Webster University

School of Business and Technology

Antecedents and Consequences of Supervisory Support: The Moderating Affects of Perceived Organizational Status of the Supervisor

By

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A Research Project Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Doctor of Management Degree

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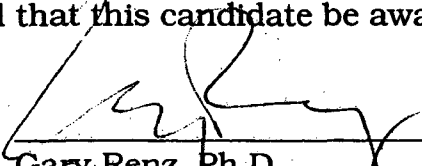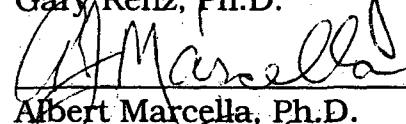
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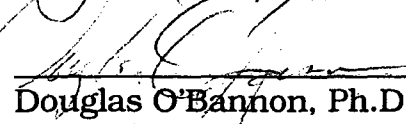
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We, the Doctoral Project Committee, do certify that the Doctor of Management candidate:

Dawn Guild

has satisfactorily completed all requirements for the degree of Doctor of Management in the Doctoral Program at Webster University, and do, therefore recommend that this candidate be awarded the degree of Doctor of Management.

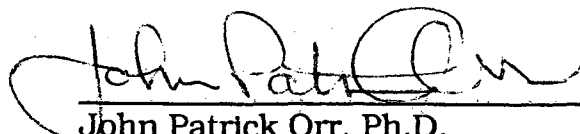Chair: _____   Date: 5/4/09
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CONCURRENCE:

I do concur with the recommendations of the Doctoral Project Committee as stated above.

_____
        John Patrick Orr, Ph.D.
        Director
        Doctor of Management Program

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this project to a few people who were truly influential in my motivation to complete this project. First and foremost are my parents and brothers who, throughout my life, have never wavered in their belief of my potential; their steady encouragement for my success was a solid inspiration to keep moving forward, I love you dearly.

Second, for the man in my life and my steadfast friends; although I'm sure they found it hard to believe I would ever finish, and were somewhat confounded in understanding exactly what it was I was doing, they provided the balance my life needed. Their ability to know when to leave me alone and when to drag me out to dinner, a movie, or the bar, was a godsend, and I will always be grateful. I love each of you like family.

Finally, although a non-human, this is also dedicated to my faithful canine. I would be remiss without acknowledging his role in this endeavor. Whether it was late nights with a pile of papers, or early mornings in front of the computer, he was forever by my side willing to wait for his share of the attention. Our long quiet walks not only relieved much built-up stress but allowed for a flash or two of different avenues of approach for tackling this endeavor. He will forever dwell in my heart.

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Abstract

This study investigated the relationships between transformational leadership, perceived supervisory support (PSS), perceptions of the organizational status of one's supervisor, affective commitment to the organization, and affective commitment to one's supervisor. In a sample of 139 respondents, transformational leadership was found to have a statistically significant relationship with PSS. PSS was found to have statistically significant relationship with both affective commitment to the organization and affective commitment to the supervisor, although the relationship was much smaller between PSS and affective commitment to the organization. PSS was hypothesized to function as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and the two targets of affective commitment. Analyses supported the hypothesis that PSS partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the supervisor; however analyses did not find that PSS mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the organization. In addition, the potential moderating effect of perceptions of the supervisor's organizational status on the relationship between PSS and the two types of affective commitment was studied. Hierarchical linear regression analyses found no interaction or moderating effect of PSS and perceptions of the supervisor's organizational status on affective commitment to the supervisor, but there was an interaction effect on affective commitment to the organization. Finally, the analyses found that affective commitment to one's supervisor mediated the effect of PSS on affective commitment to the organization.

Chapter 1: Introduction and Literature Review

An immense amount of research has been achieved in uncovering organizational

elements that positively affect employee attitudes and behaviors, which ultimately results

in their commitment and retention (Blau & Boal, 1989; Erickson & Roloff, 2007; Perryer

& Jordan, 2005; 1998; Steers, 1977; Vuuren et al., 2006). The supervisor is one of these

elements, and research supports the contention that they play an essential role in shaping

attitudes and behaviors (Becker et al., 1996; Chen, 2001; Becker et al., 1996). What

makes the supervisor a core element of positive employee outcomes is the focus of this

study - with employee perceptions of supervisory support being the driving force and

commitment being the consequence. Perceptions of supervisory support (PSS) are the

degree to which employees develop opinions that their supervisors value their

contribution, care about their well-being, and show supportive behaviors toward them

(Eisenberger et al., 2002). There have been mixed results in much of the literature

concerning PSS and its strength in influencing commitment. In addition, studies testing

particular leader behaviors which may bring about positive PSS are rare. Considering the

mixed results and a lack of specific leadership measurements in these studies, it is

deemed beneficial to further investigate the association between these concepts.

Problem Statement

There is much literature available on PSS and its consequences, yet negligible

literature available considering its predictors. Researchers claim that the leader and their

behaviors affect the level of PSS an employee will experience. Where this is a logical

claim, the testing and measurement of actual leader behaviors is inadequate.

Additionally, there have been mixed results surrounding the links between PSS and its' association with organizational commitment. These mixed results span through a wide spectrum, from clearly no association whatsoever, to strong positive associations.

The purpose of this study is to explore the causes and consequences of PSS; specifically, the effect of transformational leadership behaviors on PSS, and the dual consequences of PSS on affective commitment to the supervisor and affective commitment to the organization. Additional interest in this study is the strength of the supervisor's status within the organization and its moderating effects between PSS and the two commitment foci.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: What specific leader behaviors influence employee's perceptions of supervisory support?

Research Question 2: Can the supervisor and their behaviors lead subordinates to affective supervisory and organizational commitment?

Research Question 3: How significant is the role of the supervisor's status in affecting supervisory and organizational commitment?

Organizational Support: Perceived Organizational Support and Perceived Supervisor Support

This research investigates certain antecedents to and consequences of perceived supervisor support, as well as a moderator of the effects of perceived supervisor organizational status. The construct of "perceptions of supervisor support" (PSS) was originally proposed by Kottke and Sharafinski (1988) as an extension of a construct called Perceptions of Organizational Support (POS) that was originally proposed by Eisenberger and colleagues (1986). Because Kottke and Sharafinski did not provide a clear definition of PSS, most researchers today rely on Eisenberger et al.'s (2002) definition which states that employees "develop general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being" (p.565).

Eisenberger et al., (1986) introduced the idea of organizational support for employees and proposed the "perceptions of organizational support" (POS) construct, defining it as the employee's "global belief concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (p. 501). In addition, in this study they developed the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS). Since this initial study, numerous researchers have added to the organizational support literature with countless investigations into the antecedents and outcomes of perceptions of support (Dawley et al., 2007; Ferres et al., 2005; Loi et al., 2006; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Rhoades et al., 2001; Stinglhamber et al., 2006; Settoon & Liden, 1996; Tansky & Cohen, 2001; Wayne et al., 2002; Whitener, 2001).

Kottke and Sharafinski (1988) proposed that employees distinguish between support received from the organization and support received from their supervisor. They argued that both types of perceived support would "be important in terms of employee perceptions of being supported" (p. 1077). Hutchison (1997) was among the first to investigate the relationship between POS and PSS and states that "both management and the immediate supervisor form the basis for employee perceptions of support from the organization" (p. 169). Research into the PSS construct has found it to be related to, but different from, the "perceptions of organization support" (POS) construct (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchison, 1997; Rhoades et al., 2001). This has become a common assessment amongst researchers and can be linked to Levinson's (1965) position that actions exhibited by supervisors are viewed by employees as actions of the organization. Therefore, the support subordinates receive from their supervisors will have direct effects on POS as supervisors are viewed by subordinates as agents of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006).

Given that PSS is derived from and related to POS, to understand PSS one must also understand POS and its theoretical bases. Therefore, the next section describes the theoretical foundations of POS, POS as a construct, and how POS relates to PSS. Finally, prior research into the antecedents and consequences of PSS is described in detail.

Organizational Support Theory and POS

The foundation of this paper is rooted in organizational support theory; therefore, a synopsis of the concept is warranted. Organizational support theory is a relatively new

paradigm which developed after multiple studies were conducted concerning the causes

and consequences of employee perceptions of support (e.g., Aube et al., 2007; Bishop e

al., 2005; Cheng et al., 2003; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Eisenberger et al., 1986;

Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Hutchison, 1997; Settoon et al., 1996; Stinglhamber et al.,

2006; Tansky & Cohen, 2001; VanYperen et al., 1999; Wayne et al., 1997). The theory

proposes that employees acquire a sense of an entity's willingness to reward and assist

them in return for their work effort. Consequently, this attentiveness leads employees to

develop perceptions of support which, in turn, influences their attitudes and behaviors.

Organizational support theory reflects two principles. The first principle is based on

Levinson's (1965) discourse that employees view actions taken by agents of the

organization as representative of actions taken by the organization itself. His argument

responds to a belief that organizations have no life, and therefore, cannot relate to the

people within it. However, Levinson maintains that a transference occurs between

employee and organization, and that "people project upon organizations human qualities

and then relate to them as if the organization did in fact have human qualities" (377).

This occurs through a "generalized mode of behavior characteristic of organizational

agents as they act on behalf of the organization, together with the demonstration of the

organization's power, make it possible for transference phenomena to occur which gives

the organization a psychological reality" (380).

Levinson discusses this characterization of the organization having human qualities

as being further supported by, 1) the organization's legal, moral, and financial

responsibility for the actions of its agents; 2) its policies, norms, and culture for guiding

behavior; 3) its selection process which leads to a generalized mode of behavior and

continuity; and 4) by the extent with which power is exerted over employees. Interaction with agents of the organization coupled with the above, lead employees to view the organization in humanistic terms; employees "generalize from their feelings about people in the organization who are important to them, to the organization as a whole" (377).

Organizational support theory considers Levinson's assertion as a personification of the organization and that this personification is "assumed to represent an employee's distillation of views concerning all the other members who control that individual's material and symbolic resources" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 500). The theory argues that an employee's personification of the organization is what will lead to their global belief about the "extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501).

The second principle of organizational support theory surrounds the concept of social exchange. The study of social exchange has a long and varied history such as, social psychology (e.g., Gouldner, 1960), and sociology (e.g., Blau, 1964). Organizational support theory draws from the sociological perspective with much emphasis on Blau's (1964) discourse. Blau defines social exchange as "voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others" (p. 91). He goes further in stating that, "benefits involved in social exchange do not have an exact price in terms of a single quantitative medium of exchange . . ." (p. 94). It is this notion that leads Blau to view social exchange transactions as being dominated by unspecified obligations.

According to Blau (1964) social exchange involves the give and take of favors, and because social benefits have no price tags, when a favor is given, the recipient experiences a sense of obligation to return the favor, yet the precise feature and timing of the return is not stipulated. He states that, "social exchange . . . involves favors that create diffuse future obligations, not precisely specified ones, and the nature of the return cannot be bargained about but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it" (p. 93). This is what he terms unspecified obligations and goes further to discuss trust and reciprocity as essential elements of the concept.

Trust, as discussed by Blau (1964), is a crucial component of social relationships, and he alludes to the idea that it is what cements the ease of social exchange transactions. When people develop social relationships, an element of trust must be present to ensure that their giving will be returned in time. With unspecified obligations playing a pivotal role in this relationship, trusting behaviors must exist for the exchange process to continue, and because "there is no way to assure an appropriate return for a favor, social exchange requires trusting others to discharge their obligations" (Blau, 1964, p. 94). This relationship's continuance is based on the trusting nature within the association, for when the trust is compromised exchange processes will slow down or discontinue. With regards to reciprocity, Blau describes it as gestures of goodwill as it is ones felt obligation to return favors which create the relationship within the scope of social exchange. Blau (1964) states, "if we feel grateful and obligated to an associate for favors received, we shall seek to reciprocate his kindness by doing things for him" (p. 16).

