THE UNIVERSITY OF TULSA

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

LEADER APPROACHABILITY: WHAT IS IT, WHAT IS IT GOOD FOR, AND WHO NEEDS IT?

by
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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in the Discipline of Industrial/Organizational Psychology

The Graduate School

The University of Tulsa

2016

T H E U N I V E R S I T Y O F T U L S A

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A DISSERTATION

APPROVED FOR THE DISCIPLINE OF

INDUSTRIAL/ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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ABSTRACT

Cameron G. Brown (Doctor of Philosophy in Industrial/Organizational Psychology)

Leader Approachability: What is it, What is it Good for, and Who Needs it?

Directed by Robert Tett

210 pp., Chapter 5: General Discussion

(217 words)

This study proposes and develops a new construct, Leader Approachability, which is defined as a leader's availability, warmth, and receptivity to ideas. A Leader Approachability measure is introduced, refined, and validated based upon data collected in two waves. Wave 1 included 208 participants recruited from an online survey participant panel. Wave 2 included 634 participants recruited from three organizations. In each wave, participants provided ratings of their leader (Approachability, Consideration, Trustworthiness, & Participative Decision-making; PDM), outcomes (Job Satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, Voice, and Turnover Intention), personality traits (Cognitive Structure, Succorance, and Proactive Personality), and working conditions (Role Ambiguity, Job Stress, and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement). Item analysis and confirmatory factor analysis supported the psychometric properties of the new Leader Approachability measure, including (a) convergent validity by correlating positively with conceptually related leadership measures, (b) criterion-related validity by correlating with the outcome variables, and (c) incremental validity by improving prediction of some outcomes over established constructs (i.e., Consideration,

Trustworthiness, and PDM). The personality and work condition variables were tested as moderators of Approachability-outcome relationships. Little evidence of moderation was identified. Findings of an exploratory research question suggested that perceptions of Approachability slightly varied by topic (e.g., personal issues vs. work issues). Overall, findings encourage further research on Approachability and applications of the newly developed Approachability measure in practice.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not be in front of you without a group of terrific people who helped me throughout this process. These people deserve much more than a few lines in my acknowledgement section. I still owe you, and I hope you know the depth and sincerity of my gratitude.

Dr. Robert Tett must be thanked first. You have spent countless hours editing, advising, and helping me think through my research. The depth of your expertise always impresses me. I have been even more impressed by the principled manner in which you approach science and your interactions with others. Your integrity is something I will always admire.

I am deeply grateful to have worked with Dr. Anupama Narayan in her research lab. Your mentorship has been priceless. Thank you for your encouragement and the experiences you have given me along the way. It has been a delight working with you.

Thank you Dr. David Fisher and Dr. Jeff Paul for being some of the most helpful committee members imaginable. Your insight and feedback have undeniably improved my dissertation. Thank you for being so gracious with your time.

I am indebted to Phillip Wilson for inspiring this research and for serving as an unofficial member of my dissertation committee. Thank you for your help recruiting participants, covering the cost of the personality assessments, and for being one of the best case studies for leader approachability that I know. You have been indispensable.

I owe a lot to labmates and classmates who have provided their perspectives along

the way. I am especially thankful for Ben Walser whose insight refined my conceptualization of approachability. I also must thank the University of Tulsa's Office of Research and Graduate School for research and fellowship funds that improved the quality of this research and expedited the process.

A thank you goes to my parents whose response to almost every situation I encountered as a kid was, "That's why when you grow up you need to get a good education." It looks like your mantra was effective. Congratulations!

No one deserves more of my appreciation than Chelsea. Five years ago you were willing to go on an adventure with me to Oklahoma. Since then you have supported me through difficult times and have made countless sacrifices on my behalf. Thank you for making me and Emerson laugh every day. And Emerson, thank you for waiting past your due date so that I could finish my last final exam before you arrived. I love you both.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Almost everyone agrees that the command-and-control model will not carry us into the twenty-first century. In a world of increasing interdependence and rapid change, it is no longer possible to figure it out from the top.

Peter Senge (1990)

Researchers have long touted the benefits of egalitarian and participative leadership (e.g., Lowin, 1968; Vroom & Yetton, 1973); particularly, how increased information exchange improves employee attitudes and performance (e.g., Roberts & O'Reilly, 1974; Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988). Exchanging information with subordinates, however, does not always occur naturally. A number of social phenomena inhibit upward communication (e.g., groupthink, the 'MUM' effect, spirals of silence; Wilkinson, Donaghey, Dundon, & Freeman, 2014), often leaving leaders in the dark and subordinates without direction. Without intentional practices, communication between supervisors and subordinates is left inhibited, jeopardizing the success of the organization through impaired or incomplete decision-making (e.g., Nemeth, 1997; Senge, 1990). To the degree subordinates have relevant knowledge but are disinclined to share it with their superiors, leaders stand to gain potentially valuable information from making proactive attempts to facilitate employee input.

The primary aim of this study is to investigate particular leadership behaviors that facilitate employee input. Specifically, the study is designed to assess *Leader*

Approachability, the degree to which leaders are available, warm, and receptive to their subordinates. Although noted in previous research as a precursor to Employee Voice (e.g., Saunders, 1992) and a chief marker for the broader dimension of Consideration (Fleishman, 1953), Approachability has received little attention in its own right. It warrants investigation for a number of reasons.

Why Study Leader Approachability?

Logical Justification

Several logical arguments can be offered as to why Leader Approachability is relevant to desirable outcomes. Leadership is defined as a "process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2012, p. 5). A leader will be able to influence others as s/he has opportunities to interact with them. Approachable leaders create more opportunities for interacting with followers, facilitating essential leadership duties such as motivating employees, aligning people, and communicating job-relevant information (Northouse, 2012).

In addition to increasing the top-down flow of information from the supervisor, Approachability also stands to increase the bottom-up flow of information from followers. Information must flow in both directions for effective organizational communication to be achieved (Lunenburg, 2010) and bottom-up communication is increasingly important as work becomes more knowledge-based (Nonaka, 1994; Senge, 1990). Employees have unique experiences with specific products, markets, and technologies, providing them with valuable information of which the leader is not always

aware (Miller & Monge, 1986; Nonaka, 1994). Bottom-up communication allows followers to communicate important situations, potential problems, and possible solutions to the supervisor. An approachable leader will facilitate bottom-up communication and have greater awareness of the issues confronting the organization.

Psychological benefits are also expected logically from approachable leadership. With increased opportunities to interact with subordinates, and increased opportunities to address issues concerning subordinates, leaders and subordinates can develop stronger relationships. Following Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) principles (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), approachable supervisors can develop a more personal relationship with employees, encouraging positive responses to the supervisor's efforts to coach, build consensus, or motivate. In short, Approachability increases opportunities for leaders to lead, for followers to follow, and each party to learn from one another in the sharing of work-related information.

Empirical Justification

The second major reason driving the study is empirical. Preliminary research shows (a) a need for employees to feel more comfortable addressing issues with their supervisor, and (b) positive outcomes associated with approachable leaders. Milliken, Morrison, and Hewlin (2003) reported that nearly half of workers across an array of industries (e.g., consulting, financial services, media, pharmaceuticals, and advertising) stated they regularly feel uncomfortable speaking up about organizational issues and 85% of employees indicated an inability to raise at least one personally important matter with their supervisor. When asked to describe factors contributing to not speaking up, the third

most-common cited factor was an unapproachable supervisor. Twenty percent of the sample provided this as a reason. This factor ranked behind only individual characteristics of the respondent (e.g., lack of experience/tenure; 32.5%) and organizational characteristics (e.g., hierarchical structure, unsupportive culture; 30%).

Research illustrates the consequences of environments where employees do not feel comfortable approaching supervisors about concerns. Of 2,455 critical incidents investigated by the Joint Commission for Hospital Accreditation, over 70% were determined to be due to communication failure (Leonard, Graham, & Bonacum, 2004). The result of these incidents was dramatic, with 75% of patients in these incidents dying. Difficulty speaking with those in positions of greater organizational power was identified as a major factor in these communication breakdowns.

Preliminary research also demonstrates the benefits associated with approachable leaders. Employees who perceive their supervisor as approachable are more likely to participate in suggestion programs (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005) and voice their opinions (Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, & Roth, 1992). Similarly, Detert and Burris (2007) found that perceived management openness, a concept akin to Leader Approachability, led to higher levels of both employee Voice (i.e., discretionary information provided by employees with the intent to benefit the organization's operations) and psychological safety (i.e., the belief that interpersonal risk-taking is safe). Collectively, these studies provide an empirical basis for both the serious consequences of organizations failing to establish Leader Approachability and the potential benefits of leaders able to convey a sense of Approachability to their followers.

Practical Justification

Beyond logical and empirical justifications, the third reason for the current study is practical. Leaders make themselves approachable by engaging in particular behaviors, such as keeping the office door open and actively seeking others' input. The tangible nature of these behaviors makes Approachability both observable and, at least in principle, amenable to change. Supervisors perceived as unapproachable could be trained on how to convey a sense of Approachability to their subordinates. Research indicates that this type of interpersonal training is effective. Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996), for example, demonstrated that leadership training can significantly improve perceptions of leaders' interpersonal behaviors. These improvements were associated with both increased subordinate organizational commitment and improved branch sales performance. Arthur, Bennett, Edens, & Bell (2003) used meta-analysis to compare the effects of various training content. The total dollar value gained from training was highest for interpersonal training (d = 0.88), falling above gains observed with cognitive or psychomotor content.

In sum, there are compelling logical, empirical, and practical reasons for investigating Leader Approachability. The current study offers an initial examination of this "new" construct as outlined in the following section.

Defining Approachability and Study Objectives

Approachability has been identified in previous research as an indicator of broader dimensions (e.g., Consideration; Fleishman, 1953), but it has not received much attention in its own right. As a result, the construct has yet to be precisely defined. The

definition of Leader Approachability offered here includes three crucial elements: availability, warmth, and receptivity. First, to be considered approachable, a leader must demonstrate *availability*. An employee cannot easily offer input or seek clarification from a supervisor who is unavailable. Even if a supervisor were personable and kind, s/he would not be considered approachable unless s/he is accessible to those seeking her/him. The second proposed element of Approachability is *warmth*. Warmth creates an atmosphere that is welcoming to employees. Without warmth, a supervisor may be physically available to employees but rarely approached. Therefore, for a leader to be viewed as approachable – and not merely just available – s/he must also make employees feel comfortable. The final proposed aspect of Approachability is *receptivity*. For leaders to be approachable, they need to be not only available to and welcoming of people but also welcoming of new ideas (receptivity). Employees may view their supervisor as personable, but, unless they consider the leader as receptive to their ideas, they are unlikely to approach the leader to make suggestions or offer feedback.

When advancing a novel construct, an initial question is the extent to which the new construct stands to uniquely contribute to research and practice beyond previously researched constructs. The first main objective of this study was to assess the distinctness of Approachability to similar leadership constructs both conceptually and empirically. To address this issue conceptually, the leadership literature was reviewed, as described in Chapter 2, and a number of constructs especially germane to Approachability (e.g., Consideration, Trust, and PDM) were identified as potentially distinct from Approachability. Successfully identifying conceptual uniqueness provides a rationale for testing Approachability's empirical uniqueness. To test Approachability's uniqueness

empirically, the relationship between a newly developed Leader Approachability measure and existing leadership measures was considered, assessing the convergent and discriminant validity of the new scale. If Approachability is determined to be empirically distinct, this would support continued research on Approachability. If Approachability does not demonstrate empirical uniqueness, continued use of Approachability would only be justified if alternative benefits to Approachability were identified (e.g., practical benefits) beyond empirical distinctiveness. Empirical distinctiveness is one, but not the only, possible justification for continued consideration of Approachability in research and practice. For example, Approachability's trainability may provide a practical justification for using Approachability in the absence of empirical distinctiveness.

The second main objective of the study was to assess targeted outcomes of Approachability. The existing literature on Approachability indicates that it is beneficial (Detert & Burris, 2007; Milliken et al., 2003; Saunders et al., 1992) but research on Approachability is sparse and only considers Approachability indirectly. Given the previously discussed logical benefits of Leader Approachability, this study directly tested if work outcomes (i.e., Turnover Intention, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, Employee Voice, & Satisfaction) are associated with Approachability. Assessing these work outcomes would allow a test of incremental validity, or the degree to which Approachability predicts the noted outcomes beyond more established leadership constructs (i.e., Consideration, Trustworthiness, and PDM).

The third main objective of the study was to consider whether relevant employee personality traits and situational features moderate Approachability-outcome relationships. One conclusion of the behavioral approach to leadership, a paradigm that

dominated leadership research in the mid 1990's (Northouse, 2012), was that the value of leader behavior varies from situation to situation (Jex & Britt, 2008). Leadership theories have advanced factors that influence when leadership behaviors are most effective (e.g., Feidler 1971; Vroom & Jago, 1988). These theories often include two classes of factors determining which type of behavior is appropriate: employee characteristics (e.g., development levels of follower) and situations (e.g., task structure; e.g., Feidler 1971, Vroom & Jago, 1988, Blanchard, 1985). The current study considers the moderating effects of both these general factors by assessing selected employee traits and situations relevant to Approachability.

