships and OCB.*	Refuted
$H_{3.1}$: *There will be a negative relationship between LMX relationships and employee turnover intention.*	Supported
$H_{3.2}$: *There will be a positive relationship between ELMX relationships and employee turnover intention.*	Supported
$H_{3.3}$: *There will be a negative relationship between SLMX relationships and employee turnover intention.*	Refuted
$H_{4.1}$: *The positive relationship between LMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Self-efficacy.*	Refuted
$H_{4.2}$: *The negative relationship between LMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.*	Refuted
$H_{4.3}$: *The negative relationship between ELMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by self-efficacy.*	Partially supported (for job performance only)
$H_{4.4}$: *The positive relationship between ELMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.*	Refuted
$H_{4.5}$: *The positive relationship between SLMX, job performance and*	Refuted

OCB is partially mediated by self-efficacy.	
$H_{4.6:}$ *The negative relationship between SLMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by self-efficacy.*	Refuted
$H_{5.1}$*: The positive relationship between LMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing*	Partially supported (for job performance only)
$H_{5.2:}$ *The negative relationship between LMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.*	Refuted
$H_{5.3:}$ *The negative relationship between ELMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing.*	Partially supported (for job performance only)
$H_{5.4:}$ *The positive relationship between ELMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.*	Refuted
$H_{5.5:}$ *The positive relationship between SLMX, job performance and OCB is partially mediated by Social Loafing*	Partially supported (for job performance only)
$H_{5.6:}$ *The negative relationship between SLMX and employee turnover intention is partially mediated by social loafing.*	Refuted
$H_{6.1}$*: There will be a positive relationship between LMX, SLMX and dyad tenure*	Supported for LMX only
$H_{6.2}$*: There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and ELMX*	Supported
$H_{6.3}$*: There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure, employee performance, OCB and employee turnover intention*	Partially supported (for job performance only)
$H_{6.4}$*: There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and social loafing*	Supported

H$_{6.5}$: There will be a causal relationship between dyad tenure and self-efficacy	Refuted

Figure 4 23.SEM results for ELMX/SLMX model

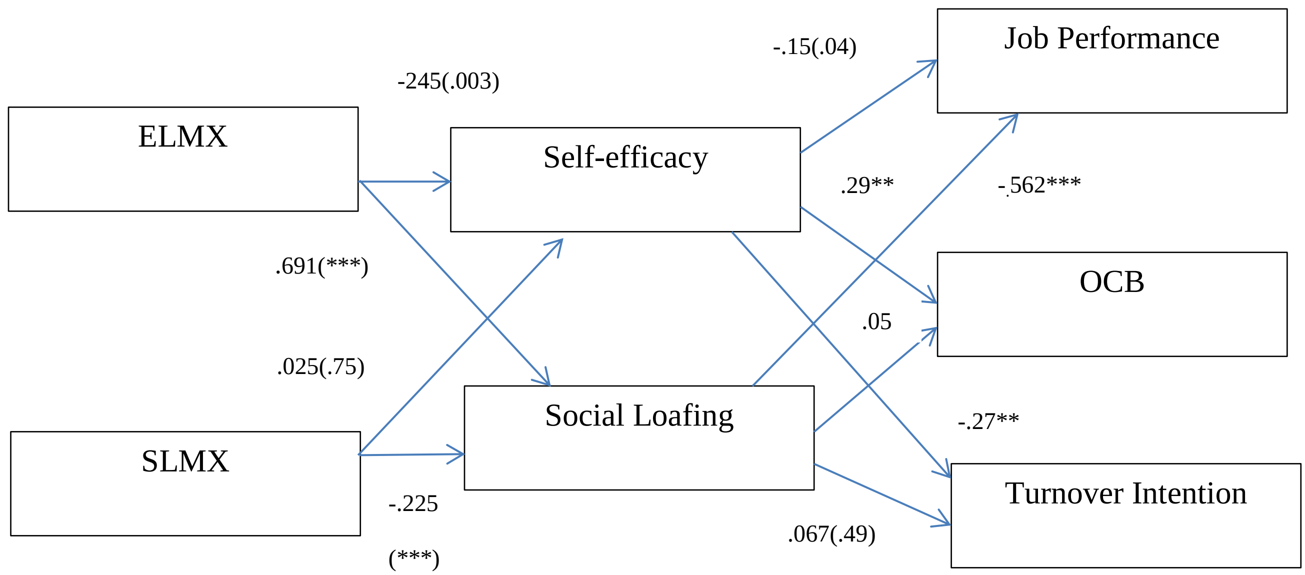
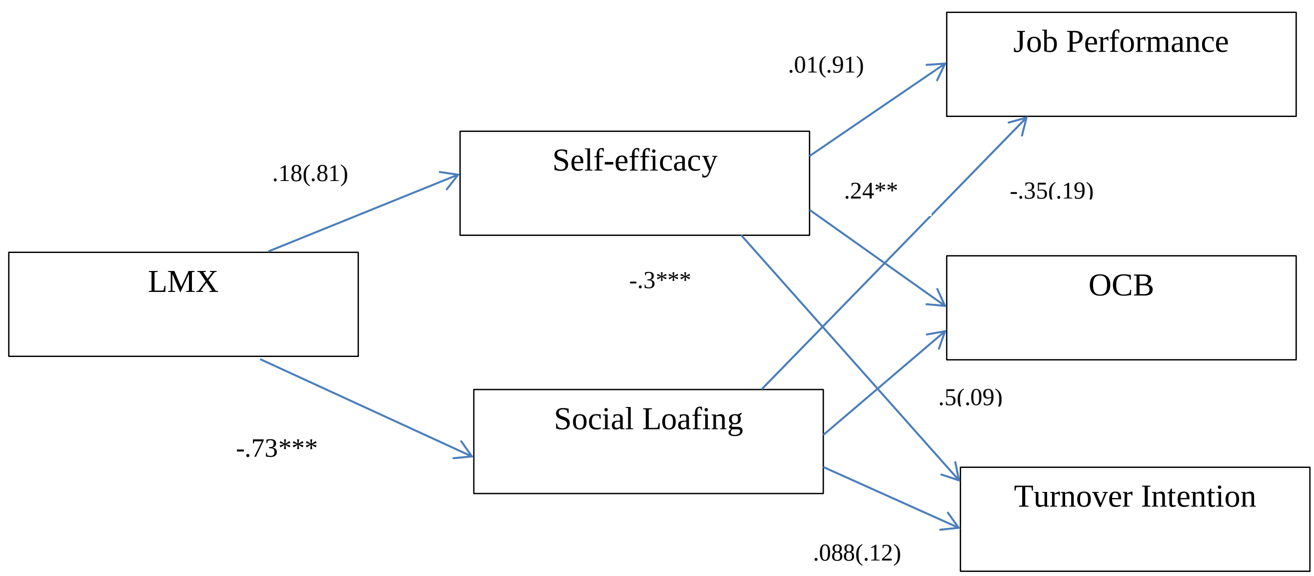


Figure4.24 SEM results for LMX model



5 Discussion

It has been proposed that social exchange and economic exchange relationships (SLMX and ELMX) could represent qualitatively different forms of relationships (Blau, 1964; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006). Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Haerem, (2012) called for investigations into LMX relationship from these two different perspectives (economic and social) rather than the dominating view of exchange relationships from a unitary perspective, where quality of the relation ranges from low to high on a single continuum. Consequently, the present study provided a comparison between these two trends of viewing the leader-member exchange relationships and testing the effect of these relationships on employee outcomes; job performance, Organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention. The study also considers the role of mediators in these relationships. LMX theory points to a number of possible mediators explaining how high LMX quality leads to better employee outcomes. This research examined both social loafing and self-efficacy as potential mediators in these exchangeable relationships. Findings of this study help clarify how both self-efficacy and social loafing mediate the impact of LMX relationship, as one dimension as well as two dimensions, on employee job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention.

Furthermore, although considerable research has focused on understanding this exchangeable relationship, little research has examined how dyad duration affects this relationship. LMX development is inherently a process that occurs over time (Day, 2014). Antecedents of LMX can play diverse roles and change in terms of their relative significance at different stages of a leader-member exchange relationship (Bauer & Green, 1996; Graen & Scandura, 1987). To address this gap, the author considered the effect of dyad tenure on these exchangeable relationships and tested three different groups with different dyad tenures. Findings of the effect of length of these relationships on different study variables are discussed later in the chapter.

Moreover, this study replicated and extended prior research on the reciprocal process underpinning the LMX relationship. The chapter discusses the data analysis outcomes reported for this study, where it focuses on interpreting and explaining the findings for both leaders' and members' ratings of different study variables. A rational is put forward explaining the outcomes of the data analysis. The distinctiveness of the key constructs in this study, namely, LMX, Economic LMX (ELMX), Social LMX (SLMX), employee job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, employee turnover intention, social loafing and employee self-efficacy were confirmed by the results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

This study first discusses the findings of the ANOVA test related to dyad duration. It provides a detailed description of each dyad tenure group effect on LMX quality, social and economic, as well as on employee outcomes; job performance, OCB and employee turnover intention. Later in this chapter, a comparison of the findings of the two models of the study, LMX as one continuum and ELMX & SLMX as two different perspectives is discussed.

The main finding was the emphasize on Kuvaas et al., (2012) conceptualization of social leader-member exchange (SLMX) and economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) as two separate dimensions of the LMX relationship. The supplementary findings are discussed and included to provide in depth explanations. This discussion is including the identification of gaps from the current literature. It is followed by an explanation of the key contributions of the theoretical and managerial implications, and considers the limitations of the current study along with recommendations for future studies.

5.1 Leaders and members perspective on relationship quality

This research responded to the many calls to consider both parties of the relationship in research investigation. In their meta-analysis about antecedents and consequences of leader-member exchange, (Dulebohn et al., 2011), pointed that their review of the LMX literature revealed that a number of the LMX relationships are reported by subordinates, and thus derived from a single source. Data in this research was collected from the perspectives of supervisors as well as subordinates. LMX is a theory of differential relationships, and in order to assess this relationship accurately, both members of the dyad should be included to ensure reliable outcomes. Assessing the relations with respect to both members' views would certainly allow us to articulate a thorough understanding of the nature of this dyad. Both members of the dyad form perceptions of their dyadic counterpart, this in turn influence leader and member reactions to the relationship (Dulebohn et al., 2011).

As noted by Scandura & Schriesheim, (1994), the prevailing practice in the existing literature has been to survey the relationship solely from member's perspective. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, (2003), recommended collecting the measures of variables from different measures to reduce bias. Viewing the relationship from both perspectives enables the employee to have a clear understanding about the ways in which they influence the quality of the relationship, as well as to understand the ways in which their leaders influences the relationship's quality (Hall, 1996; Sullivan, 1999). Based on these recommendations, two sources were utilized to gather data about relationship quality in order to reduce common source bias. Both leaders and members provided ratings of LMX, ELMX, and SLMX. Immediate supervisors rated their direct employees job performance and social loafing. Employees provided ratings of their OCB and Self-efficacy.

5.2 The impact of Dyad tenure on leaders-members exchange

The study of LMX quality has been of interest to management researchers as it is presumed to play a significant role in shaping employee work attitudes and behaviors (Dulebohn et al., 2011; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Contemporary leadership theories like transformational, servant or authentic theories focused on the consequences of leader behaviors on employee attitudes, satisfaction, motivation and outcomes. LMX extends the literature by viewing the dyadic relationship quality between leaders and their members as the key to understand the effects of leaders on members, teams, and organization. Researchers have made much progress in establishing LMX as a main construct in the leadership realm over the years (Bauer & Erdogan, 2015). LMX theory is one of the first systematic leadership theories that included the follower in leadership process (Schyns & Day, 2010). The theory explains how leaders form high quality relations with some members who report to them. These relations are characterized with trust, affect, respect and long term commitment. They are also associated with positive work-related outcomes such as employee satisfaction and performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997) as well as citizenship behavior (Ilies et al., 2007). Leaders will also tend to have lower quality exchanges with some employees where these relations are limited to job description and are economic in nature. Subordinates in these low quality relationships receive limited support and trust from their leaders, which in turn affects their performance and increase their turnover intention (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Considering time in research started to pull the attention of scholars. According to Shamir (2011), most theories and studies of leadership ignore the dimension of time. He elaborated that many organizational phenomena are time dependent, and hence many ways in which leadership and time are potentially related. Efforts were made to investigate the conditions under which high quality LMX results in favorable work outcomes. Some scholars have put research forward and included organizational tenure as a moderator in this relationship and particularly on job performance (Kim, Liu, & Diefendorff, 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Bauer & Erdogan, (2015), noted that the growth in the LMX research literature has been explosive as researchers and business leaders similarly begin to realize the impact LMX can have on significant job outcomes such as performance, job satisfaction and turnover. They elaborated that LMX relationships is an important topic for inclusion and exploration, thus, understanding LMX's antecedents and the key societal issues and implications for LMX is the key to unlocking the full potential of LMX at the dyadic, group, and organizational level. In their paper ' Leaders, Followers and time', Bluedorn & Jaussi, (2008) considered leadership from a temporal perspective. They argued that relationships between leaders and followers occur over time and it would be difficult, if not impossible, to consider leadership without time playing a critical role. However, prior research has not adequately investigated the effect of dyad tenure on LMX relationship and on different employee outcomes.

According to Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, & Stogdill, (1974), variables like supervisory and/or subordinate experience, ability and skills could change with the passage of time and as a consequence, this in turn may exert an influence on relationship between leader behavior and follower satisfaction and performance. Although LMX research has established linkages between LMX quality and employees outcomes, little is known about the process by which dyad tenure affects employee outcomes. Kim et al., (2015), stated that understanding the conditions under which high-quality LMX results in favorable work outcomes is important. The current literature seldom examines the impact of the dyad tenure on this exchangeable relationship. A critical question raised by different researchers is how leaders and subordinates develop and maintain their effective working relationships over time (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Ilies, 2009). Dyad tenure, the length of the relationship between a leader and a reporting member, is assumed to have an influence on the exchangeable relationship process.

LMX depends largely on the social exchange theory which suggests that individuals are less likely to reciprocate benefits in social exchange when they do not believe the other party can be trusted to trade fairly over time and vice versa (Blau, 1964). Additionally, Shamir, (2011), argued that the consequences of particular leadership inputs may depend on time; input-outcome leadership theories do not specify the duration and stability of the outcomes. He explained that some effect may increases continuously, others may reach a certain level and remain stable, yet others may increase initially and then decline. One of the primary objectives of this study was to fill this void by investigating the influence of the length of leader-employee dyad on the quality of their relationship, considering the social and economic perspectives, and how this tenure impacts employees outcomes (job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention), as well as their psychological behaviors (self-efficacy and social loafing). Hypotheses with regard to dyad duration were developed and tested. The analysis generated some new findings with respect to dyad tenure.