Thus, social exchange relationships experience a reciprocal process with the give and take of favors and with obligations of return being left to the discretion of the players

within the relationship. Reasoning which ties social exchange to organizational support theory is the proposition that employees' perceived support from a particular entity will generate feelings of obligation to reciprocate to that entity as a return for the supportive behavior. As stated by Bishop et al., 2005, "when individuals perceive that organizations or teams care about their well-being, then they are inclined to reciprocate by putting forth greater effort on its behalf" (p. 155).

Relationship between POS and PSS

Studies linking POS and PSS have focused on how the strength of each construct may fluctuate with the change in strength of the other. For example, Maertz et al. (2007) studied the interactive effects of POS and PSS on turnover. Findings showed that the POS-turnover association was stronger when PSS was low and vice-versa. They explain that, "(W)hen the supervisor provides high support, POS becomes a less important predictor of turnover. (p. 1070). Erickson & Roloff's (2007) study mirrors these results finding that "when predicting organizational commitment subsequent to a downsizing, POS moderates the association between PSS and organizational commitment such that the relationship becomes stronger as the level of POS decreases" (p. 46). Additionally, studies have found that POS and PSS are distinct constructs with each having the capacity to positively affect followers' attitudes and behaviors (Hutchison, 1997; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003).

Antecedents of PSS: Transformational Leadership

In regards to the antecedents of PSS there is little research to draw from. Although these studies are limited in numbers, they have provided insight to the PSS phenomenon. Antecedents that have been found to positively associate with PSS are consideration

(Hutchison, 1997), participative decision-making (Hutchison, 1997; VanYperen et al., 1999), interactional justice (Stinglhamber et al., 2006), and intrinsically satisfying job conditions (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003).

Consistent with the importance of trust in social exchange and organizational support theories, trust is also important to PSS. Because trust is a crucial element of organizational support theory, researchers considered it judicious to study links between the two constructs. Interestingly, though the following studies parallel one another with constructs, their findings are in conflict. Stinglhamber et al. (2006) explored the links between PSS, interactional justice, and trust in the supervisor. Results showed that PSS mediated the relationship of interactional justice and trust in supervisor, denoting that PSS is an antecedent of trust in the supervisor. Neves and Caetano (2006) conducted a study to determine the relationship between PSS, interpersonal justice, trust in the supervisor, and affective commitment to the organization. Their results indicated that trust in the supervisor fully mediated the relationship between interpersonal justice and PSS, indicating here that trust is an antecedent of PSS. Differences in the results of these two studies may be due to the cross-sectional design of measurements. The researchers from both studies state that this design prevents the determination of causality. Trust could be a consequence or a cause of PSS (Stinglhamber et al., 2006).

Numerous studies have shown that, in general, leader behaviors directly affect employee Perceived Supervisor Support (Hutchison, 1997; Maertz et al., 2007; Rhoades et al., 2001; VanYpreen et al., 1999). Although these studies contend that the leader's behaviors influence PSS, specific leader behaviors have rarely been investigated or measured. Because of this, some researchers have suggested in their closing remarks that

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the measurement of specific leader behaviors and their impact on perceptions of support would be beneficial for future research (Griffin et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). This study will investigate the effect of transformational leadership on PSS.

Transformational leader behaviors "make followers more aware of the importance and values [sic] of task outcomes, activate the higher-order needs, and induce them to transcend self-interests for the sake of the organization" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 108). Although researchers differ somewhat in their definitions of transformational leadership and its associated behaviors, Podsakoff et al. (1990) define this phenomenon as the ability of leaders to "transform or change the basic values, beliefs, and attitudes of followers so that they are willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization" (p. 108).

Research into the transformational leadership and its consequences began in the late 1970s with much of its focus on specific leader behaviors and the development of theories (Bass et al., 1987; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House & Filley). Through the years transformational leadership has been found to induce positive employee behaviors and organizational outcomes (Bass, 1997; Dionne et al., 2004; Emery & Barker, 2007; Keller, 1992; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Stashevsky & Koslowsky, 2006; Walumbwa et al., 2005). Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) study was an examination of the effects of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behaviors mediated by trust in the leader. Findings showed that the effects of transformational leadership were indeed mediated through trust in the leader.

Although there are different models of transformational leadership behaviors, Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) model of transformational leadership behaviors and their definitions will be used in this study. The specific leader behaviors measured, and those adopted for the present study are 1) identifying and articulating a vision, 2) providing an appropriate model, 3) fostering the acceptance of group goals, 4) high performance expectations, 5) providing individualized support, and 6) intellectual stimulation. A short description of each behavior follows.

Identifying and Articulating a Vision: This dimension of transformational leadership deals with the leader's ability to build commitment for a notable vision of the future. It is "behavior on the part of the leader aimed at identifying new opportunities for his or her unit/division/company, and developing, articulating, and inspiring others with his or her vision of the future" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112). The leader's ability to inspire a vision of the future is essential; yet, more importantly is the transformational leader's ability to motivate employees toward embracing the vision and working toward attaining it.

Providing an Appropriate Model: This dimension is described as "behavior on the part of the leader that sets an example for employees to follow that is consistent with the values the leader espouses" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112). In other words it is the leader's capacity to 'walk-the-talk' to the extent that followers observe a consistent equivalence between the leader's words and their actions. It is this equivalence between the leader's words and actions that brings about a sense of trust in the leader (Butler, 1999; MacKenzie et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

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Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals: Podsakoff et al. (1990) describe this dimension as "behavior on the part of the leader aimed at promoting cooperation among employees and getting them to work together toward a common goal" (p. 112). An essential piece of a leader's effectiveness is their talent for enticing members to comprehend and seize objectives for success. Once understood and accepted, these group goals will guide member actions to collaborate toward goal accomplishment.

High Performance Expectations: High performance expectations are described as "behavior that demonstrates the leader's expectations for excellence, quality, and/or high performance on the part of followers" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112). This dimension describes the leader's conduct in conveying performance standards to employees.

Providing Individualized Support: Providing individualized support is "behavior on the part of the leader that indicates that he/she respects followers and is concerned about their personal feelings and needs" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112).

Intellectual Stimulation: Finally, this element of transformational leadership behavior is "behavior on the part of the leader that challenges followers to re-examine some of their assumptions about their work and rethink how it can be performed" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112).

This paper contends that transformational leadership will be positively related to PSS. One of the six types of transformational leadership behavior is providing individualized support to followers. Almost by definition, this leader behavior should directly influence employees' perceptions of their supervisor's support. In addition, trust has been found to be an outcome of transformational leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Trust has also been found to be positively related with PSS (Neves & Caetano, 2006), perhaps because trust is a core element of the social exchange process (Blau, 1964) and organizational support theory (Hutchison, 1997). Likewise, Wech (2002) found that the "trust context is a significant predictor of work-related behaviors and attitudes" (p.358) with supervisory relations being one of the measureable outcomes which can be easily paralleled to PSS. Therefore, logically, transformational leadership should influence PSS, perhaps with trust as a mediator, although trust is not measured in this study.

Based on the literature reviewed and the reasoning described above, the following proposition/hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership behaviors are positively related to employees' Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)

Consequences of PSS: Affective Organizational Commitment and Affective Commitment to the Supervisor

There are many possible consequences of perceptions of organizational and supervisory support, but employee commitment is especially likely to be associated with perceptions of organizational and supervisory support given the nature of organizational support theory. Social exchange theory, for instance, would predict employees would feel emotionally or affectively committed to the organization and its supervisors if they are treated well. Organizational support theory purports that the supervisor is viewed as an agent of the organization (Eisenberger, 2002) and thus employee behaviors and attitudes directed at the organization can, in part, be the result of supervisors' actions. Due to this view some researchers have speculated that perceptions of support from a supervisor would be transferred to the organization, which would influence employees'

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organizational commitment. Similarly, affective commitment to one's supervisor would refer to emotional attachment to and identification with one's supervisor, just the target is changed from the organization to the supervisor. This research focuses on the relationship between PSS and those two types of affective commitment: affective organizational commitment and affective commitment to one's supervisor.

Overview of Affective Organizational Commitment

In the last thirty years researchers have witnessed many different definitions of organizational commitment. This lack of conformity has also led to inconsistencies and confusion, not only with the definition but with measurements utilized (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The following is a chronological sample of organizational commitment definitions through time:

- The process through which individual interests become attached to the carrying out of socially organized patterns of behavior which are seen as fulfilling those interests, as expressing the nature and needs of the person (Kanter, 1968, p. 500).

- An attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization (Sheldon, 1971, p. 143)

- Commitment is primarily a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alterations in side bets or investments over time (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p. 556).

- The strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604).

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- A state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement (Salancik, 1977, p. 62).

As can be seen there are a multitude of definitions to draw from when exploring organizational commitment. Porter et al. (1974) stated that organizational commitment can be described by the following three features: "a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership" (p. 604).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also recognize attachment as the critical component of commitment, consisting of three dimensions: compliance, identification and internalization. Internalization refers to value congruence between the employee and the organization. Identification refers to the employee's desire to be affiliated with the organization because he or she identifies with the organization, like a type of social identity. Compliance refers to employees' involvement based on getting extrinsic rewards for desired activities.

Many studies of organizational commitment have been behavioral in nature and focus on the employee's attainment of commitment after engaging in behaviors which bind the individual to the firm (Hutchison, 1997; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980; Salancik, 1977). An example of behavioral commitment given by Hutchison (1997), states that "an employee who attends specialized training offered by the organization may view those skills as being specific to that particular organization, which makes the employee less

desirable to other organizations" (p. 161). In contrast, affective commitment comes about through employees' experiences at work which fulfill their "psychological needs to feel comfortable within the organization and competent in the work-role" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 4).

Steers (1977) conducted a study of antecedents and outcomes of employee commitment to the organization. He investigated the effects of three antecedent variables, personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences. Using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday & Steers, 1979) as a measure for commitment he established that work experiences were "more closely associated with commitment than the other two sets of variables" (p. 51). Although a clear definition of work experiences is not to be found it is described by Steers (1977) as "a major socializing force and as such represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organization" (p. 48).

This definition relates closely to Allen and Meyer's (1990) research where they found that work experiences significantly correlated with affective commitment stating that "employees who felt comfortable in their roles and who felt competent in the job, expressed greater affective attachment to the organization" (p. 13). In addition, it is noted that there are a surplus of variables falling under the category of work experiences and after their examination of the research Meyer and Allen (1987) state that these experiences "communicate that the organization is supportive of its employees, treats them fairly, and enhances their sense of personal importance and competence by appearing to value their contributions to the organization" (p. 46).

In Meyer and Allen's (1991) review of the literature they identified three distinct topics in the vast definitions of commitment: commitment as an affective attachment to the organization, commitment as a perceived cost associated with leaving the organization, and commitment as an obligation to remain in the organization. They referred to these as affective, continuance, and normative commitment, respectively. However, common to all three components is the view that "commitment is a psychological state that a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) was developed in response to concerns relating to the many differences between conceptualizations and measurements of the construct (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Cook & Wall, 1980; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Reichers, 1985; Steers, 1977). These differences "involve the psychological state reflected in commitment, the antecedent conditions leading to its development, and the behaviours (other than remaining) that are expected to result from commitment" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1).

Meyer and Allen have contended that "commitment can take different forms, and it is therefore, imperative that researchers state clearly what form or forms of commitment they are interested in and that they ensure that the measures they use are appropriate for the intended purpose" (Meyer et al., 1993, p. 538). However, affective commitment has been shown to be correlated with prior conceptualizations of organizational commitment. For example, Meyer and Allen included the OCQ along with their affective commitment scale and found that the OCQ correlated strongly with the Meyer and Allen affective

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commitment scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Meyer et al., 1991).

Several researchers have affirmed that affective commitment is an emotion-based attitude

that increases an employee's desire to work towards the goals of the organization and

increases the desire to remain with the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Porter et

al., 1974; Reichers, 1985). In summary, the most important commitment component for

this study is affective commitment.