The study used trait activation theory (TAT; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett, Simonet, Walser & Brown, 2013) as a theoretical framework to investigate whether having an approachable leader matters more to some workers than others. Several traits (i.e., Cognitive Structure, Succorance, and Proactive Personality) were expected to serve the need for Approachability, especially under relevant work conditions (i.e., Role Ambiguity, Stress, and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement, respectively). Beyond offering a unique test of TAT, the moderator hypotheses afforded a stronger validation opportunity in developing the Approachability measure (as per a more refined nomological net).

In summary, this study sought to (a) identify the structure of Approachability and distinguish it from similar constructs (i.e., what is Approachability?), (b) determine if desirable outcomes are associated with Approachability (i.e., what is Approachability good for?), and (c) assess whether relevant employee personality traits and situational features moderate Approachability-outcome relationships (i.e., who needs

Approachability?). The remaining chapters are structured as follows: Chapter 2 offers the study's literature review and hypotheses development, Chapter 3 outlines the methodology utilized in the current study, Chapter 4 details the results of the hypotheses testing, and Chapter 5 discusses implications of the findings and areas for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Chapter Overview

This study continues a long line of leadership research beginning over a half century ago. The Ohio State leadership studies (e.g., Fleishman, 1953), with strong parallels to research conducted around the same time at the University of Michigan (e.g., Cartwright & Zander, 1960), set the stage for research in this area by identifying two dominant categories of leader behavior: Initiating Structure (i.e., task-orientation) and Consideration (i.e., person-orientation; Northouse, 2012). Included within the Consideration factor are worker-oriented behaviors such as being friendly and approachable (Stogdill, 1963). Building on the idea that some leaders are more inviting of input, *participative decision-making* (PDM) became a popular research area in the 1960s and 70s, explicitly examining the nature, causes, and outcomes of employee participation in organizational decision-making (e.g., Lowin, 1968; Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Similarly, *trust* is another element of the Ohio State Consideration dimension that has a substantial body of literature targeting cognitive trust, affective trust, and Trustworthiness. Each of the noted constructs (Consideration, PDM, and trust) is considered in greater detail below and their conceptual similarities and distinctions with Approachability are identified. After reviewing the leadership literature, theory and research are reviewed to provide a rationale for the outcomes and the moderators included in the study. The chapter ends by articulating the study's hypotheses.

Early Leadership Research

In one of the first formal studies of leadership, Galton (1878) attempted to determine if heritable qualities could explain leader success. This approach later became a trend with many I-O psychologists in the 1920s and 1930s as researchers began searching for traits distinguishing leaders from non-leaders (Landy & Conte, 2013). The trait approach emerged as the first dominant leadership paradigm and assumed that individuals are either born with leadership qualities or not (Bass, 1990). The goal of scientists adopting this paradigm was to identify the crucial leadership traits and help organizations identify those traits in employees. The leader trait paradigm began to lose steam as researchers failed to identify any particular trait, or set of traits, that consistently differentiated leaders and non-leaders (Stogdill, 1948). Jenkins (1947) stated in a review of the literature, "No single trait or group of characteristics has been isolated which sets off the leader from the members of his [or her] group" (p. 74). With the failure of leadership trait research to yield definitive conclusions, leadership research shifted to a new paradigm.

Shaped by behaviorism, the dominant philosophy in psychology at the time, the behavioral approach to leadership eschewed traits, relegating them to the "black box" of phenomena off limits from an empirical standpoint. Instead, specific actions taken by leaders became the focus. One of the first behavioral studies was performed at Ohio State University, where researchers took a list of 1,800 leadership behaviors and reduced it to a set of 150 core leadership behaviors. These 150 behaviors were grouped by subject matter experts (SMEs) into nine categories: integration, communication, production emphasis, representation, fraternization, organization, evaluation, initiation, and

domination. To test if the nine categories were an appropriate taxonomy of leadership behaviors, behavioral observations of the 150 leadership behaviors were collected and a factor analysis was performed on the gathered data. The resulting factor structure identified two dominant categories of leader behavior: Consideration (i.e., the extent to which leaders are considerate of workers' feelings, showing a person-orientation) and Initiating Structure (i.e., the extent to which leaders facilitate employee efforts towards goal attainment, showing a task-orientation; Fleishman, 1953).

Similar research undertaken at the University of Michigan, largely coinciding with the Ohio State studies, again identified two types of leader behaviors: Employee Orientation and Production Orientation (e.g., Cartwright & Zander, 1960). The Employee Orientation coincides with the Ohio State Consideration dimension and Production Orientation, with Initiating Structure. Initially, the University of Michigan researchers differed from the Ohio State studies in their conceptualization of how the two leadership behavioral domains were related. Instead of viewing the two domains as independent, the University of Michigan researchers proposed that the two domains were opposing ends of a single continuum. A leader could be high in one or the other but not both. However, as the University of Michigan researchers collected more data, their understanding evolved to a point where their model aligned with the Ohio State studies. In their final model, each leadership orientation became independent of the other and a leader could be high in neither or both (Kahn, 1956).

With two research initiatives arriving independently at essentially the same two dimensions, the two-dimensional conceptualization of leadership behavior became popular, spurring theoretical models such as Blake and Mouton's (1982) "Managerial

Grid" and considerable research on the outcomes associated with each dimension (Yukl & Taber, 2002). The extensive research of these leadership domains, especially the replicated factor structure across cultures including China, Japan, the United Kingdom (Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson, & Bond, 1989), demonstrates the robustness of the broad two-factor dimensionality of leader behaviors.

Consideration

Of the two leadership behavior dimensions identified by the Ohio State and University of Michigan studies, the Consideration (Employee Orientation) dimension is most relevant to Leader Approachability. Included within the Consideration subscale of the *Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire* (LBDQ; Stogdill, 1963) are a variety of behaviors, some having little direct connection to Leader Approachability, such as “easy to understand” and “expresses appreciation for a good job.” A few Consideration exemplars, however, are highly relevant to Approachability, such as “is friendly and can be easily approached” and “makes those under him feel at ease when talking with him.” These two items load on the Consideration factor .82 and .86 respectively. Only one item loads higher: "putting suggestions made by employees into operation" (.87; Fleishman, 1953).

These findings are notable for two reasons. First, the item specifically mentioning Approachability also mentions friendly behaviors (i.e., "is friendly and can be easily approached"), suggesting friendliness and Approachability are closely related. This, in turn, is consistent with the proposed conceptualization of Approachability as including warmth. Second, the results suggest that Approachability is a key component of how

leaders demonstrate Consideration towards their constituents. Not only was friendliness/Approachability selected from the original list of 1,800 behaviors to be included in the final list of 150 behaviors, but it also exhibited the third strongest loading on the Consideration factor (Fleishman, 1953).

Although research clearly identified Consideration and Initiation Structure as primary leadership dimensions, it remained a point of debate as to whether the behavioral approach could account for leadership effectiveness. House and Aditya (1997) asserted that research on the behavioral approach had produced, "no pattern of leader behavior that was found to be consistently associated with subordinates' satisfaction or any criteria of supervisor or manager effectiveness" (p. 13). Testing the validity of this claim, Judge, Piccolo, and Illies (2004) used meta-analysis to investigate the relationship between Consideration behaviors and a variety of work outcomes. The results clearly supported a relationship between the two behavioral dimensions and leader effectiveness. Consideration, in particular, showed moderately strong relationships with follower Job Satisfaction (corrected mean $\rho = .46$), follower motivation (.50), leader job performance (.25), group-organization performance (.28), and leader effectiveness (.52), and was strongly related to follower satisfaction with leader (.78). Initiating structure was also related to follower satisfaction with leader (.33), but the relationship was significantly weaker ($p < .05$). Interestingly, and contrary to the study's hypothesis, Consideration also showed a significantly stronger relationship with leader effectiveness (.52) as compared to initiating structure (.39). This finding implies that, of the two broad leader behavior dimensions, Consideration may be the most crucial for leader success.

Collectively, research on dominant leadership behaviors underscores the robustness of the Consideration factor and its connection to important outcomes. To a lesser extent, the research also supports the relevance of Leader Approachability as a key marker of the Consideration factor. If Approachability is an aspect of Consideration, it is only one of many. Constructs similarly understood as aspects of the broader Consideration category but more directly aligned with Approachability per se include *participative decision-making*, and *trust in supervision*. Reviews of relevant research in each of those areas is offered in the following sections in further delineating whether Approachability is "old wine in new bottles."

Before going further, it should be noted that the aim is not to compare Approachability to all available constructs conceptually relevant to Approachability, but rather to target constructs representative of the domain of positive correlates that have prominent research streams. For example, perceived supervisor support (PSS), or a supervisor's concern for employee wellbeing and an appreciation of employee contributions (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenbergehe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 1986), bears comparison to Leader Approachability. It is not targeted here, however, owing to its conceptual overlap with Consideration. Surprisingly little research has compared PSS and Consideration, but a cursory review of each scale's items suggests substantial overlap. For example, the PSS scale item "really cares about my well-being" closely parallels Consideration's "looks out for the personal welfare of group members." Given the overlap between Consideration and PSS and in light of Consideration's larger literature base, PSS is not considered separately here. The bottom line is that, if Approachability can be shown to be distinct from Ohio State Consideration, PDM, and Leader Trust, it

may be taken as standing a good chance of offering a unique addition to the leadership literature. To the degree Approachability, as a chiefly behavioral construct, lends itself to training, it could provide a uniquely tangible target for leader development.

Participative Decision Making

Participative decision-making (PDM) behaviors are a class of person-oriented actions aimed at allowing subordinate involvement in work decisions (Mitchell, 1973). PDM, sometimes referred to as employee involvement, has been the subject of extensive research for over 50 years and its benefits are well documented. A meta-analysis of PDM research (Spector, 1986) showed PDM to be related to, among a long list of positive outcomes, general job satisfaction (corrected mean ρ = .44), supervision satisfaction (.47), motivation (.43), and performance (.23).

Differences of opinion exist over the most appropriate conceptualization of PDM (Cotton et al., 1995). Adopting a broad approach, some researchers consider PDM as any behavior directed towards sharing power, including delegation of work decisions. Thus, even though delegation results in minimal interaction between supervisors and subordinates, it is still considered to be within the PDM umbrella (e.g., Daniels & Bailey, 1999). Those adopting a narrower focus, however, limit PDM to joint decision-making behaviors between supervisors and subordinates (Bass, 1981). This latter perspective argues that participation and delegation are conceptually and practically distinct (Strauss, 1963; Heller, 1976; Locke & Schweiger, 1979). Heller (1976) discusses one key difference between participation and delegation in highlighting the dyadic interactions afforded by participation behaviors. According to this view, participation necessitates

interaction. For employees to participate in decisions, they need to talk, interact, and collaborate with the leader as s/he determines how to proceed. This interaction differs from delegation, which by itself removes the need for the two parties to interact. Therefore, delegation has been argued to be more similar to autonomy than to participation (Leana, 1987).

Other distinctions within the PDM literature have been identified, including direct versus indirect, short versus long-term, and formal versus informal participation (Dachler & Wilpert, 1978; Cotton, 1988). Direct PDM takes the form of immediate, personal involvement with decision-making. For example, the employee may communicate with the supervisor directly about work decisions. In indirect PDM, employees influence decisions only through a mediator (e.g., employee union). As a second distinction, PDM also varies in duration. Supervisors may commit themselves to restricted windows of employee participation (e.g., eliciting employee feedback for a few weeks or months until a particular issue is addressed). Alternatively, supervisors may commit to extended periods of employee participation. Finally, employee participation can be formalized through contractual obligations and/or company policies. If PDM is not codified into official company or departmental policies, it may still exist if supervisors permit employees to weigh in on work decisions informally. The various distinctions within the PDM literature create complexity. In an effort to delineate the nuances, Table 2.1 offers a summary of the main points.

The aim of this review of PDM is not to integrate all the distinctions, but rather to identify appropriate aspects of PDM most relevant to Approachability. Of the different forms of PDM, informal PDM is most relevant to Leader Approachability. Informal PDM

is behavioral and, for it to exist, must take place through interpersonal interactions between supervisors and subordinates (Cotton et al., 1988). Such interactions, as discussed previously, should occur more often if a supervisor is approachable. Following this reasoning, Leader Approachability should provide supervisors more opportunities for informal PDM.

A number of studies have considered the effects of informal PDM. Cotton et al. (1988) tabulated statistically significant findings in summarizing the literature targeting the effects of various forms of PDM on performance and satisfaction. Of 26 studies identified as involving informal PDM, six reported links with job performance, and, of those six, none demonstrated a negative relationship, one demonstrated a neutral relationship (20%), and five (80%), a positive relationship. Of 20 studies addressing the informal PDM-satisfaction relationship, none demonstrated a negative relationship, three demonstrated a neutral relationship (15%), and 17 demonstrated a positive relationship (85%). Overall, it was concluded that informal PDM is positively related to both employee satisfaction and performance.