5.3 Indications of dyad tenure in this study

For the purpose of this research, respondents were grouped according to the length of their dyadic tenure. Groups were divided as follow; group one (2-12 months), group two (13-24 months), and group three (25 months and above). ANOVA test was performed to identify any significant difference in the mean scores of the investigated variables. Results have shown that some of the tested variables had non-linear relationship with dyad tenure. With regard to the quality of the exchange, both LMX and ELMX relationships revealed a statistically significant difference between groups. The quality of the LMX relationships showed a gradual increase as the dyad of the relationship becomes longer. This is consistent with Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1991), explanation of a dyadic relationship development with time. They clarified that LMX relationships develop over time from lower quality to high quality. They attributed these improvements in the relationship to the amount of exchangeable information and resources that continue over time and make these relationships matures.

Whereas SLMX relationships results were not significant, yet it also showed a gradual increase in the social exchange between leaders and their respective members as the dyad tenure increases. As indicated by Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick, (2009), immediate supervisors' act as an interpreter of knowledge significant for learning about the new work environment. They explained that supervisors serve as a purveyor of resources important for the newcomers to experience generalized reciprocity with and, thus, attachment to the new context. Social exchange is a major explanatory framework of individual's interaction and transition across relationships and organizations (Shore et al., 2009).

Newcomer's perceptions of LMX create a sense of reciprocity and mutuality to the their leaders, work context, and organization (Blau, 1964; Dienesch & Liden, 1986a). The start of the dyad is usually characterized with uncertainty and this uncertainty reduces as the role-related information becomes clearer and experiences a structured socialization context (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Jones, 1986; Louis, 1980). The increase on both LMX and SLMX relationships as the relationship progress is consistent with the social exchange theory which suggest that employees pass through three stages to reach the sense of mutuality; role taking, role making and role routinization (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Graen & Scandura, 1987). Leaders play an important role as they are representative of the organization and form exchangeable relationships with their members where these relationships has two key dyadic dimensions, mutuality and reciprocity.

A clearer picture of the LMX and SLMX increases over time can be further understood when referring to the model of " Leadership making" model provided by Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995). Their model describes relationship development among leaders and followers. According to their model, relationships begin with a "stranger" phase, where interactions occur on a more formal, economic, and contractual basis. Leaders provide members with what they need only in order to carry on their duties, while members will only meet the minimum requirements of their role. At this stage, both will put the other party under test and will build the base about the other parties' reactions and expectations. Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, (1997), indicated that both parties will tend to test how the other is valuing the reciprocations, which are expected to be high at this stage. This stage is featured with immediate cash and carry reciprocity; this was obvious as the results revealed quite high ELMX relationships for early dyads in this sample (2-12 months). In such relationship, the emphasis will be on the balance of what one gets from the relationship and what one gives and they go beyond the call of duty only if they know exactly that they will get an immediate return.

Following this stage, an offer for better relationships will be provided by one of the parties and must be accepted. This leads to the second stage that is *the acquaintance stage*. Here, more exchanges occur and more information is shared on both the personal and professional level. Expectations are assumed to improve between parties. According to Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), relationships at this stage are mixed exchanges between SLMX and ELMX. Although the employee is still considering the instrumental value of the exchange, yet, some delay in reciprocation is accepted. In fact, the quality of the relationship defines and shapes further reciprocity of a dyad. High- quality LMX enhances followers' perception of social exchange with their organization, and this in turn brings about some positive employee outcomes (Loi et al., 2009). The final stage according to Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995), of their model of " Leadership making" is *the mature stage*, where more behavioral and emotional exchanges are encountered. They assume that exchanges between leaders and members are high and time span for reciprocity is indefinite. This indicates that LMX relationships are assumed to improve as the dyads tenure increases. The same is expected for the SLMX relationship when considering LMX as two different perspectives.

Additionally Ferris et al., (2009) proposed a model of dyadic work relationships that provides an additional understanding about relationships development. Ferris and his colleagues stated that the initial stage of dyadic work relations is characterized with an early relational emphasis on the perceived costs and benefits of social exchange, thus, instrumentality is particularly important. Economic exchanges are most common at the initial interaction exchange and this relationship is marked by a search for information between the leader and the member regarding the potential instrumentality of social exchanges (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987; Ferris et al., 2009; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Kram, 1983). The findings in the current study strongly support this economic exchangeable view where ELMX relationships were high for dyads ranging between 2-12 months in length. Numerous studies have always demonstrated that leader-member exchange is usually limited to both employees and leader's job description at the beginning of the relation. Direct reciprocity is expected within short-term economic exchange of behavior. Most scholars agree on a central theme that as relationships improve, they become more "social" and less " economic", with a decreased expectation of direct reciprocity (Blau, 1964). Many argued that through a series of social exchanges, leader and follower develop trust with each other and this lead to an expectation that the positive exchange will continue (Sue-Chan, Au, & Hackett, 2012). Ferris and his colleagues suggested that, as per their work relationship stages and dimensions model, dyad relationships develop and progress where different aspects of social exchanges including trust, support, commitment, loyalty and flexibility develop along with reduction in instrumentality dimension.

Surprisingly, contrary to the expectations, ELMX relationships showed a significant increase for dyads tenure between 13-24 months. This could largely explain why this group has also recorded the highest employee social loafing result and the lowest job performance records. Low job performance has always been linked with employees engagement in social loafing (Karau & Williams, 1993). Social loafing is one of the variables that significantly revealed a non-linear relationship with dyad tenure. SL was high at the start of the dyad, (group of 2-12 months tenure). It would be logical to assume that newcomers would have high social loafing tendency. This is attributed to their high expectations when they join the organization. Newcomers' expectation and social environment will have an influence on their adaption during early entry

(Yanjuan & Wei, 2015). They elaborated that newcomers will need support from organization members to help them adapt to the organization and build relationships. Moreover, newcomers could need time to learn the requirements of their roles and hence, might depend on their experienced colleagues to capture more information about their duties.

However, SL increased after the first year of dyad tenure. It was noticed here that as the relationship progress, it goes beyond the limit of formal employment agreement as we could see an increase in SLMX; yet, employees would still have expectations as a return for their efforts. When these expectations are unmet, they could have a critical and dysfunctional impact on employees turnover intention, job performance (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992) and self-efficacy (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991). ELMX relationships were significantly the highest for groups with dyad tenure of 13-24 months indicating a non-linear relationship between ELMX relationships and dyad tenure. This group exhibited lower job performance when compared to the other two groups. The suggested concept by many scholars that leader-member exchange relationships develop fairly quickly and remain stable after they have been formed (Dansereau et al., 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986a; Liden & Graen, 1980). Yet, this trend was not supported in the current research. In fact, duties and performance are relatively complex and usually occur over an extended time period, where parties involved in the exchange may direct much efforts toward carefully defining and measuring the items of exchange (Dwyer et al., 1987). Some longitudinal studies were conducted in this field, yet, most of these studies were targeting early stages of the development of LMX dyads. Many scholars investigated the early months of new employees and how their initial relations with the leader were established (Liden et al., 1993; Nahrgang et al., 2009). Dulebohn et al., (2011), Have stated that most of the longitudinal studies of LMX have covered less than one year of the relationship (e.g Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993; Nahrgang et al., 2009), therefore little is known about how this relationship progress over time, how to maintain it and what leads to its decline. More specifically, it is not clear when ELMX relationships begin to diminish within a dyadic relationship as some scholar assume. Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), explained that how each dyad progress through the stages they proposed of "leadership making" model varies in real time. They stated that relationships development is based upon different factors like task structure and individual characteristics.

5.4 ELMX/SLMX dynamic nature

Relationships should not be looked at as a total deviation from economic exchange to social exchange. Goodwin, Bowler, & Whittington,(2009) has proposed that the economic or instrumental behaviors that are related with low-quality relationships can occur over time and remain as the relationship develop into a higher quality relationship. Behaviors can be expressive in nature, or performed for the sake of the behavior, that is behaviors that have typically associated with high quality dyads (e.g., helping, listening, offering advice, discussing non-work related topic, etc.). Additionally, Lin, (2001), explained that there are behaviors that are instrumental in nature, characterized by direct reciprocity and seeking others with more resources, traditionally considered to be descriptive for lower quality relationships. Lin elaborated that either behavior may be typical of a particular relationship (high or low quality), both types of behaviors can simultaneously occur in a relationship. Results of the current research revealed that although employees had very high ELMX relationships in their second year with their leaders compared to the first year members, it was noticed that they have also scored higher SLMX relationships. The research conducted by Goodwin et al., (2009) furthered our understanding of the economic and social exchanges in LMX relationship by providing evidence that the “economic” qualities that are typically associated with low-quality exchange actually persists in high quality relationships. They found that the instrumental aspects of the relationship remain vital and enduring. They argued that although leader- follower relationships may evolve over time, it is not necessarily that they switch from an economic, or instrumental, relationship to a purely social one. In addition, in a recent finding by Sun et al.,(2013), it was suggested that economic and social exchanges are two paralleling exchanges that both have been linked to motivate employees outcomes.

Unfortunately, it was difficult to find literature in the LMX field that explains such a trend, however some other disciplines were utilized to further our understanding. With reference to organizational behavior literature, Arnold & Nicholson, (1991), examined how graduates construe themselves and others during early career using a sample of ninety-four graduate entrants to a multinational corporation with zero to four year’s tenure. Their study showed that employees perceive cumulative change in themselves during the early career years, however, this change cannot be defined if it is better or not, and whether it guarantees greater involvement and commitment or not. They further argued that managing young graduates in not simply about the first year, it thereafter requires careful nurturing by using appropriate career development systems and management of internal job changes. This indicates to a large extent the effect of time on employee development in the first years of employment. We can also assume that an LMX relationship also changes and takes time to develop. For further clarification, research analyzing the interpersonal attraction and the interdependence relationships between husbands and wives could provide an apt framework for describing the development of LMX dyadic relationships. For example, a meta-analysis of 37 studies found small but significant decrease in relationship satisfaction for male and female newly married couples during the first year or two of marriage (Mitnick et al., 2009). Another study showed that relationship satisfaction declined over a 3 year period in over two thirds of married couples with a moderate to large effect size ($r = -.40$) (Levenson & Gottman, 1985). Likewise, another study that included married and dating couples, found that the level of relationship satisfaction declined or remained unchanged over 18 months in over two thirds of couples (Byers, 2005). Worth mentioning here, is that satisfaction has always been linked to high job performance in the field of LMX. Research has shown LMX to be positively related to desired outcomes including increased job performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim et al., 1999) and job satisfaction (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Furthermore, when considering the literature on higher education, findings on the faculty development and socialization process showed that the early years of faculty appointment, particularly, the first three years, are a period of intense socialization (Baldwin & Blackburn, 1981; Finkelstein, 1984). Others stated that early years of a faculty are the most difficult period of an academic career, as it is considered to include high degrees of stress and low satisfaction (Baldwin, 1979). Additionally, Olsen, (1993), founded that newly appointed lecturers struggle to define expectations and this can be seen in their high need for recognition and profession-specific needs for autonomy, challenge and accomplishments. Referring back to the social theory, the core theory that explains LMX, organizational socialization researchers noticed that entry time intervals of 3 months, 6 months and 9 months are the most frequently used intervals for data collection in socialization research (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer, Morrison & Callister, 1998). Perhaps these examined time intervals might not reflect the accurate changes in the socialization process. Ostroff & Kozlowski, (1993), indicated that there were differences in individual patterns of information acquisition over time. The socialization process could possibly require longer time to develop.

It is safe to assume that early years of a dyad are very critical and a member is vulnerable to pressure when his or her expectation, at least the economic ones, are not met. As mentioned earlier, an employee is likely to reduce efforts when initial expectations of different tangible exchanges are unmet. Both models of (Ferris et al., 2009) and (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) have agreed that the instrumental factor continues to persist in the second and possibly the third stage of a relationship, though this does not contradict with the possibility of involving in higher SLMX relationships.

A further critical outcome of the current research is the interesting findings for group of dyad tenure of 25 months and above. Employees under this group exhibited the highest job performance and LMX quality as well as the lowest social loafing trends and ELMX exchanges. Kim et al., (2015), have found that organizational tenure moderates the indirect effect of LMX relationship quality on job performance, where tenure moderates the linkage between taking charge and job performance. A further key finding was also made by Ng & Feldman (2010), where they provided a meta-analysis on the relationships between organizational tenure and three broad classes of job behaviors. They found that longer tenured employees generally have greater in-role performance and citizenship performance. Longer tenured employees could dedicate more resources to social-oriented tasks like helping others and making constructive suggestions, than other technically oriented job tasks (Ng & Feldman, 2010). With the use of dyad tenure in this study, this finding is consistent with Ng & Feldman (2010) results, who found that task performance peaks for employees with organizational tenure of 3 and 6 years. Ng & Feldman, (2010), suggested that employees with higher organizational tenure have accumulated relationships and knowledge along their career. The same can be assumed with a dyadic tenure. Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), indicated that as relationships progress, they tend to become more mature and countable. They elaborated that both parties can count on each other for loyalty, support and most importantly obligation. Exchanges between members of the dyad may have a long time span of reciprocations 'return of favors'. In the current research, we take the stance that dyad tenure may also have varying degree of influence on employee outcomes. As employees progress in their relationships with their respective leaders, they become more aware and experienced with work procedures. The leader will give less supervision to employees with more experience and focus more on new employees. Findings from previous research showed that as employees' progress in their job; they receive less supervision from their leaders. This is because leaders expect employees to be more familiar with job duties. Ferris et al.,(2009) stated that accountability becomes salient as relationships develop and they referred to accountability as meeting the expectations tied to maintaining high-quality relationships. This sense of responsibility makes employees work harder and achieve better work performance (Biao & Cheng, 2014). Scott & Vredenburgh, (1979) found that nurses personnel with more experience received less considerate leadership from head nurses which resulted in increased amount of tension and mixed effects on job performance. Katz, (1980), also suggested that after initial socialization, employees focus on innovative and adaptive behaviors beyond routine task performance, achieving more challenging tasks and improving particular skills and abilities. As a consequence, emphasize of the leader would shift from routine performance to broader work-related behaviors. This would put more expectations from employees with longer work durations. However, Nahrgang et al., (2009), have proposed that the trajectory of LMX relationship quality over time excluding the initial interaction is due changes in member performance and leader performance.