Relationships between PSS and Different Types of Affective Commitments

Perceptions of organizational support (POS) and supervisory support (PSS) are

perceptions of the work experience, and thus should be associated with organizational

and supervisory commitment. Studies examining specific work experience variables as

antecedents to affective organizational commitment include perceptions of organizational

support (Aube et al., 2007; Dawley et al., 2007; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rhoades et al.,

2001), procedural justice (Liden et al, 2003; Loi et al., 2006) participative decision-

making (Scott-Ladd et al., 2005), supervisory communication (Vuuren et al., 2006),

leadership behaviors (Barling et al., 1996; Niehoff et al., 1990; Perryer & Jordan, 2005;

Walumba et al., 2005), and perceptions of supervisory support (Erickson & Roloff, 007) .

Research results examining PSS and its effect on organizational commitment have

been mixed. Some researchers have found positive associations between PSS and

organizational commitment (Dawley et al., 2007; Erickson & Roloff, 2007; Gagnon &

Michael, 2004; Gaertner, 1999; Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Neves & Caetano, 2006) while

others have obtained overall negative results (Dixon et al., 2005; Hutchison, 1997; Kidd

& Smewing, 2001; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Hutchison (1997) found that

PSS had no direct effects on commitment finding only indirect effects being mediated by POS. Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) also found that PSS did not influence organizational commitment, its affects were only associated with supervisory commitment. Dixon et al., (2005) investigated several factors to determine which were antecedent to organizational commitment finding that PSS was not associated with organizational commitment. Finally, Kidd and Smewing (2001) stated in their discussion that overall PSS was unrelated to organizational commitment; however, this was confusing as their data clearly showed a positive association.

In a meta-analysis of the causes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, Gaertner (1999) concluded that supervisory support was directly related to organizational commitment. This was supported through a study of wood production employees by Gagnon and Michael (2004), which concluded with findings of positive links between supervisory support and organizational commitment. Dawley et al., (2007) showed that PSS had significant direct effects on organizational commitment, although POS was a stronger predictor than PSS. Likewise, Erickson and Roloff (2007) found that PSS was a significant predictor of organizational commitment, but it interacted with POS. PSS had a greater effect when POS was low. Finally, Joiner and Bakalis (2006) obtained support for the link between these constructs in their study of university staff members, stating that, "a supervisor who offers support, shares concerns and provides useful job-related information is likely to have a positive influence on casual academics' organizational commitment" (p. 449).

These inconsistencies may be due, in part, to the measurements utilized. Only two of the above studies used the SPSS to measure PSS (Hutchison, 1997 and Stinglhamber &

Vandenberghe, 2003) and both obtained negative results. The other studies used an assortment of questions pulled from other research to measure supervisor support. These differences in instruments may have influenced the results. Another study finding a negative relationship (Dixon et al., 2005) used respondents who reported to more than one supervisor, which may have confounded the study.

In addition to the above studies which have found positive associations between PSS and organizational commitment, other research can be linked to this concept. For instance, Allen and Meyer, 1990 and Steers, 1977, determined that work experiences are positively associated with organizational commitment. Their use of the 'work experience' construct correlates strongly with PSS as they consider it to reflect the level of support and fair treatment an employee receives. This support and fair treatment is embedded in PSS as it is, again, "general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 2002, p.565). In addition, because many researchers agree that supervisors are viewed as agents of the organization, it is proposed that support received from the supervisor will transcend to organizational commitment.

Research into the relationship between POS and affective organizational commitment supports the proposition that PSS is related to affective organizational commitment. The constructs are similar in nature, only the source of support differs. As noted by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) in their meta-analysis, affective commitment is a consequence of POS. They explained the reasoning for this observation.

> On the basis of the reciprocity norm, POS should create a felt obligation to care about the organization's welfare (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, &

Rhoades, 2001). The obligation to exchange caring for caring (Foa & Foa, 1980) should enhance employees' affective commitment to the personified organization. POS should also increase affective commitment by fulfilling such socioemotional needs as affiliation and emotional support (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Such need fulfillment produces a strong sense of belonging to the organization, involving the incorporation of employees' membership and role status into their social identity. POS should thus contribute to employees' sense of purpose and meaning. Additionally, Shore and Tetrick (1991) suggested that POS might reduce feelings of entrapment (i.e., continuance commitment) that occur when employees are forced to stay with an organization because of the high costs of leaving. (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 701).

The idea of "caring for caring" should apply equally to supervisors who show support for their employees. Based on the literature reviewed and the reasoning described above, the following proposition/hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) will be positively related to employees' Affective <u>Organizational</u> Commitment

In addition to proposing that Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) is positively related to affective organizational commitment, it is proposed that PSS is positively related to a different target or focus of commitment: the employee's supervisor. A great deal of research into commitment has focused on overall organizational commitment without investigating different targets (or foci) of commitment within the organization. This study will investigate both targets of affective commitment.

Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) looked at employees' "commitment to their supervisor," which they defined as "an attachment characterized by an identification and emotional attachment to the supervisor (Clugston et al., 2000)" (p. 253). Because they defined this type of commitment in terms of "emotional attachment" clearly they

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intended this construct to refer to an affective commitment. (This construct is sometimes referred to as "supervisory commitment," but for clarity we refer to the construct as "affective commitment to the supervisor" because "supervisory commitment" could refer to the supervisor's commitment to something, not employees' commitment to their supervisors.)

Researchers have found that employees' commitments to their supervisors can be an invaluable asset to organizations; as the following statements attest:

- "Researchers and human resource professionals concerned with employee performance should focus their efforts on commitment to supervisors rather than on that to organizations" (Becker et al., 1996, p. 477).

- "In business organizations, the supervisor (as an impersonal entity) is a more important factor in influencing employee attitudes at work than the organization" (Chen, 2001, p. 657)

- "If the organization would like to increase employees' job performance and OCB, improving the relationship between supervisors and employees is key" (Cheng et al., 2003, p. 329).

- "Organizations seeking to encourage certain forms of citizenship behaviours may need to develop commitment to the supervisor and to co-workers" (Redman & Snape, 2005, p. 324).

- "A program of training and rewarding supervisors . . . for being supportive, and for presenting the organization as supportive, is worth serious consideration as a method for reducing turnover" (Maertz et al., 2007, p. 1072).

Studies investigating commitment to one's supervisor are often conducted within the scope of organizational commitment as a multi-foci concept with the supervisor being measured as one of many foci in the workplace. For example, many studies rely on Reichers (1985) idea of there being multiple commitments within an organization (see Becker, 1992; Becker et al., 1996; Cheng et al., 2003; Siders et al., 2001). Reichers believes that organizational commitment is a composite of commitments to many different groups that make up the organization. He states that "multiple identifications with various groups both inside and outside the organization constitute multiple commitments" (p. 469). This implies that to him organizational commitment is the result of, and determined by, individual's commitments to different targets or foci in the organization, one of which is the supervisor.

Bentein et al. (2002) investigated whether organizational outcomes were mediated by overall organizational commitment or through commitments (attachments) to more specific foci, such as supervisors or coworkers. In their study they found that "it is the local entities, and by extension, commitment to them, which are most relevant for predicting behavioural responses at work" (p. 355). Their study showed that employees develop commitments to the most proximal entity, and further, they display behaviors which directly benefit that entity. Other studies have obtained similar results when studying proximal relations and work outcomes. Becker and colleagues (1996) found that commitment to the supervisor was significantly related to performance and state that "local foci are psychologically more proximal to employees and, therefore, have a greater impact on behavior in organizations" (p. 477). Siders et al. (2001) discovered that supervisory commitment explained variance in job performance well beyond that of

organizational commitment finding support "for the consistency of the implications of multiple internal foci of commitment" (p. 576).

Hunt and Morgan (1994) researched the relationships among organizational commitment and commitment to other targets or foci in organizational settings. They found that employees' "commitments to their work-group" were not related to their levels of organizational commitment. On the other hand, Hunt and Morgan found that "commitment to a supervisor" was positively related to organizational commitment. Overall, they found that the strength of the relationship between organizational commitment and other foci of commitment increased "as the focus of a constituency-specific commitment becomes more closely associated with the organization" (p. 1581). Alternatively, they explained that "as the conceptual distance between a constituency and what a given employee views as the organization expands, the contribution of that constituency to global organization commitment decreases" (1583).

Thus, Hunt and Morgan (1994) appear to argue that employees do not view their coworkers or work-group as representing the overall organization. Therefore, commitment to a work-group would not be expected to influence employees' commitment to the overall organization. On the other hand, the employees could properly see their supervisor as being closely affiliated with, and representative of, the organization. These findings are consistent with researchers who think employees view their supervisors as agents of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965) and therefore employees' commitments to their supervisors will be imputed to the organization as a whole.

This does not mean that commitments to work groups or coworkers are unimportant. To the contrary, prior research has found that high levels of commitment arise through reciprocal relationships (Bentein et al., 2002; Blau, 1964; Lewin, 1943; Mueller & Lawler, 1999; Redman & Snape, 2005), such as those in a work group. Similarly, Lawler (1992) believed that "actors develop stronger affective ties to subgroups within a social system rather than to that social system" (p. 334). This research is consistent with these findings because reciprocal relationships also exist between employees and their supervisors, but not between an inanimate object like an organization and a person. In short, a distinction must be made between affective commitment to a work group or coworkers and commitment to one's supervisor when trying to predict affective organizational commitment.

There is little research relating PSS to employees' commitment to their supervisors. Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) conducted an in-depth study of the links between perceived support and affective commitment. One major finding was that employees are able to distinguish between differing entities of support and thus form their commitments to those entities accordingly; more precisely, "organizations and supervisors are distinct sources of perceived support and separate targets of commitment" (p. 264). Of interest was the finding that PSS was an antecedent to supervisor commitment, in that, "affective commitment to the supervisor was significantly related to turnover and mediated the effect of perceived supervisor support on turnover" (p. 264). However, POS did not affect commitment to the supervisor and PSS did not influence organizational commitment. Consistent with this finding, in their meta-analysis of social exchange research Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) concluded that "relative to organizational

support, supervisory support is the better predictor of leader-relevant constructs, such as commitment to the supervisor" (p. 886).

Other prior research relates indirectly to our proposition that PSS is positively related to employees' commitments to their supervisors. Bishop et al., 2005 found that the "level of support employees receive from an entity predicts the level of commitment they have for that same entity" (p. 175). Mueller and Lawler (1999) found that "the location of the foci in the total organizational structure and the responsibility of these foci for producing the employee's work conditions are important in determining the employee's level of commitment to the foci" (p. 341). To make this rather obscure passage clearer, in this case the relevant focus is the supervisor. Thus, Mueller and Lawler's statement would be that a supervisor's location in the organization's hierarchy (which affects power) and his or her responsibility for the employee's working conditions jointly influence employees' commitments to their supervisors.

Based on the literature reviewed and the reasoning described above, the following proposition/hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) will be positively related to employee Affective Commitment to their Supervisor.

Relationships between Transformational Leadership, PSS and Affective Commitments

Many studies have found that transformational leadership is positively related to affective organizational commitment or organizational commitment (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, Fetter, 1990). However, we have not been able to find any studies investigating whether Perceived

Supervisor Support mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment and affective commitment to the supervisor. Notwithstanding this absence of supporting literature, logically if Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 (above) are correct, then the effect of transformational leadership on both types of affective commitment should be partially mediated by employees' Perceived Supervisor Support.

Moreover, one of the six behaviors in Podsakoff's (1990) taxonomy of transformational leader behavior is individualized support. Quite likely, the effect of individualized supportive behaviors by a supervisor will be to increase employees' perceptions of supervisor support. Because prior research indicates that Perceived Supervisor Support is positively related to affective organizational commitment, then logically the effect of "individualized support" on affective organizational commitment is likely to be mediated by perceptions of the supervisor's support, as reflected in the Perceived Supervisor Support construct. Perceived Supervisor Support is also likely to mediate the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and affective commitment to different targets, such as the affective commitment to a supervisor. Because the source of the supportive behaviors is the supervisor, logically employees' affective commitment will be directed at the supervisor.

In addition, Harrison and Hubbard (1998) found that employees' organizational commitment was positively related to the supportive behaviors of their supervisors. Although this does not show that the positive effect of transformational leadership on affective commitments to the organization and supervisor will be mediated by Perceived Supervisor Support, it does support links between affective organizational commitment

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and individualized supportive behaviors by a transformational leader (supervisor) and Perceived Supervisor Support.