Informal PDM and Leader Approachability share conceptual similarities. They both involve interpersonal interactions and receiving employee input. The conceptual similarities between informal PDM and Leader Approachability provide a rationale for comparing the two constructs. Specifically, the current study sought to assess whether Leader Approachability accounts for positive outcomes beyond those associated with informal PDM. To address this issue, a measure of informal PDM was included.

Table 2.1

Conceptual Distinctions within PDM Literature

Term	Definition	Source
Type		
Participative	Joint decision making between superior and subordinate	Bass, 1981
Delegation	A "process whereby the manager transfers decision making authority to a subordinate" (p. 228).	Leana, 1987
Process		
Direct	A procedure "allow[ing] participants to be involved immediately in the decision making process" (p. 861).	Black and Gregersen, 1997
Indirect	A procedure allowing "mediated involvement of organization members in decision making through some form of representation" (p. 12).	Dachler & Wilpert, 1978
Time		
Short-term	PDM interventions implemented for "a few hours, a single meeting, or at most, a few days" (p. 10)	Cotton et al., 1988
Long-term	PDM interventions of extended duration (a year to multiple decades)	Lawler, 1986
Formality		
Formal	A process with "explicit rules and procedures concerning who participates, what decisions are open to participation, [and] how the participation occurs" (p. 861).	Black & Gregersen, 1997
Informal	A process with "very few explicit rules concerning who participates, what decisions are open to participation, or how participation is to occur" (p. 861).	Black & Gregersen, 1997

Trust

Another element of the broad Ohio State Consideration dimension is trust. Supervisors can demonstrate their trust in subordinates and foster an environment where subordinates trust their supervisors (Fleishman & Harris, 1962). Research on trust spanning five decades has been undertaken within multiple disciplines, including industrial-organizational psychology, ethics, sociology, economics, and management (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Bigley & Pearce, 1998). This diversity in approaches to trust has resulted in multiple proposed definitions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Among the more popular definitions offered from a particularly psychological standpoint is that of Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, (1998): trust is "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (p. 395).

The noted definition articulates two primary aspects of trust. The first is the willingness to assume vulnerability. To the degree individuals trust one another, they are willing to accept vulnerability within the relationship, for example, by disclosing sensitive information. Mayer and Gavin (2005) note that trust is relevant in work settings. They posit that, when employees assume vulnerability, the organization will benefit. For example, if an employee is able to disclose personal information with the supervisor, the energy that would otherwise be devoted towards concealing that information can be directed towards more productive work activities. The second aspect of trust is positive expectations. Employees who trust their supervisors expect them to act in accordance with the employees' best interests (e.g., keeping shared personal information private).

Evidence supports this conceptualization of trust. Colquitt et al.'s (2007) psychometric meta-analysis of the trust literature showed a moderately strong relationship between trust and risk-taking behaviors (corrected ρ = .42). Employees who trust their supervisors demonstrate their willingness to be vulnerable through such behaviors. Furthermore, the same study showed a positive relationship between trust and task performance (corrected ρ = .33) and citizenship behavior (.27), and a negative relationship with counterproductive work behavior (-.33). These findings highlight the benefits of trust and indicate that, when employees trust their supervisors, they tend to be more productive and more willing to engage in helpful behaviors such as assisting coworkers.

Trust may be classified into two forms: cognitive and affective (McAllister, 1995). Cognitive trust is derived from a determination of a leader's reliability and dependability, whereas affective trust is derived from feelings of mutual concern and desire for one another's well-being. McAllister's (1995) research supports the distinction between the two types of trust, showing differential relationships with relevant outcomes. For example, affect-based trust exhibited positive linkages with monitoring coworker needs and assisting colleagues with job duties, whereas cognitive-based trust had a slight negative relationship with these outcomes.

Trust is conceptually similar to, but bears distinction from, both propensity to trust and Trustworthiness. Propensity to trust is a relatively stable individual difference variable capturing the degree to which a person generally tends to trust others (i.e., dependence, gullibility). Personality traits, life experiences, and cultural dynamics are assumed to contribute to an individual's overall propensity to trust (Mayer, Davis, &

Schoorman, 1995). Although propensity to trust holds a positive relationship with trust (corrected ρ = .27), it is more stable than both trust and Trustworthiness and accounts for variance in trust, even when controlling for Trustworthiness of the leader (Colquitt et al., 2007).

Trustworthiness also relates to trust but is conceptually and empirically distinct, reflecting the degree to which an individual perceives that "another party can be trusted to honor duties inherent within a perceived social contract existing between the parties" (Caldwell, Hayes, & Long, 2010; p. 500). In the workplace, subordinates determine if supervisors possess attributes needed to uphold a social contract. If so, the supervisor would be deemed trustworthy. According to Mayer et al. (1995), three factors contribute to an appraisal of Trustworthiness: ability, benevolence, and integrity. Ability is the proficiency of the supervisor in job-relevant skills and competencies. Benevolence concerns whether the supervisor attends more to the well-being of subordinates or his/her own self-interests. Integrity is whether or not the supervisor consistently embraces a set of guiding principles when interacting with others. Employees form a perception of these three factors and combine them to form a general judgment of Trustworthiness. Research shows a strong relationship between trust and each of the three Trustworthiness factors: ability (corrected ρ = .67), benevolence (.63), and integrity (.62; Colquitt et al., 2007).

The value of Trustworthiness is articulated by Galford and Drapeau (2003, p. 95), who describe the ability of leaders to earn trust as ‘‘the crucial ingredient of organizational effectiveness." Of the noted constructs within the trust literature (i.e., trust, trustworthiness, affective trust, and cognitive trust), Trustworthiness is the most relevant to Leader Approachability as proposed here. Approachability and Trustworthiness are

employee perceptions of supervisors. Approachability is an employee's perception of the supervisor's availability, receptivity, and warmth; Trustworthiness is an employee's perception of how much vulnerability is safe when interacting with a given supervisor. Approaching and trusting differ from Approachability and Trustworthiness because the former are more than perceptions; they are actions. Approaching is when the employee actually decides to go to the supervisor. Trusting is when the employee actually decides to make herself/himself vulnerable to the leader. Given the similarity between Approachability and Trustworthiness as subjective judgments of a supervisor made by employees, the study seeks to test their overlap and distinctiveness. Accordingly, a measure of Trustworthiness is included in the current study.

Conceptual Overlap and Distinctiveness of Approachability

A critical aim of this dissertation is to test the uniqueness of leadership Approachability relative to similar but more established constructs. Before testing the uniqueness of Leader Approachability empirically, it is prudent to establish the distinctiveness of Approachability conceptually from each construct covered in the literature review: Consideration, PDM, and trust. Each of the noted constructs bears comparison to Approachability and its three proposed components: availability, warmth, and receptivity.

Consideration

As noted, Consideration includes key elements of Approachability. The LBDQ (Stogdill, 1963) Consideration scale item, "is friendly and approachable," aligns with

general Approachability but especially the warmth component. Additionally, the Consideration scale includes at least two other items relevant to Approachability: "keeps to himself/herself," and "puts suggestions made by the group into operation." The "keeps to himself/herself" item aligns with the accessibility component of Approachability (negatively keyed), whereas the "puts suggestions made by the group into operation" item aligns somewhat with the receptivity component of Approachability.[1]

Consideration is a class of leader behaviors targeting "the comfort, well being, status, and contributions of followers" (Stogdill, 1963, p.3). As such, it is not surprising that it includes behaviors linked to Approachability and its (proposed) components. As noted above, however, the Consideration dimension is quite broad, including many other behaviors that have little relevance to Approachability. For example, LBDQ Consideration items such as, "gives advance notice of changes," and "refuses to explain his/her actions" do not describe Approachability per se (at either end of the dimension). Additionally, concepts such as trust are also included within the Consideration dimension (Fleishman & Harris, 1962) and yet have distinct and robust research streams. Therefore, just because Approachability can be categorized under the general "Consideration" construct, this by itself does not disqualify it from being investigated in its own right. On the contrary, given the evidence supporting the relationship between Consideration and outcomes such as Job Satisfaction, motivation, and leader effectiveness (Judge et al., 2004), the components of Consideration become more worthy of investigation. The study

[1] It is not considered a close match as a leader might show receptivity to an idea and yet not put it into operation.

stands to help clarify whether Approachability is a uniquely potent aspect of Consideration.

Participative Decision Making

Of the various types of PDM identified in the literature, the one most relevant to Leader Approachability is informal PDM, as both involve interpersonal interactions. The Approachability facet most closely related to informal PDM (conceptually) is receptivity. Both Approachable supervisors and leaders who utilize informal PDM are likely to be viewed as receptive. Approachability and informal PDM share this similarity. They are more distinct, however, with respect to the warmth and availability facets. A supervisor utilizing informal PDM may not necessarily be viewed as warm or accessible. For example, a supervisor might informally elicit employee opinions (PDM) in an aloof manner that does not convey much warmth (e.g., such that solicited opinions are publicly shot down), and may do so only at certain times or situations (i.e., with limited availability). As a result, an employee may be invited to offer input into work-related decisions and yet not feel comfortable approaching the supervisor to ask for help or discuss a personal matter. Approachability and informal PDM are likely related (i.e., employees who feel comfortable approaching a supervisor will likely receive more opportunities to engage in informal PDM). However, a leader promoting informal PDM could create an “I’ll come to you" environment in which employees understand that, if the leader needs input, s/he will come to them but unsolicited suggestions from employees are unwelcome. In such a situation, informal PDM would exist but Approachability would not. Accordingly, the two constructs are conceptually distinct.

Trust

Of the various constructs identified within the Trust literature (e.g., affective trust, cognitive trust, propensity to trust, and trustworthiness), the construct most relevant to Leader Approachability is Trustworthiness. Trustworthiness and Approachability share certain similarities. Both constructs are subjective evaluations formed about leaders. However, the substance of that evaluation differs. Trustworthiness is an evaluation of how much personal vulnerability is expected when working with the leader. Approachability is an evaluation of how open a supervisor is to her/his constituents. Trustworthiness consists of three components: ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995). Of those subcomponents, benevolence shows the greatest similarity to Approachability's warmth facet. An employee with a warm (i.e., friendly) supervisor might interpret that warmth as the leader's genuine concern for her well-being. The remaining components have less in common. The ability component of Trustworthiness shares few similarities with Approachability: a supervisor could be very competent (e.g., is well qualified for her job and effectively oversees the unit's finances) but not necessarily available or receptive. The integrity component of Trustworthiness may have an indirect relationship with Approachability. For example, the integrity item "tries hard to be fair in dealing with others" has an indirect relationship with receptivity. A supervisor making an effort to be fair seems likely to be receptive to employees' concerns. Therefore, Trustworthiness shows partial, but not complete correspondence with Leader Approachability.

The forgoing comparisons between extant leadership constructs and Approachability, including Approachability's proposed components (i.e., availability,

warmth, and receptivity), are summarized in Table 2.2. Although the comparisons demonstrate overlap between Approachability and the other constructs, substantial conceptual distinctions are also apparent. The ability to conceptually distinguish Approachability from extant constructs provides grounds for empirically testing the distinctiveness of Leader Approachability from the noted constructs.

Table 2.2

Overlap between Leader Approachability's (Proposed) Facets and Extant Constructs

	Approachability in General	Availability	Warmth	Receptivity
Consideration	Consideration is broad; therefore, it is not surprising that it includes behaviors linked to approachability. However, consideration includes many other behaviors that have little relevance to approachability.	Similar: Consideration's "keeps to himself/herself" item (negatively keyed) aligns with availability.	Similar: Consideration's "is friendly and approachable" aligns with warmth (and general approachability).	Similar: Consideration's "puts suggestions made by the group into operation" item aligns somewhat with receptivity.
Informal PDM	Both involve interpersonal interactions. PDM and approachability are distinct in situations where PDM is implemented in an unapproachable manner (e.g., "I welcome your input but only when I ask").	Distinct: A supervisor might elicit employee opinions (PDM) only at certain times or situations.	Distinct: Informal PDM may be done in an aloof manner that does not convey much warmth (e.g., solicited opinions are shot down).	Similar: Approachable supervisors and leaders who utilize informal PDM are both likely to be viewed as receptive.
Trustworthiness				
Ability	Both trustworthiness and approachability are subjective evaluations made by constituents of their leader. However, the substance of that evaluation differs (i.e., appropriate levels of personal vulnerability when working with the leader vs. how open a supervisor is to constituents.)	Distinct: A supervisor could be very competent but not necessarily available.	Distinct: A supervisor could be very competent but not necessarily warm.	Distinct: A supervisor could be very competent but not necessarily receptive.
Benevolence		Distinct: A supervisor could be benevolent but not necessarily available.	Similar: Warmth might be interpreted as the leader's genuine concern for well-being (benevolence).	Similar: A benevolent supervisor would be receptive to employee opinions.
Integrity		Distinct: A supervisor could show integrity without necessarily being available.	Similar: Integrity's "goes out of his/her way to help me" item aligns somewhat with warmth.	Similar: A supervisor making an effort to be fair is likely to be receptive to employee concerns.

