LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR RELATIONSHIP IN GENERAL MERCHANDISE RETAIL MANAGERS

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

Capella University

June 2021



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Abstract

This research examined whether a significant relationship exists between the leader-member exchange (LMX) dimensions and directional OCB. This quantitative, nonexperimental research used an online survey panel purchased from Qualtrics. The population sample (N = 97) of U.S.based general merchandise retail managers provided data using Liden and Maslyn's 12-item LMX-MDM instrument and Lee and Allen's 16-item OCB Scale to self-report LMX quality and individual OCB. Multiple regression analysis assumption testing indicated that the data did not meet assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity. The data also demonstrated multicollinearity between three of the four predictor variables, requiring consolidation of collinear predictors affect, loyalty, and professional respect into a separate predictor labeled interpersonal. The fourth LMX dimension, contribution, had the most significant correlation with OCBO and OCBI, while the consolidated interpersonal predictor did not. The findings suggest that a relationship exists between dimensions of LMX and directional OCB, but future studies can benefit by examining the degree and nature of the relationship in greater detail.



Dedication

To my angel, partner, lover, and wife Samantha, for the unhesitating support and infinite patience you've given me in pursuit of my dreams. You have sustained me, challenged me, helped me reflect and, when necessary, made me refocus. You are my muse and you make everything I do better.

To my amazing children, Bowen and Jasmine, for the tremendous endurance you have demonstrated as both military kids and as doctoral candidate kids. You have also demonstrated amazing flexibility in our day-to-day life and I couldn't be prouder of the young man and woman that you are becoming. You will both achieve all you are determined to achieve.

To my father, Michael, you worked for so many years to provide a house and home for us and enabled us to chase our goals. Your constant encouragement and long suffering have set an example that no words could ever teach.

To my big brother, Mike, your creativity, resourcefulness, and technical skills have always amazed me. Your ability to make something amazing out of almost nothing is the stuff of legend!

To my karate Sensei Fred, your encouragement, ability to instill a fighting spirit, and pure tenacity has inspired many to live better lives with honor, courage, and perseverance. This undertaking took all three and I could not have done it without the lessons you provided.

To my kenpo Senior Grand Master, Chuck, your friendship, mentorship, vision, and drive inspired me to want more, do more, and be more. Your creation of our amazing organization set even the highest of goals within reach of those that would stretch.



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To my fellow instructors, James, Steve, Bill, and V, your continual growth, challenging questions, and own personal achievements have driven me as much as your friendship. I am eternally grateful for both.

To my fellow candidates and travelers along this PhD path, Dan, Nichole, Rosanna, and so many others, you brought joy and a sense of unity to this experience. Your camaraderie and friendship have made this worth doing.

To my greatest military mentor, Todd Schug, you demonstrated to me what grace under fire looks like; what leader-member exchange and mentorship really means; and showed that it is possible to be a man of integrity and a consummate professional.

And finally, to my late mother Susan, your insistence on enrichment of the mind and adornment of the soul have enabled generational change that will continue in your grandchildren. You are missed.



Acknowledgments

I want to thank Dr. James Morgan, my mentor and chair, for shepherding me in my dissertation journey. You hide tremendous experience and knowledge behind an easy-going demeanor, and I am glad to have gotten a peak behind the curtain. Thank you for your feedback and helping me manage my own expectations.

Thank you, Dr. Susan Saurage-Altenloh, for bringing me through Track 2 and back into the fold at a pivotal point in my journey. Without your caring, but direct, direction and guidance in the process of topic selection, I would have been stuck at the base of "the mountain" and never ascended to see the right gap.

Thank you, Dr. Michael Williams, for your guidance and mentorship in Track 3. Your consummate academic professionalism returned an air of prestige to this endeavor for me that may have otherwise been lost. I hope to give back to the academy at least a fraction of what you have done.

Thank you to my committee members, Dr. Dawn Valentine and Dr. Nestor Colls, thank you for your time, feedback, and shaping on this leg of my path.

Thank you to those professionals with whom I've learned or benefited, Dr. Gregory Gull, Dr. Clifford Butler, Dr. Elaine Gregory, and so many others. Special thanks to Dr. Butler for giving me the courage to wear a good hat.

Thank you, Dr. Nichole Dreighton, for the constant cheerleading and encouragement. Your help meant far more than you can understand; cheers!

And although I've mentioned you in my dedication, I would be remiss without thanking my amazing wife, Samantha, for her reading of every word I write, the constant help, office meals and study breaks. You kept me going (I didn't want to disappoint you).



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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Leadership influences the full range of human society, from industrial to agrarian (Pietraszewski, 2020). Scholars and practitioners describe leadership in terms of a person's ability to build and maintain a group that performs well compared to its competition and solves larger scale problems for the collective (Glowacki & von Rueden, 2015; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Some conceptual leadership process models are task-oriented, while others focus on individual traits. Other models emphasize relationships.

Early leadership scholars concentrated on maximizing efficiency and increasing subordinate output, but there has been increased interest in leadership's social and relational aspects in the last decade (Akram et al., 2016; Wren, 2003). This increase in interest may be due to the role relational leadership plays in organizational sustainability, or due to the influence leadership roles play in cross-regional ethical climate creation (Nicholson & Kurucz, 2019). The increase may also be due to recent global political and economic shifts such as those brought on by COVID-19 or civil unrest (Johnson et al., 2020). Regardless of the reason, relational leadership remains of academic and practical interest. The present study focuses on performanceoriented outcomes of a relationship-centric leadership model called leader-member exchange.

This chapter aims to introduce the study, starting with the background and statement of the research problem. The next sections provide an overview of the study's purpose and significance, the research questions, and the definition of terms. The study's assumptions and limitations follow, and Chapter 1 ends by summarizing the study's design.



Background of the Problem

Organizations need more than just defined contractual behaviors to be effective. Katz and Kahn (1966) noted effective organizations demonstrate three distinct actions. They recruit and retain organizational participants, set an environment where members assume specified roles, and motivate members to engage in certain activities outside their defined roles. This third category of discretionary extra-role behaviors are critical to an organization's success and scholars call them organizational citizenship behavior or OCB (Yildiz, 2019). OCB is a construct addressed by multiple leadership theories and is vital because such behaviors tend to affect the bottom line and organizational environment (Chow et al., 2015). Called by some scholars the good-soldier syndrome for the individuals' willingness to go above and beyond their normal duties, these organizational citizenship behaviors serve vital functions outside the defined positional roles and "lubricate the social machinery" of an organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983, p. 588). In times of crisis, such as the outbreak of COVID-19 threatening entire organizations' existence, engaged leadership and extra-role behaviors are increasingly critical (Lagowska et al., 2020). The problem at hand is how leaders can create conditions that encourage OCB in organizational members.

Leaders can encourage OCB through relational models. When leaders employ a relational leadership model, they recognize the symbiotic relationship between organizations and their members. If the fit between the individual and their employer is weak, both suffer; if the fit is right, both benefit through an increase in either formal or informal performance (Marstand et al., 2017). Positive relational exchanges between supervisors and employees may hold the key to increasing desirable and mutually beneficial employee behaviors (Martin et al., 2016). Scholars call these exchanges leader-member exchanges. This study examined the problem of increasing



OCB through the lens of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory and its eponymous construct to maximize benefits to both the organization and its members.

The leader-member exchange construct, herein simplified to LMX, consists of interactions between superior and subordinate members at the dyadic level. LMX creates individualized relational exchanges in contrast to an average leadership style across the organization (G. Graen et al., 1982). These exchanges can be good (high quality) or poor (low quality). Perceived reciprocity between the LMX participants generally determines the exchange quality. This quality determination creates groups of employees with varying amounts of agency and loyalty, defined by whether their exchanges are higher or lower quality (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Differentiated relationships between leaders and followers set organizational conditions favorable for increased discretionary out-of-role behaviors. Scholars call such noncontractual behaviors OCBs (Ghaus et al., 2018; Joo & Jo, 2017). Examples include helping others or staying later than scheduled, when not made an express condition of one's position or employment (Estel et al., 2019). Relational exchanges between supervisors and employees may hold the key to increasing such behaviors.

Multiple LMX models exist in the literature; two such models are the single-dimensional exchange quality model and the multidimensional approach (Martin et al., 2016). One difference between LMX models lies in construct measurement. As with other social science constructs, LMX instruments consider various psychometric factors in evaluating LMX quality. Some instruments provide data to calculate a single, unidimensional coefficient (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) while others distribute the aggregated quality rating across multiple dimensions. The Liden and Maslyn (1998) multidimensional model of LMX, for



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example, extracts four dimensions from the construct: affect, loyalty, professional respect, and personal contribution. According to the Liden and Maslyn model, each dimension has a different impact on the overall perception of LMX quality. LMX literature recognizes a relationship between LMX and OCB, but the degree and mechanism of influence the former (LMX) has on the latter (OCB) is a frequent departure point. This research's theoretical framework focused on Liden and Maslyn's four dimensions concerning OCB.

Similarly, OCB literature describes multiple approaches to categorizing the manifestations of the construct. With a focus on behavior types, categorical OCB literature identifies over 40 behavioral categories (Organ, 2018; Podsakoff et al., 2009). An alternative to the categorical approach is consolidating them into target-oriented, or directional, behavior sets (Lee & Allen, 2002). The latter directions serve as metacategories directed toward specific individuals in the organization or directed toward the organization in general, without benefit to any single person. If LMX has individual dimensions and OCB has divergent directions, the dimensions might have varying influence over the target at which employees direct their OCB. The literature is silent, however, on that relationship or the degree of correlation.

Statement of the Problem

According to research conducted between 2016 and 2020, elements of LMX like the differentiation process and LMX quality variation can influence organizational and individual behaviors like helpfulness and proactive meeting interactions across multiple models (Estel et al., 2019). Using the unidimensional LMX model, researchers have correlated LMX quality scores with instances of OCB as a mediator of other aspects, like supervisor-value fit (Marstand et al., 2017). Researchers also have applied the multidimensional model to correlate LMX with categorical OCBs, particularly in the context of individualized and differentiated work



relationships (Anand, Hu, et al., 2018). Researchers have examined dimensional LMX models in conjunction with directional OCB but in the context of feedback environment, withdrawal, and job complexity (Lonsdale, 2016). What researchers had not previously examined in specific detail was the relationship between the multidimensional model of LMX and directional OCB.

Furthermore, a bulk of OCB and LMX research literature emphasizes line-level interactions or teams. This is problematic because both LMX and OCB are relevant constructs for senior managers and higher (Hanh Tran & Choi, 2019; Lin & Lin, 2019). There is a gap in the research for both LMX and OCB with relation to senior managers. This research extends the existing literature by addressing both gaps, analyzing senior retail managers' LMX quality and their self-reported OCB. Furthermore, it adds to the body of knowledge by examining the relationship between LMX dimensions and directional OCB.

Purpose of the Study

This quantitative, nonexperimental study's purpose was to measure the relationship between multidimensional leader-member exchange and directional organizational citizenship behavior in a panel of senior retail managers. It bridged a research gap concerning multidimensional LMX, organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization, and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward individuals (Lee & Allen, 2002; Organ, 2018). Specifically, this research sought to measure the degree of relationship between the four LMX dimensions and directions, or targets, of OCB. The degree of relationship is unknown. This study also fills a gap in the topical area concerning the population, which has heretofore been under-examined.



Significance of the Study

This study advances knowledge and theory in the fields of business management and leadership. It contributes to LMX theory (Dansereau et al., 1973; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) by examining the relationship between LMX dimensions and directional OCB. Additionally, this research tested LMX theory's prediction that higher quality LMX relationships result in greater engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Michel & Tews, 2016). Additionally, I tested this prediction in a previously under-examined population at the dimensional and directional level of LMX and OCB respectively. This refinement raises additional research questions regarding existing LMX relationships with other results, like turnover intention (Adil & Awais, 2016; Chen & Wu, 2017) or employee job performance (Buch et al., 2016).

While organizational citizenship behaviors are essential for line-level managers, more senior managers can benefit as well (Chaudhary, 2018). Little emphasis has been placed on examining the impact of LMX on senior leaders or their OCBs. Although one might explain the relationship in terms of social exchange, perception-based relational behaviors at the upper echelons may prove fruitful (Lin & Lin, 2019). The practical implications for senior managers and retail leaders relate to organizational culture and the impact of relational leadership models (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Williams & Anderson, 1991). If senior managers can understand the effect of LMX on their behaviors and help them better understand themselves, they may be more enabled to set a leadership climate that meets their employees' needs (Fein et al., 2015). This study's results inform how leaders shape organizational culture in such a way as to increase organizational citizenship behaviors.



Research Questions

Two main research questions guided this study. The two questions are:

- 1. To what extent is there a significant relationship between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBO?
- 2. To what extent is there a significant relationship between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBI?

Definition of Terms

Affect. Affect is a measure of interpersonal attraction between members of the dyad (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

Age group. Age group of a participant refers to the bracket of ages into which they selfcategorize, described in blocks of 25-35 years old, 36-45 years old, 46-55 years old, and 56 + years old.

Categorical organizational citizenship behavior. Categorical organizational citizenship behavior describes the model of OCB that focuses on more than 40 types of individual behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2009), in contrast to directional organizational citizenship behavior.

Contribution. Contribution is the measure of perceived equity in the reciprocal give-andtake of the dyad (Dienesch & Liden, 1986)

Directional organizational citizenship behavior. Directional organizational citizenship behavior categorizes more than 40 types of individual behaviors according to the intended recipient. OCB directed toward the organization, called OCBO, and OCB directed toward individuals, or OCBI (Williams & Anderson, 1991). See the entry for *organizational citizenship behavior* for more detail.



Education level. Education level of a participant is the highest level of formal education for which they hold a certification or degree, defined in terms of high school diploma or equivalent, Associate degree, Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, and Doctorate or equivalent.

Gender. According to Winter (2015), *Gender* "is a psychosocial construct determined by individuals' experience of being male or female" (p. 15). In accordance with APA guidelines, I use the terms *men* and *women* in lieu of biological sex.

Leader-member exchange (LMX). Leader-member exchange (LMX) is a relational leadership approach where leaders establish differentiated relationships with some followers and not others (Dansereau et al., 1975). In contrast to the *average leadership style* (ALS) approach common to leadership research at the time of development, LMX emphasizes the relationships between supervisor/employee dyads (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

Leader-member exchange theory. Leader-member exchange theory relates to processes involved in and resulting from the dyadic approach to intra-organizational leadership known as leader-member exchange (Dansereau et al., 1973; Graen & Cashman, 1975).

Leader-member exchange quality. Leader-member exchange quality is a measure of trust, responsibility, and agency the LMX relationship confers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Researchers classify LMX quality as being high, medium, or low (Liden & Graen, 1980) based on the results of a given measurement instrument.

Loyalty. Loyalty is a measure of specific allegiance felt between members of the dyad (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

Multidimensional LMX. Multidimensional LMX is the model of LMX that separates aggregate LMX quality ratings across four dimensions of affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).



Multidimensional Measure of LMX (LMX-MDM). The Multidimensional Measure of LMX (LMX-MDM) was developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998). It is a 12-item, four-dimension instrument that uses a seven-point Likert scale to measure self-reported scores of the participant's affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution. Each dimension is assessed with three items. Although internal consistency reliability was low for contribution, the other three met acceptable levels .60, .90, .78, and .92 (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) are discretionary extra-role behaviors in which employees or members partake beyond contractual obligations (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the individual (OCBI). As described earlier under directional OCB, organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the individual (OCBI) are discretionary behaviors intended to assist or benefit another specific employee, peer, or team member (Lee & Allen, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization (OCBO). Organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization (OCBO) are discretionary behaviors either intended to benefit the organization or are a general benefit to the organization without a specific intended person receiving the benefit (Lee & Allen, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale. The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB Scale) was developed by Lee and Allen (2002). It is a 16-item scale that uses a seven-point Likert scale to measure self-reported types of organizational citizenship behaviors in two directions, organizational citizenship behavior directed toward individuals, or OCBI, and



organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization or OCBO. Scale reliability was .83 for OCBI and .88 for OCBO (Lee & Allen, 2002).

Professional respect. Professional respect is a measure of the perceived reputation each member of the dyad has built professionally in their line of work (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Scope of responsibility. Scope of responsibility refers to the number of individuals a participant in the study is responsible for leading or managing described in ranges of 5-100 employees, 101-200 employees, 201-500 employees, and > 500 employees.

Size of the organization. Size of the organization is the number of physical retail locations the participant's organization has in blocks of 4-10, 11-25, 26-50, 51-100, and > 100. Unidimensional LMX is a model with a composite score derived from a given instrument and represents overall LMX quality between leader and member (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Research Design

I used a quantitative methodology for the present study, and applied a nonexperimental, correlational research design. The analytical approach to test the relationship between leadermember exchange quality and directional organizational citizenship behavior and answer the research questions is multiple regression analysis. Correlational research differs from causal research in the temporal relationship between the variables (Cohen, 2003; Pandey, 2020). Since the present study tests a hypothesized but previously unexamined relationship between subelements of two variables, a correlational study is more appropriate than a causal study. A nonexperimental quantitative design is well suited for social science research (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). Furthermore, the scope of this study is limited to the existence and degree of relationship, not the cause or context. The scope, therefore, supports a quantitative methodology



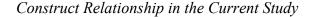
over a qualitative one; a qualitative methodology can provide additional insight to the relationship after measurement.