On the other hand, there is no reason to believe the effect of transformational leadership on affective organizational commitment and affective commitment to a supervisor is <u>completely</u> mediated by Perceived Supervisor Support. In fact, researchers found that trust and satisfaction are mediators of the effects of transformational leadership on different outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff, 1990). Therefore we propose that the effect of transformational leadership on affective organizational commitment is only <u>partially</u> mediated by employees Perceived Supervisor Support.

Based on the literature reviewed and the reasoning described above, the following proposition/hypothesis is proposed:

> **Hypothesis 4:** The effects of Transformational leadership behaviors on a) Affective Organizational Commitment and b) Affective Commitment to their Supervisors are partially mediated by employees' Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS).

Relationships between PSS and Affective Commitments will be Moderated by Perceived Organizational Status of the Supervisor

It is further proposed that Perceptions of the Organizational Status of their Supervisor will moderate the association between PSS and employees' affective organizational commitment. Employee perceptions' of a supervisor's status within the organization allows them to determine the supervisor's ability to provide them with resources while operating in their best interest. Employee perceptions' of a supervisor's status within the organization was defined by Eisenberger et al. (2002) in terms of 3

dimensions: "employees' perceptions concerning (a) the organization's positive valuation of the supervisor's contributions and its concern about the supervisor's well-being, (b) the supervisor's influence in important organizational decisions, and (c) the autonomy and authority accorded the supervisor in his or her job responsibilities." (p. 566).

When employees observe that the organization values the supervisor and places them in good standing they view this as a positive exchange relationship. Tangirala et al. (2007) describe this relationship as a critical factor of the supervisor's status and they go further in stating that it has great influential abilities on subordinate attitudes toward the organization. Thus, it is proposed here that perceptions of the supervisor's status will play a significant role in the link between PSS and organizational commitment.

Although there is not a copious amount of research to draw from in this area, what is available is quite significant. House and Filley (1971) draw from Likert (1961) when they state that "upward influence of the superior is seen as a measure of his ability to control resources for the subordinate work group and to represent the work group in its dealings with the broader organization system" (p. 422). Where status and upward influence are closely related Eisenberger et al. (2002) uses 'influence' as a definitive measure of the supervisor's status. As stated earlier, Eisenberger et al. (2002) describes perceptions of supervisor's organizational status as the "employees' perceptions concerning (a) the organization's positive valuation of the supervisor's contributions and its concern about the supervisor's well-being, (b) the supervisor's influence in important organizational decisions, and (c) the autonomy and authority accorded the supervisor in his or her job responsibilities." (p. 566). These three dimensions, as viewed by the subordinate, will

not only affect their impression of the organization's supportive behavior, but also the subordinate's judgment of their supervisor's effectiveness.

In the study conducted by Eisenberger et al. (2002) it was found that the "relationship between PSS and POS was greater for employees who perceived their supervisor to have high informal status within the organization" (p. 571). This finding was supported by Tangirala et al. (2007) who found that "a supervisor's exchange relationship with his or her boss – presumably an important determinant of the status of the supervisor – influences not only POS but also other employee attitudes toward the organization" (p. 318). Erdogan and Enders (2007) determined that a supervisor's POS holds tremendous importance in enhancing subordinate's attitudes and behaviors. They found that, "even though the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction was positive, the strength of the relationship varied depending on supervisor POS" (p. 327), indicating that the relationship between the supervisor and upper management had direct effects on subordinate outcomes.

Much of the research on supervisory influence and status can be linked to Pelz (1952) who found that employees were most receptive to a supervisor's supportive efforts only if they were seen as having upward influence. He states that the leader behaviors "will tend to raise employee satisfaction only if the supervisor has enough influence to make these behaviors pay off in terms of actual benefits for employees" (p. 216). Anderson and Tolson (1991) tested the Pelz effect with the construct of leader supportive behaviors. They found that supportive behaviors received from leaders with upward influence reinforced cooperation within the work group. However, "supportive behaviors from non-influential leaders had minimal impact on member's feelings of group

cooperation" (p. 69). Trempe et al., 1985, found this to be true in their study of blue collar workers. They investigated the strength of supervisory gender versus supervisory influence and found that supervisory influence was more significant in predicting employee satisfaction. They state that "the sex of the supervisor might be a less salient determinant of the perceptions that the subordinates hold of the supervisor, whereas a more relevant dimension might well be its consequences – in this case the perceived upwards influence" (p. 46). The basic principle behind these findings is that supervisors will be hard pressed to influence employees if they are not perceived to possess influential abilities outside the workgroup. The supervisor's lack of influential abilities will, in the employee's eyes, downgrade their status within the organization, and ultimately negate the supervisor's efforts to instill satisfaction.

Based on the literature reviewed and the reasoning described above, the following proposition/hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: Employees' Perceptions of the Organizational Status of their Supervisor's moderates the relationship between PSS and employees' Affective <u>Organizational</u> Commitment.

Research was unavailable to directly support the proposition that employees' Perceptions of the Organizational Status of their Supervisor moderates the relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) and employees' affective commitment to their supervisors. Although Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) found that PSS influenced employees' affective commitments to their supervisors, they did not investigate any interactions. However, organizational support theory logically supports this proposition that the impact of PSS on employee commitment to their supervisors

may be enhanced by the employee's Perceptions of their Supervisor's Status in the organization. If employees view their supervisor as having good status in the organization they will, 1) perceive the supervisor as being valued and cared about by the organization; 2) perceive the supervisor as having upward influence in affecting organizational decisions; and 3) perceive the supervisor as having the authority and autonomy to enact their job responsibilities. It is proposed that these factors will form the employee's views of their supervisor's status and will moderate the relationship of PSS and supervisory commitment.

There are some studies that indirectly support this proposition. One study was conducted by Eisenberger et al. (2002), who found that the association between PSS and POS was stronger for employees who viewed their supervisory as having high status within the organization. Although this study shows that the supervisor's status is a moderator between PSS and POS, it was not shown to moderate the PSS and employees' affective commitment to their supervisor. Other researchers have found that a supervisor's upward influence is essential in linking employee's perceptions of the supervisor and their attitudes and behaviors (Anderson & Tolson, 1991; Erdogan & Enders, 2007; House & Filley, 1971; Pelz, 1952; Trempe et al., 1985).

Based on the literature reviewed and the reasoning described above, the following proposition/hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 6: Employees' Perceptions of the Organizational Status of their Supervisor's moderates the relationship between PSS and employees' Affective Commitment to their <u>Supervisors</u>.

Combining these hypotheses, the overall model in this research is shown in Figure 1.
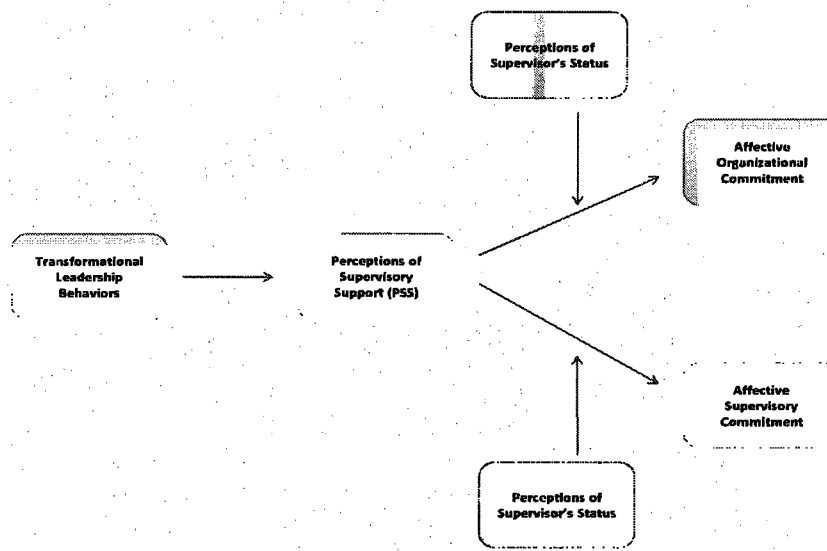
Figure 1

As shown in Figure 1, it is proposed that Perceived Supervisor Support mediates the

relationships between transformational leader behaviors and affective organizational

commitment and affective commitment to the supervisor. The reasoning was that

transformational leader behaviors, specifically individualized support, will influence

employee's Perceptions of Supervisor Support, which in turn will influence the two types

of affective commitment.

However, the prior research suggests an alternative model as well. Arguably, the

reason supervisors' supportive behaviors are positively related to affective organizational

commitment is because, as discussed previously, employees view action taken by agents

of the organization, such as supervisors, to be representative of the organization itself

(Levinson, 1965). If organizational commitment is derived from employees' perceptions

about their supervisors, then affective commitment to the supervisor may be a proximal

cause of affective organizational commitment. This makes affective commitment to a supervisor a mediator between Perceived Supervisor Support and Affective Organizational Commitment.

Based on the literature reviewed and the reasoning described above, the following proposition/hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 7: Affective Commitment to a <u>Supervisor</u> will mediate the relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) and Affective <u>Organizational</u> Commitment.

This leads to the alternative theoretical model diagrammed in Figure 2.
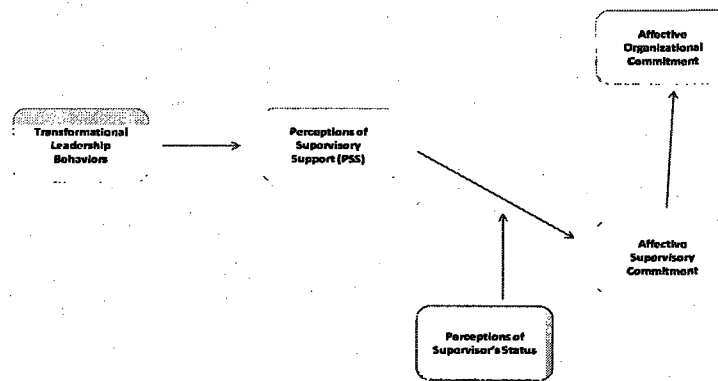
Figure 2

Chapter 2: Methodology

Research Setting and Participants

This study was conducted at a mid-size Credit Union (CU) and an Army element located in the St. Louis Metropolitan area. The CU employs approximately 280 people and has fifteen brick and mortar branch locations. Participants from the Army were assigned within one department of a much larger organization. Their function is mainly human resource actions for all Army Reserve soldiers world-wide. There are approximately 130 people assigned to this department with a military and civilian mix in personnel.

All participants of this research project were on a voluntary basis. Both companies were initially contacted by a member of their upper management informing them of the pending project with emphasis on the fact that participation was strictly voluntary. The researcher hand-delivered surveys to one person in the Human Resource department at the Credit Union. Surveys were delivered to four supervisors in the Army department. A letter of introduction was attached which included an explanation of the study while also stressing that the study was voluntary. The letter of introduction also stressed need for completion of all items and the assurance that surveys will not be distributed nor communicated with anyone other than the research team.

There were clear lines of authority within each department of the CU as well as the Army, so there was no confusion with the survey questions concerning the employee's supervisor. Participants were required to not only annotate their length of service with their perspective organizations, but also their tenure with their supervisor. Personnel

within the CU and the Army have the opportunity to move to vacancies within other departments and of course this creates a new supervision chain. Therefore, tenure within individual departments will be essential to obtain realistic results.

Measurements

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership behaviors were measured using items derived from Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory (TLI). The wording of some of the items was modified without changing the meaning of the items. However, the original items that were reversed scored were changed to straight scoring because of problems associated with reversed-scored, or negatively-worded, questions. In addition, the scales were limited to three items to shorten the overall survey. Items were removed when they overlapped with measures of the endogenous variables in the model because independent variables should not ask about the same concept later being predicted. Items were removed that seemed redundant with other items, or which were somewhat confusing. The scales and items for rating the direct supervisor are shown below. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each item on a 1 to 5 points Likert-typed scale. The items can be summated to create subscales for each type of behavior and overall transformational leadership.