Outcomes of Approachability

After considering the conceptual and empirical distinctiveness of Approachability, a second aim of the study was to examine work outcomes associated with Approachability. Four outcomes were selected for inclusion here due to their particular relevance to Approachability. The outcomes are Employee Voice, Turnover Intention (TOI), Satisfaction, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs).

Hirschman's (1970) treatise on Exit, Voice, and Loyalty serves as a guiding framework for including the noted outcome variables, especially TOI. According to Hirschman's theory, members of organizations face two options when perceiving deteriorating conditions within an organization: exit or Voice. The first alternative is to escape the worsening relationship with the organization by exiting (e.g., quitting). The second alternative is Voice, which entails providing suggestions to individuals who have power to implement those suggestions (e.g., a supervisor). If employees are able to resolve issues by offering suggestions to a supervisor, they will not need to exit. Employee retention is a valuable, but not the sole, benefit of Voice. By engaging in Voice behaviors, employees potentially provide insight into organizational improvements or help avoid future problems. These insights benefit more than just the particular employee by potentially improving organizational performance. As extreme yet relevant examples, the Columbia space shuttle disaster, the British Petroleum oil spill, and the United Airlines flight 173 crash all resulted from, or were exacerbated by, failure of employees to voice information to supervisors (Morrison, 2011). Research supports Hirschman's theory, showing that voice both reduces turnover (Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Spencer, 1986) and improves organizational performance (Detert, Burris, Harrison,

& Martin, 2013; MacKenzie et al., 2011; Nemeth, Connell, Rogers, & Brown, 2001). Research also has compared various forms of Voice. Voice can target supervisors directly (e.g., discussing issues with a supervisor) or indirectly (e.g., utilizing an employee union), or target coworkers directly (e.g., discussing issues with colleagues; Detert et al., 2013; Holland, Pyman, Cooper, & Teicher, 2011). Of the three options, Voice targeting the supervisor directly is associated with the greatest benefits. The other two types (i.e., targeting supervisors indirectly and colleagues directly) show a negative or near zero relationship with outcomes such as unit performance and employee retention (Detert et al., 2013; Holland et al., 2011).

As discussed in Chapter 1, a defining quality of approachable leaders is receptivity, or behaviors that encourage employees to express their thoughts. As such, approachable leaders provide more opportunities for employees to engage in Voice targeting supervisors directly (Saunders et al., 1992). For this reason, Voice is included as an outcome variable in the study. Following Hirschman's Exit, Voice, and Loyalty theory (1970), approachable leaders are expected to reduce TOI. Approachable leaders allow employees to Voice concerns instead of exiting the organization. Accordingly, TOI is also included as an outcome variable in the study. Besides having lower TOI, employees engaging in Voice have been shown to experience higher levels of satisfaction (Holland et al., 2011; Rusbult et al., 1988) and satisfied employees are shown to engage in more OCBs (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Based on this research linking the outcomes of Voice, Job Satisfaction, and OCBs (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Holland et al., 2011; Rosbult et al., 1988), these variables were also included as outcome variables in this dissertation to explore whether they are associated with Approachability.

Further justification for the inclusion of OCBs as an outcome variable can be found in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which holds that subordinates and supervisors develop a relationship through their interactions. If those interactions are positive and the supervisor demonstrates concern for the subordinate, a subordinate is likely to reciprocate with desired behaviors (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). It has been argued that OCBs is one manner by which employees can reciprocate within the social exchange framework (Klass, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012). As discussed in Chapter 1, following the principles of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), Approachable leaders have the opportunity to develop a more personal relationship with employees. Through the social exchange lens, this should result in behaviors of reciprocation, such as OCBs, from subordinates. This provides an added rationale for including OCBs in the current study.

Moderators Increasing the Need for Approachability

Beyond considering the empirical distinctiveness of Approachability and its outcomes, a third aim of the study was to examine if certain individuals in certain situations particularly benefit from approachable leaders. Trait Activation Theory (TAT; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett et al., 2013) offers a conceptual framework for this research aim. TAT posits that personality-based individual differences in work behavior are properly understood only by considering trait-relevant situational cues. Within this framework, Leader Approachability functions for the worker as a cue that may activate latent traits such that the way a given worker looks for and reacts to Approachability in

their leader depends on the worker's personality makeup. As such, certain individuals may especially appreciate approachable leaders.

To identify the sorts of traits that might moderate Leader Approachability-outcome relationships, it is helpful to consider why employees might desire an approachable supervisor. Three main reasons can be identified. An approachable leader can (a) provide details on work directives, (b) offer psychological support, and (c) serve as a conduit for implementing new ideas. Each of these reasons for favoring an approachable leader suggests both an associated trait that can differentiate between workers in preference for an approachable leader and relevant work conditions in which Leader Approachability may be especially salient. TAT can be used to frame the joint effects of traits and situational features on preference for an approachable leader. The three reasons for Leader Approachability and related traits and conditions are summarized in Table 2.3 and discussed below, per reason.

Role Clarity

Although all employees may at times feel the need to seek clarification about work matters, employees high in *need for certainty* ought to experience a greater need for Leader Approachability as a way to improve clarity. Need for certainty, also known as "Cognitive Structure," is identified as avoidance of ambiguity and the search to have questions answered fully (Jackson, 1984). Due to their tendency to seek certainty, individuals high on Cognitive Structure ought to particularly appreciate an approachable leader as a source of clarification and guidance. Correspondingly, a situational feature especially relevant to the need to seek clarity is *Role Ambiguity*. Individuals working in

conditions of high Role Ambiguity ought to particularly appreciate having an approachable leader as a source of clarification in work duties and methods. Combining traits and situations as per trait activation, individuals high in Cognitive Structure may be especially likely to appreciate an approachable boss and more so when Role Ambiguity is high.

Psychological Support

Although all employees may at times feel a need to be supported by their boss, employees high in *Succorance* have an especially strong need for support, and consequently, ought to have a greater desire for Leader Approachability. Individuals high in Succorance regularly seek the advice, reassurance, and sympathy of others (Jackson, 1984). Due to succorant individuals' propensity to feel uncertain without support and their desire to disclose difficulties to a receptive audience, these individuals ought to particularly appreciate having an approachable leader. An associated situational feature especially relevant to psychological support is *work stress*. Due to the strain that often results from working in stressful working conditions (Landy & Conte, 2013), individuals working in such conditions ought to particularly appreciate having an approachable leader. Combining the noted trait and work condition, preference for Leader Approachability should be heightened in succorant individuals but especially those working in stressful jobs. Thus, Succorance and perceived Job Stress should interact in determining preference for an approachable boss.

Conduit to Implementation

Although most employees may, at times, have ideas to improve the work environment and seek to share those ideas with their boss, employees high in *Proactive Personality* can be expected to have more ideas and a stronger willingness to see those ideas implemented. Individuals high in Proactive Personality seek to effect change within their environment by identifying opportunities and acting upon them (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Accordingly, these individuals ought to particularly appreciate an approachable leader who is receptive of their ideas. A relevant situational feature in this context is *opportunity to improve the work situation*. Individuals working in conditions affording many Opportunities for Workplace Improvements ought to particularly appreciate having an approachable leader. Combining the relevant trait and situational features, individuals high in Proactive Personality ought to especially prefer an approachable boss and more so when work conditions offer many opportunities for improvement.

Table 2.3

Reasons for Needing Leader Approachability, Associated Traits, Trait Descriptions, Scales, Trait-Relevant Work Conditions, and Rationale Description

Reasons	Traits	Trait Description	Scale	Trait-Relevant Work Conditions	Rationale
Seek Clarity	Cognitive Structure	Does not like ambiguity or uncertainty in information; wants all questions answered completely; desires to make decisions based upon definite knowledge, rather than upon guesses or probabilities.	Cognitive Structure subscale (Jackson Personality Research Form-E, 1994)	Role Ambiguity	Individuals who prefer certainty and individuals in ambiguous situations appreciate being able to receive clarity from an approchable supervisor.
Feel Support	Succorance	Seeks sympathy, protection, love, and reassurance of other people; may feel insecure or helpless without such support.	Succorance subscale (Jackson Personality Research Form-E, 1994)	Job Stress	Individuals who prefer sympathy and individuals in stressful situations appreciate being able to receive support from an approchable supervisor.
Share Ideas	Proactive Personality	Effects environmental change by identifying opportunities and acting upon them.	Proactive Personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993)	Opportunity for Workplace Improvement	Individuals who prefer acting upon opportunities and individuals in situations with oppportunites for improvement appreciate being able to share ideas with an approchable supervisor.

Approachability Targets

In addition to the primary research objectives, the study explored a tangential research question regarding whether perceptions of Leader Approachability vary by target (i.e., work-related issues, personal issues, work-life balance issues). It is unclear if employees perceive differences in Leader Approachability behaviors depending on the subject matter being addressed. For example, are supervisors sometimes available, warm, and receptive when an employee reaches out to a supervisor with work-related issues but not when an employee reaches out about personal matters? By addressing whether employees perceive differences in what leaders are approachable about, insight was sought as to whether Approachability perceptions are formed at a global level or if they are topic-specific.

Hypotheses

The first hypothesis addresses the structure of Approachability. As discussed previously, availability, warmth, and receptivity are proposed as definitive facets of Leader Approachability. Accordingly, it was expected that:

Hypothesis 1: Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the proposed Leader Approachability measure supports a three-factor model (availability, warmth, and receptivity) over a one-factor model (overall Approachability).

As summarized in the literature review, Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness are conceptually related to Leader Approachability. As such, it was expected that:

Hypothesis 2: Approachability (as a unitary or multifaceted construct) demonstrates convergent validity by correlating positively with previously published scales of (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, and (c) Trustworthiness.

Although the existing literature on Approachability is sparse, what does exist indicates that Approachability is beneficial (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Detert & Burris, 2007; Saunders et al., 1992) and a lack of Approachability is detrimental (Milliken et al., 2003). Given the empirical findings connecting Approachability to Voice (Saunders et al. 1992), and the theoretical and empirical support for the benefits of Voice (Hirschman, 1970; Holland et al., 2011; Rusbult et al., 1988; Spencer, 1986), the following hypothesis was made:

Hypothesis 3: Leader Approachability (as a unitary or multifaceted construct) is positively correlated with employee (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, (c) Voice; and (d) negatively correlated with Turnover Intention.

Despite the similarities between Approachability and Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness, conceptual distinctiveness has been articulated between Approachability and each of the noted constructs. Given these proposed uniqueness and existing research supporting the benefits of approachable leadership (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005, Detert & Burris, 2007; Saunders et al., 1992), it was expected that:

Hypothesis 4.1: Approachability shows incremental validity in predicting Job Satisfaction over-and-beyond the existing leadership constructs of (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, and (c) Trustworthiness.

Hypothesis 4.2: Approachability shows incremental validity in predicting OCBs over-and-beyond the existing leadership constructs of (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, and (c) Trustworthiness.

Hypothesis 4.3: Approachability shows incremental validity in predicting employee Voice over-and-beyond the existing leadership constructs of (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, and (c) Trustworthiness.

Hypothesis 4.4: Approachability shows incremental validity in predicting Turnover Intentions over-and-beyond the existing leadership constructs of (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, and (c) Trustworthiness.

The next two sets of hypotheses consider what personality traits and situations amplify the need for Approachability (See Figure 2.1). Due to particular relevance of Approachability to the personality traits of Cognitive Structure, Succorance, and Proactive Personality, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 5.1: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and Job Satisfaction is moderated by employee traits such that the relationship is strengthened for individuals higher in (a) Cognitive Structure, (b) Succorance, and (c) Proactive Personality.

Hypothesis 5.2: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and OCBs is moderated by employee traits such that the relationship is strengthened for individuals higher in (a) Cognitive Structure, (b) Succorance, and (c) Proactive Personality.

Hypothesis 5.3: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and Voice is moderated by employee traits such that the relationship is strengthened for

individuals higher in (a) Cognitive Structure, (b) Succorance, and (c) Proactive Personality.

Hypothesis 5.4: The (expected) negative relationship between Leader Approachability and Turnover Intentions is moderated by employee traits such that the relationship is strengthened for individuals higher in (a) Cognitive Structure, (b) Succorance, and (c) Proactive Personality.

The next set of hypotheses considers the situations in which Approachability is especially important (See Figure 2.1). Due to the particular relevance of Approachability to the situational features of Role Ambiguity, Job Stress, and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement, the following hypotheses were made:

Hypothesis 6.1: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and Job Satisfaction is moderated by situational features such that the relationship is strengthened in conditions high in (a) Role Ambiguity, (b) Job Stress, and (c) Opportunities for Workplace Improvement.

Hypothesis 6.2: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and OCBs is moderated by situational features such that the relationship is strengthened in conditions high in (a) Role Ambiguity, (b) Job Stress, and (c) Opportunities for Workplace Improvement.

Hypothesis 6.3: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and Voice is moderated by situational features such that the relationship is strengthened in conditions high in (a) Role Ambiguity, (b) Job Stress, and (c) Opportunities for Workplace Improvement.

Hypothesis 6.4: The (expected) negative relationship between Leader Approachability and Turnover Intention is moderated by situational features such that the relationship is strengthened in conditions high in (a) Role Ambiguity, (b) Job Stress, and (c) Opportunities for Workplace Improvement.