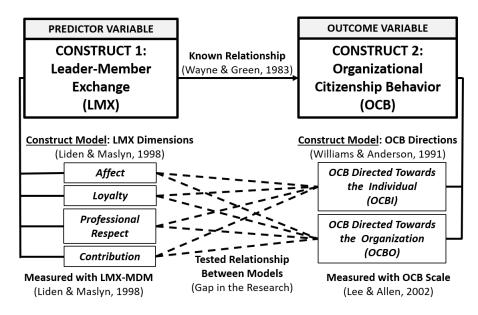
LMX theory predicts a relationship between LMX quality and OCB. The present research is not predictive and there is no variable manipulation (Glasofer & Townsend, 2020). This correlational study uses the labels *predictor* and *outcome* variable to describe the constructs for simplicity. The predictor variables were self-reported leader-member exchange quality dimensions, and the outcome variables were organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward individuals. I collected data through a Qualtrics survey panel made up of a nonprobability aligned sample of department store.

Participants meeting the screening criteria provided to Qualtrics completed two survey instruments: the LMX-MDM and the OCB Scale. The LMX-MDM survey instrument measures leader-member exchange quality across subscales for the LMX dimensions: affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. The LMX-MDM uses 12 items identified in interviews with business school graduates, in the LMX literature, and exploratory factor analysis. The LMX-MDM survey design applies a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = *strongly disagree*, and 7 = *strongly agree*, with a sample statement indicating that the participant's manager would defend the employee in organizational context (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The OCB Scale is a 16-item instrument that uses a seven-point Likert scale to measure self-reported types of organizational citizenship behaviors in two directions, organizational citizenship behavior directed toward individuals, or OCBI, and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization, or OCBO (Lee & Allen, 2002). Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between constructs in this study and how I measured them.



Figure 1





The study's population was senior retail managers. The recent literature defines senior managers inconsistently. A recent study by Chapman and Hewitt-Dundas (2018) defines senior managers in terms of an organizational founder or executive officer. Other authors make assumptions on the reader's knowledge of the term and leave it undefined (Vlajcic et al., 2019). The present study applies to multiunit retail department store managers responsible for operations and personnel in more than one department or location. The sample criteria excluded managers working in sector-specific stores or solely online retailers. To meet the sampling strategy criteria, demographic data collected included sex, age group, the scope of the participant's responsibility in that organization, and the highest educational level completed by the participant. I then analyzed data using IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software to conduct multiple regression analysis and test the relationship between variables (Field, 2018).



Assumptions and Limitations

The next section presents assumptions and limitations related to the study. The discussion begins by addressing assumptions related to the constructs, methodology, and instrumentation. The section then discusses limitations and potential opportunities for impact to the leadership field as it relates to the theoretical framework, study design, and the population examined.

Assumptions

This study measured the relationship between LMX dimensions (affect, loyalty, personal respect, contribution), and directional OCB (OCBO and OCBI). The theoretical assumptions foundational to this study emerged from other assumptions made in the ontology, epistemology, and axiology supporting the design. Ontologically, this study assumes that a relationship exists between the dimensions of LMX (predictor variables) and OCB directions (outcome variables). The principal epistemological assumption is that the results will be reliable and valid, thus informing future knowledge and understanding. Axiologically, the study assumes that participants will provide honest and accurate information to fill the gap in knowledge regarding the research variables. Based on these assumptions, the study takes a postpositivist approach and tested existing knowledge to find further gaps while addressing existing ones. (Elander & Cronjé, 2016).

General Methodological Assumptions

Research method selection assumes that the approach and design will answer the research question (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). In testing the existence of a relationship between LMX dimensions and OCB directions, the epistemological assumption is that such a thing can be known. This study's foundational assumptions were that the research questions can be answered objectively using quantitative means, what already exists in literature is insufficient to do so, and



the administration of surveys through the third-party service will achieve those ends. Additionally, this study made some specific assumptions with regards to data collection and participant selection. Qualtrics, the third-party data collection agency, provided a panel of participants meeting the selection criteria. Qualtrics identified participants using their algorithm for recruitment, but this research assumes that the Qualtrics method did not have a measurable effect on the data provided.

Participants self-reported their organizational citizenship behavior; research supports the assumption that the data provided through self-report mechanisms is equally reliable as otherreported OCB (Vijayalakshmi & Supriya, 2017). Hansbrough et al. (2015) suggested followerprovided leader ratings may be biased through mood or circumstances in proximity to the survey. Considering Hansbrough's concerns, another assumption is that participants were able and willing to cognitively separate moods or present feelings at the time of the survey. Three methodological assumptions shape this approach. I assumed the participant panel contracted through Qualtrics fit the inclusion criteria provided, the selected participants understood the questions and provided truthful answers to the best of their ability.

Theoretical Assumptions

Leader-member exchange quality has a measured and examined positive relationship with OCB (Martin et al., 2016; Michel & Tews, 2016). The present research assumes that the subconstructs of each variable, LMX dimensions and OCB directions, have some form of measurable relationship similar to that between their higher constructs. This research also assumes the constructs and their relationship are stable and measurable (Crotty, 1998). This assumption informs the selection of quantitative methodology and linear statistical analysis.



Topic-Specific Assumptions

Qualtrics received selection criteria allowing for inclusion of a wider population sample pool. This study assumes that the participants were representative of the total population of retail managers in the United States. In making that assumption, the secondary assumption was that the results could be generalizable to managers in the retail industry.

Another assumption was that the participant's individual or organizational cultures would not bias their responses. An individual's culture can significantly influence their leadership perspective, their willingness to report data regarding the relationship, and their organizational citizenship behaviors (Hofstede, 1980). The decision to select a population from U.S.-based department store senior managers assumes participants are culturally homogenous enough to generalize findings with minimal variation. Many of the recent studies on LMX and OCB have occurred in other cultural clusters, such as in India (Estiri et al., 2018), Korea (Kim et al., 2010), or China (Tang & Naumann, 2015). Yet another assumption is that participants' culture would allow them enough latitude and autonomy within senior management positions to increase or decrease discretionary behaviors enough to be statistically significant.

Assumptions About the Measures

The leadership research literature shows LMX and OCB are theoretical constructs measurable by valid and reliable instruments, further supporting the use of the two instruments used in this study, the LMX-MDM and OCB Scale. Both instruments apply a 7-point Likert scale. The use of Likert scale tools assumes applicability for all participants, as there was no option for not applicable. Since both scales include an option for neither agree nor disagree, the risk associated with this assumption is mitigated (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011). The analysis approach assumes that the data collected through Likert scale-type instruments, although ordinal,



can be modified to create an approximately continuous measurement (Johnson & Creech, 1983; Norman, 2010; Sullivan & Artino, 2013) usable for the present research purpose.

Limitations

There are a few limitations inherent in this study important to note a priori. Doing so aids in interpreting this study's results and help identify paths for future studies. The present study has limitations in the theoretical framework, methodological approach, population selection, and analytical method. The next section describes the design limitations and the deliberately selected delimitations in this study.

Design Limitations

The first limitation relates to the theoretical foundation upon which I designed the study. This study used only leader-member exchange theory as its foundation. Despite its subsets and undertones of the broader social exchange theory, this study maintains an LMX focus. Doing so may advance the body of leader-member exchange theory and might preclude broader generalization outside of organizational leadership literature. LMX is a type of behavior also emphasized in other contemporary motivation and leadership theories, e.g., servant leadership theory or transformational leadership, or authentic leadership (Anderson et al., 2017). Despite its inclusion across the literature, LMX theory provides the central lens through which to examine the relationship between LMX and OCB.

A second limitation of the study is the quantitative design itself. As a relational form of leadership, LMX quality can be subjective and contextual (Randolph-Seng et al., 2016). This research aims to measure the relationship between multidimensional leader-member exchange and directional organizational citizenship behavior using a panel provided by Qualtrics. A



quantitative design limits access to other relational processes that might provide context for the LMX-OCB relationship.

Delimitations

A first delimitation is the specificity of the population sample. By restricting the population sample to only department store managers working for U.S.-based store chains, the study limits global generalization. However, the results can be considered in the context of studies in other cultural clusters (Dorfman et al., 2012). Likewise, by limiting the scope to general merchandise mass retailers and excluding sector-specific stores, the study's results might not be generalizable to the retail industry.

The second delimitation centers on the analytical method. Multiple regression analysis makes several assumptions about the quality of the data being analyzed. The relationship between predictor and outcome data is linear with normal distribution in the outcome, nonmulticollinearity and lack of autocorrelation in the predictors, and homoscedasticity (Field, 2018). Failure to meet these assumptions increases the risk of Type I and Type II errors.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This dissertation contains five chapters. Chapter 1 provided a general background for the study, research design, and constructs shaping the methodology. Chapter 2 provides a review of LMX and OCB scholarly literature and expands on the key constructs, variables, and relationships related to the theoretical framework. Chapter 3 presents the methodology, population specifics, sampling procedures and size, and research design for the study. Chapter 4 presents the findings and data analysis procedures. Chapter 5 offers the conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research stemming from the present study.



CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this research was to test the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory and its predictions regarding organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Specifically, this nonexperimental survey research measured the relationship between four LMX dimensions and two OCB directions in a population of general merchandise retail managers. This chapter presents a review of current and seminal LMX and OCB literature to highlight the existing research gap related to the relationship between LMX and OCB. The chapter describes the methods used to search for relevant literature and the theoretical orientation to the study, reviews seminal and contemporary literature concerning LMX theory, OCB, and examined the relationship between the two through extensive analysis. The chapter then synthesizes the literature germane to the present study, addresses some concerns with previous research methods, and summarizes the research gap.

Methods of Searching

The searching methods section describes ways and means to identify suitable sources from which to conduct a research literature review. The method used included four components: database searches, keyword searches, journal searches, and additional resource searches. I initially searched databases available through Capella University's library to locate relevant peer-reviewed research literature on the relationship between LMX dimensions and directional OCB published since 2015. The resultant articles pointed toward common seminal resources regarding both constructs ranging back to Meeker (1971) and before.

Databases

The primary databases I used in this literature review include ABI/INFORM Collection, Business Source Complete, EBSCOhost, Google Scholar, ProQuest Central, Sage Journals



Online, Science Direct, PsycArticles, and Summon. Additional supporting databases to identify recent and relevant resources were the Dissertations at Capella and Dissertations, Global Theses databases, and Credo.

Keyword Searches

The literature review started by using broad keyword searches including *relational* "leadership", "leader-member exchange", "LMX theory", "LMX outcomes", "LMX antecedents", "organizational citizenship behavior", "senior management issues", "dyadic leadership", "dyadic relationships", "LMX in management", "OCB in senior leaders", "organizational climate", "leadership climate", "OCB antecedents", "discretionary behavior", "OCBI", "OCBO", "LMX-MDM", and "OCB Scale". The search then used keyword combinations and derivative constructs, like "LMX and OCB relationship", "affect and LMX", "loyalty and LMX", "professional respect and LMX", and "contribution and LMX". The search continued by seminal authors such as Dansereau, Graen, Uhl-Bien, Cashman, Podsakoff, Dienesch, Liden, Organ, Lee, and Bateman. Each search also used filtering criteria such as peerreview, scholarly articles, publication date, and whether the variable was a primary variable in the study or a moderating/mediating variable.

Journals Reviewed

I surveyed peer-reviewed academic journals for both seminal and contemporary understanding of the predictor and outcome variables in the leadership field. The largest number of articles for this review came from the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *The Academy of Management Journal, Leadership Quarterly*, and *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*. Finally, I found resources from public and private libraries, such as *The Oxford*



Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, The Oxford Handbook of Leader-Member Exchange, and The Oxford Handbook of Leadership and Organizations to be quite valuable.

Theoretical Orientation for the Study

This research used LMX theory as the principal framework to measure the relationship between LMX dimensions and directional organizational citizenship behavior of general merchandise retailer senior managers. LMX theory addresses relationship development between supervisors and subordinates in an organizational context. Leader-member exchanges are a form of differentiated interaction a leader has with some subordinates but not with others; this differentiated approach contrasts with the common practice of using an average distributive style for everyone in the organization (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

The LMX construct provides a way for leaders to maximize their intangible resources like time and psychological energy to improve the organization. Recognizing that supervisors have limited resources, Dansereau and his colleagues suggested supervisors develop a series of differentiated vertical dyad relationships with some of their employees but not with others (Dansereau et al., 1975). LMX serves as a mechanism through which leaders can increase individual outcomes and create a framework of extra-role opportunities for subordinates to gain these valuable, but intangible, resources.

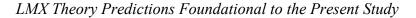
LMX theory states that effective dyadic leadership is a relationship-building process. The process involves an offer from either leader or follower, irrespective of role, to engage in some behavior beneficial to the other beyond the expected contractual interactions. If accepted, the relationship evolves into additional exchanges, and eventually, differentiation occurs between the employee and their peers. If either party does not accept the offer, then the relationship maintains a status quo with no increase in resource allocation or responsibilities accepted (Dansereau et al.,

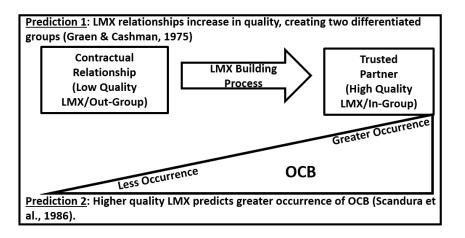


1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In the latter case, individuals retain their contractual roles, and there is no expectation of increased extra-role behavior (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Figure 2 illustrates the predictive relationship within LMX theory in relation to the present study.

LMX theory makes a couple of essential predictions with implications for this study. One key prediction is the formation of multiple differentiated groups. In LMX, the first group is called the in-group. They receive increased support, negotiated autonomy, and trust in return for additional responsibility and a willingness to work outside of their formal role's defined bounds. This in-group becomes a cadre of trusted associates in whom the supervisor placed their trust, and the remainder of the rank-and-file members would carry out the daily requirements. The other, an out-group, retain their formal contractual obligations and receive support in kind (Graen & Cashman, 1975; G. Graen et al., 1982).

Figure 2





The second key prediction is that LMX quality correlates with specific desirable work outcomes. Outcome-focused LMX research shows higher-quality exchanges negatively affect employee turnover (G. B. Graen et al., 1982). LMX also relates positively to performance evaluations and how desirable employee rate their job assignments (G. Graen et al., 1982; Liden



& Graen, 1980). There is also a definite link between higher LMX quality and healthy

organizational behavior, like helping others in the workplace (Scandura et al., 1986).

Review of the Literature

The next section presents a review of the seminal and contemporary literature concerning LMX theory, OCB, and the relationship between them. It begins with an overview of LMX theory, including the theories that contributed to and supported its development, and continues with the OCB construct's development. Table 1 summarizes the critical literature relative to the predictor and outcome variables in the present study.

Table 1

| Main Theory Construct | Authors | Literature Type | Description of theoretical underpinning |
|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------|---|
| Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) | Graen et al. (1972) | Seminal | Introduces a dyad-focused relational leadership approach where leaders establish differentiated relationships with some followers and not others. |
| Leader-member exchange (LMX) | Dansereau et al. (1973) | Seminal | Describes the exchange process occurring in VDL as a leader-member exchange. |
| Multidimensional LMX | Dienesch and Liden (1986) | Seminal | Formalizes a model of LMX separating aggregate LMX quality ratings across four dimensions: <i>affect, loyalty, contribution</i> , and <i>professional respect</i> . |
| Social exchange | Blau (2017) | Support | Provides early developmental support for the leader- member exchange construct; emphasis on the impact of perceived reciprocity of exchange. |
| Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) | Bateman and Organ (1983) | Seminal | Defines OCB as discretionary extra-role behaviors in which employees or members partake beyond their contractual obligations. |
| OCBO & OCBI | Williams and Anderson 1991 | Seminal | Categorizes more than 40 types of individual behaviors according to the intended recipient. OCB directed toward the organization, called OCBO, and OCB directed toward individuals, or OCBI. |

Theoretical Underpinnings LMX and OCB



The purpose of this literature review is to provide background on the predictor and outcome variables, their explicatory theories, and establish a rationale for the present research. The literature review has three primary sections arranged by theoretical framework elements: LMX theories and models, OCB dimensions and directions, and the relationship between LMX and OCB. First, the section addresses the predictor variable in this study, LMX, and its seminal theory development to include preeminent approaches that shaped the LMX construct. The discussion then explores multidimensional LMX, how researchers measure the construct, and then predictable outcomes from LMX. After that, the review examines the outcome variable, OCB. The discussion addresses OCB categorization, internal and external factors influencing OCB, how OCB relates to other leadership approaches, and dimensionality and directionality of OCB. The section closes with an exploration of literature examining both LMX and OCB.

LMX Theory Development

Since Graen and Cashman (1975) first used the term leader-member exchange, interest in LMX has consistently and continually increased. Erdogan and Bauer (2014) conducted a metaanalysis of over 700 articles with leader-member exchange or LMX in the title, abstract, or as a keyword; journals published nearly half of those entries between the years 2006 and 2010 (Day & Miscenko, 2016). Furthermore, a Google Scholar database search for articles written since 2016, including leader-member exchange in the title, yields over 22,000 global returns.

Although the present research used LMX theory as the lens to examine the predictor and outcome variables, it is critical to acknowledge and address two related theories that contributed to LMX development. The two theories are social exchange theory and vertical dyad linkage theory. The next section provides a review and analysis of social exchange theory, the vertical dyad linkage theory, and their influence on leader-member exchange theory.



Social Exchange Theory

Social exchanges are deliberate interactions where participants informally exchange resources with some degree of reciprocity and regularity. Social exchange theory describes how a series of interdependent interactions generate varying degrees of personal obligation in dyadic relationships and larger organizations (Blau, 2017; Emerson, 1976). These interactions are irrespective of the role the participants play–for example, leader, follower, peer, or outsider–but one of the defining factors of social exchange is mutuality.

Another defining factor is that the exchange must be bidirectional and reciprocal, but exclusive of explicit negotiation (Molm, 1994). In other words, the interaction must be a twoway interaction. In this manner, one party makes an offer to another, which they may or may not reciprocate. The process of reciprocation, whether in kind or asymmetrically, is what renders it an exchange.