Articulating a Vision (derived from Podsakoff et al.(1990) scale)

    1. Has compelling ideas about how to change the way we work.

    2. Inspires me with his or her plans for the workplace.

    3. Offers an attractive vision for the future of our work group.

Providing an appropriate model (derived from Podsakoff et al.(1990) scale)

4. Leads by "doing" rather than simply by "telling."

5. Sets a good example for how employees should act if we are to achieve our goals.

6. "Walks the talk," or actually does what he or she says employees should be doing.

Fostering the acceptance of group goals (derived from Podsakoff et al.(1990) scale)

7. Encourages employees to be "team players."

8. Inspires a team spirit among employees.

9. Fosters collaboration within work groups.

High performance expectations (derived from Podsakoff et al.(1990) scale)

10. Communicates that he or she expects outstanding work from all employees.

11. Insists on high-quality work from me.

12. Insists on high performance from me and the other employees.

Provides individualized support (derived from Podsakoff et al.(1990) scale)

13. Is concerned about my needs at work.

14. Shows respect for me.

15. Considers my feelings at work.

Intellectual stimulation (derived from Podsakoff et al.(1990) scale)

16. Challenges me to rethink my ideas about how to perform my job.

17. Asks me to think about new ways for the work group to accomplish its goals.

18. Asks me to be creative at work.

Three new items were added to the original TLI to reflect the employee's perceptions of the supervisor's confidence in the subordinates' abilities to meet high performance expectations. This change is based on Podsakoff's comments that the original TLI was flawed in that it asked about high performance expectations without also measuring whether the leader also showed confidence that the followers could attain those high performance expectations (Podsakoff et al., 1990). For example, Podsakoff found that high performance expectations were negatively related to trust, which was inconsistent with transformational leadership ideas. Transformational leaders not only set high performance expectations, but their leadership style also tells followers that he or she is confident they can meet those expectations. Podsakoff noted, in retrospect, that his original measures tapped high performance expectations, but there were no items tapping the leader's confidence in the followers. We addressed this shortcoming by creating a simple three-item scale measuring the extent to which the leader conveyed confidence in the followers. New items are added instead of simply adding the clause to existing items to avoid creating questions that tap two difference constructs: setting high performance expectations and confidence in the subordinates.

Shows confidence in subordinates (new scale)

19. Shows confidence in my ability to perform my job well.

20. Has faith that I will achieve my work-related goals.

21. Shows confidence that I will put forth the effort necessary to accomplish tasks he or she asks me to do.

The TLI does not measure charisma or idealized influence. Antonakis and House (2002) defined idealized influence as "attributed charisma," or "the follower attribution"

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about the leader as a result of how they perceive the leader's power, confidence, and transcendent ideals. "This is the emotional component of leadership, which theoretically shifts follower self-interest toward the interest of the greater good" (p. 9). To pick up that dimension of transformational leadership, we created the following three items:

Idealized influence (new scale)

22. Is charismatic.

23. Inspires my loyalty.

24. Communicates admirable ideals and values.

To tap transactional leadership, we used items measuring contingent reward behaviors by the leader. These items were derived from items used by Podsakoff et al. (1990) in the original TLI to measure contingent rewards.

Contingent Reward (derived from Podsakoff et al.(1990) scale)

25. Gives me positive feedback when I perform well.

26. Recognizes when my work is good.

27. Praises employees when they do a good job.

Items from each scale alternated throughout in this section of the survey.

Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)

Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) was measured using a subset of the items in Kottke and Sharafinski's (1988) Survey of Perceived Supervisory Support (SPSS). This instrument was developed by simply modifying Eisenberger, et al.'s (1986) instrument measuring POS by changing the word "organization" with the word "supervisor." A sub-set of items were chosen to shorten the scale. To keep the scale balanced, three items

tapping the degree to which leaders value the follower's contributions and three items tapping the leader's concern for the follower's well-being were used in the scale. Items were chosen based on clarity, avoiding redundancy within the scale, and to avoid using items that very closely reflected leader behavior items. Some wording was slightly modified, but the item measured the same idea.

1. My supervisor values my contributions to the well-being of our organization. (Value)

2. My supervisor appreciates extra effort from me at work.(Value)

3. My supervisor takes pride in my work accomplishments. (Value)

4. My supervisor really cares about my well-being. (Well-being)

5. Help is available from my supervisor when I have a work problem. (Well-being)

6. My supervisor is willing to help me when I need a special favor. (Well-being)

Affective Organizational Commitment and Affective Commitment to the Supervisor

Affective organizational commitment and affective commitment to the Supervisor were measured using items based on items in the affective commitment subscale created by Allen and Meyer (1990) and organizational commitment items in Bishop and Scott (2000). Items were reworded to avoid redundancy within the scale and to avoid redundancy with items used in other scales. Items were also selected based on how much they directly tapped commitment and avoided tapping antecedents and consequences of commitment, which are commonly included in most commitment scales. Respondents

were asked to indicate how much they agreed with each statement using a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale. The items will be summated to create affective commitment scores for both the organization and the supervisor. To shorten the questionnaire and clearly differentiate commitment to the organization from commitment to the supervisor, we used the following format.

Example

My XYZ are similar to the XYZ of:

My supervisor	1 Strongly Disagree	②	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
This company	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	④	5 Strongly Agree

Five items for each type of commitment were used in the questionnaire. The items were:

Question	Source
My values are similar to the values of	Bishop & Scott (2000) modified
I feel a strong sense of commitment to	Based on Allen & Meyer (1991)
I speak very highly of ___ to my friends	Bishop & Scott (2000) modified
I feel emotionally attached to	Based on Allen & Meyer (1991)
I strongly related to and identify with	Based on Allen & Meyer (1991)

Perceptions of the Supervisor's Status

Perceptions of the Supervisor's Status was measured using items from Eisenberger et al., (2002) scale. This instrument measured 1) how much the organization values the leader, 2) how much influence the leader has with his or her superiors, and 3) how much autonomy the leader has to run his or her unit. There were 12 items in the original scale, but only nine items were used to shorten the questionnaire. To keep the scale balanced,

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three items from each category or subscale were used in the survey. Respondents were asked to indicate how much they agreed with each statement using a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale. The items were summated to create an overall score for Perceptions of the Supervisors' status. The items and respective scales are shown below (VAL refers to the organization valuing the leader, INFL refers to the leader having influence, and AUT refers to the leader having autonomy).

1. The organization holds my supervisor in high regard. (VAL)

2. The organization values my supervisor's contributions. (VAL)

3. If my supervisor quit, the organization would try to persuade him/her to stay. (VAL)

4. The organization gives my supervisor the chance to make important decisions. (INFL)

5. My supervisor influences decisions made by upper management. (INFL)

6. The organization consults my supervisor when deciding on new policies and procedures. (INFL)

7. The organization gives my supervisor the authority to try new things.(AUT)

8. The organization supports decisions made by my supervisor. (AUT)

9. The organization allows my supervisor to run things the way he/she wants. (AUT)

Marker Variables

Common method variance is a concern when measuring all the variables with a single self-report instrument at one time. To help account for any common method

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variance, and thus allow for statistical controls, we added 3 items that measure the respondent's perceptions of task structure, specifically degree of routine and standardization. Task structure should be unrelated to any of the other constructs measured in the questionnaire. These items were appended to the end of the statements about transformational leader behaviors and were measured using the same 1 to 5 point Likert-type scale used for the leader behaviors.

The issues I face on a daily basis are usually similar in nature.

I am usually able to follow the same steps to deal with most of my day-to-day tasks.

In general, there is a correct way to resolve the problems I face on a daily basis.

This type of conceptually unrelated variable is called a "marker" variable (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). The rationale behind including this scale is that cognitive complexity should be conceptually unrelated to the other constructs measured and thus there should be no correlation in theory. Because the construct is unrelated to other constructs, the smallest correlation between this marker variable and the other scale variables gives a measure of the degree of common method variance. Not only does a marker variable give an idea of the extent to which common method variance is a problem, but it can be used to statistically control for common method variance.

Control Variables

Three control variables were used to reduce the unexplained variance in affective commitment: tenure, and full-time/part-time status.

Length of time you have worked for this company? _____ years _____ months

Do you currently work full time or part time? ___ Full time ____ Part time

How long have you worked for your present supervisor? ____ years
_____months

Researchers have found that organizational commitment will fluctuate during one's length of service, and that the longer an employee maintains employment within an organization, the stronger their affective commitment will be (Chang & Choi, 2007; DeClercq & Rius, 2007). In addition, it is rational to presume that tenure will play a role in the effects of the leader's behavior and the employees PSS. Therefore, accounting for CU employee's tenure was deemed necessary.

Employment status was included because some studies have shown that part-time employees experience less affective commitment to the organization than their full-time counterparts (Giannikis, S. & Milhail, D., 2008; Marchese & Ryan, 2001). The literature is not consistent, however. Jacobsen (2000) found that part-time employees were more affectively committed to the organization than full-time employees. Either way, employment status influences affective commitment and thus should be controlled when possible. This research will also provide additional evidence regarding the effect of employment status on commitment.

Finally, impressions of supervisors and affective commitment toward a supervisor may be influenced by how long the employee has worked for that supervisor. To control any possible effect, employees were asked to indicate how long they had worked for their present supervisor.

Chapter 3: Results

Responses

Three-hundred and fifty surveys were hand-delivered to the participating companies. The Credit Union received 220 surveys, returning 64 (29%); the Army received 130 surveys, returning 75 (58%). A total of 139 surveys were received for data analysis resulting in a 40% response rate.

Reliabilities

The coefficient alpha estimates of internal consistency reliability for the variables used in this research are shown in the table below. Item analyses showed that coefficient alpha would not be improved by removing any item from any of the scales.

Table 1

	Coefficient alpha	Percent of Variance Extracted on First Factor
Perceptions of Organizational Status of Supervisor	.91	59%
Perceived Supervisor Support	.96	84%
Affective Commitment to Supervisor	.94	80%
Affective Commitment to Organization	.91	74%
Transformational Leadership Scale	.98	67%
Marker variable	.81	72%

In addition, exploratory factor analyses on the items making up each scale were conducted. The percent of variance associated with the first factor extracted is shown in the third column of the table. Except for the transformational leadership scale (which

was comprised of 8 different behaviors), the exploratory factor analyses indicated that only a single factor should be extracted for each scale, based on the eigenvalue > 1 and the scree plot criteria. In the case of transformational leadership, the exploratory factor analysis found that two factors should be extracted, but the first factors accounted for 67% of the variance, with the second factor adding only another 6% to the explained variance. This difference in factor size indicates that one factor accounted for most of the variance in transformational leadership and an overall scale could be justified.

The results were basically the same when the military and credit union were separately analyzed. The reliability coefficients were similar in magnitude for both organizations. The factor analyses all had similar amounts of explained variance on the first factor for each organization. The only difference was that exploratory factor analyses of the credit union data on transformational leadership extracted four factors with eigenvalues over 1, rather than just two factors for the military. However, like the military results, one factor accounted for most of the variance extracted (58%) and the other three factors were considerably lower (8%, 5%, and 4%). Thus, using a single, summated transformational leadership scale score was justified.