In addition to the two-way interactions described above (traits and situations each moderate the Approachability-outcome relationship independently), three-way interactions were also predicted. Due to the particular relevance of the personality traits and situational features with one another, they are predicted to heighten the moderating effects of one another (e.g., Stressful situations amplify Succorance's moderating effects on the Approachability-outcome relationships; See Figure 2.2). The final set of hypotheses address proposed three-way interactions between Approachability, personality, and work conditions.

Hypothesis 7.1: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) OCBs, (c) Voice, and (d) Turnover Intention (negative), is moderated by situational features and personality such that each of the noted relationships is strongest when both Role Ambiguity is high *and* the individual is high in Cognitive Structure.

Hypothesis 7.2: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) OCBs, (c) Voice, and (d) Turnover Intention (negative), is moderated by situational features and personality such that each of the noted relationships is strongest when both Job Stress is high *and* the individual is high in Succorance.

Hypothesis 7.3: The (expected) relationship between Leader Approachability and (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) OCBs, (c) Voice, and (d) Turnover Intention (negative), is

moderated by situational features and personality such that each of the noted relationships is strongest when both Opportunities for Workplace Improvement is high *and* the individual is high in Proactive Personality.

The final question explored by this study is if Approachability perceptions vary by topic content (e.g., work issues vs. personal issues). Due to the limited research on Leader Approachability, specific hypotheses are not offered in regards to this question. Instead, it is considered in an entirely exploratory spirit.

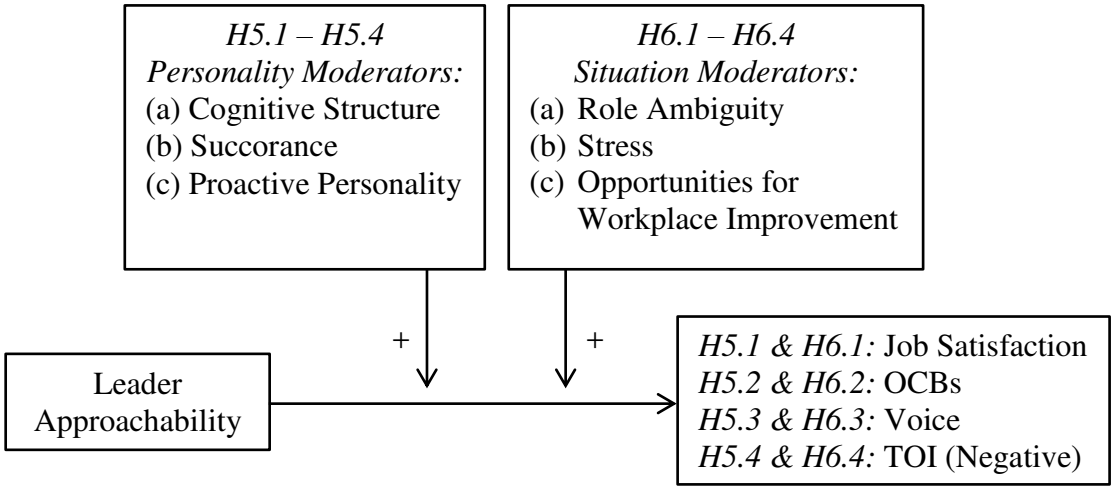

Figure 2.1. Model of hypothesized two-way interactions.

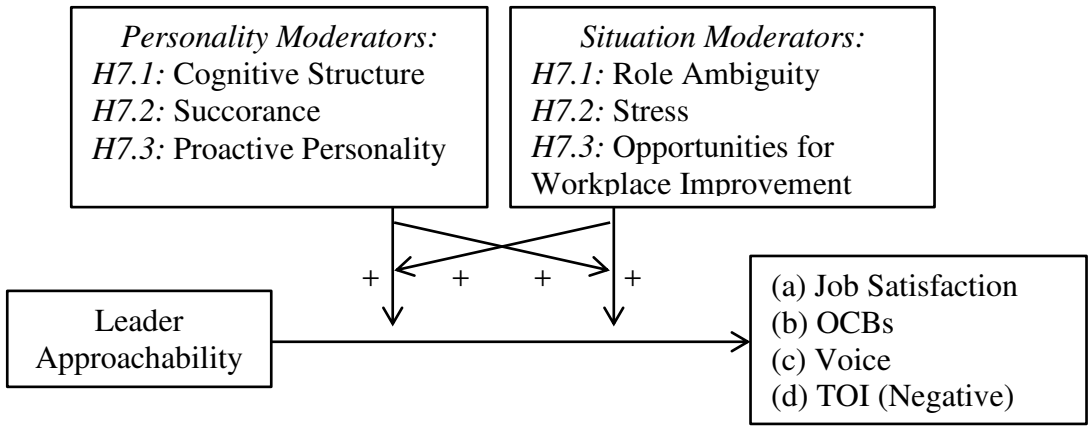

Figure 2.2. Model of the hypothesized three-way interactions.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Overview of Method

The study's data were collected in two waves. The first wave included 208 working adults recruited by Qualtrics, an online participant panel and survey software company. All 208 participants were located in the United States and compensated by Qualtrics for participation.[2] The second wave of data included 634 working adults nested within three companies. The Labor Relations Institute (LRI), a labor and positive employee relations consulting firm, assisted in recruiting Wave 2 participants. These participants were encouraged by their organization to complete the survey while at work and did not receive compensation for participation.

All participants completed an anonymous online survey targeting leadership constructs (Leader Approachability, Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness), personality moderators (Cognitive Structure, Succorance, and Proactive Personality), situation moderators (Job Stress, Role Ambiguity, and Opportunities for Workplace

[2] Qualtrics determined the amount of compensation each participant received based upon characteristics of the survey (e.g., length) and the targeted participants (e.g., working adults). The type of compensation received was tailored to participant preference and may have included cash, airline miles, gift cards, redeemable points, sweepstakes entrance, or vouchers. Qualtrics did not provide details to the researchers about the amount or type of compensation participants received.

Improvement) and outcomes (Job Satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, Voice, and Turnover Intention), as discussed in Chapter 2.

Wave 1

Participants

The 208 participants were full-time working adults (minimum age = 25 years), representing diverse industries and US geographic regions (see Table 3.1.1)[3]. All had been working for their current supervisor for at least one month (median tenure with supervisor = 3 years) at the time of survey completion. Median age was 45 years, median work experience was 23 years, and 58.7% were female. Qualtrics recruited participants and the sample includes only conscientious responders as identified by attention checks and bogus items. Qualtrics excluded 197 participants (48.6%) who were not responding conscientiously to the survey. Participants were determined to be responding conscientiously if they answered all the attention checks and bogus items correctly (see below).

[3] Table and figure numbering in Chapters 3-5 is comprised of three numbers. The leading number denotes the chapter, the second number denotes the wave, and the trailing number denotes the table's/figure's order within the wave (e.g., 3.1.1 = Chapter 3, Wave 1, Table 1). This numbering schema only applies to Chapters 3-5 where tables/figures refer to specific waves. The tables/figures in Chapters 1-2 apply to both waves, and accordingly, table/figure numbering is comprised of only two numbers (e.g., 2.1 = Chapter 2, Table 1).

Table 3.1.1

Wave 1 Sample Demographic Frequencies (N = *208)*

Item/Variable	Freq.	%
In which US region do you currently reside?		
Northeast	41	19.7
Midwest	49	23.6
South	67	32.2
West	51	24.5
What is your gender?		
Male	86	41.3
Female	122	58.7
Industry (text responses converted to numeric code)		
Accommodation and Food Services	5	2.4
Administration, Support, Waste Management, and Remediation Services	4	1.9
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	1	.5
Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation	6	2.9
Construction	6	2.9
Educational Services	32	15.4
Finance and Insurance	19	9.1
Health Care and Social Assistance	34	16.3
Information (e.g., book/magazine publishing, broadcasting, software publishing)	5	2.4
Management of Companies and Enterprises	1	.5
Manufacturing	17	8.2
Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction	1	.5
Basic Services (e.g., mechanic, home maintenance, hairdresser)	6	2.9
Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services	21	10.1
Public Administration	5	2.4
Real Estate and Rental and Leasing	9	4.3
Retail Trade	21	10.1
Transportation and Warehousing	6	2.9
Utilities	4	1.9
Wholesale Trade	3	1.4
Other	2	1.0

Measures

Wave 1 included the following measures. A list of all items is included in Appendix A.

Demographic Information

For descriptive purposes, demographic information including participant age, gender, tenure with supervisor, work experience, industry, and geographic region were collected.

Attention Checks and Bogus Items

Three attention checks (e.g., “This is an attention filter. Please select 'Always' for this statement”) and four bogus items (e.g., “I was born on February 30”) were distributed throughout the survey to identify careless responders (Meade & Craig, 2012). Only participants responding to all the attention checks and bogus items correctly were included in the sample.

Approachability

Leader Approachability was assessed through development of a self-report Leader Approachability scale. Thirty items were written (see Table 3.1.2) with 10 targeting each of the three noted facets: availability (e.g., “My supervisor keeps an ‘open-door’ policy for meeting with employees as needed”), warmth (e.g., “My supervisor creates a welcoming atmosphere”), and receptivity (e.g., “My supervisor gives due consideration to ideas expressed by employees”). Response options ranged from 1 (“never”) to 5

Table 3.1.2

Leader Approachability Scale Item Analysis and Descriptives ($N = 208$)

Subscale/Item	α	Mean	*SD*	Correlation/*CITr*			Facet	Overall Scale	
				A	W	R	α if Deleted	*CITr*	α if Deleted
1. Availability	.91	3.61	.81						
Item 1		3.50	1.11	**.69**	.61	.61	.90	.67	.97
Item 2		3.69	1.18	**.79**	.71	.70	.89	.77	.97
Item 3		3.50	1.08	**.78**	.68	.67	.89	.74	.97
Item 4		2.50	1.27	.47	.41	**.50**	.92	.48	.97
Item 5		3.33	1.07	**.70**	.63	.63	.90	.69	.97
Item 6		3.66	1.07	**.76**	.64	.65	.90	.71	.97
Item 7		3.88	.99	**.65**	.63	.59	.90	.66	.97
Item 8		3.94	1.00	.60	**.65**	.62	.91	.66	.97
Item 9		4.24	.93	.74	**.74**	.71	.90	.77	.97
Item 10		3.85	1.11	**.61**	.59	.55	.90	.61	.97
2. Warmth	.96	3.79	.90						
Item 1		3.54	1.11	.78	**.86**	.81	.95	.86	.97
Item 2		3.96	.99	.70	**.81**	.74	.95	.79	.97
Item 3		3.82	1.05	.76	**.86**	.78	.95	.84	.97
Item 4		3.63	1.04	.76	**.85**	.79	.95	.84	.97
Item 5		3.73	1.04	.72	**.83**	.77	.95	.81	.97
Item 6		3.82	1.04	.76	**.82**	.76	.95	.82	.97
Item 7		3.70	1.10	.65	.73	**.74**	.96	.74	.97
Item 8		3.81	1.11	.68	**.80**	.74	.95	.78	.97
Item 9		4.16	1.01	.62	**.76**	.71	.96	.73	.97
Item 10		3.72	1.12	.70	**.82**	.76	.95	.80	.97
3. Receptivity	.93	3.52	.82						
Item 1		3.43	1.05	.67	.69	**.73**	.92	.73	.97
Item 2		3.40	1.06	.76	**.79**	.79	.91	.82	.97
Item 3		3.38	1.05	.76	.76	**.80**	.91	.81	.97
Item 4		3.35	1.09	.65	.68	**.73**	.92	.72	.97
Item 5		3.44	1.10	.77	.78	**.79**	.91	.82	.97
Item 6		3.86	1.03	.50	**.62**	.60	.92	.60	.97
Item 7		2.88	1.01	.45	.45	**.55**	.93	.51	.97
Item 8		3.87	1.04	.71	.80	**.82**	.91	.82	.97
Item 9		3.78	1.02	.58	**.71**	.69	.92	.70	.97
Item 10		3.82	1.11	.60	.63	**.63**	.92	.65	.97
Overall Scale	.97	3.64	.80						

Note: All statistics reported are before dropping survey items or outliers; α = Cronbach's alpha; A = Availability, W = Warmth, R = Receptivity; *CITr* = Corrected item-total correlation = correlation between an item and the sum of the remaining items on the same scale; Highest correlation/*CITr*s are bolded; See Appendix A for survey items.

("always"). Before administering, the items were subjected to two rounds of sorting to improve and assess content validity (cf., Tett, Fox & Wang, 2003). Specifically, 12 psychology graduate students serving as subject matter experts (SMEs) were asked to match randomly listed items to a single Approachability facet (availability, warmth, or receptivity), based on facet definitions. Results of the first round of sorting guided item modifications yielding an overall 99% hit rate in the second round.