A third defining element in the social exchange relationship is their recurring nature. Social exchange relationships are not typically singular events. They are a series that evolves and establishes informal rules as to the nature of their exchanges, and eventually leads to repeated exchanges (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Meeker (1971) posited that each exchange represents an individual decision governed by six rules:

- 1. Reciprocity of exchange
- 2. Rational understanding of the process and potential outcome
- 3. Altruism

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- 4. Group gain versus individual outcome
- 5. Status consistency (ensuring each player retains their roles)
- 6. Competition between each of the participants maximizing exchange benefits



Each social exchange decision may not be made according to a particular strategy, but social exchange participants consider these six factors when making exchange decisions.

Finally, the participant's resources are a factor in social exchange. Foa and Foa (1980) acknowledged Meeker's six resources exist across two dimensions: particularism and concreteness. The former addresses the resource's context-dependency, and the latter is a measure of the resource's tangibility. Assessment of both dimensions forms the basis of the decision to enter the exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Each relationship's rate of exchange is unique. The degree to which participants consider the resources concrete determines the overall value of the exchange to the participants. Each person involved in the exchange individually determines the adequacy of the reciprocation. Participants evaluate the exchange, and any subsequent exchanges, using the rules mentioned earlier to determine whether the relationship is ongoing or short-lived. As a practical matter, such exchanges do not correlate with specific outcomes or individual benefits (Cropanzano et al., 2001).

Scholars examining social exchange frequently apply the theory to explain phenomena in post hoc analysis rather than testing its predictions through hypothesis and measurement (Cropanzano et al., 2016). For this reason, social exchange theory may lack sufficient precision regarding correlations between behavior and outcomes. Fortunately, organizational literature offers to refine such exchange processes.

There are two primary types of social exchange: exchanges between individuals and their organization, and dyadic exchanges between two individuals (Bos-Nehles & Meijerink, 2018). The first type of exchange relationship generally relates more to the perceived organizational support environment. In an organizational environment where individuals feel a high degree of organizational support, there is a reciprocated degree of affective commitment (Nazir et al.,



2018). The second type of exchange emphasizes individually differentiated relationships. The LMX construct focuses explicitly on the latter type of relationships as described in vertical dyad linkage theory.

Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) Theory

Leader-member exchange theory developed out of the earlier vertical dyad linkage research. While examining abusive, ineffective, or dysfunctional styles of leadership, Graen et al. (1972) identified the potential value of examining individual leader-follower relationships rather than corporate group leadership. Although scholars assumed leaders applied a consistent leadership style to the whole group of subordinates, Graen et al. (1972) observed that leaders' relationships were, in fact, inconsistent and highly differentiated. Graen et al. (1973) found specific leader behaviors correlated with subordinate performance evaluations, closing with the suggestion that future research examines the leader-follower dyad relationship more closely.

Vertical dyad linkage theory, or VDL theory, offered an approach to increasing organizational effectiveness by prioritizing supervisor resources differently from the average leadership style approaches (Dansereau et al., 1973). The average leadership style or ALS approach depended on the assumption that organizational members were homogenous enough to validate similar, consistent responses to a spectrum of behavioral activity throughout the group (Dansereau et al., 1975). Recognizing that supervisors have limited resources, like time and psycho-emotional energy, Dansereau and colleagues identified that supervisors develop unique vertical dyad relationships with some of their employees but not with others.

This differentiation's primary function is simply a matter of resource allocation. Leaders prioritize intangible resources, investing time and attention into a few key employees rather than distributing the same resources across the organization. These exchanges, called leader-member



exchanges (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Schiemann, 1978), would allow supervisors to maximize their productivity and subordinate development resources.

Eventually, this differentiation creates at least two distinct groups. Graen and Cashman (1975) called the first group the *in-group*. They receive increased support, negotiated autonomy, and trust in return for additional responsibility and a willingness to work outside the bounds of their formal role. The other, an *out-group*, retains their formal contractual obligations and receives support in kind (Graen & Cashman, 1975; G. Graen et al., 1982). Similar to other social exchange relationships, these leader-member relationships and in-groups do not form quickly. They result from conscious decisions and subconscious processes occurring at the dyad level (Kim et al., 2010).

Once scholars documented the validity of the differentiated relationships, researchers then understood these relationships, their antecedents, outcomes, and implications more clearly (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This improved clarity initiated the transition from VDL theory to leader-member exchange theory or LMX theory. While the two are nearly synonymous, VDL remains a reference point for the differentiated relationships further examined in LMX. The vertical dyad relationship remains of interest within the context of organizational network creation (Erdogan et al., 2015) and leader-follower congruence (Marstand et al., 2017). VDL is still a category of relationship examined by scholars and remains the least understood level of leadership, according to Kim, Yammarino, et al. (2020). The LMX construct, however, has become the principal process model through which to examine the vertical dyad.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

SET and the VDL models established the foundation for the expansion of LMX as a theoretical construct. LMX comprises voluntary social exchanges between a leader and follower,



emphasizing the quality of social exchange within the vertical dyads, formation of differentiated groups, and the impact of both (G. B. Graen et al., 1982; Kim et al., 2010). As researchers adopted LMX nomenclature into the body of theory and validated differentiated relationships, LMX research developed multiple foci of study (G. B. Graen et al., 1982; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Exploration of the relational dynamics, distinctions, relationship characterization, and the implications of each led to the development of LMX theory along two principal tracks, one track examining the LMX construct in relation to other organizational outcomes and the other focused on the internal characteristics of the exchange relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

As the LMX construct developed, its measurable effect on organizational member performance became increasingly apparent. Matta and Van Dyne (2016) identified four performance types tied to LMX: task performance, affiliative extra-role behavior, changeoriented extra-role behavior, and adaptive performance. Early research showed a strong relationship between LMX relationships and productivity, as well as job satisfaction (G. Graen et al., 1982; Scandura, Graen, et al., 1986). Research also indicates a negative relationship between employee turnover and higher quality LMX (G. B. Graen et al., 1982). More recently, research indicates that LMX positively influences task-oriented behavior and discretionary citizenship behaviors (Michel & Tews, 2016). LMX also mediates the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment (Keskes et al., 2018; Saboe et al., 2015) and mediates the relationship between supervisor-employee fit and employee outcome (Marstand et al., 2017).

Many of the early studies linking performance to LMX relied heavily on a supervisor's point of view in appraising subordinates, leading Dienesch and Liden (1986) to propose alternate operationalizations of the LMX-performance link. Alternatively, a follower-reported multidimensional model developed, inferring a more nuanced set of aspects inherent in the



construct. The present research used the self-reported multidimensional model to examine LMX and refine the field's understanding of how LMX influences employee behavior.

Multidimensional LMX

Dienesch and Liden (1986) argued that there were some methodological issues with how scholars conceptualized LMX at the time, leading them to propose a multidimensional model of LMX consisting of four psychometric dimensions: affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The multidimensional LMX model provides a more nuanced examination of the effects of LMX because each dimension relates to unique effects (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Wong et al., 2008).

Within the exchange relationship inherent in LMX, the multiple dimensions form a type of currency in which the dyad members invest and benefit (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). An increase in loyalty may result in a more privileged position with the in-group. Rather than an exchange currency, some researchers subcategorize the dimensions according to locus influence. In this conceptualization, affect and loyalty are communally relational dimensions, while contribution and professional respect are more agentic and task-oriented (Collins et al., 2014).

Affect. Within the LMX context, interpersonal affect refers to a degree of mutual affection shared between dyad members based on common interests and likability rather than professional rapport (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Affect involves emotions and moods of varying intensities and duration. Individuals with high ratings of positive affect tend also to report correspondingly high levels of enthusiasm and organizationally beneficial behavior (Damen et al., 2008). This LMX dimension is critical to leader-follower relationships. Affect also serves as a strong predictor of LMX quality, with consistent predictions over multiple measurement periods (Liden et al., 1993). Likewise, Gooty et al. (2019) provided evidence that a high degree



of positive affect within the dyad increases the likelihood of behavioral reciprocation and increases reported LMX quality.

Loyalty. As a dimension of LMX, loyalty is a measure of specific allegiance felt between dyad members (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Evidence indicates that the loyalty dimension serves as a vehicle through which LMX decreases turnover intention and increases employees' job satisfaction (Tanskanen et al., 2019). A degree of loyalty reciprocation is expected in the context of both social exchange (Blau, 2017) and leader-member exchange (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Caution is prudent when considering loyalty as a larger construct, however, as the exercise of loyalty differs between cultures. In cultures with a more paternalistic locus of control like Confucian China, loyalty is more one-sided (Wang et al., 2019). Although loyalty is a shared perception of allegiance, individual factors play a role in the degree of loyalty for each dyad member. Followers express higher levels of loyalty when they perceive that their leaders act in the member's best interest (Newman et al., 2017). Leaders express higher levels of loyalty when they believe members meet their expectations (Goswami et al., 2019).

Professional Respect. Professional respect is a measure of the perceived reputation each member of the dyad has built professionally in their line of work (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). This dimension reflects many characteristics previously correlated with successful leadership traits, such as competence, visibility, credibility, and modeling the way for others (Collins et al., 2014; Peterson & Aikens, 2017). As a dimension of LMX, professional respect correlates more strongly with some aspects of performance, like innovation and creativity, than do the other three dimensions (Mascareño et al., 2020). This correlation supports Dienesch and Liden's (1986) position that individual dimensions provide a more precise theoretical framework than does unidimensional conceptualizations of LMX. Professional respect, loyalty, and affect form the



social currencies of LMX, whereas contribution is a work-related exchange currency (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001).

Contribution. Contribution is the measure of perceived equity in the reciprocal give-andtake of the dyad (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). With reflection back to reciprocity, subordinates and leaders contribute their own efforts to achieving organizational goals. Each anticipates a return on their investment for both members and both must acknowledge the contribution (Collins et al., 2014). The acknowledgment and quality of effort determine the degree of contribution considered in the LMX relationship (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Interestingly, research indicates that contribution has less influence on individual outcomes like job satisfaction than other dimensions do (Greguras & Ford, 2006). This relationship indicates that individual dimensions have unique relationships with LMX outcomes.

LMX Outcomes

The connection between LMX and its outcomes does not always follow a direct path. Kim and Koo (2017) found that LMX influenced job behavior and innovation, which influenced performance, but LMX did not directly impact performance. Hill et al. (2014) found LMX contributed to improved psychological empowerment and employee organizational commitment, and improved job performance indirectly. The LMX mechanism that best facilitates organizational outcomes is a factor frequently in question. Some scholars argue that it is the differentiation process (Martin et al., 2018), while others support the social mechanism (Regts et al., 2019). Further complicating matters, multiple models of LMX influence have evolved over the years. In the most popular approach, researchers use a unidimensional model with the LMX quality being measured diametrically as high or low in relation to the amount of trust,



responsibility, and affect inherent in the relationship (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Regardless of whether scholars use the unidimensional measures, multidimensional instruments, or one of their many variants (Liden, Wu, et al., 2016) to examine LMX, studies generally focus on one of four domains in which the leader-member exchange process occurs. Scholars focus on the leader, the follower, or the relational processes between them, and the outcome variables related to each (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). There is a recent increase in interest regarding positive links between higher LMX quality and beneficial organizational behavior of all types (Carnevale et al., 2019). One such type of beneficial activity includes the voluntary work behaviors that may not be covered under one's contract, specifically organizational citizenship behaviors.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is a category of discretionary extra-role behaviors in which employees or members partake beyond their contractual obligations (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Some early theorists called this construct the good-soldier syndrome due to its similarity with military individuals who embrace their role and do far more than they are asked or ordered to do (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

OCB is a construct addressed by multiple leadership theories and is vital because such behaviors tend to affect the bottom line and organizational environment (Chow et al., 2015). The benefit of organizational members serving beyond their expected duties is not a new concept. It has been a goal of management science to be able to maximize the output of employees since Fayol and Taylor (Wren, 2003).



Early research on OCB tied the likelihood of these extra-role activities to job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Scholars thought the more satisfied a person was with their job arrangement, the more likely they were to do more than their position required of them. Social exchange theory and social psychology informed this perspective. Social exchange theorists believed people derived such behaviors from a sense of reciprocity to the organization, creating an environment where job satisfaction was high (Blau, 2017; Emerson, 1976). In contrast, social psychologists attributed the behavior to positive feelings that may, or may not, be tied to job satisfaction (Rosenhan et al., 1974).

Bateman and Organ (1983) initially identified job satisfaction as a predictor of the actions they named organizational citizenship behavior. Called *citizenship behavior* (Smith et al., 1983), *pro-social behavior* (Puffer, 1987), and *organizational spontaneity* (George & Brief, 1992) alternatively, multiple studies confirmed Bateman and Organ's findings (Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Puffer, 1987). Throughout its development, OCB and job satisfaction are consistently and positively related. However, scholars disagree whether other cognitions like the perception of fairness and reciprocity mediated employee job satisfaction (Organ & Konovsky, 1989), or employee psycho-emotional mood (George & Brief, 1992). After the initial development of the construct, several concomitant directions evolved in the research.

OCB Internal Factors

The five-factor personality trait model or FFM (Barrick & Mount, 1991) provided one theoretical framework for predicting OCB. Personality factors like agreeableness and conscientiousness positively relate to OCB in some studies (Anglim et al., 2018), but others correlate emotional stability, extraversion, and openness with higher predictive relationships than the other two (Chiaburu et al., 2011). One may attribute the different magnitude of predictive



relationships to design elements like instrumentation, population, and moderating variables. The relationship between the FFM traits and OCB, however, is consistent enough to be generalizable.

Psychological capital, in the form of optimism, resilience, hope, and self-efficacy (Luthans & Youssef, 2004) relates positively with instances of OCB directly (Beal et al., 2013) and as moderator for organizational trust (Yildiz, 2019). Of these elements, hope and resilience may have the most significant effect (Jung & Yoon, 2015), although the effects are difficult to distinguish from job satisfaction or personality factors. These positive influences align with findings relating employee psychological capital to OCB (Aftab et al., 2018; Gupta et al., 2017).

The degree of organizational commitment an employee demonstrates may be another internal factor examined as a predictor of OCB. Meyer and Allen (1991) defined organizational commitment as an attitudinal and behavioral link to one's organization that satisfies three components: an emotional desire to belong, a need to belong, and a normative obligation to remain. With a behavioral element of organizational commitment, the link between organizational commitment and OCB is intuitive and empirical (Devece et al., 2016; Yeh, 2019).

Occupationally driven internal foci, such as a sense of belonging or a particular *calling* to be in a role, substantially impact OCB and organizational commitment (Afsar et al., 2018). In their study, Afsar et al. found those who felt that they were living up to their career calling had higher OCB instances, especially those related to the occupation. The internal drive to participate in OCB may also indicate employee future-orientation, setting conditions for success or contingent rewards (Bellairs & Halbesleben, 2018).

OCB External Factors

Although perception is an internal construct, perception of organizational support has consistently related to OCB in numerous studies (e.g., Moorman et al., 1998; Pohl et al., 2013).



This relationship stems again from a sense of reciprocity for the organization. Reciprocity, in turn, may increase the perceived support through exchange relationships. Such relationships are rarely unidimensional as other influences mediate and moderate them. The level from which the support seems to generate impacts the relationship between said support and OCB. Lower levels of the hierarchy, such as worksite instead of the parent company, have a more substantial influence on OCB than higher ones (Liu, 2009). This effect can also be attributed to organizational politics or position in the organizational hierarchy (Obedgiu et al., 2017; Randall et al., 1999). One of the most significant areas of external influence on OCB is regarding leadership behaviors and style.

OCB and Leadership Styles

Relational leadership styles consistently predict higher levels of OCB compared to transactional approaches. Literature shows authentic leadership style, characterized by a positive psychological and ethical environment and a balance of information sharing and transparent relationships, increases OCB in an organization (Walumbwa et al., 2007). An authentic leadership style and subordinates being empowered to make decisions at their appropriate level accounted for over half of OCB occurrence variance (Joo & Jo, 2017).

Transformational leadership, or TL, also positively relates to increases in OCB. TL is associated with the capacity to communicate a compelling vision, socializing acceptance for organizational goals, and intellectually stimulating followers to meet higher performance expectations (Bass, 1985). This approach positively relates to OCB through the mediation of leader-member exchange processes, or LMX (Wang et al., 2005). Whether this relationship can be attributed to leader-facilitated changes in the follower's self-concept or an increase in



organizational identification (Hackett et al., 2018), the relationship between TL and OCB is also evident.

A third leadership style associated with OCB in the literature is servant leadership. Servant leadership focuses on follower empowerment (Greenleaf, 2002) by prioritizing relationships with subordinates, helping them achieve their goals, and ethically creating value external to the organization (Ehrhart, 2004) results in higher OCB, similar to transformational leadership. Both styles are examples of leadership approaches that, through a shared construct, increase the likelihood of OCB in an organization.

Directional and Categorical OCB

While some OCB studies focus on discretionary behavior, scholars have also developed multiple taxonomies for categorizing OCB. Fasbender et al. (2018) describe OCB models in terms of a given number of dimensions, recognizing early work in a two-directional construct based on the intended recipient of the behavior (Smith et al., 1983) and a five-dimensional structure (Podsakoff et al., 1990). The present study refers to the former as *directional OCB* and the latter as *categorical OCB*. Categorical OCB describes the OCB model that focuses on more than 40 types of individual behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Directional OCB categorizes more than 40 types of individual behaviors according to the intended recipient. OCB directed toward the organization, called OCBO, and OCB directed towards individual, or OCBI (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Research shows evidence of directionality, or specifically targeted recipients, in OCBs. This approach to OCB contrasts with generalized behavior across multiple dimensions. Initial work in OCB directionality showed organizational identification and internalizing the organizational culture positively related to pro-social behavior. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)



considered 11 self-reported items on a five-point Likert scale, measuring compliance in assigned behaviors as well as extra-role behaviors. The behaviors measured were of general benefit to the organization and most strongly tied to the individual's attachment level and identification with the organization.