It is also worth noting that Higher education culture is characterized with high employee autonomy compared to other work contexts. Autonomy could also be another logical explanation for employees’ high performance for dyad tenures of 25 months and above. The core aspects of lecturers job content is mainly teaching and research which somehow requires some autonomy. Lecturers are expected to work hard for their own personal development. Academic publications are vital in keeping abreast of international development in science and scholarship. Moreover, most of the study sample comprises of non-Omani lecturers, who are also employed through agencies with a yearly bases contract. This could largely explain their high job performance and better SLMX relations, perhaps to get through to next year contract renewal. Sometimes these experienced employees get tensed as they fear to damage their self-image when they fail their duties, which in return explains the level of tension as the relation progress (Hochwarter, Perrewé, Hall, & Ferris, 2005). This could explain why longer dyad tenures also expressed lower ELMX relationships and social loafing due to the nature of exchange in an academic context.

Additionally, it is not a surprise that findings revealed a positive linear relationship between employee turnover intention and dyad tenure opposite to what was hypothesized. Findings in this research showed that turnover intention was positively related to dyad tenure. Although the finding was not significant, it would be beneficial to discuss this finding to provide recommendations for future investigation. Several studies supported a general, negative relationship between individual job performance and turnover, e.g. (Dalton, Krackhardt, & Porter, 1981; Hollenbeck & Williams, 1986). Other studies on the hand have reported a positive relationship, no relationship, or even a non-linear relationship between the two (Morrow, McElroy, Laczniak, & Fenton, 1999; Price & Mueller, 1981). Previous research has identified unclear and conflicting results between work performance and voluntary turnover or intent to leave (Wright, 2011). Mowday et al., (1982), suggested that as the length of service increases, the probability that employees will receive more challenging job assignments is very common. Some scholars assumed a positive relationship between performance and voluntary turnover (Jackofsky & Peters, 1983); high performers tend to have higher withdraw compared to low performers as they have more alternative opportunities and/ or have aspirations that leads to their attraction to other organizations, ultimately leading to increased turnover intention (Harris et al., 2005). Thibaut & Kelley, (1959), theorized that an individual assesses the overall cost and rewards from the total association against the level of outcomes available from other alternatives outside the organization. Additionally, Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben, & Pautsch, (2005), assessed the role of LMX in affecting voluntary turnover and their result indicated that LMX is found to be nonlinearly related to turnover such that turnover is lowest when LMX is moderate whereas (bad and good) LMX relationships are associated with higher levels of turnover. So, regardless of the non-significant results in the current research, higher LMX qualities relationships seem to be related to higher employee turnover intention, especially when considering the two different perspectives of the relationship differently. In this context, having a yearly renewal contract could make the desire to leave the organization more approachable. In light of this, considering ELMX relationships particularly with job performance and employee turnover intention need further consideration.

Another explanation of this interesting positive association between employee turnover intention and dyad tenure may be explained by arguing that employees with higher quality LMX/SLMX relationships receive benefits from their leaders. Supervisors will put more demands on subordinates to complete tasks that are outside the scope of the job description along with their usual role tasks. Therefore, employees work harder to complete all tasks assigned to them to decrease their feelings of obligation, even those that are beyond their formal job requirements. Scholars like Edwards, (1992), described the consequences of this scenario. With an increase in job requirements, employees are more likely to feel that they have lost control of their work due to the excessive work demands. They feel as if they will never be able to escape work and this in turn leads to an increased feeling of uncertainty, resulting in a feeling of threat by an environment that has essentially taken over their lives. Feelings of uncertainty, lack of control, and being threatened have been identified as potential stressors. Harris & Kacmar, (2006), explained that the additional requirements that subordinates have in high-quality relationships are likely to outweigh the increased social support and communication that they receive from their leaders and this in turn leads to increased perceived stress among followers. This is very common as LMX relationships makes subordinates expectations and obligations greater as LMX quality increases (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Supervisors expect members in high quality relationships to perform tasks that are beyond the scope of the formal job description (Wayne et al., 1997). It is critical here to highlight that although longer dyad tenure in the current research scored the highest job performance and lowest ELMX relationships, it is likely that these variables could fluctuate. Ng & Feldman, (2010) for example, indicated that relationship between organizational tenure and performance might be positive for up to some years till individuals have learned virtually all aspects of their jobs, therefore the length of the tenure might not produce any further marginal increase in job performance. The same can be argued with regards to dyad tenure. Moreover, it is argued that increase in employee tenure does not always mean an increase in performance or other positive work behaviors. Peter & Hull, (1969) argued that organizational tenure and performance are not linearly related. They suggested that employees get promoted up organizational hierarchies until they reach a position for which they do not have adequate skills and from which they can no longer get promoted. They proposed that the relationship between organizational tenure and performance will weaken over time. Although an employee is likely to receive more social support and resources from their leaders once a high-quality LMX relationship had been established (Lam, Huang, & Snape, 2007), yet there will come a time where leaders have limited resources or no more to give. Therefore, this continuous pressure on employees with longer dyads could lead to undesirable outcomes eventually. Leaders should realize that establishing higher SLMX relationships are not enough. Considering tangible resources in these dyads are of crucial importance.

Porter & Steers, (1973), provided definition of met expectations in industrial and organizational research. One of the aspects of this definition is about considering the expectations held by the job candidates prior joining an organization and how these expectations are compared with their post entry experiences. Another aspect of the definition concerns the specific meaning of met expectations, specifically, the discrepancy between one's initial expectations and one's subsequent beliefs after entering an organization and experiencing it as a full time employee. Studies related met expectations to different attitudes and behaviors like job satisfaction, intention to remain and job performance. Relying on this conceptualization, it can be suggested that at the start of a dyadic relationship, each party will have particular expectations in mind. When an individual develops certain expectations about another person's behavior, these expectations' are communicated to that target person, consciously or unconsciously, where the target person receives and internalizes these expectations and modifies his or her actions as a response to those expectations (Sutton & Woodman, 1989). Actually, the same scenario can be assumed in an LMX reciprocal process. In fact, what specifies a high quality exchange is the mutual amount of effort exerted by every party (Mary Uhl-Bien, 2006). Newcomers enter an organizational setting with a set of expectations regarding the new context and their specific roles within the environment. Lecturers could also have particular expectations from their dyadic relationship with their leader. Scholars indicated that when newcomer expectations about the organization and their roles do not match the real scenario, it is likely to cause some critical problems (Wanous et al., 1992). They indicated that one of these problems is associated with newcomer job performance and job satisfaction. This could likely explain the drop in job performance for the middle group (13-24 months) in this sample. Lecturers could experience this mismatch, yet when considering the actual job requirements of a lecturer, "teaching, supervising and publication", effect of unmet expectations from the leader might not be large or perhaps the nature of lecturer's job autonomy makes them work harder.

As explained by Shamir, (2011), Leadership relationships are not only reciprocal but also dynamic, where followers' responses to the leader's actions influence the leaders' further actions and leaders' responses to followers' characteristics and actions also affect the leader's perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and actions. These continuous interactions would result in developing certain expectations in mind about a particular leader/member and these expectations in return would influence performance. Usually the expectations held by new recruits are almost inflated (Wanous, 1992). Lectures could have particular expectations in mind that are different from what they receive. This could have a negative reaction in their attitudes as reduction was recorded in their job performance and high tendency to loaf their duties. However, perhaps due to the nature of the academic context, they started to accept these circumstances especially; their duty as lecturers requires certain obligations they cannot escape. Academic outcome usually is evaluated from different aspects; self, students, peers and heads. So, this could buffer the negative impact of unmet expectations with their direct leaders.

5.5 LMX model versus ELMX and SLMX model

Leader-member exchange theory has emerged a significant framework in the leadership literature that explains how building high quality LMX relationships enhance effective leadership (Dulebohn et al., 2011; Gerstner & Day, 1997). One void in current research in LMX relationships is the neglect of the economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) and social leader-member exchange (SLMX) as two salient forms of the dyadic relationship. Lin, (2001), suggested that there are some behaviors that are instrumental in nature, and these instrumental behaviors are likely to be prevalent in relationships characterized by direct reciprocity, traditionally considered to be descriptive of LMX relationships with lower quality. One of the aims of the current study was to re-examine SLMX and ELMX as relationships with different qualities rather than different levels of quality, and how the two different forms of leader-member exchange relationships relate to members' job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and employee turnover intention.

The principal finding was that SLMX and ELMX relationships did exist as two different qualities in a leader-member exchange relationship. Results supported the proposition that economic and social exchange represent two separate dimensions of a leader-member exchange relationship. These findings aligned well with those of Kuvaas et al., (2012), who empirically proposed social and economic exchange relationships as two different aspects of the leader-member exchange. In addition, social loafing and self-efficacy were found to mediate the relationships between SLMX, ELMX exchanges and employee job performance and turnover intention, which further underpins the distinction between economic and social exchange in a dyadic relationship.

The following sections discuss the findings of the two frameworks which were established in Chapters 2. Additionally, within the frameworks, findings from different research hypotheses were discussed and compared with the reviewed literature. Hypotheses were tested and assessed with structural equation modeling in order to investigate the ELMX and SLMX relationships. Results yielded from the SEM analysis were discussed below.

5.5.1 LMX relationship as one continuum compared to two different perspectives (SLMX and ELMX)

One of the aims of this study was to conceptualize social leader-member exchange (SLMX) and economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) as two separate dimensions of leader-member exchange. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) conducted on the full scales of the two-factor model reflecting separate, but correlated, factors of social and economic leader-member exchange resulted in a well-defined measurement model. The two dimensional structural model of ELMX and SLMX provided a god model fit. Furthermore, a one factor model of the same items did not fit the data very well, thus supporting the treatment of SLMX and ELMX as two different scales. Results showed that ELMX relationships related negatively to employee job performance and positively to employee turnover intention. The opposite was found with SLMX relationships as they related negatively to employee turnover intention and positively to job performance. These results are in line with previous findings of (Buch et al., 2011; Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, et al., 2012). On the other hand, LMX relationships model have also revealed results that are aligned with the traditional conceptualizations and measurements of LMX. Research has always suggested that LMX is positively related to job performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997), organizational citizenship behavior (Ilies et al., 2007) and negatively to employee turnover intention (Gerstner & Day, 1997). LMX in this study was significantly related to job performance and turnover intention only. However, all study variables, except for TI and SLMX, have scored higher correlations with ELMX and SLMX relationships compared to LMX relationship. This clearly supported that these two distinct constructs of LMX relationship should be treated separately.

The one direction theme adopted in the study of the LMX relationships rely heavily on social exchange theory (Dulebohn et al., 2011; Benin Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Liao et al., 2010; Wayne & Green, 1993). The theory has been suggesting that, as relationships improve, they tend to be more “social” and less “economic”, and this involves reduction in direct reciprocity and self-interest. This conceptual position suggest that relationships progress from this economic pole to the other end of the continuum, where long-term mutual exchanges, open-ended and less in a need of immediate “ pay off” relationships occur (Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, & Schminke, 2001). However, Kuvaas et al., (2012) indicated that considering the one single approach is assumed to provide incomplete picture of the exchangeable relationship. The findings will lack the investigation of the economic perspectives, ELMX relationship, leading to the production of inaccurate and obfuscate results.

Kuvaas et al., (2012) indicated that social exchange theory itself acknowledges that both social and economic exchanges are assumed to motivate productive behaviors. Kuvaas and his colleagues based their statement on the meta-analysis of Rhoades & Eisenberger, (2002), who showed that both tangible and social organizational inducements are positively related to perceived organizational support, this is consequently related to positive work performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Some previous research that are in favor of the two different perspectives of LMX relationship assumption found negative correlation between ELMX and SLMX relationships, for example, Kuvaas et al., (2012), found a modest relationship where ($r = -.19$, $p < .001$). Additionally, Buch, Kuvaas, & Dysvik, (2011) validated a new scale measuring ELMX in their cross-lagged study and found negative correlations as well, ($r = -.30$, $p < 0.01$) study 1 and ($r = -.44$, $p < 0.01$) study 2. However, the current research did not reveal a negative correlation. Findings showed a modest positive correlation between ELMX and SLMX relationships ($r = .190$, $p <. 0.01$) which indicates that these two dimensions of the exchange are parallel and further support the two distinct relationships of LMX. This finding is largely consistent with Goodwin et al., (2009) statement, who indicated that the instrumental and social aspects of the relationship appear to exist simultaneously. This positive correlation imply that economic exchanges do take place within SLMX relationships, however, either the social or the economic aspects predominate the nature of the relationship. Economic factor is a major component of the LMX relationship. Sun et al., (2013) for example, focused on the tangible aspect of the relationship and found that the greater the perceived value of tangible resource exchanged, the more employees reciprocate through performing citizenship behavior.

In general, this finding along with the production of two opposite relations of employee JP and turnover intention with ELMX and SLMX, suggests that a more accurate understanding of LMX relationship may be reached by assessing the relationship as two relatively independent aspects of exchange, economic and social. Overall, LMX relationships based on the instrumental value that comes from a dyad member's position, in addition to, or in place of, traditional LMX variables should relate positively to performance and career outcomes (Goodwin et al., 2009).

With regard to organizational citizenship behavior, economic exchanges were positively related to OCB which contradicts with the proposed negative relationship of ELMX on OCB. This finding also does not align with Kuvaas et al., (2012) findings of the negative correlation ELMX has on OCB. However, although the positive relations between SLMX and ELMX relationships were not significant, it would be beneficial to discuss these results. Finding a positive correlation between SLMX and OCB was expected, yet what is particularly interesting is the positive correlation of ELMX relationships with OCB. This could be attributed to the moderating effect of national culture on LMX relationships. These findings are consistent with the assertion that individualism-collectivism and power distance have implications on outcomes of LMX as suggested by scholars like, Anand et al.,(2011) and Rockstuhl et al., (2012). Employees in these cultures tend to show more cooperative attitudes with each other as part of their collective culture. Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson, (2008), found that the extent to which how OCB dimensions were viewed as in-role versus extra-role varied considerably among participants as a result to variations in their social beliefs.

5.5.2 Social loafing and self-efficacy as mediators in the leader-member exchange relationship

Whereas there is evidence available on the outcomes of leader-member exchange relationship as two different perspectives, economic and social (e.g. Kuvaas et al., 2012), so far less is known about the mediating influence of social loafing and self-efficacy on the LMX relationship outcomes when considering these two different perspectives of LMX relationship. Although LMX researchers have established linkages between LMX quality and employee outcomes, little is known about the process or mechanisms by which LMX quality affects employees' job performance (Kim et al., 2015). The same is assumed for OCB and employee turnover intention. An additional objective of the current study was to investigate the impact of LMX, SLMX and ELMX relationships on employee job performance, OCB and turnover intention when considering the mediating role of self-efficacy and social loafing. After identifying the direct relation of LMX for both economic and social relationships (ELMX and SLMX) with employee job performance, OCB and turnover intention, the focus was shifted to exploring whether or not social loafing and self-efficacy acted as key mediators in this relationship. The mediation analysis of structural model was performed.