In summary, all the scales had very good psychometric characteristics. The internal consistency reliability estimates were very high and the exploratory factor analyses found that one factor accounted for significant amounts of scale variance. Thus, the scales could be used in the hypothesis testing without worrying about excessive measurement error.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics for the scales are shown below. The means were relatively high because they reflect 1 to 5 Likert-type scales with 5 the highest score possible. Consistent with these high ratings, the skewness statistics show pronounced negative skew (i.e., few observations at the lower ratings). The correlations for the scales are shown below the descriptive statistics.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Transformational Leadership	139	1.13	5.00	3.9768	.87816	-1.267	.206	.988	.408
PSS Overall	139	1.00	5.00	4.1235	.97376	-1.324	.206	1.159	.408
Supervisor status overall	139	1.33	4.89	3.5116	.77127	-.354	.206	-.375	.408
Affective commitment to supervisor	139	1.00	5.00	3.7482	1.07874	-1.057	.206	.317	.408
Affective Commitment to organization	139	1.00	5.00	3.6964	.85172	-.552	.206	-.069	.408
Marker variable task structure	139	1.33	5.00	3.8705	.75875	-.770	.206	.608	.408
Valid N (listwise)	139								

Table 3

Correlations

		Transformational Leadership	PSS Overall	Supervisor status overall	Affective commitment to supervisor	Affective Commitment to organization
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	.921**	.581**	.838**	.244**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.004
	N		139	139	139	139
PSS Overall	Pearson Correlation	.921**	1	.480**	.822**	.240**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.004
	N	139		139	139	139
Supervisor status overall	Pearson Correlation	.581**	.480**	1	.494**	.560**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	139	139		139	139
Affective commitment to supervisor	Pearson Correlation	.838**	.822**	.494**	1	.329**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	139	139	139		139
Affective Commitment to organization	Pearson Correlation	.244**	.240**	.560**	.329**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.004	.000	.000	
	N	139	139	139	139	139

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

The descriptive statistics below are broken out by type of organization: with the credit union shown in the top half of the figure below (represented by the "0" code or symbol) and the Army unit shown in the lower half of the figure below (represented by the "1" code or symbol). The statistics are very similar, showing little difference between the two groups. These statistics indicate that the two groups can be legitimately combined for purposes of testing the hypotheses, which also results in greater statistical power for the analyses.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics

Organization		N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Std. Error
0	Transformational Leadership	64	1.13	5.00	4.0043	.99448	-1.376	.299	1.050	.590
	PSS Overall	64	1.00	5.00	4.1693	1.08886	-1.461	.299	1.244	.590
	Supervisor status overall	64	1.44	4.89	3.5764	.75538	-.246	.299	-.487	.590
	Affective commitment to supervisor	64	1.00	5.00	3.8156	1.19433	-1.197	.299	.405	.590
	Affective Commitment to organization	64	2.40	5.00	3.9188	.74809	-.388	.299	-.944	.590
	Marker variable task structure	64	1.33	5.00	3.9062	.73576	-1.057	.299	1.749	.590
	Valid N (listwise)	64								
1	Transformational Leadership	75	1.83	5.00	3.9533	.77131	-1.094	.277	.544	.548
	PSS Overall	75	1.33	5.00	4.0844	.86922	-1.161	.277	.966	.548
	Supervisor status overall	75	1.33	4.78	3.4563	.78537	-.431	.277	-.321	.548
	Affective commitment to supervisor	75	1.00	5.00	3.6907	.97387	-.934	.277	.243	.548
	Affective Commitment to organization	75	1.00	5.00	3.5067	.89281	-.518	.277	-.034	.548
	Marker variable task structure	75	1.67	5.00	3.8400	.78147	-.569	.277	-.001	.548
	Valid N (listwise)	75								

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership behaviors are positively related to employees' Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS).

The first hypothesis was analyzed using bivariate correlations between transformational leadership and PSS. However, because the construct and questions measuring "individualized support" in the transformational leadership scale were very similar to the three questions measuring "concern for well being" in the PSS scale, the

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correlations were also analyzed excluding the "individualized support" scale from the overall transformational leadership scale. These results are shown in the matrix below

Table 5

Correlations

		Transformational Leadership	Transformational leadership with Ind Support removed	PSS Overall
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	.997**	.921**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	139	139	139
Transformational leadership with Ind Support removed	Pearson Correlation	.997**	1	.908**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	139	139	139
PSS Overall	Pearson Correlation	.921**	.908**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	139	139	139

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

Irrespective of which transformational leadership scale was used, the correlation was very high. The better analysis removes the overlapping "support" items. Even then, the correlation is extremely high at $r = .91$ ($p = .000$). Thus, there was strong evidence for Hypothesis 1 given the statistically significant large effect size.

Hypotheses 2 and 3: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) will be positively related to employees' Affective Organizational Commitment and Affective Commitment to their Supervisor.

The second and third hypotheses were tested using bivariate correlations between PSS and the two targets of affective commitment: organization and supervisor. The analyses can be combined into the single correlation matrix below.

Table 6

Correlations

		PSS Overall	Affective commitment to supervisor	Affective Commitment to organization
PSS Overall	Pearson Correlation	1	.822**	.240**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.004
	N	139	139	139
Affective commitment to supervisor	Pearson Correlation	.822**	1	.329**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	139	139	139
Affective Commitment to organization	Pearson Correlation	.240**	.329**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000	
	N	139	139	139

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

There were positive correlations between PSS and Affective Commitment to the Supervisor and between PSS and Affective Commitment to the Organization as hypothesized. Thus, there was empirical evidence supporting Hypotheses 2 and 3.

The correlation matrix shows that the effects sizes were significantly different for the two correlations. The Pearson product moment correlation for PSS and affective commitment to the supervisor ($r = .82$, $p = .000$) was much larger than the correlation between PSS and affective commitment to the organization ($r = .24$, $p = .004$). This different in effect sizes is consistent with the logic of the hypotheses, although not formally proposed. Conceptually, the perceived support from a supervisor is a more proximal cause of affective commitment to the supervisor than to affective commitment to the entire organization.

Hypothesis 4: The effects of Transformational leadership behaviors on a) Affective Organizational Commitment and b) Affective Commitment to their Supervisors are partially mediated by employees' Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS).

The mediation effects were first analyzed using the Baron and Kenny (1986) "causal steps" method of comparing the differences in the effect of transformational leadership on commitment with and without controlling for PSS. The Baron and Kenny requirements for mediation are 1) the independent variable significantly accounts for variance in the mediator and 2) in the dependent variable, 3) the mediator accounts for a significant amount of variance in the dependent variable after controlling for the independent variable, and 4) the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is substantially reduced in size (not necessarily to zero) when entered simultaneously with the mediator (MacKinnon, 2008; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

However, the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach to testing for mediation does not provide an estimate of the statistical significance of the indirect or mediation effect. To estimate the statistical significance of the indirect effect, the standard error of the indirect effects must be calculated first using normal theory methods. This was calculated using Preacher and Hayes (2007) SPSS macro. Calculating the statistical significance of the indirect effect is the preferred method for assessing mediation effects (MacKinnon, 2008; Preacher & Hayes, 2007).

Nonparametric bootstrapping was another method for analyzing mediation. Bootstrapping simply creates many new samples and estimates the parameters for each sample. Then the distribution of those parameter estimates is used to create new estimates without any assumptions about the underlying distribution (Mooney & Duval,

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1993, Preacher & Hayes, 2007). In this case, if the normality assumptions were violated, then the estimated parameters may be incorrect. Because the assumptions underlying these estimates of the standard errors may not be met, bootstrapping was used to also estimate the indirect effect size and statistical significance. Bootstrapping does not rely on the assumptions of normal theory statistics (Preacher & Hayes).

A) With respect to the first hypothesis that PSS mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the <u>organization</u>, similar analyses were conducted. Transformational leadership had a statistically significant association with affective commitment to the organization (b = .236. p = .004). PSS was also positively associated with affective commitment to the organization, as discussed above with r = .24 (p = .000). In this case, however, controlling for PSS eliminated the direct effect of transformational leadership on affective commitment to the organization (b = .141, p = .497). This effect is shown in the statistics below.

Table 7

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.829	.307		9.208	.000	2.222	3.437		
	PSS Overall	.210	.073	.240	2.899	.004	.067	.354	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	2.752	.328		8.380	.000	2.102	3.401		
	PSS Overall	.093	.187	.106	.496	.621	-.277	.463	.151	6.627
	Transformational Leadership	.141	.207	.146	.682	.497	-.269	.552	.151	6.627

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment to organization

However, this was not enough to show a mediation effect, according to Baron and Kenny's "causal steps" model, because the mediator (PSS) was <u>not</u> statistically significant after controlling for transformational leadership and thus does not mediate the relationship. In other words, when entered simultaneously in a regression, neither

transformational leadership nor PSS was statistically significant, which prevents finding mediation.[1]

As discussed above, the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach to testing for mediation does not provide an estimate of the statistical significance of the indirect or mediation effect. Because the indirect effect was so small, .0947 unstandardized units, potentially the effect could be statistically insignificant. The statistical significance of the indirect effect was calculated using Preacher and Hayes (2007) macro. The standard error for the indirect or mediation effect was .1898, which resulted in a Z statistic of .499 (p = .618) for the indirect effect of .0947 units. Thus, the mediation effect was statistically insignificant when using normal theory estimates for the standard errors. This means there was no mediation or direct effect through PSS on affective commitment to the organization. Thus, the conclusion drawn from this analysis is consistent with the conclusion drawn from the Baron and Kenny analysis.

Using the Preacher and Hayes macro again, this hypothesis was also tested using bootstrapping with 1000 re-samples. The bootstrap estimate of the indirect effect was .0942, which is almost exactly the same as the data estimate of .0947. The bootstrap standard error was .2257, and the 95% confidence interval was -.352 to .513, which includes zero. Thus, there was no statistically significant indirect or mediation effect using bootstrapping either.

In summary, none of the analyses provided support for the hypothesis that PSS mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment

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[1] Because transformational leadership and PSS are highly correlated, this creates collinearity that might cause PSS to become insignificant when entered with transformational leadership (and vice versa).

to the organization. Both transformational leadership and PSS have statistically significant relationships with affective commitment to the organization, but that relationship is not mediated by PSS. However, given the small adjusted R^2 of .05, any effect would have relatively small practical significance. For example, the adjusted R^2 for the effect of transformational leadership and PSS on affective commitment to the supervisor was much larger at .72.

B) The second hypothesis was that transformational leadership would be positively related to Affective Commitment to the Supervisor. Previously, it was shown that transformational leadership was positively related to Affective Commitment to the Supervisor ($r = .83$, $p = .000$). Transformational leadership was also positively correlated with PSS. Because PSS was also found to be positively correlated with Affective Commitment to the Supervisor, logically it would seem some of the effect of transformational leadership on affective commitment to the supervisor would be through PSS, i.e., there would be partial or complete mediation of the transformational leadership effect.

The estimated unstandardized regression coefficient for transformational leadership without controlling for PSS was $b = 1.029$ ($p = .000$). After controlling for PSS, this regression parameter estimate dropped to $b = .655$ ($p = .000$) and PSS was still statistically significant controlling for transformational leadership ($b = .366$, $p = .006$). Because transformational leadership still had statistically significant, but smaller effect on affective commitment to the supervisor controlling for PSS, and PSS still had a statistically significant relationship with affective commitment to the supervisor, this is

evidence that PSS partially mediates the relationship using the Baron and Kenny (1986) framework. Mediation statistics are shown in the table below.

Table 8

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.006	.228		-.025	.980	-.457	.446		
	PSS Overall	.910	.054	.822	16.880	.000	.804	1.017	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	-.366	.228		-1.606	.111	-.816	.085		
	PSS Overall	.366	.130	.331	2.821	.006	.109	.623	.151	6.627
	Transformational Leadership	.655	.144	.533	4.549	.000	.370	.939	.151	6.627

a. Dependent Variable: Affective commitment to supervisor

As shown above, the indirect effect was .374 in unstandardized units. This effect was tested for statistical significance using estimates of the standard error of this statistic. The standard error for the indirect or mediation effect was .1324, which results in a Z-statistic of 2.827 (p = .005) for the indirect effect. This is strong evidence that there was a statistically significant mediation effect.

Using bootstrapping, 1000 samples were developed and the indirect effect was estimated for each sample. This procedure resulted in an estimated indirect effect of .376 in unstandardized units with a standard error of .1718; giving a statistically significant Z statistic. The bootstrapping estimate for the indirect effect was similar to original data, single sample estimate of .374. The standard error was slightly larger, however (.172 vs. .132). The 95% percentile confidence interval for the bootstrapping results was .028 to .714, which is a relatively large range. However, this confidence interval did not include zero, which shows the mediation was statistically significant using bootstrapping and a percentile confidence interval.

In summary, all three analyses supported the hypothesis that PSS mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the supervisor. In addition, the adjusted R^2 was .72, which is a very large effect size for this type of research.

Hypothesis 5 and 6: Employees' Perceptions of the Organizational Status of their Supervisor's moderates the relationship between PSS and employees' Affective Organizational Commitment and their Affective Commitment to their Supervisors.