Puffer (1987) suggested a potential for directionality as types of pro-social behaviors increased. This realization evolved into the establishment of a bidirectional model of OCB. Although formalized under later scholars, directional orientations emerged as early as Smith et al. (1983), identifying two factors involved in OCB. One set of behaviors seemed to benefit specific individuals, while the other lacked such immediate application. The category directed toward the individual is OCBI, and the other directed toward the organization, OCBO (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCBI typically benefits a coworker or a supervisor, such as staying late or helping with a project. At the same time, OCBO is more general in scope, like picking up around the office and maintaining punctuality. The directional differentiation raised practical questions of measurement, accounting for, and distinguishing each's antecedents and outcomes.

Both Puffer (1987) and Williams and Anderson (1991) examined the directionality of OCB. They also considered its opposite *noncompliant behavior*, also called *workplace delinquent behavior*, WDB, respectively or counterproductive work behavior, CWB (Dalal & Carpenter, 2018). This new construct created a potential for unmitigated error in their instruments, leading Lee and Allen (2002) to develop two separate scales: OCB in its directional forms, and the other for WDBs. Along with OCB directionality, there are several distinct prosocial behaviors. Bateman and Organ (1983) initially considered specific behaviors like basic workplace housekeeping and punctuality and several more general characteristics described as



altruism, compliance, dependability, cooperation, and other reverse-scored activities like complaints, waste, criticism, and arguing with others.

LMX-OCB Relationship

Forty years of LMX research indicates that a relationship between LMX quality and beneficial organizational outcomes exists. Although one might explain the relationship in terms of social exchange reciprocity, it is equally likely that beneficial behaviors stem from perceptionbased decisions at either the leader or follower level (Lin & Lin, 2019). The mechanism that enables the LMX-OCB relationship most is a point of departure for researchers, however. It could be a cultural phenomenon. Many of the studies over the last 10 years on LMX and OCB have occurred in other cultural clusters, such as in India (Estiri et al., 2018), Korea (Kim et al., 2010), or China (Tang & Naumann, 2015). If Hofstede's (1980) work on cultural differences remains valid, there is value in considering variation based on cultural clusters.

The link between LMX, other similar processes, and OCB outcomes remains of interest in all forms of leadership and business research. As an operationalization of social exchange, the research has focused on LMX and OCB both in aggregate (Estel et al., 2019) and by the varying dimensions of LMX (Ghaus et al., 2018). OCB has been studied through more than forty categories of behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2009) and as target-directed in as few as two directions (Williams & Anderson, 1991), with LMX measured as a factor in those outcomes (Marstand et al., 2017). The current study measures the relationship between dimensions of LMX and directional OCB, a heretofore unexplored relationship.

While a bulk of literature in OCB and LMX research studies line-level interactions or teams, interest extends to executive organizational levels (Bauer et al., 2006). If Hambrick and Mason's (1984) assertion that organizations reflect the senior leadership still holds, then LMX



and OCB's value should be no less in higher echelons. The positive relationship between individual outcomes like turnover intention and LMX remains true at the executive level (Kim et al., 2010). One area where literature lacks is executive-level OCB. Following role theory (Graen, 1976), this could result from organizational expectations and norms more than conscious choice or social exchange. Nonetheless, the distinction is only hinted at in recent literature. While there is a significant of work represented in LMX and OCB scholarship, room remains for further study.

Synthesis of the Research Findings

The LMX construct seems to provide the connective tissue between styles of leadership and organizational outcomes. The next section presents current research germane to the present study, the variables, and its relationship. It begins with a broader examination of how LMX theory has been applied recently in leadership research, as well as studies concerning the relationship between LMX and OCB. It closes with some perspective on the negative impacts of both constructs.

LMX theory research can be classified by the various components in the theoretical framework upon which a researcher or author focuses. Some research examines the antecedents of LMX quality, some focus on the outcomes, and others focus on the process and outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). One aspect of LMX theory of interest in the last five years is the differentiation process. LMX theory posits that leaders can increase effectiveness through establishing differentiated relationships within the work unit (Dansereau et al., 1973). The way leaders differentiate between their followers and develop relationships with some employees impacts the relationship between LMX exchange and OCB (Estel et al., 2019). For example, paternalistic leadership, a Confucian analog to servant leadership in a Chinese cultural context,



increases individual OCB through LMX. Similarly, the higher levels of differentiation offered by LMX moderate the same style's influence (Tang & Naumann, 2015). Likewise, lower levels of differentiation increase team cohesion and group OCB (Chiniara & Bentein, 2018; Estel et al., 2019; Han et al., 2018).

Other variables may impact the relationship between LMX and OCB such as generational differences. The influence LMX has on OCB may result from life experience. A follower's age tends to influence their perception of a leader (Gergen et al., 2014). There is significant variation in the degree of influence age-related behavioral and perceptual differences have on organizational outcomes (Espinoza & Ukleja, 2016; Fitch & Van Brunt, 2016).

Unmet expectations on the part of either the leader or follower can also impact the LMX-OCB relationship. In situations where high-quality LMX exists but the leader does not satisfy the follower's expectations and implicit leadership theories (Rahn et al., 2016), it significantly reduces job satisfaction and OCB occurrence (Doden et al., 2018). Dissimilar or incongruent LMX ratings between leaders and followers also negatively impact OCB (Kwak & Choi, 2015; Kwak et al., 2014). While research shows the influence such extraneous variables can have on the LMX-OCB relationship and is consistent in the literature (Khan & Malik, 2017). Due to this consistency, the current research turns inward to examine potential relationships between LMX dimensions and OCB and the direction to which the OCB is directed.

The multidimensional LMX model remains relevant because of the increased specificity it offers (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) compared to other models of LMX. When examining relationships within the LMX construct, Liden, Anand et al. (2016) used the multidimensional LMX model to measure the role the LMX dimension *professional respect* plays in how members of the dyad rate the overall quality of the exchange.



As an outcome, each dimension of LMX has a different relationship with common leadership styles, such as charismatic leadership (Salvaggio & Kent, 2016). As predictor variables, research shows that the LMX dimensions form types of social exchange currency within an organizational relationship with varying degrees of outcome (Zhou et al., 2020). It is in this capacity as a predictor that the present research pertained to multidimensional LMX.

Scholars use the directional OCB model (Lee & Allen, 2002) with similar consistency. Recently the directional model was used to measure an outcome related to ethical leadership and workplace jealously, finding that ethical leadership positively related to both OCBO and OCBI and mediated by jealousy (Wang & Sung, 2016). Way et al. (2018) used the directional model to measure OCB against perceived organizational support, opting to use a composite of the two factors over differentiating between OCBO and OCBI.

As it related to abusive leadership, Zhang and Liao (2015) identified in their metaanalysis that abusive leadership had a more negative impact on OCBO than it did OCBI. In this situation, abusive leadership influenced subordinate attitudes analogous to the LMX dimensions of affect and professional respect. This points to a distinct relationship between the LMX dimensions and directional OCB that remains unmeasured.

A relationship between multidimensional LMX measures and composite OCB is evident in different organizational settings. Some scholars consider LMX dimensions in terms of elements to be exchanged in return for predictable and beneficial behavior (Estiri et al., 2018). Ghaus et al. (2018) yielded findings similar to the Estiri study, both in terms of the LMX dimensions and a common moderating variable for both studies–gender. Estiri found no relationship between employee gender and OCB, while Ghaus found no significant relationship



between gender similarity and types of OCB displayed by the employee. The findings of both these studies support gender as a control variable in the present study.

Adverse Effects of LMX and OCB

LMX is typically examined in terms of positive or beneficial impact on the individual or organization (Martin et al., 2016) and OCB is primarily considered beneficial (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Both constructs have negative aspects and may have unintended negative consequences to consider (Lennard & Van Dyne, 2018). There is an increasing amount of literature examining the linkages between abusive and destructive leadership and LMX. In some cases, high-quality LMX increases abusive leadership's negative effects through a betrayal of trust (Xu et al., 2015). In this instance, it is reasonable to conclude that the LMX loyalty dimensions may be a significant common factor. Others have hypothesized that employees predisposed to engage in OCB might unintentionally hurt their careers through misallocated time and resources (Bolino et al., 2018).

The integral nature of the LMX-OCB relationship may challenge team integrity and cohesiveness. The reciprocity inherent in LMX and OCB can be interpreted by coworkers as a disproportionate influence or brownnosing (Bowler et al., 2019). Also, differentiated relationships do not always benefit the organization. Research indicates that increased differentiation between team members negatively impacts to OCB and cohesion, even among those team members reporting higher quality LMX relationships (Chiniara & Bentein, 2018). Although LMX frequently carries a positive connotation in the literature and OCB is, by definition, beneficial both constructs are highly personal and therefore highly susceptible to emotional interpretation.



Critique of Previous Research Methods

The next section addresses previous and current methods used in previous literature and the present study to measure the predictor and outcome variables. The discussion begins with methods to measure the LMX construct, measure LMX dimensions, and then address methods of measuring OCB. Afterward, the section discusses instrumentation for the current study and methodological concerns with both the instrumentation and the overall design.

LMX Measurement

LMX quality is the predictor variable in this current research. LMX instruments consider a variety of psychometric factors to evaluate LMX quality. Over the 40+ years of LMX research, a few models have evolved into measuring and understanding the relationships LMX has with other variables, although the unidimensional model has been more prevalent. Initially established as part of the VDL/LMX construct, a two-item instrument measuring negotiation latitude within the dyad grew to four items to better represent the construct domain the relational dynamic between leaders and followers. The four items were supervisor flexibility to change, the leader's willingness to use positional power to solve work-related problems, the degree to which the supervisor would help the subordinate, and how often supervisors took a subordinate's suggestions (Liden & Graen, 1980). G. B. Graen et al. (1982) included a fifth item characterizing the participant's relationship with their supervisor to distinguish LMX from the VDL further construct.

One of the most frequently used instruments to measure LMX in leadership and management research is the LMX-7 scale. With almost 7,000 published works citing that specific article, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) provided a critical encapsulation of LMX across seven items to provide an aggregate global-LMX score to categorize the dyad relationship as



high or low quality. The LMX-7 builds on previous instruments, considering other aspects of the dyad relationship, such as recognizing potential and understanding individual challenges. While the LMX-7 represents the dyadic relationship quality holistically, some researchers have found it cumbersome due to variation in response anchors in the survey design (Liden, Wu, et al., 2016).

Liden and Maslyn (1998) offered an alternative to the LMX-7, applying the multidimensional approach in the Multidimensional Measure of LMX, or LMX-MDM. In doing so, they built on Dienesch and Liden (1986), arguing that the existing scales did not provide adequate rigor with psychometric measures. Whereas the LMX-7 model aggregates a score, the LMX-MDM model considers LMX across the four psychometric dimensions previously mentioned through individual subscales. Buch et al. (2014) posited these two views only represented the social aspects of LMX, and as such, were just different sides of the same coin. Buch proposed instead that the separation should be along temporal lines. Despite the precision LMX-MDM offers regarding dimensional measurement, many scholars used the LMX-MDM to measure LMX quality in the aggregate rather than dimensionally (Anand, Hu, et al., 2018). The current study used LMX-MDM to measure the predictor variable, LMX quality, across four dimensions described by Liden and Maslyn.

OCB Measurement

Directional OCB is the outcome variable in this study. One of the most widely used scales is the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale, which included five categories: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Podsakoff and colleagues' instruments widely influenced OCB studies to follow. While scales included up to 40 different behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2009), the construct remains centered on the Podsakoff et al. (1990) five-attribute model. Rather than take a categorical approach, Williams



and Anderson (1991) considered 21 items across two directions of behavior and focused on the intended beneficiary of the behavior. Lee and Allen (2002) refined the Podsakoff scale to 16 items and validated the directional approach. Seminal OCB author Dennis Organ (1997) recognized the construct's growth and called for its refinement, preferring the five-factor model over the bidirectional one, while acknowledging the validity of both. The current research used Lee and Allen's OCB Scale to measure the outcome variable, directional OCB.

Present Study and Instrumentation

In the study of LMX and OCB, the relationship between dimensions of LMX and directional OCB is unexplored. One reason for this may be that the two primary instruments measuring the two constructs have not been used together often. While researchers have used these two instruments together in a similar study, it was in conjunction with the feedback environment, withdrawal, and job complexity. It did not consider the relationship between dimensions and directions (Lonsdale, 2016).

Neither dimensional LMX nor directional OCB has been examined thoroughly in the population of senior managers. Fayol's management theories still accurately describe hierarchal structure principles, such as the observation that requirements get less specialized at higher levels of an organization (Wren, 2003). If this is the case, then a directional approach to understanding executive-level OCB is more applicable than a categorical one and, therefore, a greater benefit to the leadership literature.

The present research examining dimensional LMX and directional OCB at the senior manager level satisfies each of these identified gaps. Doing so through the use of the LMX-MDM instrument (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) and the OCB Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002) to do so also satisfies a gap related to instrumentation cross validity of psychometric factors. It also



contributes to the literature, establishing the potential for each of the additional topic areas to be explored.

Methodological Concerns

Online self-report data collection presents both an ethical and practical concern. Study participants rated the quality of leader-member exchanges with their next higher supervisor and rate their own participation in organizational citizenship behaviors. As both constructs are results of two-way social exchange (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Dansereau et al., 1973), they can be measured either subjectively or objectively through other-report or self-report. Since OCB can increase the perceptions of an individual's commitment or performance to the point of increased influence (Bowler et al., 2019), increased personal bias may exist in self-reported over otherreported data. Research shows, however, that there is no substantial difference between subjective and objective reporting data on the same constructs (Bommer et al., 1995; Vijayalakshmi & Supriya, 2017). Self-report data is, therefore, sufficient for this study to contribute to the literature.

In the present study, the population sample reported the quality of the leader-member exchanges they have with their next higher supervisor using Liden and Maslyn's (1998) LMX-MDM. In the same survey, participants self-reported their OCB using the OCB Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002). Previous studies applied these two instruments together in a similar study in conjunction with the feedback environment, withdrawal, and job complexity (Lonsdale, 2016).

Summary

This study contributes to LMX theory by measuring the relationship between dimensions of LMX and directions of OCB. Although leadership scholars commonly accepted that LMX predicts OCB, the current study has further practical implications. LMX is a principal factor in



several relational leadership styles (Keskes et al., 2018; Saboe et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2005). OCBs are vital activities an organization cannot formally assign (Podsakoff et al., 2009). The degree of interaction between specific LMX dimensions and target-directed OCB further highlights primacy in LMX dimensions at the executive level.

A better understanding of these relationships sheds light on which dimension carries the most impact in a given situation. These senior-level social relationships set the organizational environment (Lin & Lin, 2019) and therefore influence the organization to a high degree. Furthermore, understanding the basis of LMX in terms of its dimensions and its effect on team unity (Chiniara & Bentein, 2018) aids executive leaders in their deliberate mentoring and inclusion decisions.

Next, Chapter 3 presents the design and methodology for this research study, participant selection criteria, and data collection. Chapter 3 describes how the study addresses the research questions using an online survey instrument derived from existing research instruments.



CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 explains and supports a quantitative, nonexperimental, correlational research design to answer the research question regarding the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) dimensions and directional organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Specifically, the research examined the degree to which a relationship exists between LMX dimensions (affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution) and OCB directed toward the organization (OCBO) and OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI). The research used survey data collected online from a sample frame of general merchandise retailer senior managers in U.S.-based department stores. I combined two existing and validated measures to create one comprehensive survey to address the research questions and evaluate the hypotheses. I purchased the participant responses from Qualtrics, and they administered the online survey. I analyzed and synthesized the survey data with multiple regression analysis using SPSS v27.0. This chapter describes the research design, data, population, sampling, setting, instrumentation, and data collection procedures. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the ethical considerations and risk mitigations for this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this survey research was to test LMX theory and measure the quality of relationships between senior managers and their supervisors against their self-reported OCBO and OCBI. LMX theory posits that leaders who engage in differentiated relationship development with certain followers and form close partnerships with select followers (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The quality of these relationships predicts specific organizational outcomes like reduced employee turnover (G. B. Graen et al., 1982), improved task performance (Matta & Van Dyne, 2016), and increased OCB (Ghaus et al., 2018).



This study tested LMX theory's prediction that higher quality LMX relationships result in greater engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Michel & Tews, 2016), and did so in a previously under-examined population. LMX quality is a measure of trust, responsibility, and agency the LMX relationship confers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This study measured LMX quality through a multidimensional model that describes LMX quality across four dimensions: affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

I measured LMX quality using the Multidimensional LMX Measure (LMX-MDM) developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998). The predictor variable is LMX quality measured through four LMX dimension subscales. The first outcome variable is self-reported OCBO, defined as discretionary behaviors either intended to benefit the organization or provide benefit to the organization without a specific intended person receiving the benefit (Lee & Allen, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991). The second outcome variable is self-reported OCBI, defined as discretionary behaviors intended to assist or benefit another specific employee, peer, or team member (Lee & Allen, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991). I measured the outcome variables by using Lee and Allen's (2002) OCB Scale. Figure 3 summarizes the research methodology and design for this study.