Multi-stage item analysis methods (cf., Jackson, 1970) of the Wave 1 survey data was used to refine the Leader Approachability subscales. Table 3.1.2 displays the corrected item-total correlation (*CITr*) of each Approachability item with its designated facet and the correlations between each Approachability item with the other two facet total scores.[4] *CITr*s with designated facets are higher than the correlations with the non-designated facets in all but seven cases. In these seven undesirable cases, the items have a slightly stronger relationship with non-designated facets than the designated facet (*CITr*s lower than *rs* by .003 - .04).

The low *CITr*s suggest that the noted items may not be appropriate indicators of their designated facet and accordingly warrant consideration for removal from the scale. For example, the seventh receptivity item, "My supervisor interrupts employees when they are sharing their thoughts" showed a stronger relationship with warmth (r = .61) than it did with receptivity (*CITr* = .57). This provides evidence that this item is assessing

[4] Table 3.1.2 is included in Chapter 3 to allow the reader to refer to the *CITr*s and correlations discussed here between items and facets. Additionally, this table provides context as to why the Approachability measure was revised for Wave 2.

more of warmth's construct domain than receptivity's. Upon review, it is not surprising that interrupting employees indicates low warmth. Dropping six of the seven problematic items resulted in the *CITr*s of the remaining 24 items correlating higher with their designated facet than with any of the non-designated facets. This appropriate alignment between the remaining items and their designated facet suggests that six of the seven problematic items should remain excluded. Accordingly, the remaining 24 items (α = .97) were used to calculate the Approachability scale scores and test research hypotheses. The final scale consists of seven availability items (α = .90), eight warmth items (α = .96), and eight receptivity items (α = .92).

Approachability Targets

In addition to the Approachability scale items, three items were included with specific Approachability targets (e.g., "Overall, how would you rate how approachable your boss is *about personal issues*"). Gathering data on varying targets (i.e., personal, work-life, and work) allows assessment of whether Approachability perceptions vary by target, addressing the study's exploratory research question. Alpha for this scale is .97.

Existing Leadership Measures

Extant scales targeting Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness were included to address the convergent and incremental validity of the proposed Leader Approachability scale.

Consideration was assessed using the *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire's* (LBDQ; Form XII; Stogdill 1963) 10-item (α = .92) scale, offering

response options from 1 (“never”) to 5 (“always”). As discussed in Chapter 2, Consideration is a broad construct encompassing behaviors relating to the well-being and comfort of employees. As such, Consideration includes behaviors with varying relevance to Approachability (e.g., “is friendly and can be easily approached,” “gives advance notice of changes,” “refuses to explain his/her actions;” reverse-keyed). The item explicitly mentioning Approachability was included in the survey administration. Chapter 4 reports results for the entire scale as well as with this particular item excluded to avoid inflating the correlation with Approachability due to direct content overlap.

PDM was assessed using Thompson and Kahnweiler’s (2000) 12-item scale (α = .95), with response options on a 1 (“never”) to 5 (“always”) scale. A sample item is, “My supervisor/manager asks for my opinion about how work gets done.”

Trustworthiness was assessed using Mayer and Davis’s (1999) 17-item scale containing three subscales: ability (6 items; α = .95), benevolence (5 items; α = .94), and integrity (6 items; α = .89). Responses range from 1 (“disagree strongly”) to 5 (“agree strongly”). Due to the referent of the current study being the immediate supervisor, the items were modified from the original version (“top management” to “my immediate supervisor”). Sample (modified) items include, “My immediate supervisor is very capable of performing her/his job” (ability), “My immediate supervisor is very concerned about my welfare” (benevolence), and “I never have to wonder whether my supervisor will stick to her/his word” (integrity).

Outcome Measures

Four self-report scales (i.e., Job Satisfaction, OCBs, Voice, and Turnover Intention) were included to evaluate selected outcomes of Leader Approachability.

Job Satisfaction was assessed using 24 items from a Job Satisfaction scale developed by the Labor Relations Institute (LRI; α = .97). Items (e.g., "I am very satisfied with my job.") are answered on a 7-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree). A principal components analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was performed on previous administrations of this survey (*N* = 3,546, from LRI) to identify psychometrically defensible facet scales. Five dominant item clusters were identified as satisfaction with (a) organizational justice, (b) the company, (c) work conditions, (d) supervisor, and (e) pay (α range = .81 to .95). Facet satisfaction scales permitted assessment of convergent validity (e.g., does Leader Approachability show a stronger relationship with supervisor satisfaction than with pay satisfaction?).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) were assessed using Lee and Allen's (2002) 16-item scale (α = .95). Items (e.g., "I defend the organization when other employees criticize it") were answered on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 ("never") to 7 ("always"). The OCB assessment includes two subscales: OCBs directed towards the organization (OCBOs; e.g., "I demonstrate concern about the image of the organization;" α = .93) and those directed towards individuals (OCBIs; e.g., "I help others who have been absent;" α = .91).

Employee Voice was assessed using Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) 6-item measure (α = .88). Items (e.g., "I speak up with ideas for new projects or changes in

procedures") were answered on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). The referent of the scale was modified from the original version (e.g., "This particular co-worker speaks up …") to accommodate self-reporting.

Turnover Intention (TOI) was assessed using Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth's (1978) 3-item scale (α = .71), with response options ranging from 1 ("very unlikely") to 5 ("very likely"). Items assess (a) thinking of quitting, (b) perceived probability of finding an acceptable alternative job, and (c) intention to quit.

Moderator Measures

The hypothesized moderators were measured to evaluate if individuals with certain personality traits and in certain situations particularly benefit from having an approachable leader. The moderating variables include three personality self-report scales (Cognitive Structure, Succorance, and Proactive Personality) and three situational feature scales (Role Ambiguity, Job Stress, and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement).

Cognitive Structure and Succorance were assessed using 16-item subscales (α = .64 and .74, respectively) from the *Personality Research Form E* (PRF-E; Jackson, 1994). Analysis of Wave 1 data showed that removing six items with the lowest *CITr*s from the Cognitive Structure subscale would raise alpha from .64 to a more acceptable .70 (Nunnally, 1978). A final determination as to whether and which items should be removed from the Cognitive Structure subscale to improve internal consistency was delayed until considering Wave 2 data.

Proactive Personality was assessed using Bateman and Crant's (1993) 17-item scale (α = .91). Items (e.g., "Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into

reality") were answered on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree").

Role Ambiguity was assessed using items from House, Schuler, and Levanom's (1983) measure (α = .74). Only four items (e.g., "I don't know what is expected of me at work") of the scale's original 15 items were selected, in order to minimize survey length. The four items included in this study were selected using three criteria: (a) previously-reported factor loadings, (b) balanced item keying, and (c) appropriate construct domain coverage.[5] Item wordings were modified to improve clarity (e.g., "at work" tags were added to items) and participants responded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree").

Job Stress was assessed using Schaubroeck, Cotton, and Jenning's (1989) 3-item Job Tension measure (α = .76). Items (e.g., "My job [e.g., the type of work, the amount of responsibility, etc.] causes me a great deal of stress and anxiety") were answered on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree").

Opportunities for Workplace Improvement were assessed through development of a 6-item scale (α = .65). Items (e.g., "I see many ways to improve my current workplace") were answered on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). One item (i.e., "My work situation leaves no room for improvement") exhibited a low correlation with the other scale items (*CITr* = -.13). Removing the item

[5] Items with balanced keying (i.e., equal numbers of positively and negatively keyed items) were selected to limit the negative effects of acquiescence response bias.

would raise alpha to .76. However, a final determination of whether this item should be dropped was delayed until consideration of Wave 2 data.

Procedures

Members of Qualtrics' worker panels were randomly selected to receive emails inviting them to participate in the study until the desired sample size was obtained (i.e., $N > 200$). Due to limited knowledge of Wave 1 participants' employment situation and job duties, stringent selection criteria were set. Participants were required to be full-time employees, be at least 25 years old, and have a supervisor with whom they had worked for at least one month. Participants meeting selection criteria completed the survey anonymously online. After completing the survey, participants who correctly responded to the attention checks and bogus items were compensated by Qualtrics.

Data Conditioning

After performing item analysis and computing scale scores, data were conditioned following guidelines outlined by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, pp. 72-89). Data conditioning included (a) examining scale normality and making appropriate transformations, (b) identifying and removing univariate and multivariate outliers, and (c) testing linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions.

Normality

Significance tests were used to identify skewed scales using $p < .001$, as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p. 80). One scale exhibited moderate

positive skew (i.e., Role Ambiguity), 13 scales exhibited moderate negative skew (availability, warmth, Approachability, Approachability Targets, benevolence, integrity, Trustworthiness, Voice, satisfaction with company, satisfaction with work conditions, Job Satisfaction, OCBIs, and OCBs), and two scales exhibited substantial negative skew (i.e., ability & satisfaction with supervisor). Moderately skewed scales were transformed using square root transformations and substantially skewed scales were transformed using log transformations. After transformations, none of the scales exhibited significant skewness (or kurtosis).

Outliers

After transforming the data to correct skewness, the scale scores were tested for univariate outliers. No standardized scores exceeded ±3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed), indicating an absence of univariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 73).

Mahalanobis distance was used to detect multivariate outliers. The study's hypotheses include relationships between two variables (e.g., Hypothesis 2a; Approachability and Consideration), three variables (e.g., Hypothesis 4.1a; Approachability, Consideration, & Job Satisfaction) and four variables (e.g., Hypothesis 7.3a; Approachability, Proactive Personality, Job Satisfaction, Opportunities for Workplace Improvement). Accordingly, Mahalanobis distances were evaluated using a χ^2 distribution with 2, 3, or 4 degrees of freedom and $p < .001$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 74). After three iterations of the 56 Mahalanobis distance analyses (outlying cases removed after each iteration), no new multivariate outliers were identified. In total, 13 participants (6.25% of Wave 1) were identified as outliers. The 13 participants were

reviewed and determined to have plausible but uncommon scale score combinations. If retained, the extremity of these participants' scale scores could have a disproportionate influence when testing hypotheses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 77) and so these cases were dropped from further analyses.[6] The final number of useable Wave 1 participants was 195.

Testing Linearity and Homoscedasticity Assumptions

The linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were tested concurrently by reviewing residuals scatterplots of each of the study's correlational and regression hypotheses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 125). The linearity assumption is met if the residual distribution is not curved and the homoscedasticity assumption is met if the deviations from the predicted score are generally uniform. A review of the scatterplots showed no violations of linearity and no substantial violations of homoscedasticity. In a few instances, the distributions showed minor indications of heteroscedasticity (see Figure 3.1.1). However, the distributions never displayed substantial heteroscedasticity, identifiable when the highest spread of residuals is three times taller than the lowest spread (Fox, 1991).

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[6] Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) identify removal as the most commonly used option for addressing multivariate outliers (p. 77). The deletion procedure here follows the data-cleaning example they outline (p. 105). Subsequent analyses were performed only with the outliers removed as no recommendation to perform analyses with and without the multivariate outliers is made by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013; see Chapter 4).

A final assumption, independence of observations, did not need to be formally tested. This assumption was met due to the manner in which the data were collected. Qualtrics randomly selected participants from a large participant pool. As such, participants did not work for the same supervisor and so independence of observations was assumed.

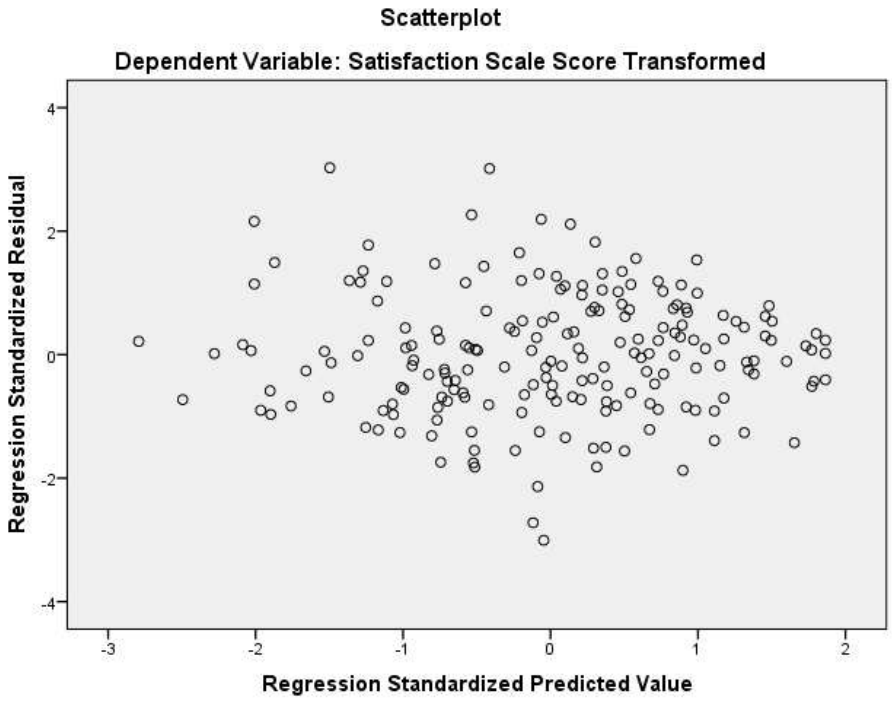

Figure 3.1.1. Wave 1 plot of predictive values for satisfaction (Hypothesis 4.1a) against residuals.