With regard to self-efficacy, no significant relationship was found between self-efficacy and LMX relationship when considered the relationship as one continuum of high to low quality. On the other hand, the findings also suggested that ELMX relationships were associated negatively to self-efficacy. SLMX showed a positive association with self-efficacy, even though results were not significant. Results showed that self-efficacy partially mediated the relationship between both ELMX and SLMX relationships and job performance. This finding further supports the two distinct conceptualizations, where ELMX and SLMX relationships should be treated as two different perspectives of LMX relationship.

Self-efficacy seems to increase effectiveness across a number of different performance areas (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Walumbwa and his colleagues found that the positive relationship between leader-member exchange and job performance is partially mediated by self-efficacy. In turn, self-efficacy partially mediated the negative impact of ELMX and positive impact of SLMX on job performance. This was attributed earlier to high LMX relationship quality as it boosts effective work behavior by increasing self-efficacy of subordinates as employees feel they are appreciated by their leaders. Leaders assign more responsibilities and challenging duties to employees with higher SLMX relationships. As a consequence, employees' confidence in their skills and capabilities is increased leading to stronger desire to do well (Bandura, 1986). This kind of social exchange as mentioned earlier makes employees exert extra efforts and go beyond the call of duty for their leaders. Particularly, employees feel obligated to reciprocate the good will and support received from their leaders resulting from the high social exchange (Masterson et al., 2000; S. Wayne et al., 1997). Therefore, strong social exchange relationship would make individuals want to be high job performers.

Contrary to the above argument, subordinates with high economic exchange relationships are usually motivated by immediate self-interest and demand repayment within a particular time period. Exchanges are concrete or in *a quid pro quo* fashion. The nature of obligations is specified in an explicit contract, where no extra efforts are exerted. Employees are more concerned about what they get in the short-term rewards and usually have lower social exchange with their leaders. Supervisors were found to interact less with subordinates when they are in a low quality LMX relationship (Kramer, 1995). Additionally, leaders do not offer them valuable job assignments that are involved with potential future development. As a consequence, employees will have lower self-confidence to complete the required tasks. Higher ELMX exchanges decreases employee performance by, in part, reducing their self-efficacy. It likely that employees involved in such situation may consider searching for other opportunities and leave their organizations. This was supported by the mediating role self-efficacy has on ELMX and turnover intentions as found in this study. These findings provide a more in-depth understanding of how ELMX and SLMX relationships can be translated into a superior workforce. The successful inclusion of self-efficacy as mediating variables indicates a number of implications that might not otherwise have been available. These implications will be highlighted in the following chapter.

Concerning the mediation role of social loafing, this study found that social loafing mediates the relationship between ELMX, SLMX relationships and employee job performance. LMX findings have also revealed that social loafing mediate the relationship between LMX relationship and employee job performance, yet, correlations were higher for both ELMX and SLMX relationships. There is an agreement that the motivational antecedents are the origins of social loafing phenomenon (George, 1992; Shepperd, 1993; Wagner, 1995). Karau & Williams, (1993), found that individuals' perception of the fairness of procedures could influence the level of efforts expended on task behaviors. That is, employees could feel they are not offered enough opportunities from their leader compared to their colleagues, thus they feel they are not being treated fairly and tend to reduce their exerted efforts. In a recent study by Buch, Kuvaas, Dysvik, & Schyns, (2014), they found that SLMX relationship was positively associated with work efforts and ELMX was negatively associated with work efforts. As mentioned above, employees with higher ELMX relationships might not receive challenging opportunities when compared to those involved in higher SLMX relationships. This is likely to decrease the motivation of employees with higher ELMX relationships to exert efforts. In fact, motivation theories are the ground for researchers in studying social loafing. For example, Harkins & Petty, (1982), investigated the effects of task difficulty and task uniqueness on social loafing. They demonstrated that employee loafing can be reduced either by increasing the difficulty (challenge) of the task or by giving each subject a different task to perform. The findings of their research suggested that when employees perceive that they can make a unique contribution to a group effort, social loafing is reduced even if individuals' contributions remain unidentifiable.

When ELMX relationships are high, exchange is based on the formal roles and associated with transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). As these relationships are characterized with short-term reciprocity, the employees are assumed to have a great emphasis on ensuring that what they get from the exchange relationship is kept in balance with what they give to the relationship. This makes the leaders hesitant to give interesting tasks, responsibility and authority to these employees. Followers in these relationships will have desire to perform less and they might escape duties that could be performed by other members of the section and hesitate to volunteer in extra duties. On the other hand, SLMX relationships usually develop after frequent interaction between employees and their leaders. Employees become more concerned with the needs of their leaders and departments and less concerned with balancing their inputs and outputs. Feelings of personal obligation, gratitude, and trust are fostered as SLMX relationships are high (Blau, 1964). Followers in these relationships are likely to receive interesting assignments, desirable tasks, greater responsibility, delegated authority, more information shared with them and could participate in decision making (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; G. Yukl, 1994). All these are assumed to make an employee motivated to exert extra efforts and avoid loafing any possible assignments and duties, leading to increase records of job performance and lower turnover intentions.

5.5.3 Chapter conclusion

Leaders and members as both sides of the relationship contribute to its formation, nature and consequences; that is leadership relationship is jointly produced by both leaders and members, and has to be understood as a reciprocal and dynamic interaction process between them, taking into consideration the characteristics, actions and reactions of both sides (Collinson, 2005;

Shamir, 2011). LMX theory acknowledges the contribution of both parties of the relation to the development and maintenance of the ongoing relationship quality. It is illogical to assume that a dyadic relation will remain stable over time. Relationships could be of high quality based on expectations formed during the initial encounter; however, new dimensions enter the relationship at each stage of the dyad as a function of prior experience and met or unmet expectations. More important, is the consideration of SLMX and ELMX relationships as two different dimensions of LMX relationship and how employees perceive these two constructs over time is of great benefit to further understand this relationship.

Employees could have varying degrees of social and economic exchange with their leaders and each of these exchanges will have a unique influence on employees' behaviors in return. The findings in the current study further emphasized this distinction, while allowing leaders to consider the degree to which their dyadic relation with their respective member is reflected by the economic and social form of exchange. This is considered to be a significant departure from the traditional literature of classifying employees in either/types, social or economic, relationship. The current findings suggests the importance of examining both exchanges concurrently, which is believed to assist us in seeking to understand the nature of the employment relationship and the degree to which social and economic exchanges are reflected in the relationship. Furthermore, involving the dyad tenure as major dimension in the investigation would reflect the form of overall exchange. Utilizing the dyad tenure variable in LMX research helps determine how subordinates perceptions of leader behaviors and their responses to these behaviors change as the relationship between them develops over time (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The social component is acknowledged in relationship quality, yet the economic component is also likely to persist over time and remain significant as the relationship develops (Goodwin et al., 2009). This was revealed in the current study as both SLMX and ELMX relationships were salient for members with dyad durations of more than a year. Both relationships increased when compared to early entry employees. These two exchanges, consequently, have impact on different employee outcomes. However, the group with higher dyad tenure (25 months and above) had the highest SLMX relationships and lowest ELMX relationship. Yet, the high employees turnover intention is likely to indicate that the instrumental construct could be a strong motive for searching better opportunities outside the college, especially the same group did had higher job performance but perhaps less rewards in return or that returns are taking longer time as a consequences of the high SLMX exchanges and long term reciprocity. To some extent, this can be the case as the results indicated that there is a small difference in the mean scores of the ELMX relationships when considering the effect of employment contract (mean difference = 1.56). It is worth mentioning here that most of the expatriates are recruited through agencies. More specifically, economic relations are the main characteristics with employees with agency contract which are based on a yearly contract basis.

Research related to employee socialization indicates that establishing effective working relationships with leaders earlier at the dyad is a key way to make employees successfully integrate into their organizations (Bauer & Green, 1998; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Yet, maintaining this relationship effectiveness requires clear understanding of the ongoing mechanism of these dyads as they progress. It should be noted that the nature of the relationship between a leader and a reporting follower, influences outcomes at multiple levels by impacting employees' motivation, commitment, career outcomes, group performance and organizational productivity and reputation (Henderson, Liden, Glibkowski, & Chaudhry, 2009).

Employee job performance, social loafing and ELMX relationships revealed non-linear relationship with dyad tenure. According to Mitchell & James, (2001) nonlinear relationships over time are possible, as are cyclical and oscillating ones and these changes can be incremental or discontinuous. He argued that cycles can spiral up or down as well as in their intensity. It has also been long- studied and well-documented that a person job performance is dynamic, as it changes over time (Deadrick, Bennett, & Russell, 1997; Deadrick & Madigan, 1990; Hulin, Henry, & Noon, 1990; Sturman, 2003). The findings also hint that the non-linear relationship of employee job performance is related to dyad tenure. It is likely that the quality of LMX relationship may exhibit non-linear relationships with some individual outcome variables including organizational commitment, job strains, and job performance (Harris et al., 2005). This indicates that these two different forms of leader-member exchange relationships relate differently to members' job performance and turnover intention and could vary at different points of the relationship. Kuvaas et al., (2012), assumed that SLMX relationships with employee outcomes do not deviate from findings obtained with commonly used measures of LMX. Buch, Kuvaas, Dysvik, & Schyns,(2014), argued the possibility of followers responding differently to ELMX and SLMX relationships as the tenure of their employment in the organization becomes longer.

As noted in the findings, these economic exchanges are normally high at the start of a dyad relation. Scholars have agreed that the early stage of any relationship is characterized with more economic exchange that involves the exchange of concrete or economic resources in a *quid pro quo* fashion. It can be argued that working in the public sector, where usually incentives are limited and being surrounded by individuals from a collective culture, where usually higher social exchanges are preferred along with previously mentioned nature of the academic work; all may play a role in reduction of ELMX exchange as dyad tenure increases; yet, intention to leave the organization is non avoidable probability, especially for expatriates with short-term contracts. Perhaps future research could actually follow some of the dyads to stand more on the effects of SLMX and ELMX relationships on expatriates in particular.

Another interesting finding was that female leaders have a slightly lower social exchange with their respective employees. On reason for this finding may be that the overall conservative culture of the nation as well as the female nature. Culture is seen as an antecedent to relationship formation, hence, it is important to recognize that cultures differ on the extent to which male and females can readily form social relationships (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002). Vecchio, (2002) , stated that there has been an increase in social science research on the topic of sex/gender and leadership since the increase in female entry into leadership ranks. Some scholars have argued that feminine leaders have advantages over male leaders; that is male leaders prefer an alpha-style of leadership based on command and control, whereas females prefer a beta-style of leadership based on social interaction (Rosener, 1995; Rosener, 1990). This was not the case in the findings of the current study. The role of gender (feminine versus masculine leaders) in LMX quality should be extended in LMX literature and focus more on the stylistic caricature of a leader (Dansereau et al., 1975).

Although the “social” component to quality relationship is acknowledged, it is suggested that the economic behaviors linked to early or low-quality relationships are likely to persist over time and remain significant as the relationship develops. The study suggests that the nature of the ELMX exchange, characterized by economic exchange, formal role-defined relations, and short term exchange, serves to undermine employee job performance, as well as to increase employee intention to leave. Research on the relationship between LMX and Turnover intention suggest that members with lower quality LMX relationships are more likely to show greater intent to quit than those with higher LMX quality (Bauer et al., 2006; Gerstner & Day, 1997). However, as mentioned previously in this research that research has always produced inconsistent results when examining the exact nature of this relationship (Kim, Lee, & Carlson, 2010). Results showed that although ELMX exchanges were low for groups with longer dyad tenure, yet the group revealed high intention for turnover. A particular question that can be investigated in future research is the intention of turnover among employees in academic context with consideration to both ELMX and SLMX perspectives.

Our findings showed that including self-efficacy mediated the impact of ELMX and SLMX relationships on employee job performance. Social loafing was also found to mediate the relationship between ELMX and LMX relationships and employee turnover intention. Past research treated LMX as a single dimension, and omitted economic exchange in investigations. Higher levels of economic exchange were associated with higher levels of social loafing. Self-efficacy did not show any association with dyad tenure as results were not significant. There is no evidence of a trend towards greater self-esteem with increased tenure (Arnold & Nicholson, 1991). However, this can be investigated further as self-efficacy has always been linked with positive employee outcomes and could highlight some useful insights. More investigation on the effect of social loafing is also needed to understand its possible effect in western countries. Additionally, since ELMX and SLMX can occur concurrently in the relationship, future research may benefit from considering the effect of different mediators on both economic and social perspectives of the relationship and their influence on relationships process and outcomes.

6 Conclusion, Contribution and Implications

This is the final chapter of this research thesis. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the overall research and its key findings followed by the identification of the main theoretical and practical implications as well as contributions of the current study to the LMX theory. The chapter also takes into accounts the strengths, limitations of the present study and provides future research avenues and directions.

6.1 Research overview

The current study examined the conceptualization of LMX postulated by Kuvvas and his colleagues (2012), where ELMX and SLMX relationships are considered as two distinct exchanges of the LMX relationship instead of the common traditional unitary concept, where relationship quality ranges from low to high. This was to bring a resolution for the confusion of how to treat LMX with regard to the social and instrumental exchanges. One of the questions raised by this study was whether these two dimensions of LMX relationships are valid and can be generalized to other no-western cultures. The study aimed to capture the economic and social aspects as two separate dimensions in two higher education institutions in Oman. The significance behind this was to test both paralleling exchanges in LMX and their relationships to employees job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention.

Findings provided support for the uniqueness of ELMX and SLMX relationships as two separate exchanges. Results revealed that SLMX was positively related to employee job performance and negatively to employee turnover intention. On the other hand, ELMX showed a negative relationship with job performance and a positive relationship with employee turnover intention. These results are in line with Kuvvas et al., (2012) proposal of the two-dimensional LMX and indicate that this modeled can be generalized in non-western cultures. Including the instrumental aspect when investigating leader-member exchange has spot the light on how to possibly enhance better exchange relationship between leaders and members. Research has largely concentrated the socio-emotional exchange of the dyadic exchange. It is suggested that although behaviors that are instrumental in nature are traditionally linked to lower quality LMX relationships, it is likely that some of these behaviors would resist and appear even in higher exchange relationships (Lin, 2001). It is time to reconsider the traditional conception of LMX and how both aspects of the exchange can be utilized to motivate productive work behaviors. This is considerably important as it is likely to contribute to the totality of the LMX relationship. The current LMX literature has overwhelmingly articulated the unitary conceptualization of LMX, overlooking social-emotional aspect of the exchange. This is assumed to provide insufficient and incomplete description of leader-member exchange relationship.