Figure 3

| RESEAR | CH PROBLEM: Creat | ing conditions that encou | Irage OCB |
|---|--|--|---|
| Research Purpose | Objectivist Epistemology | | Data Collection |
| Test LMX Theory Research Contributions | Post-positivist Ontology | | Online Survey (Qualtrics) Demographics LMX- MDM (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) OCB Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002) |
| Advances knowledge of LMX theoretical predictions in given conditions | Quantitative Methodology Non-Experimental Design | | |
| Measures individual LMX dimensions relationship with directional OCB | RQ1: To what extent is there a significant | RQ2: To what extent is there a significant | Population Senior Managers General Merchandise Retailer Multiple Stores/multiple departments |
| Measures LMX-OCB relationship in Senior Managers | relationship between affect, loyalty, | relationship between affect, loyalty, | • N=89 Analysis |
| Validates use of two measures rarely combined | professional respect, and contribution and OCBO? | professional respect, and contribution and OCBI? | SPSS Multiple Regression Analysis |

The population consisted of general merchandise retail managers over the age of 25, English speaking, and that worked for a publicly traded U.S.-based multiunit general retail or department store chain. Participants managed 10-500 members, reported to a supervisor, and worked in their present organization for a minimum of six months. The control variables were:

- Age: Participants were over 25 years old.
- *Employment*: Participants worked for a publicly-traded United States-based multiunit general retail or department store chain.
- *Job title*: Participant's job title or description included language reflecting duties as a store manager, regional manager, district manager, or words to that effect.
- *Span of responsibility*: Participants' span of responsibility or influence in their organization included multiple departments within the same location, or multiple locations within a given district, region, state, and worked in a position wherein they managed or led between 10 and 500 members of the organization.
- *Time in Organization:* Participants worked in their present organization for a minimum of six months.



Implications for Theory and Practice

This study contributes to the existing leadership theory and in the fields of business management and leadership. It tested LMX theory (Dansereau et al., 1973) by examining the relationship between LMX dimensions and directional OCB. This research also tested LMX theory's prediction that higher quality LMX relationships result in greater engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Michel & Tews, 2016) in a previously underexamined population. This study informs how leaders shape organizational culture in such a way as to increase organizational citizenship behaviors (Fein et al., 2015) and help managers understand the impact of relational leadership models on discretionary behaviors (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following two research questions and their hypotheses guided this research study:

RQ1: To what extent is there a significant relationship between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBO?

H10: No significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBO.

H1_a: A significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBO.

RQ2: To what extent is there a significant relationship between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBI?

H20: No significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBI.



H2_a: A significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBI.

Research Design

This nonexperimental survey research study used a quantitative methodology for data collection and multiple regression analysis to statistically examine the relationships between general retailer senior managers' LMX quality and OCBO and OCBI. This type of design best achieves this topic's research intent of testing relationships between the variables predicted according to LMX theory (Creswell, 2014). I collected data using a nonexperimental online survey design, administered through a third-party survey site.

After I contracted Qualtrics to administer the online survey, I purchased 90 completed survey responses from Qualtrics panels. The survey participants needed to meet the following sample criteria. They needed to be general merchandise store managers who were over the age of 25 years old, English speaking, worked for a publicly traded U.S.-based multiunit general retail or department store chain. The participants had a scope of responsibility of more than 10 members, reported to at least one leader or manager, and worked in their present organization for a minimum of six months. Once the survey data was complete, I analyzed the online survey data using multiple linear regression analysis to look for relationships between the variables.

Methodological Assumptions

Research method selection should be determined by the research question's content (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). According to Yilmaz (2013), the research method selection has as much to do with the problem and the research question as it does an individual researcher's philosophic worldview. The research problem was to examine whether a significant relationship exists between the dimensions of leader-member exchange and directions of organizational



citizenship behavior. The question seeks a definitive yes-or-no answer. The use of the term significant implies a question of, if so, how much? This assertion and follow-up question make the epistemological assumption that such a thing can be known for sure. In other words, facts represent an objective reality separate from the observer and facts do not change regardless of who is observing the phenomena. If all this applies, then the question is epistemologically objectivist (Elander, & Cronjé, 2016).

Furthermore, the present research tested a specific theory that predicts a relationship between two established and measured sets of constructs. If the literature derived conclusions about the constructs and their relationship through a scientific approach and deductive reasoning rather than a philosophical inductive approach, said literature has a positivist worldview (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The predictor variable, outcome variables, and their interrelationships are stable, measurable, and distinct in existing theory. In testing LMX theory, it is insufficient to accept what has been stated. It is necessary to test additional theory elements yet to be examined, suggesting a postpositivist ontological position (Creswell, 2014).

In this epistemological and ontological tradition, the investigator and the study are separate (Yilmaz, 2013). The use of an online survey panel administered through a third party such as Qualtrics supports this assumption. In line with this postpositivist ontology, the present survey research establishes a baseline for future researchers regarding senior manager LMX and OCB, and their dimensions and directions. Axiologically, the administration of surveys through the third-party service makes the assumptions that the responses provided by each participant would be honest and without personal influence on the part of the researcher (Yilmaz, 2013). The use of a third party to collect data prevented the researcher from influencing the results.



According to Dunne et al. (2004) and Guthrie (2010), survey research is a common methodological design for questions not requiring in-depth individual context for each participant's contribution. Using survey questionnaires, a researcher can efficiently collect specific data in a relatively short period. Collecting data in this manner offers a researcher the opportunity to apply metrics to group behavior or perception patterns while maintaining a barrier between the researcher, the data, and the population (Dunne et al., 2004; Guthrie, 2010). Survey instruments are versatile. Surveys can provide one-time input, be part of a series for a longitudinal study examining the same factor at different points in time, or provide critical insight for researchers using mixed-methods (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). In the present study, I used the survey instruments to provide a one-time snapshot of quantitative data regarding LMX quality and OCB directions in a sample population of retail managers.

Survey research is not only flexible regarding purpose but collection type as well. The ubiquity of internet access and mobile computing has made the distribution of questionnaires easier in practice. However, adequate and appropriate population sampling remains essential for data to be usable and the results generalizable. Literature indicates no appreciable difference between paper-and-pencil or computer-based survey results (Ravert et al., 2015). The flexibility of survey research makes it a practical method for the current research.

Target Population and Sample

LMX and OCB have an established relationship with a history of research (Keskes et al., 2018). Much of the OCB and LMX research highlighted line-level interactions and teams; the more senior organizational levels remain unstudied (Bauer et al., 2006). Considering this gap, one unique factor in the current research is that it tested the relationship between LMX and OCB



in general merchandise retail managers. The next section discusses the specific population sample, sampling procedures, and determination of sample size.

Population

The target population for this survey research was general merchandise store managers over the age of 25. Participants spoke English, worked for a publicly traded U.S.-based multiunit general retail or department store chain, managed more than 10 organizational members, reported to at least one supervisor, and worked in their present organization for more than six months. The sample considered control variables of age, employment and job title, and time in the organization. The next section briefly addresses the justification for the given criteria.

Age

All participants in this study responded that they were over the age of 25. I selected the age parameter to target a multigenerational population. Generational cohort mediates the relationship between individual working conditions like job satisfaction and individual work outcomes turnover intention (Lu & Gursoy, 2016). However, it is unknown if the generational cohort has any impact on LMX or OCB. I did not target specific age groups beyond the minimum to provide a richer field from which to draw data. The possibility remains to focus on more specific age groups in future research.

Employment and Job Title

Participants work as store managers in general retail or department store chains. I selected this population parameter to best address the overarching practical issue driving the study increasing OCB in senior retail managers. Such behaviors tend to affect the bottom line and organizational environment (Chow et al., 2015). However, little emphasis has been placed on researching the impact of LMX on senior leaders or their OCBs. In times of crisis, such as the



outbreak of COVID-19 threatening entire organizations' existence, both leadership and extrarole behaviors are increasingly critical (Lagowska et al., 2020). If senior managers can understand the effect of LMX on their behaviors, they may be more enabled to set a leadership climate that better meets their employees' needs (Fein et al., 2015).

The study is limited to store managers working in publicly traded United States-based multiunit organizations. The publicly traded parameter provides sufficient size and annual earnings to necessitate a multilevel hierarchal management structure. The requirement to be a United States-based organization is to control for language as a matter of practicality. The requirement for multiunit organizations is to ensure a span of responsibility reflective of a senior manager.

Time in Organization

Participants must be working in their present organization for at least six months. I selected this parameter to ensure participants have adequate familiarity with their organization and leader-member dyad on which they are reporting. The timeframe of six months minimum employment in the organization should eliminate temporary employees from the sample. Although new hires may be astute and observant, the intent was to measure established relationships.

Sample

This research applied nonprobability purposive sampling to restrict selection to members of the defined population capable of providing data for which I was looking and better supports resource constraints (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). I acknowledge probability sampling is the preferred method for quantitative research when every member of the population has a calculable likelihood of being included in the study (Tourangeau & Yan, 2012).



Power Analysis

I used G*Power 3.1.9.7 online sample calculator to identify the minimum sample size for this study. I based the calculated inputs on several factors. The first set of factors included the intended type of statistical model and the number of predictor variables for the analysis. The next set of factors included the desired effect size, acceptable significance measure, and acceptable error probability. I used a priori calculations, as is appropriate for a nonexperimental correlational study. Using a multiple regression model with four predictor variables, calculating for medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$) and a statistical significance of p = .05, the calculated minimum sample size for this study is N = 89. The relationship between the predictor variables and each outcome variable would be statistically significant if p < .05, and it would support the alternate hypothesis. On the other hand, if p > .05, there would be support for the null hypothesis (Field, 2018); see Table 2.

Table 2

| T-Test | Linear Multiple Regression: Fixed Model, Single Regression Coefficient | | |
|-----------|--|-----------|--|
| Analysis | A-Priori: Compute required sample size | | |
| | Tails | Two | |
| Input | Effect size f^2 | 0.15 | |
| 1 2 | α err probability | 0.80 | |
| | Number of Predictors | 4 | |
| | Noncentrality parameter δ | 3.6537652 | |
| | Critical t | 1.9886097 | |
| Output Di | Df | 84 | |
| 1 | Total sample size | 89 | |
| | Actual power | 0.9507039 | |

Summary of Power Analysis

Procedures

The next section details the procedures for conducting the present study. This section

begins by describing the processes for participant selection and protection. The section also



describes how I collected the relevant data and then analyzed it according to this research's purposes to determine the degree of relationship between LMX dimensions and directional OCB in general merchandise retail managers.

Participant Selection

I purchased a panel of 90 survey responses from Qualtrics. Participants needed to meet the criteria of being general merchandise store managers over the age of 25 who: spoke English, worked for a publicly traded U.S.-based multiunit general retail or department store chain, managed more than 10 organizational members, reported to at least one supervisor, and worked in their present organization for six months. Qualtrics distributed email invitations to a panel of potential participants that meet the screening criteria. The email invitation explained the purpose of the research, the survey's role, and provided a link through which to access the survey. When each participant activated the hyperlink, they had the opportunity to review the informed consent form. The respondent chose to participate or not by accepting the terms or exiting the survey. Upon confirmation of consent, the software routed the participant to the online survey page.

Protection of Participants

I contracted with Qualtrics to provide a panel of participants that meet the prescreening criteria. Using a third-party data collection company allowed for a more specific sample of the targeted population and eliminates single-organization and supervisor bias potential. Since Qualtrics uses an internet-based survey engine to collect responses, numerous protocols are in place to ensure participant anonymity is preserved and protected, meeting Capella University's requirements for data protection and risk mitigation.

Qualtrics maintained the online panel's raw data per established protection standards and delivered them to me via website hyperlink. I then stored finished data sets on a password-



protected external hard drive with data-at-rest encryption. I have stored the USB drive in a fireproof safe for seven years. Raw data will not be shared without proper legal authorization, such as a search warrant or other legal direction.

After 7 years, data I received will be deleted using a virtual shredder program such as File Shredder, using an algorithm to delete the desired files and ensures that the data is unrecoverable. Once the seven-year period following the research is complete, I will destroy the flash drive with a hammer and fire.

Data Collection

This study used two validated instruments. The study used the Multidimensional Measure of Leader-member Exchange, or the LMX-MDM (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) to measure selfreported LMX quality. The study also used Lee and Allen's (2002) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale, also called the OCB Scale, to measure self-reported OCBI and OCBO. In their original form, I combined the two survey instruments, as published and validated by their respective authors and through other researchers, with additional demographic questions to create a single comprehensive survey. I did not alter the two primary instruments; I used them in a similar manner as previous research (Lonsdale, 2016). Lonsdale, however, did not use the instruments to examine the same relationships as the present study. Using these two instruments, I created the comprehensive survey using the Qualtrics survey research tool leased for one year.

I purchased 90 responses from Qualtrics drawn from a panel of prescreened participants meeting the inclusion criteria. Participants must meet the following criteria: general merchandise senior managers over the age of 25 who – spoke English, worked for a publicly traded U.S.based multiunit general retail or department store chain, managed 10-500 organizational members, reported to at least one supervisor, and worked in their present organization for at least



six months. The software provided the informed consent form again for additional reference and required a positive confirmation of consent before being authorized to access the survey questions. The two surveys took participants between an average of five minutes to complete.

Upon completion of data collection, Qualtrics provided the responses for initial screening to ensure complete surveys and identify any duplicate submissions. Once received and screened, I downloaded the raw data provided by Qualtrics into the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences, or SPSS, version 27.0. I saved the data in a different file each time it is adjusted or formatted.

Data Analysis

The study examined the relationship between LMX quality and directional OCB in senior retail managers. Using the LMX dimension subscales in the LMX-MDM instrument (Liden & Maslyn, 1998), the study measured senior retail manager affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect to determine a score for LMX quality as the predictor variables. I measured the outcome variables, OCB directed toward the organization (OCBO) and OCB directed toward the individual (OCBI), using Lee and Allen's OCB Scale (2002). Once I received the collected data and verified that the sample met the minimum required number of participants, I downloaded the data through Qualtrics onto my personal computer in the SPSS format. The remainder of this section addresses descriptive statistics, assumptions, assumption testing, hypothesis testing, and a statistical model's employment to derive applicable results. Refer to Table 3.



Table 3

| Research | Type of | Type of | Hypothesis |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|
| Question | Analysis | Data | Testing |
| Demographic Data | Not Applicable | Categorical (Nominal), Continuous (Ordinal) | Not Applicable |
| RQ1 (Model 1 of the Analysis) | Multiple Regression Analysis | Continuous (Interval) | H1 ₀ , H1 _a |
| RQ2 (Model 2 of the Analysis) | Multiple Regression Analysis | Continuous (Interval) | H2 ₀ , H2 _a |

Summary of Data Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

The first step in data analysis is the examination of descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics concern the data collected before analysis and include demographic data. The demographic data provides insight into specific population characteristics such as gender, age group, the scope of the participant's responsibility in that organization, and the highest educational level completed. Responses concerning affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect are the predictors for this sample, and OCBO and OCBI are the outcomes. The first analysis step was to ensure no data values were missing; if found to be the case, I would assign dummy values. Interpretation of the graphs and tables resulting from the descriptive analysis helped determine whether the collected data meets simple and multiple linear regression analysis assumptions.

Assumption Testing

Any linear regression analysis makes several assumptions. If the data does not meet these assumptions, the regression coefficients' confidence interval would be unacceptable, requiring bootstrapped intervals instead. The first assumption is linearity. In multiple regression, the



outcome variable should relate linearly with all of the predictor variables considered (Field, 2018), with the effects described best when taken in aggregate. Scatterplot analysis served adequately to indicate linearity.

The next assumption was the independence of errors. The adjacent residuals, or the distance between the data point and the regression line, should be independent. Failing this assumption invalidates standard error measurements but would be detected with the Durbin-Watson correlation test. According to Field (2018), this test is unnecessary in nonexperimental survey research such as the present study, but I applied the Durbin-Watson in an abundance of conservatism.

The third assumption is residual homoscedasticity; the predictor residuals should be consistent; otherwise, the confidence interval would not be valid. Scatterplot analysis would be sufficient for this assumption as well (Field, 2018). The fourth assumption is the normality of residual distribution and sampling distribution. I tested this assumption through standardized residual tests *zpred* and *zres*. Finally, in the present study, the LMX dimensions create an opportunity for multicollinearity. Multiple regression analysis correlation tables indicated the degree of multicollinearity (Field, 2018).

Hypothesis Testing

This study examined the linear relationship between a set of four continuous predictor variables and two outcome variables; each outcome variable related to one of the two research questions. The research questions were answered by testing the null hypotheses that no significant relationship exists between the affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution dimensions of LMX and OCBO (RQ1) and OCBI (RQ2). The results answered RQ1 and RQ2; for clarity, as OCBO is the outcome variable for RQ1 and OCBI is the outcome variable for



RQ2. I used multiple linear regression analyses to test the hypotheses. I treated each research question independently and ran a multiple regression analysis for each to assess the data provided by the LMX-MDM subscales and the OCB Scale subscales for OCBO and OCBI.

Statistical Model

This study's focus was to test the predicted relationship between LMX quality and OCB by measuring the correlational relationship between the dimensions of LMX and OCB directions. Multiple regression models are appropriate, given the type of data representing the predictors and outcomes and the purpose of testing a hypothetical correlation between the variables (Field, 2018). This method is precedented in recent similar research, like Martinez, Sun et al. (2018) and Somech and Ohayon (2019).

For this analysis, I entered the predictor variables sequentially using stepwise selection. In this method, one predictor is entered into the equation and examined for impact before entering the next, allowing a better understanding of each variable's contribution before continuing the analysis (Field, 2018). In the first step, I entered the variable *affect* into the regression equation against the first outcome variable OCBO. I then entered each of the remaining LMX dimensions subsequently following affect. I repeated this procedure and sequence separately for the second outcome variable, OCBI. The statistical models resulted from subsequent multiple regressions to assess the four predictors and two outcomes. See Figure 4 and Figure 5 for a visualization of the study's multiple regression analysis.