Analyses

Analyses are reviewed here in the order of the hypotheses they test. The analyses test the three primary objectives of the study, which include investigating (a) the structure

of Approachability and its relationship to similar constructs (Hypotheses 1 & 2), (b) the outcomes associated with Approachability (Hypotheses 3 & 4), and (c) whether relevant employee personality traits and situational features moderate Approachability-outcome relationships (Hypotheses 5 to 7).

Approachability's Structure

The structure of Leader Approachability (Hypothesis 1) was assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Factor analysis (FA) is a statistical technique applied to a set of variables to identify "which variables in the set form coherent subsets that are relatively independent of one another" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 612). Factor analysis identifies which variables "cluster" or correlate with one another while remaining mostly independent of other variables, and combines these variables into factors as linear weighted sums.

CFA is a particular form of FA that, instead of being driven entirely by the data, allows the researcher to impose an a priori factor model on the data to determine the model's capacity to account for the participant responses to the variables. The predetermined factor model is evaluated on its "goodness of fit" with the collected data. CFA was utilized in the study to compare two opposing models possibly underlying the Leader Approachability assessment: (a) a general one-factor model consisting of all observed indicators of a singular construct, and (b) the proposed three-factor model containing distinct but related factors (i.e., availability, warmth, and receptivity; see Appendix A for a list of the 24 items categorized within the three proposed Approachability dimensions). Following the guidelines of Brown (2006), indices from the three primary fit categories (i.e., absolute fit, comparative fit, and parsimonious fit)

were considered. The indices examined were the chi-square (χ^2) fit statistic, the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and the root mean square error of approximations (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990). CFA, and the resulting fit statistics, provided evidence as to which model best fits the data.

Approachability's Relationships with Extant Leadership Constructs

After assessing its structure, Approachability's relationship with extant leadership measures was tested using one-tailed, directional Pearson correlations. Correlations were calculated between Approachability and Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness individually (Hypotheses 2a to 2c).

Approachability's Outcomes and Incremental Validity

Pearson correlations using one-tailed, directional tests were computed to assess the relationship between Approachability and the targeted outcome measures (Job Satisfaction, OCBs, Voice, and Turnover Intention; Hypotheses 3a to 3d).

Hypotheses 3.1 to 3.4, specifying incremental prediction of a targeted outcome by Approachability over each of Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness (separately), were tested using hierarchical regression. For each analysis, the existing leadership measure (Consideration, PDM, or Trustworthiness) was entered in Step 1, followed by Approachability in Step 2. Significance was evaluated using 1-tailed tests in light of the hypotheses, all of which are directional.

Approachability-Outcome Relationship Moderators

Moderation analyses were performed to investigate the relationships between Leader Approachability, the individual difference variables (Cognitive Structure, Succorance, and Proactive Personality; Hypotheses 5.1 to 5.4), the situational feature variables (Role Ambiguity, Job Stress, and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement; Hypotheses 6.1 to 6.4), and the outcome variables (Job Satisfaction, OCBs, and Turnover Intention). Moderating relationships are identified when the relationship between the IV and DV (i.e., Approachability and Work Outcomes) is strengthened or weakened by a third variable, the moderator (i.e., personality or situational features). The moderating variable defines a boundary condition of the relationship between the IV and DV. To test for moderators, the product of the IV (Approachability) and each hypothesized moderator (personality or situational feature) was calculated individually. To reduce multicollinearity among predictor variables entered into the regression analysis, Approachability and the moderators were centered prior to creating the product terms (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, pp. 158-159). The centering procedure involved subtracting each variable's mean from the individual participants' scores. For each moderator tested, the IV (Approachability) and moderator (e.g., Cognitive Structure) were entered first (i.e., Step 1), followed by the interaction product term (e.g., Approachability x Cognitive Structure in Step 2) in a hierarchal regression analysis. Moderation would be evident if the product term accounts for a significant ($p < .05$) improvement in DV variance explained. In the current study, a significant interaction indicates that the relationship between Approachability and the outcome variables depends on the participants' personality or the situational features.

Hierarchical regression was further used to test for the presence of three-way interactions between Approachability, personality, and situational features (Hypotheses 7.1 to 7.3). As outlined above, Approachability and the moderating variables (personality and situational features) were centered to reduce issues of multicollinearity. For each three-way interaction tested, the IV (Approachability), personality variable (e.g., Cognitive Structure), situational feature (e.g., Role Ambiguity), and all possible two-way product terms (e.g., Role Ambiguity x Cognitive Structure, Cognitive Structure x Approachability, and Role Ambiguity x Approachability) were entered first (i.e., Step 1). Next, the three-way interaction term was entered (e.g., Approachability x Cognitive Structure x Role Ambiguity in Step 2). A three-way interaction would be supported if the three-way product term accounts for a significant ($p < .05$) improvement in DV variance explained beyond that explained by the variables entered in Step 1. The directional nature of the hypothesized moderator effects afforded reliance on one-tailed tests.

Wave 2

Participants

Participants in Wave 2 were 634 adults (minimum age = 18 years). Dissimilar to Wave 1, these participants were nested within organizations. All participants worked for one of three organizations across 21 locations (One organization provided participants from 19 different locations; see Table 3.2.1). The nested nature of the participants presents certain challenges (e.g., the assumption of independent observations is violated)

but also provides advantages (e.g., delineation of supervisor and rater effects). These challenges and advantages are discussed in detail later in the chapter.

The participating organizations included a small tax accounting firm (approximately 15 employees) located in the western United States, a medium-sized publishing company (approximately 350 employees) located in the southern United States, and a large freight company (over 1,700 employees) headquartered in the southern United States with work facilities in all major regions of the country. After excluding careless responders identified by attention checks and bogus items, there were nine tax firm participants, 46 publishing company participants, and 579 freight company participants. The tax firm participants were tax accountants and administrative staff. The publishing firm participants included employees working in marketing, accounting, IT, production, brand-products, and events. The freight company participants were dockworkers responsible for loading and unloading freight.

All participants were required to have worked for their supervisor for at least one month (median tenure with supervisor = one year). This criterion was established toward assuring at least minimal familiarity between participants and the supervisor they were rating. Median participant age was 30 years, median work experience was 12 years, participants were predominately male (93.7%), and the supervisors rated by participants were predominately male (95.1%). Only conscientious responders, identified by attention checks and bogus items (as in Wave 1), were included in the sample. A total of 209 participants (24.8%) were removed from the sample, due to failing one or both conscientious responding tests.

Table 3.2.1
Wave 2 Sample Demographic Frequencies (N = 634)

Item/Variable	Freq	%
In which US region do you currently reside?		
Northeast	106	16.7
Midwest	285	45.0
South	166	26.2
West	77	12.1
What is your gender?		
Male	594	93.7
Female	40	6.3
What is your supervisor's gender?		
Male	603	95.1
Female	31	4.9
Industry (text responses converted to numeric code)		
Information (e.g., book/magazine publishing, broadcasting, software publishing)	46	7.3
Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services	9	1.4
Transportation and Warehousing	579	91.3

Measures

The following measures were included in Wave 2. A list of all items is included in Appendix A.

Demographic Information

As in Wave 1, demographic information including participant age, gender, familiarity with supervisor, work experience, industry, and geographic region were collected for descriptive purposes. Additionally, supervisor's gender was collected in Wave 2.

Attention Checks and Bogus Items

Similar to Wave 1, two attention checks and four bogus items were distributed throughout the survey to identify careless responders (Meade & Craig, 2012). The bogus items were developed for this study and had not been previously vetted. Response rates to the bogus items were reviewed to ensure they were functioning correctly. A false-keyed bogus item (i.e., "I was born before the 9/11 terrorist attack on the World Trade Center") had an especially high incorrect response rate: 18% of participants responded to this item incorrectly. The remaining bogus items had an average incorrect response rate of 6% (range = 4% to 9%). The discrepancy between the two response rates (18% vs. 6%) suggests that the bogus item referring to the 9/11 terrorist attack may not be operating correctly (Meade & Craig, 2012). The wording of this item is awkward and easy to misunderstand. A more fluent manner to write the statement would be, "I was alive during the 9/11 terrorist attack on the World Trade". The awkward phrase, "I was born before" may have primed the common phrase "before my time" in the minds of some respondents, leading them to incorrectly interpret the question as "The 9/11 terrorist attack on the World Trade Center was before my time." Given the high incorrect response rate and confusing wording, this item was not used to detect careless responders.[7] Conscientious responders were identified using the remaining three bogus

[7] In wave 1, Qualtrics did not share the data of participants excluded for incorrectly responding to the bogus items. This prevented a review of the bogus items to ensure they were functioning correctly. The poorly performing bogus item was not identified until Wave 2. It seems likely that usable data were excluded from Wave 1 due to the bad bogus item.

items and two attention checks. Participants responding to any of these attention checks and bogus items incorrectly were excluded from the sample.

Approachability

The item analysis results of the Wave 1 Leader Approachability scale were used to improve the scale in Wave 2. In an attempt to address two of the seven problematic items identified in Wave 1, item wording was altered to improve alignment with their intended facet. The ninth availability item, "My supervisor makes it hard to schedule appointments with employees", was changed to, "My supervisor is unavailable to meet with employees." The ninth receptivity item, "My supervisor is quick to jump to conclusions when employees are expressing new ideas," was changed to, "My supervisor is not receptive to feedback provided by employees."

Multi-stage item analysis methods (cf., Jackson, 1970) used in Wave 1 were also used on the Approachability item data collected in Wave 2. Table 3.2.2 displays the corrected item-total correlations (*CITr*) of each Approachability item with its designated facet and the correlations of each item with its non-designated facets. *CITr*s with designated facets were higher than correlations with the non-designated facets in all but two cases (*CITr*s lower than *rs* by .03 and .08). Following the same procedure outlined in Wave 1, the two items showing a stronger relationship with undesignated facets than their designated facet were removed. After the dropping those two items, the *CITr*s and correlations of the remaining items were recalculated. In this iteration, an additional item showed a stronger relationship with a non-designated facet than it did with its own facet (i.e., receptivity item 8, "My supervisor is dismissive towards employees who offer their

own ideas or opinions"). Dropping this item resulted in all remaining items showing a stronger relationship with their designated facet than with non-designated facets. The remaining 27 (α = .95) items were used to calculate the Approachability scale scores and test research hypotheses. The scale consists of 10 availability items (α = .84), 10 warmth items (α = .94), and seven receptivity items (α = .88).

Approachability Targets

As in Wave 1, three items were included with specific Approachability targets (α = .68).

Existing Leadership Measures

As with Wave 1, extant leadership measures were included to assess convergent and incremental validity of the Leader Approachability rating scale:

- The LBDQ Form XII's (Stogdill, 1963) 10-item Consideration scale (α = .87);
- Thompson and Kahnweiler's 12-item PDM scale (α = .90); and
- Mayer and Davis's 17-item Trustworthiness scale (α = .95) consisting of Ability (6-items; α = .93), Benevolence (5-items; α = .89), and Integrity (6-items; α = .83).

Table 3.2.2

Leader Approachability Scale Item Analysis and Descriptives (N = 634)

Subscale/Item	α	Mean	SD	Correlation/*CITr*			Facet	Overall Scale	
				A	W	R	α if Deleted	*CITr*	α if Deleted
1. Availability	.84	4.09	.59						
Item 1		4.16	.86	**.56**	.55	.55	.82	.59	.96
Item 2		4.23	.95	**.64**	.56	.57	.82	.63	.96
Item 3		3.98	.91	**.70**	.65	.69	.81	.73	.96
Item 4		2.62	1.29	**.29**	.23	.27	.86	.28	.96
Item 5		3.82	1.14	**.52**	.48	.49	.83	.53	.96
Item 6		4.21	.85	**.60**	.54	.52	.82	.59	.96
Item 7		4.47	.75	**.66**	.65	.60	.82	.68	.96
Item 8		4.42	.81	**.59**	.55	.53	.82	.59	.96
Item 9		4.41	.78	**.62**	.54	.55	.82	.60	.96
Item 10		4.61	.75	**.41**	.37	.37	.84	.41	.96
2. Warmth	.94	4.24	.81						
Item 1		4.17	1.01	.69	**.81**	.73	.94	.80	.96
Item 2		4.41	.86	.66	**.81**	.71	.94	.79	.96
Item 3		4.34	.91	.69	**.85**	.75	.94	.83	.96
Item 4		3.99	1.05	.64	**.77**	.71	.94	.77	.96
Item 5		4.14	1.15	.51	**.64**	.59	.95	.63	.96
Item 6		4.26	.98	.58	**.73**	.65	.94	.71	.96
Item 7		4.00	1.03	.62	**.78**	.70	.94	.76	.96
Item 8		4.38	.94	.61	**.77**	.69	.94	.75	.96
Item 9		4.42	.92	.62	**.77**	.70	.94	.75	.96
Item 10		4.25	.99	.66	**.81**	.74	.94	.80	.96
3. Receptivity	.90	3.75	.75						
Item 1		3.93	.95	.58	.63	**.71**	.89	.69	.96
Item 2		3.83	.99	.68	.72	**.78**	.88	.79	.96
Item 3		3.64	.99	.60	.62	**.69**	.89	.68	.96
Item 4		3.61	1.08	.58	.59	**.64**	.89	.65	.96
Item 5		3.95	1.00	.65	.68	**.76**	.89	.75	.96
Item 6		4.31	.92	.59	**.66**	.63	.89	.68	.96
Item 7		3.21	.98	.33	.42	**.46**	.90	.44	.96
Item 8		4.23	.91	.61	.72	**.75**	.89	.75	.96
Item 9		4.08	.95	.50	.58	**.61**	.89	.61	.96
Item 10		4.35	.96	.51	**.59**	.52	.90	.59	.96
Overall Scale	.96	4.06	.66						

Note: All statistics reported are before dropping survey items or outliers; α = Cronbach's alpha; *CITr* = Corrected item-total correlation, *CITr*s are provided between items and their designated facets; Highest correlation/*CITr*s are bolded; See Appendix A for survey items.