The interaction hypotheses were tested using hierarchical linear regression with a product term representing the interaction effect. The PSS and Perceptions of Organizational Status of Supervisor variables were first centered by subtracting the mean for each scale. The centered terms were then multiplied to create the interaction terms that was entered in the second step of the regression (see Aiken & West, 1991).

As shown in the table below, excerpted from the SPSS output, the interaction term was statistically significant as a predictor of Affective Commitment to the Organization ($b = .214$, $p = .008$). Thus, the data provided evidence for Hypothesis 5.

Table 9

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.696	.060		61.358	.000	3.577	3.816		
	PSS Overall Centered	-.032	.071	-.037	-.454	.651	-.172	.108	.770	1.299
	Supervisor status overall centered	.638	.089	.578	7.140	.000	.461	.815	.770	1.299
2	(Constant)	3.620	.065		55.287	.000	3.491	3.749		
	PSS Overall Centered	.057	.077	.065	.743	.459	-.095	.209	.625	1.600
	Supervisor status overall centered	.613	.088	.555	6.974	.000	.439	.787	.761	1.314
	Interaction Super Status & PSS centered	.214	.080	.208	2.676	.008	.056	.371	.799	1.252

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment to organization

On the other hand, as shown in the table below, the interaction term between PSS

and Perceived Organizational Status of the Supervisor was not statistically significant as

a predictor of Affective Commitment to Supervisor (b = -.032, p = .647).

Table 10

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.748	.051		72.836	.000	3.646	3.850		
	PSS Overall Centered	.841	.060	.760	13.920	.000	.722	.961	.770	1.299
	Supervisor status overall centered	.181	.076	.130	2.377	.019	.031	.332	.770	1.299
2	(Constant)	3.760	.057		65.556	.000	3.646	3.873		
	PSS Overall Centered	.828	.067	.747	12.306	.000	.695	.961	.625	1.600
	Supervisor status overall centered	.185	.077	.132	2.406	.017	.033	.337	.761	1.314
	Interaction Super Status & PSS centered	-.032	.070	-.025	-.460	.647	-.170	.106	.799	1.252

a. Dependent Variable: Affective commitment to supervisor

Thus, the data did not support Hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 7: Affective Commitment to a Supervisor will mediate the relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) and Affective Organizational Commitment.

The final hypothesis was an alternative conceptualization of the relationship between

PSS and the two types of affective commitment. Previously, the model has treated

affective commitment to the supervisor and affective commitment to the organization as

unrelated dependent or outcome variables and analyzed them separately. However, if the supervisor is viewed as an agent of the company, his or her behaviors should influence a subordinate's perception of the organization. Therefore, arguably, PSS affects affective commitment to the supervisor, which in turn shapes affective commitment to the organization, as proposed in Hypothesis 7. Specifically, affective commitment to the supervisor mediates the effect of PSS on affective commitment to the organization.

Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) "causal steps" approach described above, there was evidence of <u>complete</u> mediation via affective commitment to the supervisor because the effect of PSS on affective commitment to the organization dropped from .210 (p = .004) to -.082 (p = .511) after controlling for affective commitment to the supervisor, which remained statistically significant. The statistics showing the effect on transformational leadership after controlling for PSS are shown in the table below.

Table 11

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.721	.248		10.958	.000	2.230	3.212
	Affective commitment to supervisor	.260	.064	.329	4.084	.000	.134	.386
2	(Constant)	2.831	.300		9.453	.000	2.239	3.424
	Affective commitment to supervisor	.321	.112	.406	2.864	.005	.099	.542
	PSS Overall	-.082	.124	-.094	-.659	.511	-.327	.164

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment to organization

The indirect effect was .292 (SE = .1027), which was statistically significant (p = .004). Using bootstrapping with 1000 re-samples, the estimated indirect or mediation effect was .2932, which is very similar in size to the original estimate. The 95%

confidence interval was .026 to .575, which did not include zero and thus using

bootstrapping the effect was statistically significant.

However, it should be noted that the adjusted R^2 was relatively small at .10. Clearly,

many other factors influence affective commitment to the organization, as would be

expected. Nevertheless, the evidence supports the hypothesis that the influence of PSS

on affective commitment to the organization is completely mediated by its effect on

affective commitment to the supervisor.

Chapter 4: Discussion

This chapter will discuss and interpret the results as they apply to the seven proposed hypothesis. In addition, limitations of the study as well as suggestions for future research will be addressed.

The first hypothesis in the study was to investigate whether transformational leadership behaviors had an influence on subordinates' perceptions of supervisory support. The second question was whether PSS had effects on two targets of affective commitment: the supervisor and the organization. The third question was whether perceptions of the supervisor's organizational status variable moderated the relationships between PSS and affective commitment to the organization and affective commitment to the supervisor. Finally, three mediation hypotheses were investigated: does PSS mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and the two targets of affective commitments, and whether affective commitment to the supervisor mediated the relationship between PSS and affective organizational commitment.

In this study, 350 surveys were hand-delivered to two organizations: a branch of the Army and a credit union. 139 usable surveys were returned. Standard descriptive statics were obtained as well the coefficient alphas to assess the internal consistency of variables. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to ascertain the internal reliability of the measures utilized. Hierarchical linear regression was used to test the moderator. Three different methods were used to analyze the mediation hypotheses, including Baron

and Kenny's (1986) "causal steps" method, normal theory estimates for statistical significance of the indirect or mediation effect, and nonparametric bootstrapping that generated estimates for effect size over 1000 re-samples of the data. All hypotheses were supported with the exception of hypothesis 4b and 6; a short discussion of each is below.

Transformational Leadership – Perceptions of Supervisor Support.

It was proposed that transformational leadership would be positively related to perceptions of supervisor support. Past researchers have alluded to this link, yet not measured its strength (Hutchison, 1997; Rhoades et al., 2001). Initial correlation analysis for this measure showed extremely high results ($r = .92$, $p = .000$). Because of these overly high results, overlapping "support" items from the transformational leadership scale were removed from the analysis to ascertain if we were obtaining inflated data. Yet, even with the removal of these items the results remained significantly high ($r = .91$). Hence, strong evidence was obtained for Hypothesis 1. This was not surprising considering past research which has found transformational leadership to have great impact on subordinates' behaviors and attitudes (Colbert et al., 2008; Hutchison, 1997; VanYpreen et al., 1999). Because the transformational leader is viewed as being involved, having good ideas for the future and the work at hand, and showing cooperation, it was plausible to assume they would be viewed as being supportive.

Perceptions of Supervisor Support – Affective Organizational Commitment and Affective Commitment to the Supervisor.

Positive correlations were found between perceptions of supervisor support and the two commitment foci, supporting both hypotheses 2 and 3. In terms of organizational

commitment, its effect size (r = .24, p = .004) was significantly lower than that of

supervisory commitment (r = .82, p = .000). This is in keeping with past research which

has determined that proximity is a strong predictor of commitment (Becker et al., 1996;

Bentein et al., 2002). In the case of this research, the supervisor is more proximal and

thus draws higher commitment levels than that of the organization.

There has been conflicting literature concerning perceptions of supervisor support

and its impact on subordinate's organizational commitment. Stinglhamber &

Vandenberghe, 2003, found that PSS led to supervisor support, yet they found no path to

organizational commitment. On the other hand Erickson & Roloff, 2007, found a

significant link from PSS to organizational commitment. The positive finding in this

study between PSS and organizational commitment, although lower than commitment to

the supervisor, adds strength to conflicting literature that perceptions of the supervisor's

support can bring about a sense of organizational commitment within their subordinates.

Mediating Effects of Perceptions of Supervisor Support.

This study investigated whether PSS mediated the relationship between

transformational leadership and the two commitment foci. The analysis of this

relationship was conducted by comparing the differences in the effects of

transformational leadership on commitment with and without controlling for PSS. No

hypotheses were advanced as to whether the effects would be complete mediation or

partial mediation, however.

With respect to PSS mediating the relationship between transformational leadership

and affective commitment to the supervisor, there was empirical support for this

hypothesis. Three different methods of analyzing the potential mediation affect all found evidence that PSS mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the supervisor. Baron and Kenny's (1986) "causal steps" method was satisfied because the size of the regression coefficient between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the supervisor was reduced when simultaneously entering PSS into the model, and PSS still had a statistically significant relationship with affective commitment to the supervisor. Second, an estimate of the standard error for the indirect effect estimate was calculated. This standard error was used to test for statistical significance of the indirect or mediating effect. The resulting Z statistic was statistically significant, which supported rejecting the hypothesis of no mediation. Finally, nonparametric bootstrapping also showed evidence that the null hypothesis should be rejected. After re-sampling the data 1000 times and estimating the mediation effect each time, the mediation estimates were rank ordered and a 95% confidence interval was created (the 95% confidence interval includes all parameter estimates within the range from the 2.5 percentile to the 97.5 percentile). This 95% percentile confidence interval for the repeated estimates of the mediation effect did not include zero, which indicates that the mediation effect of PSS was statistically significant. In addition, the adjusted R^2 indicated that 72% of the variance in affective commitment to the supervisor could be explained by transformational leadership and PSS. This is a very large effect size that has practical significance.

In terms of PSS partially mediating the relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment, a comparable analysis was conducted. The Baron and Kenny (1986) method did not find a mediation effect, even

though transformational leadership's effect on affective organizational commitment was reduced dramatically when PSS was simultaneously entered into the regression model. However, PSS became statistically insignificant in this simultaneous model, which violated one of the criteria for concluding there was evidence of mediation. To further test this finding of no mediation, the standard error was again calculated and used to calculate a Z score. This statistic was not statistically significant. Finally, the 95% confidence interval developed by bootstrapping included zero, which indicates there was no statistically significant mediation effect. None of the different analyses conducted supported Hypothesis 4b.

Moderating Effects of Perceptions of the Supervisor's Organizational Status.

It was proposed that the subordinate's perceptions of their supervisor's organizational status would moderate their levels of affective commitment to the organization and affective commitment to the supervisor. This analysis was conducted using hierarchical linear regression using a centered product term to represent the interaction effect. First, variables were centered by subtracting the mean for each scale and then the centered terms were multiplied to create the interaction terms that were entered in the second step of the regression (see Aiken & West, 1991, for details of the process).

In terms of predicting affective commitment to the organization, the analysis resulted in a statistically significant positive interaction term, which provided empirical support for Hypothesis 5. This positive interaction term indicates that as perceptions of the organization status of one's supervisor increases, the effect of PSS on affective commitment to the organization increases in size. Alternatively, the interaction term also

shows that as PSS increases, the effect of one's perceptions of the organizational status of his or her supervisor on affective commitment to the organization also increases. This occurs because the interaction concept and the interaction term reflect both interpretations, i.e., the size of the effect of one variable on the dependent or outcome variable depends on the other variable.

This finding supports the contention that a subordinate's attitude and behavior toward an organization may fluctuate with their perception of how the organization treats their supervisor. There is little available research in this area; therefore, this find is encouraging to go forward with additional research. Moreover, it may prove to be valuable for upper management personnel and their relationships with front-line supervisors. If their goal is to increase employee commitment to the organization they may benefit from starting with supportive behaviors to these supervisors.

Hypothesis 6 was that PSS and perceptions of the supervisor's organizational status interacted to influence affective commitment to the supervisor. However, this hypothesis was not supported by the data because the interaction term was not statistically significant. This was not entirely surprising, as the support an employee receives from the supervisor is predominantly a reciprocal relationship, one which is cemented (or not) through their interaction. The supervisor's supportive behavior should lead the subordinate to a sense of commitment to the supervisor with or without an intervening moderator.

Mediating Effect of Affective Commitment to the Supervisor between Perceived Supervisor Support and Affective Organizational Commitment.