Figure 4

Multiple Regression Analysis - LMX Dimensions and OCBO

Multiple Regression Analysis #1

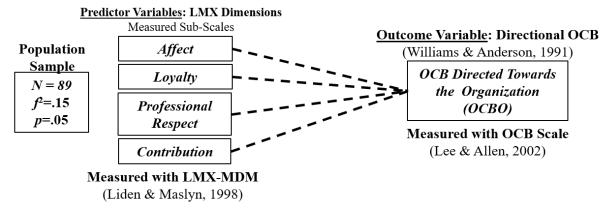
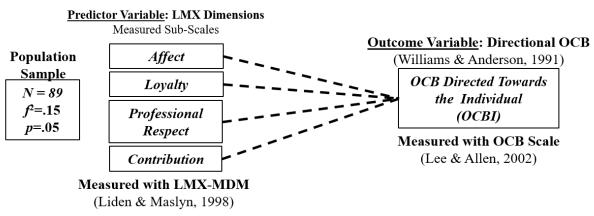


Figure 5

Multiple Regression Analysis - LMX Dimensions and OCBI



Multiple Regression Analysis #2

Rationale

Multiple regression analysis aligns with the stated purpose of this study, the hypotheses, and the research questions. According to Field (2018), the multiple regression analysis is appropriate for multiple predictors and singular outcomes, such as LMX dimensions regressed against OCBO. Repeating the statistical procedure, replacing OCBO as the outcome with OCBI allows outcome comparison and deduction of the hypothesized relationship, which aligns with



the postpositivist ontological assumptions. The types of variables and their measurement also support the selection of multiple regression analysis.

Instruments

The present research measured the relationship between LMX dimensions, OCBO, and OCBI in a population of senior retail managers. Valid measures existed for the two published instruments that formed the composite survey. The question and response mechanisms for both instruments remain as published and unchanged. The following sections review these initial questionnaires and two existing instruments: (a) Multidimensional Measure of Leader-Member Exchange, or LMX-MDM (Liden & Maslyn, 1998), and (b) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002).

Demographic Questionnaire

The survey measured participant characteristics on single-item questionnaires. I collected demographic data, such as sex, age group, the scope of the participant's responsibility in that organization, and the highest educational level completed. I collected no personally identifiable information or sensitive information and maintained a reasonable expectation of privacy. Only age, gender, and highest educational level were used in the analysis. The remainder of the data provided a richer understanding of the population sample from whom I drew the participants.

LMX-MDM

The LMX-MDM is composed of 12 questions, each with a seven-point Likert scale response where 1 = *strongly disagree*, and 7 = *strongly agree*, with a sample statement of *my manager would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake* (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The authors designed the instrument to test their proposed multidimensional construct following existing guidelines for scale development (see DeVellis, 1991; Hinkin,



1995). The researcher scores the LMX-MDM scale by adding the raw scores for the items related to each dimension, as provided through each dimension's subscale, and divides the total score representing the selected dimension. The LMX-MDM content did not require special permissions for reproduction or use in noncommercial or educational purposes such as the present dissertation research.

Validity

Scale validity is the degree to which a scale measures the intended construct (DeVellis, 1991). The LMX-MDM scale has been validated several times with different populations and settings. The instrument has been used recently to examine LMX quality in relation to idiosyncratic deals and job satisfaction in restaurant employees (Liao et al., 2017), and has been used in multiple languages (Sasaki et al., 2020). The instrument has also been found valid for use concerning individual task performance, with no significant difference in construct measurement validity between the LMX-MDM and the LMX-7 instruments (Martin et al., 2016).

Reliability

The LMX-MDM had a Cronbach's alpha score of .90, .78, .60, and .92 for dimensions affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect in a population of business students, respectively. Similarly, Cronbach's alpha in a population of manufacturing employees was .90, .74, .57. and .89 (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The alpha scores for all dimensions except contribution are acceptable, which the authors noted required further development. The instrument remains valid in LMX and OCB research, as well (Anand, Vidyarthi, et al., 2018).

OCB Scale

The OCB Scale is composed of 16 actions or situations. Each described situation is scored with a seven-point Likert scale response where 1 = never, and 7 = always, with a sample



statement if the targeted individual would *adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off* (Lee & Allen, 2002). Half of the statements are related to OCBO behaviors and the other half are related to OCBI behaviors. The authors designed the scale, refining Williams and Anderson's (1991) work and creating a greater distinction between beneficial and deviant workplace behaviors. The researcher scores the OCB Scale instrument by adding up the scores for each item and dividing by the number of surveys. In the current research, I scored each survey item individually and in composite to establish scores for OCBO and OCBI. The Lee and Allen (2002) OCB Scale content did not require special permissions for reproduction or use in noncommercial or educational purposes such as the present dissertation research.

Validity and Reliability

The OCB Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002) is one of the most extensively used OCB measurement mechanisms for assessing target-based OCB. The scale is valid in numerous organizational settings and several countries. Recently, Harris et al. (2020) used the scale to measure the relationship between fairness and organizational citizenship behavior toward clients, a specific form of OCBI. The scale was also used in conjunction with the LMX-MDM scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) to measure OCBI and OCBO in response to LMX and employee feedback environment (Lonsdale, 2016). The OCB Scale Cronbach alpha scores are acceptable at .83 and .88 for OCBI and OCBO, respectively (Lee & Allen, 2002). This is relatively consistent with Lonsdale (2016), measuring alphas of .86 for OCBI and .90 for OCBO.

Ethical Considerations

There are a few ethical concerns associated with the methodology selection. This nonexperimental correlational study measured the relationship between LMX quality and



directional OCB in a population of retail senior managers. I collected data using a nonexperimental survey design and adhered to ethical guidelines published in the U.S. National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research (1979). The choice of an online survey design achieves these goals. Per Capella University's policies, Capella's Institutional Review Board reviewed and approved the research proposal and design before I initiated the data collection. The research required online survey participation to measure a human leadership approach, therefore requiring human participation. To protect the participants' identity to the greatest extent possible, I purchased a panel of respondents from Qualtrics to provide the required data. Neither instrument required specific written permission for reproduction or use for noncommercial and educational purposes such as the present dissertation study.

Participants had full autonomy to participate in, or end participation in, the survey to their satisfaction without penalty for nonparticipation. Although this research was the lowest level of risk to the participants, this study observed the best quality assurance practices in data collection, analysis, and presentation to achieve the study's purpose and maintain its credibility. Participants had the opportunity to read the informed consent form in its entirety, and Qualtrics required consent to initiate the participant's survey.

Sample size presents another ethical concern. It is critical to have enough participants to ensure the validity of the findings. I used G*Power software analysis to calculate the adequate sample size representing the population. Calculating for a medium effect size of .15 and a power of .80, G*Power recommended the a priori minimum sample size, N = 85.

The current study used online surveys; this is an accepted and appropriate practice in the social sciences, as well as OCB. (Harris et al., 2014; Marstand et al., 2017). The ethical



challenge comes regarding the validity of self-reported data for socially desirable activities. Despite this potential ethical pitfall, self-reporting has been shown as both accurate as peer reported OCB, and largely matches that of the supervisor (Donia et al., 2016; Vijayalakshmi & Supriya, 2017).

I collected no personally identifiable data, and mitigated any incidentally identifiable information, and prevented its inclusion in the data analysis. Qualtrics followed stringent security protocols to ensure participant data confidentiality. I downloaded data through Qualtrics on a stand-alone computer in the SPSS format. A primary master copy stored on a password-protected thumb drive kept locked in the researcher's fireproof document safe. After being reviewed for completeness by the researcher, the data should be compliant with screening questions and representative of the intended population.

A final ethical concern centers on ethical use of another person's research or published work. The present study used two existing instruments through which to gather data for the predictor and outcome variables. Both instruments were made available through the Capella University library psychological test database. Nether the LMX-MDM and the OCB Scale required specified written permission if used for noncommercial or educational use such as doctoral dissertation research.

Summary

This chapter explained and supported the use of the methodological research design. The study used a quantitative, nonexperimental, correlational design to determine the extent to which a significant relationship exists between LMX dimensions and directional OCB. The research design employed an online survey to collect data from a sample frame of general merchandise retail senior managers. Participants were over the age of 25, spoke English, and worked for a



publicly traded U.S.-based multiunit retail or department store chain. Participants also managed 10-500 organizational members, reported to at least one supervisor, and worked in their present organization for six months.

I combined two existing and validated measures to create one composite survey, administered by Qualtrics to test the research questions and hypotheses. Neither instrument required written permission for use in noncommercial or educational purpose. The online survey consisted of 36 questions, including five demographic questions, two speed checking questions, and the one acceptance question that the participant selects to launch the survey after reading the informed consent form. I purchased participant responses from Qualtrics. The informed consent form educated participants regarding the potential risks and benefits inherent in the survey, informed the participants of the measures in place to ensure their anonymity and were required to initiate the survey. The tools for data analysis were discussed as well. Next, Chapter 4 provides the results and analysis of the data collection.



CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This chapter presents a detailed analysis of the data collected through the present study. The purpose of this research is to determine the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) dimensions and directional organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The predictor variable for this research is LMX quality. The outcome variables are OCB directed towards the organization (OCBO) and OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI). I collected the research data through an online survey administered to a panel of participants provided by Qualtrics. This chapter reviews the research background, describes the sample, provides details regarding the hypothesis testing, and summarizes the regression analysis results from the collected data.

Background

According to LMX theory (G. Graen et al., 1982), the quality of a follower's relationship with their supervisor influences the likelihood of participating in beneficial discretionary behavior. The supervisor-employee exchange relationship's quality affects individual performance areas like task performance, affiliative extra-role behavior, change-oriented extrarole behavior, and adaptive performance (Matta & Van Dyne, 2016). One category of affiliative extra-role behavior is organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) are discretionary extra-role behaviors employees do beyond their contractual obligations (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

This study used a multidimensional LMX model to frame the predictor variable of LMX quality, with subscales measuring four LMX dimensions of affect, loyalty, professional respect, and personal contribution. (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). This study also used a directional OCB model and measures the outcome variables of OCBO and OCBI (Lee & Allen, 2002) as having potential correlation with the LMX dimensions.



This study contributes to the existing leadership theory and in the fields of business management and leadership. It tested LMX theory (Dansereau et al., 1973) by examining the relationship between LMX dimensions and directional OCB. It also tested LMX theory's prediction that higher quality LMX relationships result in greater engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (Michel & Tews, 2016). This study informs leaders' decisions about interactions and highlights one of the ways leaders shape organizational culture (Fein et al., 2015). The findings apply to managers seeking to understand the impact of relational leadership models (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Williams & Anderson, 1991) on discretionary behaviors.

Description of the Sample

This nonexperimental quantitative study's participants represented a population sample with the following characteristics:

- 1. Over 25 years old
- 2. Speak English
- 3. Worked in a U.S.-based multiunit, general retail, department store chain
- 4. Managed more than 10 organizational members
- 5. Reported to at least one supervisor
- 6. Worked in their present organization for six months

The sample criteria did not include gender, ethnicity, or regional quotas. I excluded all potential participants failing to meet the inclusion criteria from the sample. Qualtrics provided the sample of participants through a research panel meeting the inclusion criteria.

Sample Size

I determined the sample size using G*Power v3.1.9.7 software. Using this software, I calculated the sample size by selecting a priori power analysis $\alpha = .05$, $\beta = .80$, and a medium



effect, resulting in a recommended sample size N = 85 (Faul et al., 2009). This sample meets guidance by Wilson Van Voorhis and Morgan (2007) that in a multiple regression sample N > 50+ 8(*m*) cases, where *m* represents is the number of independent variables. The actual sample size provided by Qualtrics was N = 97 completed surveys.

All participants included in the sample answered affirmatively to inclusion criteria questions regarding their position and longevity within the retail industry to ensure alignment and generalization with the total population. The employment and scope criteria supported generalizing the data to supervisory relationships and their impact on leader-level organizational citizenship behavior within the retail sector. I collected the LMX relationship quality variable data through Liden and Maslyn's (1998) LMX-MDM instrument, and directional OCB data was collected by Lee and Allen's (2002) OCB Scale.

Demographics

Qualtrics provided a sample of N = 97 participants. After ensuring the data sets were complete and met the inclusion criteria, Qualtrics closed the survey for any further participants. I included all 97 surveys in the study, resulting in a 100% sample response rate. The survey collected demographic information. The frequency of self-reported gender in this sample (N =97) was a near-even split 50.5% women (n = 49) and 49.5% men (n = 48).

Education

Participants provided data about their highest level of education achieved. I collected this data to provide population refinement for future studies using this framework. Of the participants (N = 97) 1% held a doctorate (n = 1), 9.3% held a master's degree (n = 9), 33% held a bachelor's degree (n = 32), 21.7% held an associate degree (n = 21), and 35% held a high school diploma or



equivalent (n = 34). Most participants (68%) held either a high school diploma or a bachelor's degree.

Scope

Participants also provided the scope of their responsibilities. In the sample (N = 97) 60.8% worked for small organizations, defined as supervising between 5-100 employees; 14.4% worked for medium-sized organizations, defined as between 101-200 employees; 7.2% worded for large organizations, defined as between 201-500 employees; and 17.5% worked for exceptionally large organizations, defined as greater than 500 employees.

Age

Finally, participants provided their age group. In the sample (N = 97), 15% of participants declined to share their age. Those who did all were over 35, with 37.1% reporting between age 36-45, 30.9% were between 46-55. Finally, 16.5% were greater than 56 years old.

Population Summary

I used modal analysis to characterize the central tendency for the sample. Most participants held either a high school diploma or bachelor's degree (68%), worked for small organizations (60.8%). Most participants were between 36-55 years old (68%), with a near equal distribution between women and men participants (50.5% and 49.5%, respectively). These characteristics are consistent with the overall population of retail store managers in the U.S. in chains such as Target (Retail, 2021; Target, 2019), indicating that the sample supports the generalization of the research findings to the total population examined in this study. Refer to Table 4 for a summary of the population.



Table 4

Population Summary

| Characteristic | п | % of total sample |
|---|-------|-------------------|
| Gender (Women/Men) | 49/48 | 50.5/49.5 |
| High School Diploma or Bachelor's degrees | 66 | 68 |
| Small Organizations | 59 | 60.8 |
| 36-55 Years old | 66 | 68 |

Hypothesis Testing

Multiple regression analysis was appropriate for this research given the study's purpose, type of relationship examined, number of variables, and existing precedent (Martinez, Sun, et al., 2018; Somech & Ohayon, 2019). I measured the predictor and outcome variables with instruments using Likert scales. Multiple regression analysis requires interval or ratio data. I calculated the instrument's Likert scale data by taking the sum of the ordinal variables, creating an approximately continuous variable for regression analysis (Johnson & Creech, 1983; Norman, 2010; Sullivan & Artino, 2013).

The two research questions asked to what extent a significant relationship existed between the dimensions of LMX and OCBO (RQ1), and between LMX and OCBI (RQ2) in a population of general merchandise retail managers. This quantitative nonexperimental study sought to assess the following hypotheses:

RQ1: To what extent is there a significant relationship between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBO?

H10: No significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBO.

H1_a: A significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBO.



RQ2: To what extent is there a significant relationship between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBI?

H20: No significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBI.

H2_a: A significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution and OCBI.

Descriptive Statistics

In this nonexperimental quantitative study, the descriptive statistics provide an initial look into the collected data. The following section presents the mean, median, skewness, standard deviation, kurtosis, and range for each variable for which I collected data. Each section below describes the scoring functionality for the instrument used, the measures of central tendency and dispersion.

Measurement of Leader-Member Exchange Quality Dimensions

The LMX-MDM survey instrument measures the predictor variable, leader-member exchange quality, across subscales for the LMX dimensions: affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. The LMX-MDM survey design applies a self-scoring 7-point Likert scale where 1 = *strongly disagree*, and 7 = *strongly agree*, with a sample question regarding whether one's manager would defend them to others in the organization (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The instrument includes 12 random-order questions, with three questions for each LMX dimension.

The overall LMX quality score ranges between 12 points and 84 points. No data were missing, and data analysis included all 97 participants' responses on both LMX-MDM and OCB Scale. SPSS analysis calculated the overall LMX Quality mean = 63.87 and median = 67.00. The



standard deviation for overall LMX quality, SD = 4.96. Each dimension's score ranges from a minimum score of three points to a maximum score of 21 points. The affect dimension of LMX quality was measured by questions 3, 6, and 10. SPSS analysis calculated the Affect mean = 15.27 and median = 16.00. The standard deviation for affect SD = 4.68. The loyalty dimension of LMX quality was measured by questions 2, 5, and 9. SPSS analysis calculated the loyalty mean = 15.60 and median = 16.00. The standard deviation for affect SD = 4.43.

The contribution dimension of LMX quality was measured by questions 4, 7, and 11. SPSS analysis calculated the contribution mean = 16.68 and median = 17.00. The standard deviation for contribution SD = 3.59. The professional respect dimension of LMX quality was measured by questions 1, 8, and 12. SPSS analysis calculated the professional respect mean = 16.32 and median = 17.00. The standard deviation for professional respect, SD= 4.30. Refer to Table 5 for a summary of descriptive statistics.

Table 5

| Descriptive | Statistics of | of LMX Dimension | ns Scores and | ' Overall LMX (| Quality |
|-------------|---------------|-------------------------------|---------------|-----------------|---------|
| Descriptive | Sidiisiies (| j L_{MLA} $D_{inclusion}$ | is scores una | Over un Linn y | Zuany |

| Descriptive Statistic | Affect | Loyalty | Contribution | Prof. Respect | Overall LMX |
|-----------------------|--------|---------|--------------|---------------|-------------|
| Minimum | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 12 |
| Maximum | 18 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 84 |
| Mean | 15.27 | 15.60 | 16.68 | 16.32 | 63.87 |
| Median | 16.00 | 16.00 | 17.00 | 17.00 | 67.00 |
| Std. Deviation | 4.68 | 4.43 | 3.59 | 4.30 | 14.96 |
| Range | 18 | 18 | 16 | 17 | 64 |
| Skewness | 765 | 996 | -1.083 | 996 | 963 |
| Kurtosis | 027 | .890 | 1.451 | .623 | .627 |

Applying the empirical rule, 99.7% of normally distributed data should fall within three standard deviations of the mean and appear graphically as a normal bell curve. The data collected was negatively skewed and did not meet normal distribution assumptions (see Figure 6 and



Figure 7). Parametric hypothesis testing assumes normal distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2018).