Moreover, the current study investigated the potential mediation role of social loafing and self-efficacy as possible mediators in ELMX and SLMX relationship. Both of these mediators are related to employees willingness to exert efforts in the workplace (Murphy et al., 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2011). The inclusion of social loafing and self-efficacy was to further investigate the distinction of ELMX and SLMX relationships as two independent variables. The social loafing was found to partially mediate the impact of ELMX and SLMX relationships on employee job performance. This was attributed to the likely of employees with low quality relationships to engage in exchanges that are characterized with lower support, commitment, and minimum access to resources, which in turn results in their tendency to reduce their efforts in performing their duties. The same was found for self-efficacy, where findings revealed that ELMX negative relationship and SLMX positive relation to employee job performance were partially mediated by self-efficacy, whereas the positive relation between ELMX and TI was completely mediated by self-efficacy. It is assumed that employees involved in higher SLMX relationships are more confident compared to those with higher ELMX relationships. This confidence is due to the support, trust and respect employees receive from their leaders along with their ability to access different organizational resources. On the other hand, those involved in higher ELMX relationships experience lower levels of self-efficacy because of their formal and limited relationship with their leaders. This leads to lower job performance as the feel they are not obligated to turn any commitments to their leaders and eventually to leave the organization. It thus seems that if the economic aspect is more dominant in the exchange relationship this would undermine employee performance. These results are another support of this distinction between ELMX and SLMX relationships, especially with the absence of any mediation role for self-efficacy when considering LMX as one continuum. Social loafing and self-efficacy provided some understanding of the intervening process whereby a high quality ELMX/SLMX relationships influence subordinates work behaviors.

Moreover, the current study investigated the possible role of dyad tenure in affecting the quality of economic and social LMX relationships and consequently other study variables, employee job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, employee intent to leave, social loafing and self-efficacy. This was an attempt to examine whether these relationships develop, decline or increase as the length of relationship between leaders and their reporting members' increases. The research compared the quality of relationships between three different groups ranging from newly developed dyads to more matured ones to capture study variables changes at different stages of the dyadic relationship.

The outcomes of the current study clearly reflect the dynamic nature of ELMX and SLMX constructs. A positive increase in LMX and SLMX relationships was found as the dyad tenure of leaders and their reporting members' increases. However, economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) continued to increase as the dyad tenure increases until they dropped for more mature exchanges. The highest ELMX relationship where recorded for dyads that are one to two years in length (13-24 months). This result has largely indicated the importance of the first two years of a dyadic relationship in shaping the quality of the exchange and consequently employees' outcomes. This is consistent with the findings from romantic relationship which revealed that the first two to three years of a relationship experience major changes in the level of relationship satisfaction (Robert W Levenson & Gottman, 1985; Mitnick et al., 2009). Results revealed how the economic aspect continued to persist regardless of the development in social exchanges. Consequently, employee job performance and social loafing construct were significantly influenced by the quality of ELMX relationship development or decline. This contradicts with the common unitary concept of LMX, where scholars propose a positive relationship between LMX and job performance. These changes in employee job performance and social loafing provide a further evidence of the need to reconsider both aspects of the exchange as two independent constructs. Such findings highlight the critical importance of putting in consideration both socio-emotional and economic aspects of the leader-member exchange relationship. It also emphasizes the role of time in predicting the quality and development of LMX relationship. The nonlinear relationships for employee job performance, social loafing along with ELMX relationships should imply a sign for how these relationships are vulnerable to change as dyad tenure develops. Research needs to further examine the dynamic nature of ELMX and SLMX relationships.

Interestingly, findings have also revealed that there was a small difference in the mean scores of ELMX relationships for employees with short term contracts when compared to employees with government contracts. The context of this study includes a big percentage of lecturers who are employed on a yearly basis. It is likely that the economic factors could act as a significant motive for them. It is suggested that the financial support, along with adjustment support and career support, is one of the three important dimensions of organizational support relevant to expatriate success (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). Leaders can work to satisfy both sides of the exchange. The main interest of LMX research is to assist leaders in maximizing the number of high quality relationships with their members. Leaders' differentiated types of exchange can be better utilized to enhance more employee performance and OCB behaviors and reduce their intention to search for other opportunities outside the organization. Receiving both extrinsic and intrinsic resources from leaders would possibly increase employees' levels of confidence, satisfaction and make them more willing to perform better for the good of their organization. Such balance would likely reduce negative behaviors like loafing duties and make employees want to exert extra efforts to compensate for the high exchanges they are involved in with their leaders.

6.2 Strengths of the study

This study has a number of strengths that contributes to its significance. A major strength of this study is being the first study that considers both the traditional and new perspectives of the LMX theory within the same sample; measures of the traditional concept of LMX along with the two measures of ELMX and SLMX relationships were employed. This was likely to reveal associations between these exchanges and other study variables by obtaining responses from the same robust sample and hence adding more validity to the comparison of the two perspectives of the exchange.

Another critical strength of this study is that both leaders and followers perspectives on the quality of the leader-follower relationship were gathered. This allows the true dyadic nature of the relationship to be represented. The need for collecting data from both members of the dyad has been largely suggested by a number of scholars (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). Data was collected in this research from two different sources which allow reducing common source bias. Followers provided their ratings for the LMX, SLMX and ELMX relationships as well as their self-efficacy, OCB and turnover intention. Immediate supervisors rated their direct reports' job performance, social loafing as well as the quality of the LMX, SLMX and ELMX relationships.

An additional strength of this study is the uniqueness of the study sample. The ethnic makeup of this study's respondents mirrors, to a large extent, that of most of the higher education institutions and private sector organizations in Oman. This reflection can possibly be generalized to the other five countries of the Gulf region. Oman scores on the various cultural dimensions are likely to be similar to those of other Arab countries studied by Hofstede and Hofstede, (2005). Moideenkutt el al, (2011) elaborated that Oman can be characterized by high power distance and high on collectivism since it is safe to assume that the pattern of cultural dimension is likely to be similar to that of other Arab countries. Findings of the current study can be generalized to the context of Gulf countries.

6.3 Contributions to knowledge and theory

When interpreting the potential impact and contributions of the present findings for theory and practice, there seems to be some evidence for the need to reconsider the examination of the social and economic propositions of the LMX theory. Results provided evidence for the need to incorporate the instrumental aspect into the development and examination of LMX theory. The study supports the new LMX conceptualization proposed by Kuvvas and his colleagues (2012). The study contributes to the field of LMX by showing how ELMX relationships are possible to develop among employees and its negative influence on job performance and turnover intention. Findings propose the need for LMX literature to move forward and take into consideration both types of exchange in future research.

Moreover, the current study represents the first attempt to empirically test social leader-member exchange (SLMX) and economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) as two separate dimensions of leader-member exchange in a non-western country, namely the Sultanate of Oman. This study responded to Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, (2012) call to investigate the consequences of LMX quality with employees outside the USA. Findings of the current study are considered to be an important addition to literature of LMX since the study is conducted in different cultural context. The unique context of the present investigation offers important cross-cultural information for the effect of LMX quality and ELMX, SLMX relationships and for the role of social loafing and self-efficacy as mediators in these relationships.

Moreover, the study shed the lights on the significance of the instrumental factor as another source that influence employees' attitudes and work outcomes. Scholars suggested that employees work for different reasons including learning, fun, and personal goals as well as money and fulfilling such needs would probably lead to optimum performance (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001; Scott, Bishop, & Chen, 2003). This study sheds the light on the importance of both economic and social exchanges in work context to attract the talented and skilled employees and maintain high quality relationship with those in the institutions. LMX has been generally used to predict a number of followers work behaviors and attitudes (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Most of the findings of this study suggested that linkage between ELMX/SLMX relationships, job performance and employee turnover intention that are found in Western cultures may be generalized to non-Western cultures. However, OCB results for the current research showed different results when compared to previous results in Western cultures.

Furthermore, very little research has been conducted particularly to examine the role of social loafing within LMX theory. Given that only a handful of studies has examined social loafing phenomenon is real work contexts (Murphy et al., 2003), the current study has made a theoretical contribution to the literature of LMX by establishing a theoretical framework that links between SLMX, ELMX and social loafing and this relationship, in consequence, influences employee job performance. Social loafing was found to mediate the impact of ELMX and SLMX relationships on employee job performance. This largely highlights the negative impact that could possibly result from ignoring the tangible resources in dyadic relationships. The LMX theory has largely emphasized how employees involved in high quality LMX relationships tend to exert extra efforts and go beyond their job requirements. Social loafing phenomenon explains how an employee tends to reduce his/her efforts in the workplace. This is assumed to help in explaining more of the nature of the exchange.

Although self-efficacy was considered in LMS research, no study has included it when investigating the distinct SLMX and ELMX relationship. The current study is considered as the first study to do so. Self-efficacy was found to mediate the impact of both ELMX and SLMX relationships on employee job performance and turnover intention. This further provided evidence that SLMX and ELMX should be conceptualized as two dimensions of the LMX relationship rather than as opposite poles on a single continuum. Self-efficacy was found to relate negatively to ELMX and positively to SLMX and these relationships indicate how an employee gain or lose the confidence and assurance necessary to improve job performance, OCB and reduce their intention to leave.

In addition, given the scarcity of research on the underlying mechanism by which dyadic tenure is associated to the quality of the exchange and employee outcomes, an important contribution from the current investigation was the demonstration of the effect of dyad tenure on the quality of ELMX, SLMX relationships and employee outcomes. No prior studies have considered the possible causal relationship between dyad tenure and ELMX/SLMX relationships. The findings of the current study revealed that SLMX and ELMX relationships are not rigid, rigorous relationships, where results showed that both exchanges are influenced by the length of the dyad duration. Results suggested that the first two to three years of a relationship are very crucial as changes in employee/leader perceptions of ELMX and SLMX relationships are likely to influence their future attitudes and behaviors. LMX, ELMX, job performance and social loafing reflected a dynamic nature that aligns with the common reciprocal nature of leader-member exchange. Investigating the impact of dyad tenure on the ELMX and SLMX relationships creates new ways of understanding the influence of time on the large body of literature on LMX and opens new avenues of research to address models that are more effective for explaining the development of leader-employee relationship in particular and employee-organization relationship in general. This is likely to lead to building more accurate theory in LMX literature (Mitchell & James, 2001).

Another major contribution of the current research is that it offers a more accurate base for investigating LMX relationships from different multidimensional perspectives, particularly with the increased arguments made by LMX theorists and their continuous call to move beyond the isolated treatment of LMX and investigating it with consideration to the surrounding social context (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). According to Henderson, Liden, Glibkowski, & Chaudhry, (2009), distinguishing between "differentiation" with regard to the quality of the relationship and the resources exchanged across leader-follower dyads in groups are an area that should be further investigated. They suggested that this is consistent with the previous work of (Foa & Foa, 1974) that leaders could provide different types of resources to their members such as status, service, goods, monetary, respect and so on, when they realize that every individual has a unique system of needs, and hence reciprocity in a leader-member exchange could have different types of exchanges and resources. Understanding the dyadic exchange in organizations is regarded as the most fundamental type of groups that need to be examined (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2008). Findings of the current research reflect the types of exchange that are likely to take place in an LMX relationship. Being aware of different employees' economic and social needs is expected to enhance leaders' ability to respond differently to their subordinates and consequently enhancing more effective relationships.

6.4 Implications for practice

As SLMX and ELMX relationships showed different associations with different dependent variables of this study, this may have some interesting implications for human resource/ personnel system in organizations. Understanding the basis for quality relationships between leaders and their followers will likely help managers and organizations to adopt the kinds of behaviors that promote positive outcomes from these relationships.

The work environment is characterized by rapid changes and organizations are under extreme pressure to enhance the quality of its human capital. Leader-member interactions are a pervasive phenomenon on organizational life, making it an important mechanism of continuous human development and possible improvement in the workplace (Valcea, Hamdani, Buckley, & Novicevic, 2011). In particular, findings of this research can provide heads of departments and course leaders in higher education institutions with practical tools to use in order to improve their management and leadership skills. ELMX relationships may be specifically important for the followers' job performance. Majority of respondents of this study are non-Omanis (expatriates), it would be beneficial that leaders may draw on these findings and seek to aid and enhance employees' positive performance and OCB by means of relationship-oriented behaviors.

Furthermore, findings of this research demonstrates the value of leader-member exchange theory in an academic context, particularly its relevance to reducing employees intention to leave the organization The research has significant implications for higher education institutions that suffer from high rates of academics turnover, where the quality of both ELMX and SLMX relationships and the continuous support that employees' receive over time is utmost importance to academics retention and commitment to their leaders and the organization. It is important for managers to recognize that building high quality SLMX relationships alone will not necessarily contribute to positive employees' outcomes and attitudes.

Paying attention to the role dyad tenure plays in the development of ELMX and SLMX relationships is of importance. Understanding the nature of LMX relationship and how it progress with regard to dyad tenure can helps managers understand how to structure jobs, working conditions, compensation packages, and human resource policies to enhance subordinates performance and satisfaction. In particular, the study provides empirical results that would help higher education institutions in enhancing the performance and effectiveness of academicians. Ramsden, (2003), stated that the success of our higher education institutions in the future depends on academics' capacity to respond to change. Therefore, academic leaders should know how to help their academic members to face new and uncertain demands. Leader-follower relationships in the academic institution don not depend on authorities interaction only, but rather on mutual respect for understanding the intellectual capacity and growth of each other (Tucker, 1984). LMX should, therefore, be introduced as an enabling mechanism for head of departments to encourage positive academic attitudes and behaviors. Instrumental exchanges should be more considered and this in turn would likely create an academic environment that will have attractive working conditions under which it is easier for academics with agency contracts to deliver high task performance, OCB and remain longer in their colleges.

The findings also imply that leaders may need to exercise caution to both aspect of LMX relationship. It is suggested that successful leaders are those who are able to realize the individualize difference of their followers and can individualize their styles according to the needs and motives of each employee (Dansereau, 1995; Dansereau et al., 1995). Managers should be trained to be able to respond and understand both the social and economic requirements of their followers and give attention to these two different types of exchanges. Managerial training programs seem a worthwhile for supervisors. Leadership training that focuses on techniques to improve the quality of LMX exchange are needed, where these training programs need to acknowledge that followers have different social and economic needs that enhance their positive exchanges. A leader should make sure that a fair treatment is given to everyone to enhance positive attitudes and outcomes from more followers; that is the kind of exchange with every employee is tailored to their needs, where the exchange resources could be different and satisfying. This is likely to make followers perceive LMX differentiation to be somehow fair and is likely to maximize positive relationship quality with all followers in the long run, though based on different currencies of exchange (Mary Uhl-Bien, 2006). Such consideration is likely to enhance the best outcomes from all employees by adapting different styles that suits each employee.