The final hypothesis was whether the affective commitment to the supervisor mediated the relationship between PSS and affective commitment to the organization. The initial model in this study treated the two types of commitment as unrelated outcome variables and tried to predict each separately. However, if the subordinates view the supervisor as an agent of the organization, as presumed by Eisenberger et al. (2002), then their attitudes toward the supervisor will in turn shape their perceptions of the organization, including their affective commitment to the organization. Accordingly, if PSS is high, then affective commitment to the supervisor will be high, which in turn will increase affective commitment to the organization due to this agency effect. Thus, affective commitment to the supervisor should mediate the relationship between PSS and affective organizational commitment.

As with the other mediation analyses, this mediation was tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) "causal steps" approach, normal theory estimates of standard errors and statistical significance, and bootstrapping. In terms of Baron and Kenny's approach, the data indicated that affective commitment to one's supervisor complete mediated the effect of PSS on affective commitment to the organization. Similarly, using estimates of standard errors under the assumption of normality, there was a statistically significant mediation effects. Finally, bootstrapping found evidence of an indirect or mediation effect of because the 95% confidence interval did not include zero. The adjusted R^2 of .10 or 10% explained variance in affective commitment to the organization this mediation hypothesis was relatively small. Thus, there are obviously other omitted influences on

affective commitment to the organization. Nevertheless, the evidence in this study support the hypothesis that the influence of PSS on affective commitment to the organization is completely mediated by its effect on affective commitment to the supervisor.

Discussion of Overall Results

This study investigated the relationships between transformational leadership, Perceived Supervisory Support (PSS), perceptions of the organizational status of one's supervisor, affective commitment to the organization, and affective commitment to one's supervisor. The findings suggest that transformational leadership is a significant influence on PSS. This is an interesting result, yet, more important was the finding that PSS in turn has a significant impact on affective commitment to both the supervisor and the organization. Affective commitment has been shown to have an important effect on a variety of outcomes, including organizational citizenship behaviors, in-role task performance, and turnover.

The study also found PSS had differential effects on the two targets of affective commitment. The relationship was much smaller between PSS and affective commitment to the organization than with affective commitment to the supervisor. This finding is consistent with the idea that behaviors and attitudes vary in importance depending on how proximal they are to other constructs, which support the causal ordering of the variables in the hypothesis that affective commitment to the supervisor mediates the relationship between PSS and affective commitment to organization.

Using a similar logic, PSS was hypothesized to mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and the two targets of affective commitment, which are distal constructs compared with the link between transformational leadership and PSS. Analyses supported the hypothesis that PSS partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the supervisor. However, similar analyses did not find that PSS mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to the organization. This was difficult to explain given the logic of the proposition, but perhaps it was due to the small effect of PSS and transformational leadership on affective commitment to the organization.

The nature of the relationship between PSS and affective commitment to the organization was found to vary according to subordinates' perceptions of the supervisor's organizational status. This suggests that supervisors need to appear influential with upper management to fully maximize the value associated with high PSS. This also raises the possibility that the relationship between supervisors and upper management signals subordinates on how management treats people which, in turn shapes subordinates' affective organizational commitment.

Interestingly, perceptions of organization status did not moderate the relationship between PSS and affective commitment to the supervisor. This makes sense in retrospect because the supervisor's actions could shape subordinates' affective commitment without any reference to the supervisor's status with upper management. This is also consistent with the reasoning above that the nature of the supervisor-upper management relationship does not influence subordinates' perceptions of the supervisor's actions and their personal reactions to the supervisor. Instead, relationships between levels of

management influence organizational perceptions of the employees about the organization itself, not the supervisor. This is consistent with the highly significant direct effect associated with perceptions of organizational status of the supervisor when both PSS and perceptions of organizational status are simultaneously entered in the regression model predicting affective commitment to the organization (standardized regression coefficient = .578, p = .000, in Figure 10). If true, then perhaps the supervisor is viewed not as an agent of upper management, but as also being a subordinate in a formal hierarchy. However, this reasoning is simply speculation at this point and could be a subject of future research.

Limitations of the Study

A potential limitation of this study was the use of self-report questionnaires for all variables, which could result in common method bias or variance that inflates correlations. Although using different sources of data is generally preferable to getting all the data from self-reports, in this study, the marker variable indicated this was not a problem because it was not highly correlated with most of the variables. If common method variance had been a significant factor, the correlations between the marker variable and the other variables would have been higher.

Moreover, data on subordinates' perceptions (i.e., PSS and the two measures of affective commitment, and perceived organizational status of the supervisor) have to be collected using self-reports. Perhaps the measures could have been collected at different times, but then the questionnaires could not have been anonymous because the multiple responses would have to be matched to a respondent to analyze the data.

Of course, no cross-sectional study can determine causality. Therefore, although a causal model was theorized, the causality could not be tested in this study. For example, although the theory supports the path from PSS to affective commitment to the supervisor, the possibility cannot be eliminated that this may occur in reverse order. Obviously, the solution to this would be lab experiments in which temporal sequencing can be created artificially. But this artificiality limits the generalizability of such experiments. Field experiments could be possible if the right situation was found, such as a new leader or new organization.

Finally, this study may be limited in generalizability because only two organizations were sampled and in both cases the jobs performed by the respondents were relatively routine. The results might differ in other types of jobs or organizations. However, on the positive side, in this study two completely different organizations were studied; a branch of the military and a private sector credit union. This suggests the results might generalize across organizations and even sectors of the economy.

The results may also vary depending on the nature of the job, which suggests an additional moderator to be investigated. In the case of some highly specialized departments or personnel (doctors, scientists, professors, etc.) the need for supervision is minimal; therefore their perceptions of supervisor support may not predict commitment levels. However, in organizations where there is a clear hierarchy of authority and the work is routine or non-professional, this model could generalize to those situations.

Suggestions for Future Research

It is suggested for future research that this study be replicated with more data. This study only had 139 respondents, so potentially it is believed that more data will bring about additional understanding of the relationship between variables. Additionally, the construct "perceptions of the supervisor's organizational status" is rich for examining its impact on organizational factors other than commitment. Considering the limited research available in this area and the positive findings the construct brought to this study it is worth additional examination. It may prove to be a factor in revealing employee's organizational citizenship behaviors as well as their intent to remain with the organization.

A longitudinal study may also be an avenue for future research. Some research has found that employees who are newly assigned to the organization already have high commitment levels because of their preconceived notions of what the job will bring (Meyer and Allen, 1987). A longitudinal study would be able to determine, and adjust, for this phenomenon. And finally, conducting this study over multiple organizations may assist in determining the level of generalizability of the model. This study was conducted in two different organizations, and it was successful in showing positive relationship between variables when the samples were separated and combined. However, a study with multiple organizations may prove more productive in terms of the model being operable over many differing types of settings.

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Appendix: Cover Letter and Questionnaire

Dear Employee,

The attached survey is part of a research project that I am conducting to earn my doctorate from Webster University. It explores employees' perceptions of the organization and its managers, as well as employees' attitudes and feelings about work.

For my research to be successful, I ask that you complete and return the attached confidential questionnaire. No one from the organization will see your survey, and because it is anonymous you cannot be identified. Your participation is voluntary; however, I must state that without your participation this study cannot be completed. The information you provide will be statistically analyzed and the statistical outcome will be used to complete my doctoral dissertation. There approximately 50 statements you will rate in this survey, which should take about 10-15 minutes. To ensure meaningful results, please rate each statement even if it seems similar to other statements.

If you would like to see a summary of the final research paper, or if you have any questions, you can contact me at (314) 598-2998 or by email at dguild22@charter.net. If you prefer, you can contact the chair of my research committee Dr. Gary Renz by phone at (314) 961-2660 or by email at renzga@webster.edu. If you have questions regarding your rights as a participant, please contact Dr. John Orr at (314) 246-8765.

I advance I would like to extend my deepest thanks for your participation in this project.

Sincerely,

Dawn Guild
Doctoral candidate
Webster University, St. Louis, Missouri, USA

Please indicate the <u>extent to which you agree</u> with each of the statements using the 1-5 point rating scale following the statement by circling the appropriate number in the second column. Although some of the statements are similar, please answer all of the questions. Do not try to be consistent in your responses; just report your first thoughts.

Example

The company likes my supervisor.	1 2 3 ④ 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree

1. The organization holds my supervisor in high regard.	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree
2. The organization gives my supervisor the chance to make important decisions.	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree
3. The organization gives my supervisor the authority to try new things.	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree
4. The organization values my supervisor's contributions.	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree
5. My supervisor influences decisions made by upper management.	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree
6. The organization supports decisions made by my supervisor.	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree
7. If my supervisor quit, the organization would try to persuade him/her to stay.	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree
8. The organization consults my supervisor when deciding on new policies and procedures.	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Neutral Strongly Disagree Agree

9. The organization allows my supervisor to run things the way he/she wants.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree		Neutral		Strongly Agree

The scales are slightly different now because you rate both <u>your direct supervisor</u> and <u>your company</u> on each statement. Please indicate the <u>extent to which you agree</u> with each of the statements for your supervisor and your company using the 1-5 point rating scale following the statement by circling the appropriate number.

Example

My XYZ are similar to the XYZ of:

My supervisor	1 Strongly Disagree	②	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
This company	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	④	5 Strongly Agree

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10. My values are similar to the values of:

My supervisor	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
This company	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree

11. I feel a strong sense of commitment to:

My supervisor	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
This company	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree

12. I speak very highly of _____ to my friends.

My supervisor	1	2	3	4	5

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	Strongly Disagree		Neutral		Strongly Agree
This company	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree

13. I feel emotionally attached to:

My supervisor	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
This company	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree

14. I strongly relate to and identify with:

My supervisor	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
This company	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree

Please answer the following questions about your workplace.

15. Length of time you have worked for this company? ____ years _____months

16. Do you currently work full time or part time? ___ Full time ____ Part time

17. How long have you worked for your present supervisor? ____ years _____months

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements about your direct supervisor using the 1-5 point rating scale following the statement by circling the appropriate number in the second column. Although some of the statements are similar, please answer all of the questions. Do not try to be consistent in your responses; just report your first thoughts.

My direct supervisor:

18. Is charismatic.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
19. Has compelling ideas about how to change the way we work.	1 Strongly	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly

	Disagree				Agree
20. Leads by "doing" rather than simply by "telling."	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
21. Encourages employees to be "team players."	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
22. Communicates that he or she expects outstanding work from all employees.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
23. Is concerned about my needs at work.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
24. Challenges me to rethink my ideas about how to perform my job.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
25. Shows confidence in my ability to perform my job well.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
26. Gives me positive feedback when I perform well.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
27. Inspires my loyalty.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
28. Inspires me with his or her plans for the workplace.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
29. Sets a good example for how employees should act if we are to achieve our goals.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
30. Inspires a team spirit among employees.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
31. Insists on high-quality work from me.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
32. Shows respect for me.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
33. Asks me to think about new ways for the work group	1 Strongly	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly

to accomplish its goals.	Disagree				Agree
34. Has faith that I will achieve my work-related goals.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
35. Recognizes when my work is good.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
36. Communicates admirable ideals and values.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
37. Offers an attractive vision for the future of our work group.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
38. "Walks the talk," or actually does what he or she says employees should be doing.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
39. Fosters collaboration within work groups.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
40. Insists on high performance from me and the other employees.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
41. Considers my feelings at work.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
42. Asks me to be creative at work.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
43. Shows confidence that I will put forth the effort necessary to accomplish tasks he or she asks me to do.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
44. Praises employees when they do a good job.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements using the 1-5 point rating scale following the statement by circling the appropriate number in the second column. Although some of the statements are similar, please answer all of the questions. Do not try to be consistent in your responses; just report your first thoughts.

45. The issues I face on a daily basis are usually similar in nature.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
46. I am usually able to follow the same steps to deal with most of my day-to-day tasks.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
47. In general, there is a correct way to resolve the problems I face on a daily basis.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
48. My supervisor values my contributions to the well-being of our department.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
49. My supervisor really cares about my well-being.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
50. My supervisor appreciates my extra effort at work.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
51. Help is available from my supervisor when I have a work problem.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
52. My supervisor takes pride in my work accomplishments.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree
53. My supervisor is willing to help me when I need a special favor.	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3 Neutral	4	5 Strongly Agree

Thank you very much for your participation in this survey.