Skewness and kurtosis values illustrate that the data distributions are not symmetrical either. Scores for overall LMX and the dimensions of LMX cluster heavily to the right of each histogram, with the dimensions demonstrating significant multimodality. Skewness for each dimension ranged from -.765 to -.996, consistent with the overall LMX quality score skewness (-.963). These negative scores suggested larger clusters of data to the right of the histograms. Kurtotic distribution analysis indicates a platykurtic distribution for affect (-.027) and a leptokurtic distribution for loyalty (.890), professional respect (.623), and peaked leptokurtic distribution for contribution (1.451). Heavily peaked kurtosis, combined with negative skewness, indicated a nonnormal distribution of the LMX quality dimension data for the given population (Pallant, 2018).

Measurement of Directional Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Lee and Allen's (2002) OCB Scale survey instrument measured the outcome variables, organizational citizenship behaviors in two directions, organizational citizenship behavior directed toward individuals, or OCBI, and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization, or OCBO. The OCB Scale survey design describes 16 situations and asked the respondent to self-score how often the situation occurred using a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = never, and 7 = always. A sample statement asked how often the targeted individual would be willing to adjust the work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off (Lee & Allen, 2002). Lee and Allen grouped the questions into two sections of eight statements each. Half of the statements relate to OCBO behaviors, and the other half relate to OCBI behaviors. The scores for each direction of OCB could range from a minimum score of 8 points to a



maximum score of 56 points. The first set of eight questions on the OCB Scale measured the OCBI outcome variable (Lee & Allen, 2002). The second set of eight questions on the OCB Scale measured the OCBO variable (Lee & Allen, 2002). Refer to Table 6 for a summary of descriptive statistics for OCBO and OCBI.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of OCBO and OCBI Scores

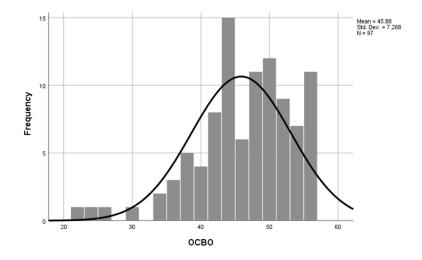
| Descriptive Statistic | OCBO | OCBI |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|
| Mean | 45.88 | 45.76 |
| Median | 47.00 | 46.00 |
| Std. Deviation | 7.27 | 6.77 |
| Range | 34 | 26 |
| Skewness | 925 | 210 |
| Kurtosis | 1.178 | 713 |

Again, applying the empirical rule, 99.7% of normally distributed data should fall within three standard deviations of the mean and appear graphically as a normal bell curve. The OCBO and OCBI data collected were both negatively skewed (-.925 for OCBO, -.210 for OCBI) and did not meet normal distribution assumptions (see figures a through e). Kurtotic distribution for OCBO demonstrated a heavily peaked leptokurtic distribution (1.178), and OCBI was platykurtic (-7.13). The negative skew and leptokurtic distribution of OCBO preclude an assessment of normal distribution. Negative skewness and platykurtic distribution for OCBI data, likewise, violates normal distribution within the given population. Figure 6 and Figure 7 confirm these assessments.



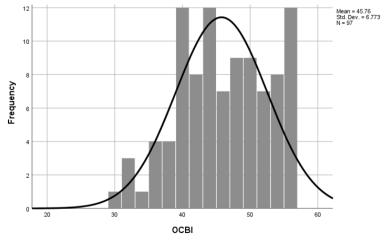
Figure 6

Histogram of OCBO Scores





Histogram of OCBI Scores



Outliers

. للاستشارات

Through boxplot analysis for each variable, outliers were visible in one outcome variable, OCBO. Participant screening criteria mitigated the risk of survey data provided by individuals outside the intended population. I verified data input. The boxplot for outcome variable OCBI showed no outliers. The remaining outcome variable, OCBO, had a small number of outliers in the lower values. Figure 8 and Figure 9 illustrate this assessment.



Figure 8

Boxplot Analysis for Outcome Variable OCBO

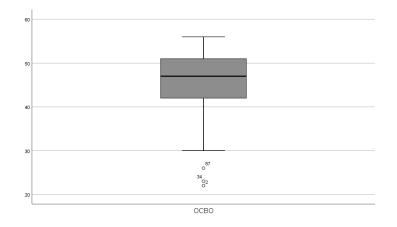
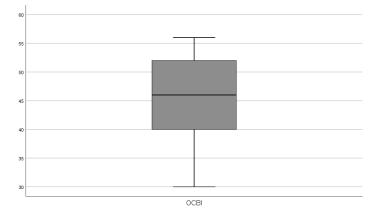


Figure 9

Boxplot Analysis for Outcome Variable OCBI



Outliers can induce bias in the distribution analysis. In the present data, kurtosis existed in the variables. All instances of kurtosis, however, manifested on the higher range of the histograms. The lower valued outliers were unlikely to bias the slope or model.

Assumptions

The statistical assumptions and hypotheses were tested by IBM SPSS Statistics software using the *Analyze* command, *Regression* option, and selecting *Linear* from the submenu. The



dependent variable was OCBO, the independent variables were affect, loyalty, respect, contribution, and overall LMX, and all variables were measured at the scale level. Statistical options selected were estimate, model fit, r^2 change, descriptives, part and partial correlations, and for residuals, the Durbin-Watson test and casewise diagnostics were also selected. Plots selected placed the ZRESID (Z-residual) in the y-axis and the ZPRED (predicted residual) in the x-axis. Additional options selected include using the probability of *F*, .05 for entry, .10 for removal, and including the constant in the equation. I repeated this procedure for the dependent variable OCBI. See Table 7 and Table 8 for the resulting correlation matrices.

This study's data analysis started by assessing assumptions related to multiple linear regression (Field, 2018). The assumptions are sample size, linearity, normality, nonmulticollinearity, lack of autocorrelation, and homoscedasticity. The collected data failed to meet some of the assumptions of multiple regression analysis.

Minimum Sample Size

Numerous rules-of-thumb exist regarding the minimum sample size for multiple regression analysis. Each rule is based on the generalization of singular factors such as desired statistical power, effect size, or single-variable statistical significance (Maxwell, 2000). A common rule-of-thumb suggests a 10:1 ratio for observation-to-predictor variables. As mentioned earlier, I calculated the a priori sample size using G*Power software. The minimum calculated sample size is N > 85; the actual sample N = 97 and meets the minimum sample size assumption.

Normal Distribution

The descriptive analysis indicated that the outcome variable data were not normally distributed (Figure6 and Figure 7). I ran the Shapiro-Wilk test to confirm this analysis. The



Shapiro-Wilk test examines the normal distribution of data and the data for the outcome variables in the multiple regression analysis (Field, 2018). With this test, results that are not statistically significant (p > .05) would indicate normal distribution. Using this test, both OCBO (p = .011) and OCBI (p = .000) were statistically significant (p < .05) and therefore indicated nonnormal distribution. The data for outcome variables OCBO and OCBI violate normal distribution assumptions, suggesting type I and type II errors are possible.

I tested the remainder of the assumptions required for multiple regression analysis concurrent with the regression analysis correlation calculation in SPSS and illustrated in the matrices (see Table 7 and Table 8). I attempted to transform the data through log transformation, reflection (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2018), and square root transformation (Field, 2018), but the data remained abnormally distributed.

Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation refers to a similarity of data typically associated with data collection over multiple time intervals (Field, 2018). The data collected was from a singular time and therefore resistant to autocorrelation. However, due to the significant multicollinearity, I examined the Durbin-Watson test statistic, resulting in a score of 2.095 for OCBI and 2.035 for OCBO. Durbin-Watson statistic scores range from 0 to 4, with 2 indicating zero autocorrelation; scores that range from 1.5 to 2.5 indicate the assumption has been met (Dodge, 2008; Field, 2018). Durbin-Watson indicates that there is no autocorrelation, failing meet this assumption.

Homoscedasticity

With linear regression analysis, each predictor's residual level should be a consistent distance from the regression line or homoscedastic (Field, 2018). I tested homoscedasticity by scatterplot analysis, examining the standardized regression residual against the regression



standardized predicted value. Refer to Figure 10 and Figure 11. The data did not meet this assumption.

Figure 10

Scatterplot Analysis for OCBO Regression

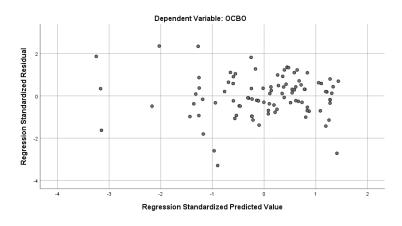
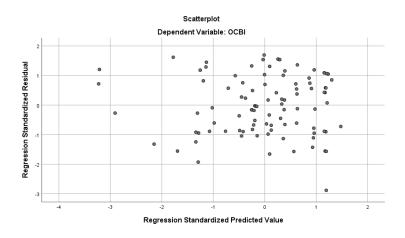


Figure 11

Scatterplot Analysis for OCBI Regression



Multicollinearity

The assumption of nonmulticollinearity is essential to the validity of multiple linear regression. If the predictor variables exhibit multicollinearity, the significance of the relationship between those predictors and the outcome variables would not be reliable (Field, 2018). There is variance in multicollinearity scores of which are a cause for concern. Some researchers argue



that correlation values between two predictors > .7 indicate multicollinearity (Vatcheva, Lee et al., 2016). Variance inflation factor (VIF) is another common method for assessing multicollinearity. According to James et al. (2013) a VIF score > 5 indicates significant multicollinearity, while Johnston et al. (2018) indicate that a VIF of > 2.5 is cause for concern.

I only examined the collinearity between predictor variables affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution to check assumptions of nonmulticollinearity. Collinearity assessment was virtually identical between OCBI and OCBO. This is unsurprising, however, as the data mean for both variables was only 0.1. In regression analyses with both OCBI loyalty (.816) and professional respect (.779) were collinear with affect, but not with each other, and contribution had no collinearity with any other dimension. Refer to Table 7 and Table 8.

Table 7

| | Variables | OCBO | Affect | Loyalty | Prof. Respect | Contribution | Overall LMX |
|-------------|---------------|------|--------|---------|------------------|--------------|----------------|
| | OCBO | 1.00 | .410 | .373 | .460 | .549 | .502 |
| | Affect | .410 | 1.00 | .816 | .779 | .585 | .919 |
| Pearson | Loyalty | .373 | .816 | 1.00 | .674 | .604 | .890 |
| Correlation | Prof. Respect | .460 | .779 | .674 | 1.00 | .687 | .896 |
| | Contribution | .549 | .585 | .604 | .687 | 1.00 | .799 |
| | Overall LMX | .502 | .919 | .890 | .896 | .799 | 1.00 |

Correlation Matrix for OCBO

Table 8

Correlation Matrix for OCBI

| | Variables | OCBI | Affect | Loyalty | Prof. Respect | Contribution | Overall LMX |
|-------------|---------------|------|--------|---------|------------------|--------------|----------------|
| | OCBI | 1.00 | .244 | .241 | .318 | .462 | .350 |
| | Affect | .244 | 1.00 | .816 | .779 | .585 | .919 |
| Pearson | Loyalty | .241 | .816 | 1.00 | .674 | .604 | .890 |
| Correlation | Prof. Respect | .318 | .779 | .674 | 1.00 | .687 | .890 |
| | Contribution | .462 | .585 | .604 | .687 | 1.00 | .799 |
| | Overall LMX | .350 | .919 | .890 | .896 | .799 | 1.00 |



The same multicollinearity existed in regression analysis with OCBI. Loyalty (.816) and professional respect (.779) were collinear with affect, but not with each other, and contribution had no collinearity with any other dimension. VIF scores for OCBI and OCBO were identical. VIF for affect = 4.238, loyalty = 3.236, professional respect = 3.217, and contribution = 2.048. Although the VIF was less than 5 (James et al., 2013), the data was treated as being multicollinear. The presence of multicollinearity violates the assumption of nonmulticollinearity. I then consolidated the multicollinear predictors (Dormann et al., 2013) to a single predictor variable of *interpersonal*. The adjusted multiple regression calculated the statistical relationship between the predictor values for interpersonal, contribution, *and* overall LMX for use in assessing the null and alternate hypotheses. Using this model, the VIF for contribution and interpersonal were both 1.867. See Table 7 and Table 8 for the unconsolidated Pearson Correlation matrices, Table 9 for transformed data descriptive statistics, and Table 10 and Table 11 for the consolidated matrices.

Table 9

| Descriptive Statistic | Interpersonal | Contribution |
|-----------------------|---------------|--------------|
| Minimum | 4.67 | 3 |
| Maximum | 21 | 18 |
| Mean | 45.88 | 16.68 |
| Median | 47.00 | 17.00 |
| Std. Deviation | 7.27 | 3.59 |
| Range | 34 | 16 |
| Skewness | 925 | -1.083 |
| Kurtosis | 1.178 | 1.451 |



Table 10

| | | OCBO | Interpersonal | Contribution | Overall LMX | VIF |
|-------------|----------------|------|---------------|--------------|----------------|-------|
| | OCBO | 1.00 | .452 | .549 | .502 | - |
| Pearson | Interpersonal* | .452 | 1.00 | .681 | .984 | 1.867 |
| Correlation | Contribution | .549 | .681 | 1.00 | .799 | 1.867 |
| | Overall LMX | .502 | .984 | .799 | 1.00 | na |

Correlation Matrix for OCBO – Consolidated Predictors

Table 11

Correlation Matrix for OCBI – Consolidated Predictors

| | | OCBI | Interpersonal | Contribution | Overall LMX | VIF |
|-------------|----------------|------|---------------|--------------|----------------|-------|
| | OCBI | 1.00 | .291 | .462 | .350 | - |
| Pearson | Interpersonal* | .291 | 1.00 | .681 | .984 | 1.867 |
| Correlation | Contribution | .462 | .681 | 1.00 | .799 | 1.867 |
| | Overall LMX | .350 | .984 | .799 | 1.00 | na |

Hypothesis Testing Results

I completed SPSS multiple linear regression analyses for each research question. For RQ1 (OCBO), SPSS multiple linear regression testing indicated that multicollinearity existed in the original data with a significant correlation existing between predictor variables, affect, professional respect, and loyalty. I consolidated the three predictors into a singular predictor variable of *interpersonal* variables. SPSS model summary report indicated that $R^2 = .312$, indicating that the model explains the variance of the outcome approximately one-third of the time. Significant *F* is .000, indicating that the model is a significant fit for the data (Field, 2018). ANOVA testing of the OCBO null hypothesis that the *b* = 0 with a statistical significance < .05, actual score .000, and *F* score of 21.353, substantiating a rejection of the null hypothesis. The regression model's standardized coefficients bi indicated the relative strength for each predictor variable. Contribution = .450, which is significant at α = .000, and interpersonal = .145, not significant at α = .217. The unsquared partial correlation scores, indicating the greatest individual



influence on the outcome variable, contribution = .369. This supports the alternate hypothesis for RQ1 (H1_a) - a significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect (consolidated to interpersonal), and contribution and OCBO.

I repeated the process for RQ2. For RQ2 (OCBI), SPSS multiple linear regression testing indicated multicollinearity existed in the original data with a significant correlation existing between predictor variables, affect, professional respect, and loyalty, and I again consolidated them into a singular predictor variable of interpersonal. SPSS model summary report indicated that $R^2 = .214$, indicating that the model explains the variance of the outcome approximately less than one-quarter of the time. Significant *F* is .000, indicating the model is a significant fit for the data (Field, 2018).

ANOVA testing of the OCBI null hypothesis that the b = 0 with a statistical significance < .05, *F* score of 12.807, and actual score .000, substantiating a rejection of the null hypothesis. The standardized coefficients b_i for each predictor variable, contribution = .491, which is significant at $\alpha = .000$, and interpersonal = -.043, not significant at $\alpha = .729$. The unsquared partial correlation scores, indicating the greatest individual increase to the outcome variable, contribution = .376. This analysis supports the alternate hypothesis for RQ2 (H2_a), a significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect (consolidated as interpersonal), and contribution and OCBI.

Summary

Assessment of the multiple regression analysis indicated rejection of null hypotheses H1₀ and H2₀. The standardized coefficient beta, taken in absolute value, demonstrated that predictor variable contribution had the most substantial relationship with OCBO (β = .450) compared to predictor variable interpersonal (β = .145). Likewise, the standardized coefficient beta, taken in



absolute value, demonstrated that predictor variable contribution had the most substantial

relationship with OCBI (β = .491) compared to predictor variable interpersonal (β = -.043). Refer

to Table 12.

Table 12

Analysis of Hypothesis – RQ1 (OCBO) and RQ2 (OCBI)

| | Hypothesis | Accepted or Rejected |
|-----------------|--|----------------------|
| H10 | No significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect ^a , and contribution and OCBO. | Rejected |
| H1 _a | A significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect ^a , and contribution and OCBO. | |
| H2 ₀ | No significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect ^a , and contribution and OCBI. | Rejected |
| H2 _a | A significant relationship exists between affect, loyalty, professional respect ^a , and contribution and OCBI. | |

^aConsolidated to a single predictor (interpersonal).



CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 5 summarizes a quantitative, nonexperimental research study examining leadermember exchange (LMX) dimensions and directional organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The survey study examined if a statistically significant relationship existed between LMX dimensions and OCB directed toward the organization and individuals in a sample of senior retail managers. This chapter presents a summary of data analysis and presents conclusions drawn from the results. After the conclusions, this chapter presents limitations in the design and analysis, implications for the field, and future research recommendations based on those conclusions and limitations.