Organizations should also redesign their incentive plans and link performance and OCB behaviors to different tangible and intangible incentives. This is likely to assist leaders in attaining more numbers of high quality relationships and consequently the likely to boost positive employees' attitudes for longer periods. Potential positive outcomes are assumed to result when considering the development of quality relationships on the basis of instrumental benefits in accordance with the social one. Organizations may design work contexts where leaders can have more control on extrinsic incentives and resources allocation since the leaders have direct contact with their employees and can respond faster to their needs. This is very important as all organizations in the public sector suffer from hierarchical procedures and limited resources control.

6.5 Limitations and avenues for future research

The current research is not without limitations. Although this study makes a number of contributions to the existing literature, limitations of this study need to be acknowledged. First, the findings of this thesis came from a field study that captured cross-sectional data at a particular point of time. Although the study hypotheses suggested causality between study variables, these causal relations cannot be confirmed neither denied with these data. The causal relationship among the variables should be interpreted with caution in cross-sectional correlation design.

Relationships investigated in this research could probably reflect an ongoing nature and interdependent exchange, in which both parties of the exchange make contributions in a non-sequential manner that reflects the tenor of the relationship (Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, et al., 2009). In fact, many findings support the notion that the quality of the relationship depends on the mutual efforts parties exert into the relationship (Mary Uhl-Bien, 2006). A cross sectional study would only highlight the reciprocal relation at a particular point of time. It is not confirmed if reciprocity would carry on with the same quality in future interactions.

Moreover, although this is common in LMX research (Liden et al., 1997), one limitation in this study is its exclusive focus on the followers individual outcomes. This is because this study was seeking to find more assurance and resolution of the two distinct qualities and hence, attempted to understand ELMX and SLMX relationships by studying the most common employee outcomes in the LMX research; namely job performance, OCB and employee turnover intention. More focus should be given to the antecedents of these exchanges. For example, studies could investigate the extent to which leader's span of control affects distribution of the economic resources and how this eventually influences SLMX and ELMX qualities (e.g Antonakis & Atwater, 2002).

Another limitation of the current study is that some of the study variables were self-reported by respondents that are susceptible to the potential influence of common method bias and inflated ratings. It was attempted to deal with this issue by controlling for the effect of a common method factor, by ensuring anonymity of the respondents in order to reduce the presence of response distortion (Chan, 2009). Nevertheless, the possibility of inflated relationships among these perceptual measures due to common method variance cannot be ruled out completely. Yet, self-reports are considered to be more appropriate for describing private events compared to other types of measurement (Chan, 2009; Conway & Lance, 2010).

A self-report measure was used in this research to investigate OCB construct. According to Podsakoff et al., (2003), using a common rater (when the respondent providing the measure of the predictor and criterion available is the same person) could lead to inaccurate data. Organ & Ryan, (1995) have also stated that the ratings of one's own OCB are related to subjectivity and, hence cannot be a substitute for independent judgements. They suggested that self-reports of OCB could inflate the correlations between predictors and OCB due to common method bias. However, the researcher took this decision to use self-reported data rather than other reported data (the supervisor for example) for a very valid reason. The leaders' questionnaire would have been too lengthy to fill and the minimum number of lecturers reporting to each head of section was six. Thus, since the researcher was seeking as much response rate as possible, it was decided to use a self-reported measure to examine employees OCB. Therefore, it is suggested that future studies should use other-reported data to measure organizational citizenship behavior. Future research should further assess the relationship between ELMX and OCB in different cultures. In their meta-analysis, Rockstuhl et al., (2012) indicated that culture do matters when considering the relationship between LMX and OCB, where individualism-collectivism and power distance have implications for the development and outcomes of LMX.

Moreover, another limitation is that head of sections may have been biased when rating academics job performance and social loafing attitude. It is argued that the use of a single source of data is a troublesome for measurements, such as performance, which could suffer from self-serving biases or social desirability (Liden et al., 1997). Leaders' ratings of followers' social loafing may also be biased by a leader's general evaluation of the follower hence; future studies could also seek team members' evaluation of followers' job performance and social loafing to overcome this issue.

However, based on their review of multitrait-multimethod studies, Doty & Glick, (1998) suggested that bias arising from common method variance is not large enough to affect the theoretical interpretations that are based on substantive relationships. scholars have concluded that problems caused by common method variance are overstated and rarely serious enough to invalidate the findings of the research based on the type of method used (e.g Doty & Glick, 1998; Spector, 2006).

Given the negative effect of high ELMX relationships, identifying the conditions under which ELMX relationships could relate positively to employees positive attitudes and behaviors is a great avenue for future research as indicated by (Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, et al., 2012). It is likely that there are some positive outcomes that could result from the development of quality relationships on the basis of the instrumental benefits. Accordingly, future research should give more consideration to possible moderators that allow ELMX relationships to have positive influence on followers' performance and OCB. Ongoing research on the two-dimensional of LMX theory should continue to incorporate the instrumental factor as a means of influencing the quality of LMX relationship.

Additional studies including more non-western contexts as well as replicating this study in other contexts can further test the robustness of the hypothesized model of this study. Cross-cultural studies with emphasize on the role of cultural dimensions (i.e., individualism and power distance) can be suggested. Future studies could also benefit from a combination of mixed methods where designs with quantitative and qualitative methods will likely provide rich information about ELMX and SLMX relationships and how they develop over time. Applying a qualitative approach (for example, interviews, incident diaries, semi-structured interviews and focus groups) for investigating the ELMX and SLMX relationships could also reveal more specific behaviors associated with the development of the two exchanges.

Given the support of our findings for the difference between ELMX and SLMX relationships and how these exchanges are vulnerable to change as dyad tenure increases, it may be necessary to reinterpret the findings of earlier studies. This is because scholars in previous work have generally treated LMX relationship as a one continuum, where quality ranges from low to high. Thus, those studies could be limited in their treatment of the ELMX relationships. Furthermore, results indicated that the traditional common conceptualization of LMX might not adequately capture the full picture of the exchange relationship. Most of the studies in LMX literature neglected the economic resources of these exchanges in their investigation. More focus was towards the socio-emotional aspects and their influence on the attitudes and behaviors of the parties involved. Taking together with similar findings from research on the effects of instrumental aspect on the exchange perceptions (Buch, 2015; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Sun, Chow, Chiu, & Pan, 2013), economic exchanges could play a key role in motivating productive work behavior.

Another possible avenue for future research is to investigate the perceptions of SLMX and ELMX variability and the impact they have on the reactions of different team members. It is argued that perceptions of LMX differentiation could have negative effects on followers' reactions and perceptions. Hooper & Martin, (2008), for example, found that perceived LMX variability accounted for extra variance in followers outcomes above that accounted for by individual LMX quality. In specific, perceptions of LMX variability were linked with higher reports of team conflict, which was associated to lower levels of followers' job satisfaction and wellbeing. Future research, for example, could take into account the aspect of the instrumental factor and how they can be utilized to motivate team members' efforts by establishing common shared incentives.

It is also worthwhile to consider the generalizability of our findings. Although the study was investigated in two organizations, it only investigated one job class (academics). Clearly, research is needed in other locations and on other parts of the workforce to ascertain whether our model of study has external validity. The autonomy nature of academic jobs might affect employees' interpretations to the instrumental factor. Therefore, applying this study in a different context and job careers to check the ELMX relationship is needed.

Future studies could also use this two dimensional model in relation to other leadership theories like traits, transactional and transformational theories. It is suggested that LMX does not act in isolation from other leadership theories. For example, Dulebohn et al.,(2012) indicated that there is a positive association between transformational leadership and LMX. Research could investigate some components of the transformational leadership style in relation to social and economic aspects of LMX relationship.

In addition, the moderating role of time and dyad tenure in particular has a propensity avenue for future research. More studies are needed to investigate the development and progress of these two exchanges over time and the possibility of maintaining positive relationships for longer periods. As indicated by Chen et al., (2012), to date, there has been insufficient consideration given to the process of how a leader and a member experience exchanges while forming a high-quality LMX relation. LMX is a dynamic construct and further research is needed to investigate the effects of change in the exchange quality and their associated influence on different key variables. It is critical to test ELMX and SLMX at different time periods and validate the results of the current research. Dulebohn et al.,(2012) has noticed in their meta-analysis that the majority of LMX studies have been cross-sectional, which prevents the establishments of causal direction. This could be attributed to the difficulty of following the same dyads over a period of time when applying the longitudinal design. Measuring and investigating the development of ELMX and SLMX relationships over a period of time will be useful. Clearly, the best way to measure relational development, maintenance and decline is through long-term longitudinal research as suggested by Dulebohn et al., (2011). Future research should attempt to replicate the findings of this study with the conduct of longitudinal and experimental studies to establish cause-effect relationships. Longitudinal research could also clarify the ways in which ELMX relationships might influence employees through time.

Finally, results showed a significant difference between both males and females leaders in SLMX relationships. This could be attributed to the cultural norms where this study took place. More research is needed to test whether leaders or employees gender does affect SLMX relationship in other contexts and cultures. Findings have also reflected the high instrumental aspect amongst short term employees. Future studies should further investigate the influence of short-term employees' perspectives of ELMX relationships and how they can negatively affect their outcomes.

6.6 Overall Conclusion

LMX provides insights into an essential domain of leadership. This dyadic relationship between leaders and their members has to be understood alongside other leadership theories and strategies. Organizations try to become less hierarchically structured and thus more importance needs to be placed on the critical role of a leader-member exchange. Although we know a great deal about this dyadic relationship, much more investigation is needed about this essential exchange within a workplace.

This investigation has determined the answers to research questions. Results provided support for the two dimensional conceptualization of SLMX and ELMX relationship in non-western country. It revealed how ELMX and SLMX relationships related differently to different study variables. Findings have also reflected the dynamic, reciprocal nature of leader-member exchange and how dyad tenure influences the quality of the exchange and consequently employees' job performance and social loafing.

As an overall conclusion, findings of this study illustrate the key role played by immediate supervisors in an organization. They open a number of future research opportunities which are hoped to generate further interest by researchers. As stated by (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), “relationship development is not a matter of a single stimulus – response. It is more analogous to climbing a ladder. As one ascends, the run for which one was originally reaching becomes a foothold for one’s next step” (p: 890).

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Appendix A:

Appendix A1: Leader’s questionnaire

HEAD OF SECTION QUESTIONNAIR

Dear Participant

I am a PhD student at the University of Hull in the UK. Currently, I am conducting research about Leader-Member Exchange Relationship. I kindly invite you to help me by completing this survey form. Your valuable participation in this survey would very much help in having more understanding about this subject.

The Aim of the Study

This study seeks to understand the nature and quality of interpersonal relationships between leaders and their members and how these relationships impact members' outcomes.

What is required of you

My research is fully dependent on the information you provide and therefore:-

- Please give 20 minutes of your valuable time to answer the questions.
- Please give your honest opinion for each question.
- Please try to answer all the questions.

Confidentially

The information you give in this survey will be treated in the strictest confidence and used only for the purpose of the research. By completing and submitting this survey, you are indicating your consent to participate in the study. You are free to withdraw consent at any time.

Queries

If you have any query regarding this questionnaire or would like further information about this research project in general, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher at (h.a.alkathiri@2012.hull.ac.uk).

Thank you very much for your kind co-operation in completing this questionnaire

Researcher Name: Halah Alkathiri

Section One: *Your Personal Information*

Please fill in the blank or tick in the appropriate response.

1- **Gender** ☐Male ☐Female

2- **Nationality** ☐ Omani ☐ Other (specify)______________________

3- **Age** ☐ 25-29 years ☐30-34 years ☐35-39 years ☐40-44years ☐45+

4- **Marital Status** ☐Single ☐ Married

5- **Education Level** ☐ University Degree ☐ Master degree/MBA ☐ PhD ☐ Other (Specify)_______

6- **Employment Type** ☐ Ministry ☐ Agency/contract

Section Two: *Your Subordinate details*

Please fill in the blank or tick in the appropriate response.

7- **Name of the appraised subordinate:** ____

8- **For how long have you been leading this subordinate?** *(Please Specify)* ___________________

9- **Subordinate's Gender** ☐ Male ☐Female

10- **Subordinate's Nationality** ☐ Omani ☐ Other (specify)______________________

11- **Subordinate's Education Level** ☐ University Degree ☐ Master degree/MBA ☐ PhD ☐ Other (Specify)_______

12- **Subordinate's Employment Type** ☐ Ministry ☐ Agency/contract

Section Three: *Leader-Member Exchange Relationships*

Please tick in the appropriate response that best describes your relationship with your subordinate

Does this subordinate know where he/she stands with you…does he/she usually knows how satisfied you are with what he/she does	Rarely 1	Occasionall y 2	Sometime s 3	Fairly often 4	Very often 5
How well do you understand this subordinate's job problems and needs	Not a bit 1	A little 2	A fair amount 3	Quite a bit 4	A great deal 5
How well do you recognize this subordinate's potential	Not at all 1	A Little 2	Moderatel y 3	Mostly 4	Fully 5
Regardless of how much formal authority you have in your position, what are the chances that you would use your power to help this subordinate solve problems in his/her work	None 1	Small 2	Moderate 3	High 4	Very High 5
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority you have, what are the chances that you would 'stand up for him/her' at your expense?	None 1	Small 2	Moderate 3	High 4	Very High 5
This subordinate would have enough confidence in you that he/she would defend and justify your decision if you were not present to do so.	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
How would you characterize your working relationship with this subordinate	Extremely ineffective 1	Worse than average 2	Average 3	Better than average 4	Extremely effective 5

<u>Section Four</u>: *Economic and Social Leader-member exchange relationships*

Please circle a number in range 1-5 that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5				
He/she only want to do more for me when he/she knows in advance what he/she will get in return.	1	2	3	4	5			
He/she is only willing to exert extra effort for the benefit of me if he/she believes that it will increase his/her chances of achieving personal benefits such as more attractive work assignments or a promotion	1	2	3	4	5			
He/she watches very carefully what he/she gets from me, relative to what he/she contributes	1	2	3	4	5			
He/she usually negotiates with me how he/she will be rewarded for performing a given task	1	2	3	4	5			
He/she rarely or never perform a favour for me without having a clear expectation that this favour will be returned within a short space of time	1	2	3	4	5			
If he/she is going to exert extra effort for me, he/she weighs the advantages and disadvantages of doing so	1	2	3	4	5			
He/she watches carefully that he/she get something tangible in return for doing something extra for me.	1	2	3	4	5			
If he/she increases his/her efforts on behalf of me, it is because he/she wants something specific in return.	1	2	3	4	5			
He/she doesn't mind working hard today – he/she knows he/she will eventually be rewarded by me.	1	2	3	4	5			
He/she worries that all his/her efforts on behalf of me will never be rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5			
My relationship with my subordinate is about mutual sacrifice; sometimes he/she gives more than he/she receives and sometimes he/she receives more than he/she gives.	1	2	3	4	5			
Even though he/she may not always receive the recognition he/she deserves from me, he/she knows that I will take good care of him/her in the future	1	2	3	4	5			
My relationship with my subordinate is based on mutual trust	1	2	3	4	5			
I made a significant investment in him/her.	1	2	3	4	5			
He/she tries to look out for the best interest of me because he/she can rely on me to take care of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5			
The things he/she do on the job today will benefit his/her standing with me in the long run	1	2	3	4	5			

<u>Section Five:</u> *Job Performance*

Please circle a number in range 1-5 that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree				
1	2	3	4	5				
Adequately complete assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5			
Fulfils responsibilities specified in the job description	1	2	3	4	5			

Perform tasks that are expected from him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5
Complains about insignificant things at work.	1	2	3	4	5
Attendance at work is above the norm.	1	2	3	4	5
Fails to perform essential duties.	1	2	3	4	5
Neglect aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
Give advance notice when unable to come to work.	1	2	3	4	5
Take undeserved work breaks.	1	2	3	4	5

<u>Section Six</u>: *Social Loafing*

Please circle a number in range 1-5 that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.