Summary of the Results

Multiple regression analysis tested the null and alternate hypotheses for two research questions that drove this study. I used regression analysis to assess if a significant relationship existed between LMX dimensions affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution, and OCB directed toward the organization (OCBO). I also used regression analysis to determine if a significant relationship existed between the LMX dimensions and OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI). The outcome variables OCBO and OCBI were both nonnormally distributed, violating an assumption of multiple regression. I attempted to employ corrections, but the skewness and kurtosis were not corrected sufficiently to achieve normality. The predictor variable data (LMX dimensions) were multicollinear, violating another assumption of multiple regression. I consolidated the three collinear dimensions affect, loyalty, and professional respect into a singular predictor variable called *interpersonal* to accommodate for the second violation. This consolidation retained the multidimensional LMX construct inherent in the research design while correcting for the violated assumption. The violated assumptions are essential to note in



assessing the analysis conclusions. I address these concerns in the limitations and recommendations for future studies.

The regression analysis results using the consolidated predictor variables supported the rejection of null hypotheses H1₀, H2₀ and supported acceptance of the alternate hypotheses H1_a and H2_a. As a model, the LMX dimensions had a statistically significant relationship with OCBO (RQ1) and OCBI (RQ2). The Pearson correlations for OCBO and OCBI showed that interpersonal dimensions did not significantly correlate with either outcome variable. Contribution, however, did have a statistically significant correlation with both outcome variables. Although the test of fit for both models rejected the null hypothesis, the R^2 value for OCBO and OCBI (.312 and .214, respectively) showed that the LMX dimensions accounted for only 31% of the variance in OCBO and 21% variance in OCBI.

The population for this study was U.S.-based senior retail managers working in general merchandise retail or department store chains. The population sample demographics for this research matched those reported by retail organizations meeting that description, for example, Target department stores. I used modal analysis to characterize the central tendency for the sample. Most participants were moderately educated, worked for small organizations, and were between 36-55 years old. This study's overall population was managers working in U.S.-based general merchandise retail stores or department store chains.

Discussion of the Results

The purpose of this research was to measure the degree of relationship between leadermember exchange (LMX) dimensions and directional organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in senior retail managers. This study's guiding premise was a presumption that some LMX dimensions can influence individual behavior more than others. Previous research suggested that



high-quality LMX relationships influence the likelihood of OCB (Michel & Tews, 2016; Podsakoff et al., 1990). In increasing follower discretionary behavior, the study design sought to reach as many retail managers as practical and answer one question with two alternate behavioral targets. The restated research question asked: is there a significant relationship between the LMX dimensions and the particular directions of OCB? The findings indicated that relationships exist between LMX dimensions and the direction to which OCB is directed, but the degree to which they exist is uncertain. Although I rejected the null hypotheses related to RQ1 (OCBO) and RQ2 (OCBI), the data invites empirical scrutiny and further exploration.

The predictor and outcome variables data universally exhibited negative skew and significant kurtosis, violating normality and homoscedasticity. The data originated from an online panel of retail managers provided by a third-party data collection company, Qualtrics. Demographic data indicated that the population sample was representative of the total population. It is crucial to assume the population sample met the contracted screening criteria. If this is the case, the homogeneity of high LMX and OCB scores may be attributed to other personal characteristics contributing to the participants working in the retail industry or working in managerial positions. Failure to meet statistical model assumptions induces a higher risk of both Type I and Type II errors when interpreting the data to address the null and alternative hypotheses (Field, 2018). One must keep statistical error in mind, but conclusions can be drawn from general data trends. The findings are indicative and suggestive, but not absolute.

Conclusions Based on the Results

Results of this research support the theoretical framework established by LMX theory. LMX theory's prediction of the relationship between LMX quality and OCB was verified in the retail managers' population. The results also indicated a potential differentiation between the



LMX dimensions that had been previously unexamined. Although the data failed to meet assumptions for a multiple regression model, the data analysis offered some new insight into LMX dimensions and directional OCB.

Comparison of the Findings With the Theoretical Framework and Previous Literature

Previous research suggested that high-quality LMX relationships influence the likelihood of OCB (Michel & Tews, 2016; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Instances of OCB increase as LMX quality increases, and the inverse has also been observed (G. Graen et al., 1982; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This research's results aligned with the predictions of LMX theory; high LMX quality positively correlates with the occurrence of both OCBO and OCBI. Pearson correlation for overall LMX was .502 for OCBO and .350 for OCBI.

Research literature shows that LMX dimensions influence OCB individually. Higher levels of interpersonal affect increase enthusiasm for beneficial organizational behaviors like OCBO (Damen et al., 2008). Increased loyalty has similar results (Goswami et al., 2019; Newman et al., 2017) and professional respect (Mascareño et al., 2020). In previous research literature, contribution showed the least influence on individual work behaviors than the other three dimensions (Greguras & Ford, 2006). The results of this research agreed with the existing literature to an extent. Using the unconsolidated regression Pearson correlation for OCBO was .410 for affect, .373 for loyalty, .460 for professional respect, and .549 for contribution. It was similar, but less, for OCBI; Pearson correlation was .244 for affect, .241 for loyalty, .318 for professional respect, and .462 for contribution. Theory predicts these correlations, but the degree that contribution correlates with OCB diverges from previous studies.

The results of this research differed from expectations in two other ways. As mentioned, first the degree of influence LMX dimension contribution had on both types of OCB compared



to the consolidated interpersonal dimensions diverged from the literature. The early conceptualization of LMX dimensions consisted of three dimensions–affect, loyalty, and professional respect (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Contribution initially demonstrated lower internal consistency in the instrument than the other three, Cronbach's alpha for contribution being .60, and the others > .79 (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Further attention to the influence of contribution to LMX quality may be warranted in the field.

Second, the degree of LMX dimension multicollinearity varied from the distinct nature suggested by psychometric measurements in Liden and Maslyn (1998). Liden and Maslyn's development of the LMX-MDM indicated the four dimensions were distinct enough constructs to validate their use in their instrument. Prudent caution suggests that researchers continuing the work on LMX dimensions might consider retaining them as subscales but retaining the aggregate LMX quality score (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Interpretation of the Findings

This quantitative, nonexperimental survey research contributed to the body of LMX theory by testing the LMX-OCB relationship and providing initial insight into the influence of LMX dimensions on directional OCB. The results were generally consistent with prior research on LMX and OCB (Michel & Tews, 2016) and research categorizing the dimensions of LMX (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). This research provides insight into the relationships between the predictor variables, LMX dimensions, and the outcome variables, OCBO and OCBI.

The predictor variables demonstrated a high degree of multicollinearity. The multicollinearity should be unsurprising, however. Collins et al. (2014) identified enough correlation between the dimensions to subcategorize dimensions according to the locus of influence as either communally relational (affect and loyalty) or task-oriented (contribution and



professional respect). The high degree of collinearity supported Maslyn and Uhl-Bien's (2001). They categorized professional respect, loyalty, and affect as social currencies of LMX and contribution as a work-related currency (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). In light of Maslyn and Uhl-Bien's currency categorization, it was appropriate to combine the three dimensions into a singular predictor of an interpersonal dimension analogous to social currency.

The increased influence of contribution to the multidimensional LMX model and directional OCB prediction offer additional insight that extends the LMX body of theory. Contribution's influence on overall LMX scores is understood by applying the reciprocity aspects of social exchange theory (Blau, 2017; Emerson, 1976), This observation is especially poignant when the dyad's quality of contribution is significant and acknowledged by both dyad members (Collins et al., 2014). Previous LMX studies suggested that the contribution dimension had a lesser degree of influence on individual outcomes than the other three (Greguras & Ford, 2006). However, in the present research, contribution demonstrated a significant correlation with both outcome variables OCBO and OCBI (.450 and .491, respectively), while interpersonal dimensions did not. This is similar to Walumbwa et al. (2007), finding that the transparency of authentic leadership increases OCBO. In the present study, managers who assess their supervisors as contributing to the dyad may be reflecting on the transparency of the leader-follower relationship.

Additionally, there was a noticeable difference in correlation between the outcome variables in the two regression analyses. OCBO was considerably different from OCBI, with relation to the interpersonal dimensions; specifically, the interpersonal dimensions had a slightly positive individual correlation with OCBO ($\beta = .145$) and a negative individual correlation with OCBI ($\beta = -.043$). This analysis differs from expectations based on social exchange reciprocity;



high ratings of interpersonal exchange should yield high degrees of individually targeted behaviors (Bos-Nehles & Meijerink, 2018; Nazir et al., 2018). This was not the case in the present sample, the relationship between contribution and both types of OCB told a different story, $\beta = .450$ (OCBO), $\beta = .491$ (OCBI). This finding speaks to one of the research's additional purposes, which was to determine what impact individual dimensions have on OCB directionality.

Limitations

Limitations in a research study are those factors and elements that were out of the researcher's control and shaped the design, analysis, or outcome; delimitations are the boundaries I set to ensure the study's purpose is achievable (Theofanidis, & Fountouki, 2019). The following subsections expand on the limitations described in Chapter 1. This section addresses limitations related to the research design and population, as well as delimitations.

Limitations of the Study

The first limitation was the failure of the data to meet assumptions for multiple regression analysis. The outcome variables both violated assumptions of normal distribution and the predictor variables violated the assumption of multicollinearity. I elected to not employ nonparametric tests due to the nature of the research questions and hypotheses seeking distinct relationships assessed best through multiple regression analysis. The method had been employed in similar studies (Martinez, Sun et al., 2018; Somech & Ohayon, 2019). Acknowledging the risk of error and bias, the results indicate a relationship, although the degree of relationship requires further testing. Although I rejected the null hypotheses, the results of this study should be regarded as indicative but not absolute.



A second limitation was the level of data measurement. I collected research data using online surveys consisting of two established psychometric instruments, the LMX-MDM instrument (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) and the OCB Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002). Both instruments used 7-point Likert scales which provide ordinal data. Multiple regression analysis requires continuous scale- or ratio-level data. I corrected this issue by adding up the dimensional scores to an approximated continual variable (Johnson & Creech, 1983; Norman, 2010; Sullivan & Artino, 2013) compatible with multiple regression analysis.

A third limitation was the quantitative design of the study. According to Randolph-Seng et al. (2016), relational leadership approaches like LMX are largely subjective. A quantitative design seeks an objective answer to a given question, but a qualitative design may provide richer insight as it relates to the shared experience of leadership. This research was an initial study of the LMX dimension relationship with directional OCB, and as such the quantitative data indicated there are relationships worth exploring further.

A fourth limitation in this study was the lack of demographic quotas. While the gender breakdown was a near-even split between women and men (50.5% women and 49.5% men) and no one selected the option *prefer not to answer*, there is potential for nonbinary, gender fluid, or nongender identity participants were unrepresented. I did not collect ethnic, racial, and cultural data and therefore the potential for cultural homogeneity may render the findings less generalizable and may fail to consider the leadership perceptions along with racial, ethnic, and cultural clusters (Banks, 2000).

Delimitations of the Study

The first delimitation in this study was the theoretical foundation. The study was limited to LMX theory as the principal lens through which to examine relationships to the exclusion of



other theories that may better explain the results. This delimitation was out of practicality and to ensure a focus on the purpose of contributing to the body of LMX theory. As a type of leaderfollower interactive behavior, findings related to LMX have the potential to explain outcomes from other leadership activities, e.g., servant leadership theory or transformational leadership, or authentic leadership (Anderson et al., 2017).

The second delimitation is the target population sample size. As another matter of practicality, I limited the sample size to the minimum required sample to accomplish a multiple regression analysis with the given amount of predictor variables, increased by a modest margin for error. Using G*Power 3.1.9.6 online sample calculator software, minimum sample size N = 89. Qualtrics provided 97 completed samples that met inclusion criteria and quality checks, like minimum survey time. I defined the target population by age, industry, position, organizational structure, and scope of responsibility. These limitations prevented the present research from having a broader sample of participants, which may have resulted in a more normal distribution, increased homoscedasticity, and reduced potential for bias and errors.

A third delimitation was the data collection method. This study used online self-report surveys. Although previous researchers found the instruments reliable and valid, some authors argue that self-reported data is unreliable (Johns & Miraglia, 2015). This is not a universally held position; other researchers find that the data matches other-reported surveys and are equally reliable (Donia et al., 2016; Vijayalakshmi & Supriya, 2017). Potential exists for participants to be susceptible to response bias in the interest of social acceptability or out of concern for anonymity. Risk-benefit analysis for accessibility versus accuracy weighed toward accessibility for this initial study. The survey text assured participants of their anonymity and protection thoroughly in the informed consent form.



Implications for Practice

The research findings hold implications for academia and the field of organizational leadership. This study contributed to the bodies of LMX and OCB literature. While earlier studies examined—and established—a relationship between LMX and OCB (Estel et al., 2019; Ghaus et al., 2018), this study provided insight into the relationship between subscales of both constructs. When examined more closely, the granular perspective illustrates that LMX and OCB share common factors. Reciprocity, for example, is a defining feature of OCB and the LMX dimension contribution. OCB is more likely as a reciprocal behavior to positive organizational affect and job satisfaction (Blau, 2017), while contribution is likely to be returned with more observed contribution (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). In the context of the present study, a participant's observation of their supervisor participating in OCB may be viewed as contribution, and thus be reciprocated by increased OCB while being assessed highly as a dimension. Other dimensions may hold similar common factors with individual and organizational outcomes.

This study further implies the primacy of relationship contribution over social LMX dimensions in motivating beneficial behavior in subordinates. Stated differently, the tangible impact seemed to take precedence over affiliative attraction. Previous studies indicate that the contribution LMX dimension influences subordinate behavior to a lesser degree than other dimensions (Greguras & Ford, 2006). The present study, however, suggests that in a population of retail managers, the effort a senior leader expend in a relational leadership context may increase the effort subordinate managers put forward to benefit the organization and targeted individuals. In other words, subordinate managers are likely to follow the behavior modeled by their supervisors. When subordinates perceive a contribution from a supervisor, they are likely to feel obligated to reciprocate support to either the individual or the organization (Bellairs &



Halbesleben, 2018). Both forms of discretionary support increase the social lubricant (Katz & Kahn, 1966) that helps the organization run.

A practical implication for this study is that it emphasizes reciprocity as influencing LMX dimensions and individual OCB motivations. In the present study, participants that scored their supervisor high on contribution also demonstrated a higher rate of self-reported OCB. When subordinates recognize a supervisor's contribution to the dyad, they are more likely to reciprocate support to either the individual or the organization (Bellairs & Halbesleben, 2018). Put differently, followers model behavior from their leaders. This implication can inform supervisor's time management and employee engagement strategies with new hires. Supervisors provide the most immediate and tangible evidence of the organizational culture, policies, and practices, and employees are likely to generalize their supervisor's LMX contribution helps to create a more positive organizational climate. Through both a reciprocal relationship and as a moderator, LMX-quality has a significant influence on the perception of a positive organizational environment.

Whether through a better understanding of observed behavior or by highlighting the importance of improved relational contribution, this study might influence leaders to reflect on the leadership practices they espouse and shape best practices in managerial positions. Questioning the impact of typical leadership practices, characteristics, and attributes has the potential to elevate organizational leaders in both performance and potential. In a marketplace saturated with leader development programs (Westfall, 2019), focusing on the basics and linking leadership training material with established and emerging methodologies may bring impact leadership dynamics at all size organizations.



Recommendations for Further Research

The recommendations for further research exploring the LMX dimension-directional OCB relationship reflect the limitations and delimitations in the study's design. This study had a single theoretical foundation in LMX theory (Dansereau et al., 1973; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) to provide a lens through which to assess the relationship between variables. To maximize supervisor resource allocation, Dansereau and colleagues developed LMX theory through several stages (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

A critical influence on LMX was social exchange theory. One recommendation for future research is to examine the relationship between LMX dimensions and directional OCB through alternate theoretical foundations, such as social exchange theory, implicit leadership theory, and servant leadership theory. Approaching the research from alternate, but related, perspectives may highlight an aspect of the interconstruct relationships I did not examine or find evident in this study. Alternatively, future research may examine individual dimensions through alternate instrumentation to examine their influence on OCB at a more granular level.

Additionally, this study considered a small sample of retail managers in the United States. I restricted the sample size for practical financial reasons but suggest further examination of the LMX dimensions and directional OCB in a larger sample would be beneficial. The relatively small sample has a notable influence on the skew and kurtosis of the variables. Repeating the study with a larger sample may help normalize distribution (Field, 2018) and increase generalizability for future multiple regression analyses.

Furthermore, future research may benefit from using a qualitative or mixed-methods approach to explore the relationship between the same variables. As LMX is a relational leadership model, the subjective experience of dyad members may not effectively reduce to a



numerical score. A qualitative inquiry would allow a researcher to gather a greater breadth and depth of data to assess the degree and direction of interaction (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

Conclusion

This quantitative, nonexperimental survey research tested the predicted relationship between LMX quality and OCB in a population of U.S.-based general merchandise and department store retail managers. Specifically, this study used the LMX-MDM (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) and the OCB Scale (Lee & Allen, 2002) to measure LMX quality using the multidimensional model against OCB directed toward the organization (OCBO) and the individual (OCBI). Multiple regression analysis supported the rejection of the null hypotheses for both research questions RQ1 and RQ2, confirming the relationship between dimensional LMX and OCB direction. The analysis also suggested that a greater relationship exists between the contribution dimension of LMX and OCBO than other dimensions. The data produced several challenges due to unmet assumptions, therefore an additional examination of the variables is recommended.

According to Katz and Kahn (1966) organizations need to create environments that encourage their members to go the extra mile and take on responsibilities beyond their contractual obligations. The leadership-making phase of LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) produces just such an opportunity for both leaders and followers. This study aligns with, and extends, existing knowledge regarding LMX and OCB. It does so by identifying a potential dimension that can best influence such an environment. Leaders that embrace relational exchanges within the organizational environment may gain an advantage over competitors that do not and increase the likelihood of followers participating in OCB.



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