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

Defers responsibilities he or she should assume to other colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
Puts forth less effort on the job when other section member is around to do the work.	1	2	3	4	5
Does not do his or her share of work.	1	2	3	4	5
Spends less time helping students if other section members are around to do the work.	1	2	3	4	5
Puts forth less efforts than other members of his or her section.	1	2	3	4	5
Avoids performing housekeeping tasks as much as possible	1	2	3	4	5
Leaves work for the next shift which he or she should really complete.	1	2	3	4	5
Takes it easy if other section member is around to do the work.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your co-operation and your participation in this survey.
Your answer will be kept confidential.

Appendix A2: Member's questionnaire

SUBORDINATE QUESTIONNAIR

Dear Participant

I am a PhD student at the University of Hull in the UK. Currently, I am conducting research about Leader-Member Exchange Relationship. I kindly invite you to help me by completing this survey form. Your valuable participation in this survey would very much help in having more understanding about this subject.

The Aim of the Study

This study seeks to understand the nature and quality of interpersonal relationships between leaders and their members and how these relationships impact members' outcomes.

What is required of you

My research is fully dependent on the information you provide and therefore:-

- Please give 20 minutes of your valuable time to answer the questions.
- Please give your honest opinion for each question.
- Please try to answer all the questions.

Confidentially

The information you give in this survey will be treated in the strictest confidence and used only for the purpose of the research. By completing and submitting this survey, you are indicating your consent to participate in the study. You are free to withdraw consent at any time.

Queries

If you have any query regarding this questionnaire or would like further information about this research project in general, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher at (h.a.alkathiri@2012.hull.ac.uk).

Thank you very much for your kind co-operation in completing this questionnaire

Researcher Name: Halah Alkathiri

Section One: *Personal Information:*

Please fill in the blank or tick in the appropriate response.

13- Gender ☐Male ☐Female

14- Nationality ☐ Omani ☐ Other (specify)______________________

15- Age ☐ 25-29 years ☐30-34 years ☐35-39 years ☐40-44years ☐45+

16- Marital Status ☐Single ☐ Married

17- Education Level ☐ University Degree ☐ Master degree/MBA ☐ PhD ☐ Other (Specify)_______

18- Employment Type ☐ Ministry ☐ Agency/contract

Section Two: *Your Head of Section Details (HOS):*

Please fill in the blank or tick in the appropriate response.

7. **For how long have you been working under the current HOS?** *(Please Specify)* _____________

8. **Your HOS Gender** ☐ Male ☐Female

9. **Your HOS Nationality** ☐ Omani ☐ Other (specify)______________________

10. **HOS Education Level** ☐ University Degree ☐ Master degree/MBA ☐ PhD ☐ Other (Specify)______

11. **HOS Employment Type** ☐ Ministry ☐ Agency/contract

Section Three: *Leader-member exchange relationships*

Please tick in the appropriate response that best describes your relationship with your Head of Section.

Do you know where you stand with your HOS? Do you usually know how satisfied your HOS is with what you do	Rarely 1	Occasionally 2	Sometimes 3	fairly often 4	Very often 5
How well does your HOS understands your job problems and needs	Not a bit 1	A little 2	A fair amount 3	Quite a bit 4	A great deal 5
How well does your HOS recognizes your potential	Not at all 1	A Little 2	Moderatel y 3	Mostly 4	Fully 5
Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has in his/her position, what are the chances that your HOS would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work	None 1	Small 2	Moderate 3	High 4	Very High 5
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your HOS has, what are the chances that he/she would 'stand up for you' at his/her expense	None 1	Small 2	Moderate 3	High 4	Very High 5
I have enough confidence in my HOS that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she was not present to do so.	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
How would you characterize your working relationship with your HOS	Extremely ineffective 1	Worse than average 2	Average 3	Better than average 4	Extremely effective 5

Section Four: *Economic and Social Leader-member exchange relationships*

Please circle a number in range 1-5 that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.

Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Agree				
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

I only want to do more for my immediate HOS when I know in advance what I will get in return	1	2	3	4	5
I am only willing to exert extra effort for the benefit of my immediate supervisor (HOS) if I believe it will increase my chances of achieving personal benefits such as more attractive work assignments or a promotion	1	2	3	4	5
I watch very carefully what I get from my immediate supervisor (HOS), relative to what I contribute	1	2	3	4	5
I usually negotiate with my immediate supervisor (HOS) how I will be rewarded for performing a given task	1	2	3	4	5
I rarely or never perform a favour for my immediate supervisor (HOS) without having a clear expectation that this favour will be returned within a short space of time	1	2	3	4	5
If I am going to exert extra effort for my immediate supervisor (HOS) I weigh the advantages and disadvantages of doing so	1	2	3	4	5
I watch carefully that I get something tangible in return for doing something extra for my immediate supervisor (HOS).	1	2	3	4	5
If I increase my efforts on behalf of my immediate supervisor (HOS), it is because I want something specific in return	1	2	3	4	5
I don’t mind working hard today – I know I will eventually be rewarded by my immediate supervisor (HOS)	1	2	3	4	5
I worry that all my efforts on behalf of my immediate supervisor (HOS) will never be rewarded	1	2	3	4	5
My relationship with my HOS is about mutual sacrifice; sometimes I give more than I receive and sometimes I receive more than I give	1	2	3	4	5
Even though I may not always receive the recognition I deserve from my immediate supervisor (HOS), I know that he or she will take good care of me in the future	1	2	3	4	5
My relationship with my immediate supervisor (HOS) is based on mutual trust	1	2	3	4	5
My immediate supervisor (HOS) has made a significant investment in me	1	2	3	4	5
I try to look out for the best interest of my immediate supervisor (HOS) because I can rely on my immediate supervisor (HOS) to take care of me	1	2	3	4	5
The things I do on the job today will benefit my standing with my immediate supervisor in the long run	1	2	3	4	5

<u>Section Five:</u> *Organizational citizenship behaviour*

<u>Please circle a number in range 1-5 that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.</u>

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

I volunteer for things that are not required.	1	2	3	4	5
I orient new people when they move here.	1	2	3	4	5
I attend functions that are not required but that help the college.	1	2	3	4	5
I assist others with the work for the benefit of the college.	1	2	3	4	5
I get involved in the college.	1	2	3	4	5
I help others learn about the college.	1	2	3	4	5
I help others with their responsibilities here at the college	1	2	3	4	5

<u>Section Six:</u> *Self- efficacy*

<u>Please circle a number in range 1-5 that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.</u>

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

I have confidence in my ability to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
There are some tasks required by my job that I cannot do well.	1	2	3	4	5
When my performance is poor, it is due to my lack of ability.	1	2	3	4	5
I doubt my ability to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I have all the skills needed to perform my job very well.	1	2	3	4	5
Most people in my line of work can do this job better than I can.	1	2	3	4	5
I am an expert at my job.	1	2	3	4	5
My future in this job is limited because of my lack of skills.	1	2	3	4	5
I am very proud of my job skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel threatened when others watch me work.	1	2	3	4	5

<u>Section Seven:</u> *Turnover intention*

<u>Please circle a number in range 1-5 that reflects your opinion and applies to your answer.</u>

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

I often think about quitting.	1	2	3	4	5
I will probably look for a new job in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5
I will leave this college in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your co-operation and your participation in this survey.
Your answer will be kept confidential

Appendix B: Regression tables for SEM analysis

Regression weights for LMX indirect model

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
JP	<---	LMX	.305	.074	2.568	.010
JP	<---	MGender	.156	.047	2.012	.044
JP	<---	Lgender	.082	.041	1.175	.240
JP	<---	Memplymentcontract	-.018	.037	-.298	.765
JP	<---	Lemploymentcontract	-.072	.042	-1.034	.301
JP	<---	DayadLength	-.010	.001	-.170	.865
TI	<---	LMX	-.130	.112	-1.749	.043
OCB	<---	LMX	.010	.067	.141	.888
TI	<---	MGender	.049	.100	.732	.464
OCB	<---	MGender	-.068	.060	-.987	.324
TI	<---	Lgender	-.232	.108	-3.041	.002
OCB	<---	Lgender	-.158	.065	-2.026	.043
OCB	<---	Memplymentcontract	.002	.062	.031	.976
TI	<---	Memplymentcontract	.036	.103	.528	.597
OCB	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.224	.070	2.765	.006
TI	<---	Lemploymentcontract	-.027	.110	-.356	.721
OCB	<---	DayadLength	-.005	.002	-.075	.940
TI	<---	DayadLength	.053	.003	.745	.456
OCBO	<---	JP	.778			
IRB	<---	JP	1.101	.773	3.227	.001

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
LMX7	<---	LMX	.802			
LMX6	<---	LMX	.779	.073	12.819	***
LMX5	<---	LMX	.727	.089	11.471	***
LMX4	<---	LMX	.767	.077	12.323	***
LMX3	<---	LMX	.794	.073	13.110	***
LMX2	<---	LMX	.774	.080	12.608	***
LMX1	<---	LMX	.680	.090	10.820	***
JP10	<---	OCBO	.485			
JP9	<---	OCBO	.340	.231	3.878	***
JP6	<---	OCBO	.623	.254	5.781	***
TI1	<---	TI	.677			
TI2	<---	TI	.885	.115	11.963	***
TI3	<---	TI	.929	.118	12.050	***
OCB1	<---	OCB	.510			
OCB2	<---	OCB	.607	.204	6.498	***
OCB3	<---	OCB	.731	.153	7.499	***
OCB4	<---	OCB	.909	.190	8.024	***
OCB5	<---	OCB	.785	.174	7.845	***
JP4	<---	IRB	.889			
JP3	<---	IRB	.936	.048	21.697	***
JP2	<---	IRB	.893	.052	19.839	***
JP1	<---	IRB	.807	.070	14.820	***

Regression weights for LMX indirect model (self-efficacy as mediator)

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
SE	<---	LMX	.018	.127	.230	.818
SE	<---	DayadLength	-.142	.003	-1.851	.064
SE	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.089	.127	1.094	.274
SE	<---	Memplymentcontract	.137	.120	1.853	.064
SE	<---	Lgender	.085	.122	1.057	.291
SE	<---	MGender	.104	.115	1.422	.155
JP	<---	LMX	.300	.074	2.523	.012
JP	<---	MGender	.154	.047	1.982	.047
JP	<---	Lgender	.084	.040	1.195	.232
JP	<---	Memplymentcontract	-.020	.037	-.329	.742
JP	<---	Lemploymentcontract	-.073	.041	-1.053	.292
JP	<---	DayadLength	-.009	.001	-.154	.877
JP	<---	SE	.008	.025	.113	.910
TI	<---	LMX	-.120	.111	-1.676	.094
OCB	<---	LMX	.005	.065	.063	.950
TI	<---	MGender	.079	.099	1.191	.233
OCB	<---	MGender	-.094	.060	-1.371	.170
TI	<---	Lgender	-.209	.106	-2.834	.005

OCB	<---	Lgender	-.178	.064	-2.305	.021
OCB	<---	Memplymentcontract	-.032	.061	-.466	.641
TI	<---	Memplymentcontract	.080	.103	1.201	.230
OCB	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.201	.068	2.547	.011
TI	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.001	.108	.014	.989
OCB	<---	DayadLength	.031	.002	.433	.665
TI	<---	DayadLength	.009	.003	.125	.901
OCBO	<---	JP	.770			
IRB	<---	JP	1.112	.804	3.171	.002
OCB	<---	SE	.248	.046	2.953	.003
TI	<---	SE	-.299	.077	-3.715	***
LMX7	<---	LMX	.801			
LMX6	<---	LMX	.779	.074	12.814	***
LMX5	<---	LMX	.727	.089	11.471	***
LMX4	<---	LMX	.767	.077	12.316	***
LMX3	<---	LMX	.794	.073	13.104	***
LMX2	<---	LMX	.774	.080	12.605	***
LMX1	<---	LMX	.680	.090	10.815	***
JP10	<---	OCBO	.484			
JP9	<---	OCBO	.339	.230	3.892	***
JP6	<---	OCBO	.625	.254	5.815	***
TI1	<---	TI	.687			

TI2	<---	TI	.890	.111	12.231	***
TI3	<---	TI	.923	.113	12.370	***
OCB1	<---	OCB	.508			
OCB2	<---	OCB	.608	.205	6.499	***
OCB3	<---	OCB	.731	.153	7.492	***
OCB4	<---	OCB	.914	.192	8.028	***
OCB5	<---	OCB	.782	.175	7.819	***
JP4	<---	IRB	.889			
JP3	<---	IRB	.936	.048	21.704	***
JP2	<---	IRB	.893	.052	19.826	***
JP1	<---	IRB	.807	.070	14.820	***
SE3	<---	SE	.729			
SE4	<---	SE	.462	.088	6.103	***
SE5	<---	SE	.434	.112	5.739	***
SE6	<---	SE	.731	.103	9.021	***
SE7	<---	SE	.613	.107	7.904	***
SE2	<---	SE	.487	.107	6.327	***
SE1	<---	SE	.504	.135	5.968	***

Note: All output are from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represent the standardized regression weight (SR).

Regression weights for LMX indirect model (social loafing as mediator)

Items			USR	SR	C.R.	P
SL	<---	LMX	-.734	-.362	-5.146	***
SL	<---	DayadLength	-.002	-.036	-.564	.573
SL	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.359	.185	2.621	.009
SL	<---	Lgender	-.245	-.131	-1.877	.061
SL	<---	MGender	-.051	-.026	-.413	.680
JP	<---	LMX	.145	.141	1.962	.044
JP	<---	MGender	.114	.114	1.866	.062
JP	<---	Lgender	-.179	-.187	-2.696	.007
JP	<---	Memplymentcontract	.017	.017	.276	.782
JP	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.154	.156	2.234	.026
JP	<---	DayadLength	.000	-.009	-.137	.891
JP	<---	SL	-.355	-.698	-7.249	***
TI	<---	LMX	-.158	-.104	-1.310	.190
OCB	<---	LMX	.053	.059	.733	.464
TI	<---	MGender	.079	.054	.794	.427
OCB	<---	MGender	-.057	-.065	-.950	.342
TI	<---	Lgender	-.274	-.195	-2.535	.011
OCB	<---	Lgender	-.117	-.140	-1.805	.071
OCB	<---	Memplymentcontract	.005	.005	.078	.938
TI	<---	Memplymentcontract	.046	.031	.447	.655

Items			USR	SR	C.R.	P
OCB	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.171	.199	2.465	.014
TI	<---	Lemploymentcontract	-.085	-.059	-.760	.447
OCB	<---	DayadLength	.000	-.001	-.015	.988
TI	<---	DayadLength	.002	.054	.761	.446
OCBO	<---	JP	1.000	1.163		
IRB	<---	JP	1.041	.755	7.234	***
OCB	<---	SL	.059	.133	1.696	.090
TI	<---	SL	.088	.118	1.541	.123
LMX7	<---	LMX	1.000	.799		
LMX6	<---	LMX	.946	.780	12.813	***
LMX5	<---	LMX	1.034	.737	11.637	***
LMX4	<---	LMX	.959	.769	12.337	***
LMX3	<---	LMX	.951	.792	13.026	***
LMX2	<---	LMX	1.012	.771	12.503	***
LMX1	<---	LMX	.972	.679	10.779	***
JP10	<---	OCBO	1.000	.532		
JP9	<---	OCBO	.666	.277	3.844	***
JP6	<---	OCBO	1.237	.576	6.875	***
TI1	<---	TI	1.000	.676		
TI2	<---	TI	1.377	.886	11.921	***
TI3	<---	TI	1.422	.927	11.997	***

Items			USR	SR	C.R.	P
OCB1	<---	OCB	1.000	.509		
OCB2	<---	OCB	1.327	.607	6.496	***
OCB3	<---	OCB	1.145	.730	7.482	***
OCB4	<---	OCB	1.530	.909	8.011	***
OCB5	<---	OCB	1.372	.785	7.832	***
JP4	<---	IRB	1.000	.887		
JP3	<---	IRB	1.044	.930	21.247	***
JP2	<---	IRB	1.049	.901	20.044	***
JP1	<---	IRB	1.045	.822	15.918	***
SL2	<---	SL	1.000	.878		
SL3	<---	SL	.600	.807	16.178	***
SL4	<---	SL	.597	.785	13.920	***
SL5	<---	SL	.863	.873	27.207	***
SL6	<---	SL	.697	.765	14.578	***
SL7	<---	SL	.732	.845	17.446	***
SL8	<---	SL	.912	.934	21.991	***
SL1	<---	SL	.882	.885	19.554	***

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

Regression weights for ELMX and SLMX direct model

		Items	Estimate	SR	C.R.	P
JP	<---	SLMX	.390	.375	4.338	***
JP	<---	ELMX	-.569	-.630	-6.617	***
JP	<---	MGender	-.093	-.076	-1.082	.279
JP	<---	Lgender	-.205	-.175	-2.251	.024
JP	<---	Memplymentcontract	-.087	-.069	-1.017	.309
JP	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.041	.033	.442	.659
JP	<---	DayadLength	-.001	-.034	-.487	.626
OCB	<---	ELMX	.088	.141	1.830	.067
TI	<---	ELMX	.173	.159	2.070	.038
TI	<---	SLMX	-.134	-.107	-1.387	.165
OCB	<---	SLMX	.095	.131	1.683	.092
OCBO	<---	JP	1.000	1.074		
IRB	<---	JP	.985	.794	7.290	***
OCB	<---	MGender	-.049	-.057	-.817	.414
TI	<---	MGender	.171	.116	1.621	.105
OCB	<---	Lgender	-.096	-.117	-1.511	.131
TI	<---	Lgender	-.258	-.183	-2.330	.020
TI	<---	Memplymentcontract	.090	.059	.861	.389
OCB	<---	Memplymentcontract	.006	.006	.094	.925
OCB	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.152	.180	2.274	.023

		Items	Estimate	SR	C.R.	P
TI	<---	Lemploymentcontract	-.067	-.046	-.594	.552
TI	<---	DayadLength	.002	.049	.688	.491
OCB	<---	DayadLength	.000	-.007	-.099	.921
ELMX8	<---	ELMX	1.000	.860		
ELMX7	<---	ELMX	1.000	.794	17.175	***
ELMX6	<---	ELMX	1.027	.805	15.136	***
ELMX5	<---	ELMX	1.053	.879	17.708	***
ELMX4	<---	ELMX	1.106	.877	17.638	***
ELMX3	<---	ELMX	1.076	.841	16.039	***
ELMX2	<---	ELMX	1.018	.722	14.804	***
ELMX1	<---	ELMX	1.098	.805	15.025	***
SLMX7	<---	SLMX	1.000	.721		
SLMX6	<---	SLMX	.798	.600	9.939	***
SLMX5	<---	SLMX	.661	.572	7.464	***
SLMX4	<---	SLMX	.842	.648	8.386	***
SLMX3	<---	SLMX	.476	.366	4.947	***
JP1	<---	IRB	1.000	.865		
JP2	<---	IRB	.986	.934	19.668	***
JP3	<---	IRB	.905	.891	18.290	***
JP4	<---	IRB	.872	.855	15.269	***
OCB1	<---	OCB	1.000	.501		

Items			Estimate	SR	C.R.	P
OCB2	<---	OCB	1.369	.615	6.463	***
OCB3	<---	OCB	1.173	.733	7.451	***
OCB4	<---	OCB	1.565	.910	7.925	***
OCB5	<---	OCB	1.390	.782	7.682	***
TI1	<---	TI	1.000	.679		
TI2	<---	TI	1.377	.888	11.921	***
TI3	<---	TI	1.409	.924	11.959	***
JP6	<---	OCBO	1.000	.621		
JP9	<---	OCBO	.647	.358	5.309	***
JP10	<---	OCBO	.702	.497	6.168	***
SLMX8	<---	SLMX	.988	.810	9.536	***

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

Regression weights for ELMX and SLMX indirect model (self-efficacy as a mediator)

	Items		SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
SE	<---	ELMX	-.245	.072	-3.009	.003
SE	<---	SLMX	.025	.083	.316	.752
SE	<---	MGender	.045	.094	.601	.548
SE	<---	Lgender	.041	.097	.515	.607
SE	<---	Memplymentcontract	.120	.095	1.663	.096
SE	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.129	.102	1.595	.111
SE	<---	DayadLength	-.157	.003	-2.059	.039
JP	<---	SLMX	.329	.084	4.003	***
JP	<---	ELMX	-.594	.076	-6.721	***
JP	<---	SE	-.155	.079	-1.923	.045
JP	<---	MGender	-.043	.084	-.630	.529
JP	<---	Lgender	-.150	.088	-2.015	.044
JP	<---	Memplymentcontract	-.042	.084	-.637	.524
JP	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.035	.090	.472	.637
JP	<---	DayadLength	-.040	.002	-.585	.558
OCB	<---	ELMX	.224	.046	2.918	.004
TI	<---	ELMX	.086	.075	1.184	.236
TI	<---	SLMX	-.094	.091	-1.275	.202
OCB	<---	SLMX	.142	.054	1.892	.059
OCBO	<---	JP	1.108			
IRB	<---	JP	.804	.130	7.322	***
OCB	<---	SE	.290	.063	3.110	.002

TI	<---	SE	-.270	.103	-3.054	.002
OCB	<---	MGender	-.071	.059	-1.028	.304
TI	<---	MGender	.127	.104	1.806	.071
OCB	<---	Lgender	-.130	.062	-1.715	.086
TI	<---	Lgender	-.172	.107	-2.265	.023
OCB	<---	Memplymentcontract	-.018	.059	-.275	.783
TI	<---	Memplymentcontract	.088	.102	1.308	.191
OCB	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.137	.065	1.805	.071
TI	<---	Lemploymentcontract	-.010	.110	-.131	.896
OCB	<---	DayadLength	.046	.002	.666	.506
TI	<---	DayadLength	.000	.003	.005	.996
ELMX8	<---	ELMX	.913			
ELMX7	<---	ELMX	.809	.057	16.963	***
ELMX6	<---	ELMX	.772	.060	15.443	***
ELMX5	<---	ELMX	.853	.051	18.975	***
ELMX4	<---	ELMX	.850	.054	18.847	***
ELMX3	<---	ELMX	.871	.064	16.665	***
ELMX2	<---	ELMX	.780	.066	15.655	***
ELMX1	<---	ELMX	.842	.069	15.897	***
SLMX7	<---	SLMX	.736			
SLMX6	<---	SLMX	.621	.079	10.187	***

SLMX5	<---	SLMX	.579	.087	7.578	***
SLMX4	<---	SLMX	.657	.098	8.612	***
SLMX3	<---	SLMX	.343	.093	4.710	***
JP1	<---	IRB	.829			
JP2	<---	IRB	.902	.050	19.910	***
JP3	<---	IRB	.925	.058	17.005	***
JP4	<---	IRB	.896	.063	15.272	***
OCB1	<---	OCB	.504			
OCB2	<---	OCB	.607	.207	6.488	***
OCB3	<---	OCB	.726	.155	7.422	***
OCB4	<---	OCB	.916	.194	7.999	***
OCB5	<---	OCB	.781	.177	7.788	***
TI1	<---	TI	.682			
TI2	<---	TI	.889	.113	12.107	***
TI3	<---	TI	.922	.115	12.216	***
JP6	<---	OCBO	.606			
JP9	<---	OCBO	.356	.120	5.480	***
JP10	<---	OCBO	.501	.113	6.415	***
SE7	<---	SE	.605	.171	5.942	***
SE6	<---	SE	.732	.179	6.395	***
SE5	<---	SE	.439	.165	4.898	***

SE4	<---	SE	.451	.130	4.991	***
SE3	<---	SE	.736	.209	6.032	***
SE2	<---	SE	.503	.146	5.936	***
SE1	<---	SE	.507			
SLMX8	<---	SLMX	.793	.097	9.683	***

Note: All output is from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represents the standardized regression weight (SR).

Regression weights for ELMX and SLMX indirect model (social loafing as a mediator)

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
SL	<---	ELMX	.691	.088	10.500	***
SL	<---	SLMX	-.225	.093	-3.644	***
SL	<---	MGender	.180	.098	3.296	***
SL	<---	Lgender	-.012	.101	-.199	.843
SL	<---	Memplymentcontract	.064	.096	1.224	.221
SL	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.107	.105	1.803	.071
SL	<---	DayadLength	-.002	.003	-.029	.977
JP	<---	SLMX	.269	.083	3.556	***
JP	<---	ELMX	-.230	.090	-2.475	.013
JP	<---	MGender	.025	.083	.392	.695
JP	<---	Lgender	-.210	.085	-3.080	.002
JP	<---	Memplymentcontract	-.012	.079	-.196	.845
JP	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.121	.088	1.782	.075
JP	<---	DayadLength	-.023	.002	-.368	.713
JP	<---	SL	-.562	.069	-5.936	***
OCB	<---	ELMX	.119	.068	1.136	.256
TI	<---	ELMX	.111	.114	1.059	.289
TI	<---	SLMX	-.097	.101	-1.181	.238
OCB	<---	SLMX	.151	.061	1.814	.070

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
OCBO	<---	JP	.786			
IRB	<---	JP	.763	.103	8.332	***
OCB	<---	MGender	-.062	.064	-.855	.393
TI	<---	MGender	.105	.108	1.427	.154
OCB	<---	Lgender	-.113	.064	-1.471	.141
TI	<---	Lgender	-.183	.109	-2.347	.019
TI	<---	Memplymentcontract	.052	.103	.755	.450
OCB	<---	Memplymentcontract	.010	.060	.144	.886
OCB	<---	Lemploymentcontract	.163	.068	2.063	.039
TI	<---	Lemploymentcontract	-.052	.113	-.665	.506
TI	<---	DayadLength	.050	.003	.704	.481
OCB	<---	DayadLength	-.005	.002	-.068	.946
OCB	<---	SL	.052	.047	.528	.597
TI	<---	SL	.067	.081	.681	.496
ELMX8	<---	ELMX	.852			
ELMX7	<---	ELMX	.806	.059	17.216	***
ELMX6	<---	ELMX	.801	.069	15.010	***
ELMX5	<---	ELMX	.872	.061	17.391	***
ELMX4	<---	ELMX	.873	.064	17.408	***
ELMX3	<---	ELMX	.860	.066	16.935	***
ELMX2	<---	ELMX	.744	.068	15.567	***

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
ELMX1	<---	ELMX	.831	.071	16.075	***
SLMX7	<---	SLMX	.723			
SLMX6	<---	SLMX	.607	.081	9.946	***
SLMX5	<---	SLMX	.587	.093	7.285	***
SLMX4	<---	SLMX	.656	.100	8.469	***
SLMX3	<---	SLMX	.362	.096	4.879	***
JP1	<---	IRB	.832			
JP2	<---	IRB	.896	.047	21.150	***
JP3	<---	IRB	.923	.055	17.899	***
JP4	<---	IRB	.897	.059	16.356	***
OCB1	<---	OCB	.508			
OCB2	<---	OCB	.613	.205	6.539	***
OCB3	<---	OCB	.728	.153	7.476	***
OCB4	<---	OCB	.911	.191	8.019	***
OCB5	<---	OCB	.782	.175	7.827	***
TI1	<---	TI	.674			
TI2	<---	TI	.887	.116	11.911	***
TI3	<---	TI	.926	.119	11.985	***
JP6	<---	OCBO	.900			
JP9	<---	OCBO	.422	.115	4.569	***
JP10	<---	OCBO	.700	.097	7.067	***

Items			SR	S.E.	C.R.	P
SL8	<---	SL	.936			
SL7	<---	SL	.841	.039	20.258	***
SL6	<---	SL	.775	.047	16.295	***
SL5	<---	SL	.883	.044	21.974	***
SL4	<---	SL	.767	.044	14.576	***
SL3	<---	SL	.801	.037	17.629	***
SL2	<---	SL	.878	.049	22.292	***
SL1	<---	SL	.893	.042	23.072	***
SLMX8	<---	SLMX	.803	.103	9.394	***

Note: All output are from the unstandardized estimates except for the first column which represent the standardized regression weight (SR).