Outcome Measures

Wave 1's four self-report outcome measures were used again in Wave 2:

- LRI's 30-item Job Satisfaction measure (α = .93), consisting of satisfaction with organizational justice, company, work conditions, supervisor, and pay (α = .75 - .91);
- Lee and Allen's (2002) 16-item OCB scale (α = .90), consisting of OCBOs (8-items; α = .85) and OCBIs (5-items; α = .82);
- Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) 6-item Voice measure (α = .79); and
- Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth's (1978) 3-item TOI scale (α = .75).

Moderating Variables

The same three same personality scales used in Wave 1 were used in Wave 2:

- The PRF-E's (Jackson, 1994) 16-item Cognitive Structure subscale (α = .68);
- The PRF-E's (Jackson, 1994) 16-item Succorance subscale (α = .73); and
- Bateman and Crant's (1993) 17-item Proactive Personality measure (α = .86).

As in Wave 1, dropping items from the Cognitive Structure scale increased the scale's alpha. In order to maximize comparability between Waves, the same items were dropped from the Cognitive Structure scale across Waves 1 and 2. Dropping three items resulted in the highest average alpha level across waves (average α = .71) with a Wave 1 alpha of .69 and a Wave 2 alpha of .72. These items are dropped in all subsequent analyses.

The same three working condition scales were measured in Wave 2:

- House, Schuler, and Levanom's (1983) reduced 4-item Role Ambiguity scale ($\alpha = .70$);
- Schaubroeck, Cotton, and Jenning's (1989) 3-item Job Stress scale ($\alpha = .82$); and
- The newly developed 6-item Opportunities for Workplace Improvement measure ($\alpha = .69$).

After reviewing the data from both Waves 1 and 2, it was determined that removing one item from the Opportunities for Workplace Improvement scale (i.e., "My work situation leaves no room for improvement") would yield a more desirable alpha (Wave 1 $\alpha = .76$, Wave 2 $\alpha = .78$). This item, accordingly, was removed from all subsequent analyses involving this scale.

Procedures

LRI invited its client organizations to participate in the study. The researchers also extended invitations to organizations within their professional and personal network. Three organizations accepted the research invitation and allowed the researchers to invite their employees to complete the survey. To participate, individuals were required to be (a) employed by the participating organization, (b) at least 18 years old, and (c) supervised by their current supervisor for at least one month. Participants meeting selection criteria completed the survey anonymously online.

Data Conditioning

Adhering to the procedure established in Wave 1, data were conditioned following standard guidelines (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, pp. 72-89), including (a)

examining scale normality and transforming data to achieve non-significant skewness, (b) identifying and removing univariate and multivariate outliers, and (c) testing linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions.

Normality

Two scales exhibited moderate positive skew (i.e., Role Ambiguity and Job Stress), three scales exhibited moderate negative skew (satisfaction with organizational justice, OCBOs, and Proactive Personality), one scale exhibited substantial positive skew (i.e., Turnover Intention), nine scales exhibited substantial negative skew (i.e., availability, receptivity, Approachability Targets, Consideration, benevolence, integrity, Trustworthiness, satisfaction with work conditions, and Job Satisfaction), and six scales exhibited severe negative skew (warmth, Approachability, ability, satisfaction with company, satisfaction with supervisor, and satisfaction with pay). Moderately skewed scales were transformed using square root transformations, substantially skewed scales were transformed using log transformations, and severely skewed scales were transformed using inverse transformations. Following transformations, none of the scales exhibited significant skewness.

Before transforming the variables, 18 scales exhibited significant departure from zero kurtosis ($p < .001$). After transformation, 12 scales still exhibited departure from zero kurtosis ($p < .001$; kurtosis statistics ranged from -1.41 - .73). Significant kurtosis is not surprising given the large sample size here. Large samples provide heightened statistical power such that departure from zero kurtosis is more likely to be detected. Additionally, significant kurtosis is not likely to undermine analyses in samples of 200 or

more (Waternaux, 1976). With the current sample size of 634, the 12 instances of non-zero kurtosis were judged to have minimal impact on statistical inferences.

Outliers

After transforming data to correct skewness, the scale scores were tested for univariate outliers. Ten standardized scores exceeded 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed) on five scales (i.e., Role Ambiguity, Opportunities for Work Improvement, Voice, OCBs, & Succorance), providing evidence of univariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 73). The outliers were inspected individually and appeared to be plausible but uncommon. In order to retain these data points but reduce their ability to disproportionately affect data analyses, they were modified to be less extreme. Outlying scores were replaced with values one unit more extreme than the next most extreme observed value (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 77). By winsorizing outliers in this manner, important characteristics of the outlying data points are maintained (e.g., the scores remain in the dataset and are still the most extreme) but they no longer have a disproportionate effect on analyses. After reducing the extremity of outliers, a second iteration of standardization was undertaken. No standardized scores exceeded 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed), indicating an absence of univariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 73).

As in Wave 1, Mahalanobis distance was used to detect multivariate outliers. The Mahalanobis distance of each of the 56 hypothesized relationships outlined in Chapter 2 was analyzed. After five iterations, no new multivariate outliers were identified. In total,

nine participants (1.42% of Wave 2) were identified as multivariate outliers. Dropping those cases yielded 625 usable participants for Wave 2.

Testing Linearity and Homoscedasticity Assumptions

The linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were tested concurrently by reviewing residual scatterplots of each of the study's correlational and regression hypotheses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 125). Similar to Wave 1, no violations of linearity were observed (scatterplot distributions were not curved) and no substantial violations of homoscedasticity were observed (scatterplot spread was generally uniform). In few instances, the distributions showed minor but not prohibitive levels of heteroscedasticity (see Figure 3.2.1; Fox, 1991).

A final assumption, independence of observations, did not need to be formally tested. This assumption was not met due to the manner in which the data were collected. Dissimilar to Wave 1, Wave 2 participants were nested within organizations, allowing shared contexts to influence participant response patterns. Although some researchers ignore violations of independence of observations (Hoyle, Georgesen, & Webster, 2001), it is an assumption that, if not met, can undermine estimated error variance, *p* values, and effect sizes (Kenny, Mannetti, Pierro, Livi, & Kashy, 2002). In order to determine how to best address the data's nonindependence, potential contextual effects influencing the sample, and strategies for reducing the dependence of data, are discussed in the subsequent sections.

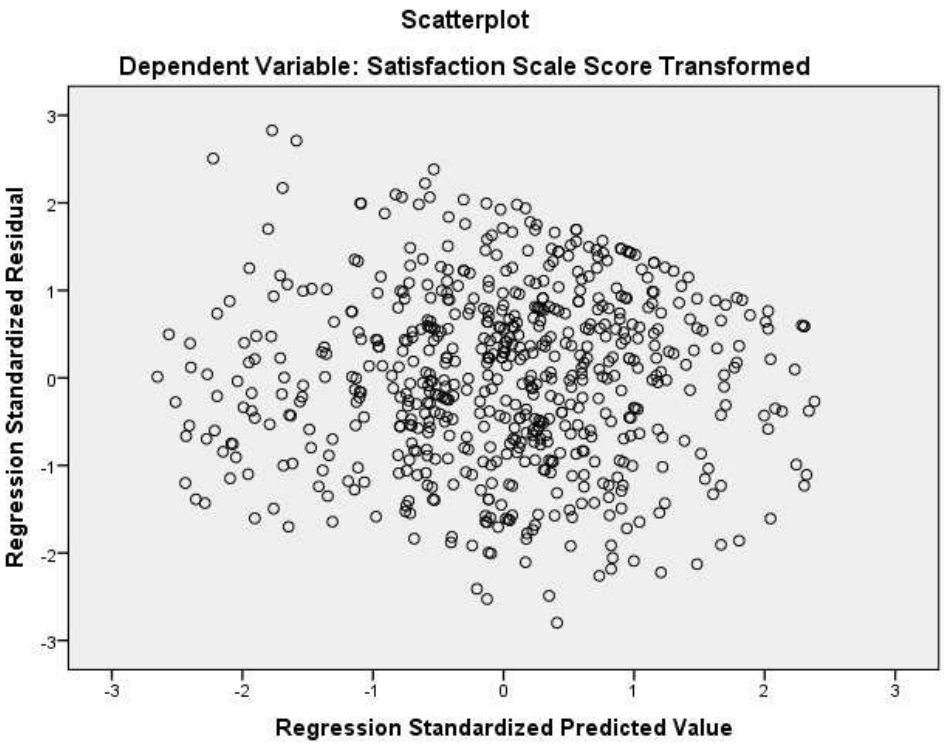

Figure 3.2.1. Wave 2 plot of predictive values for satisfaction (Hypothesis 4.1a) against residuals.

Violation of Independence: Contextual Factors

Within Wave 2, three contextual factors can be identified that may have influenced participant responses: supervisor, location, and organization. The first shared contextual factor is supervisor, and given the study's focus, this factor likely has the strongest influence on participant responses. Participants nested under the same supervisor rated the same individual when completing the Approachability, Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness measures. Not only are participants rating the same person but they are also making those ratings based upon shared experiences. For example, two participants may have both observed their supervisor's unapproachable

behaviors at the last staff meeting. Consequently, those participants' ratings are not independent.

Participants sharing a supervisor are more likely to interact with one another. By working with one another, participants are given more opportunities to influence each other's perceptions. This mutual influence has the potential to impact ratings of the supervisor (e.g., Coworkers complaining to one another about their supervisor reduces both participants opinion of the supervisor), the situational features (e.g., Coworkers enjoy each other's company, decreasing both participants' stress), and the work outcomes (e.g., Coworkers may fight at work, thereby increasing each other's turnover intention). This mutual influence potentially increases the dependence of data collected from participants working for the same supervisor.

The second contextual factor potentially contributing to nonindependence is location. The freight company allowed employees from multiple locations to complete the survey. At a few of the locations where surveys were completed, the company's facilities provide some of highest-paying jobs in the area. Participants at these locations may rate certain variables lower (e.g., Turnover Intention) or higher (e.g., Job Satisfaction) due to how their job compares to others within the area.

The third contextual factor potentially contributing to nonindependence is company. The tax firm that participated in this study is small and has a unique history. The firm was founded less than a year before data collection and the majority of its

employees previously worked for an award-winning tax firm.[8] This shared history could influence the work expectations, and consequently, the ratings provided by participants at this organization. For example, all the employees at this firm may have above average expectations for their work conditions or supervisors.

Addressing Nonindependence

More than one strategy could be used to limit the shared contextual factors' capacity to undermine analyses. A common approach is to aggregate individual-level data to the group-level (Grawitch & Uhl-Bien, 1995). To address the contextual factor associated with the supervisors, individual ratings of the supervisor could be aggregated to create a mean score per supervisor. Analyses would then be performed on the supervisors' mean scores instead of the ratings provided by individual participants. Although this approach reduces sample size, it would decrease the dependence of the data.

Using aggregation to address nonindependence is not appropriate in every situation and should only be utilized if the variable being aggregated can be conceptualized at the group-level (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Certain variables in the current study are readily understood at the group-level. For example, aggregated ratings of the supervisor can be conceptualized as a multi-rater assessment of the supervisor's leadership attributes. Similarly, the situational feature measures can be understood at the

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[8] In 2014, the accounting firm was named the number one 'Best Firm to Work For' in the small firm category by Accounting Today trade magazine.

group-level. For example, aggregated ratings of Job Stress can be conceptualized as the group's perception of the stressfulness of their shared working environment. The outcome variables can also be understood at the group level. For example, aggregated ratings of Voice can be conceptualized as the current Voice climate. This has been done in previous research using a Voice measure based on the measure used in the current study (e.g., Frazier & Bowler, 2015). Given that the leadership, situational feature, and outcome variables lend themselves to aggregation, hypotheses involving these variables used aggregation to address the issue of nonindependence.

Not all of the study's variables, however, are properly understood at the group-level. The personality variables, in particular, are limited to individual-level analysis. Kozlowski and Klein's (2000) compositional model provides perhaps the only manner in which personality could be conceptualized at the group-level. Under this model, if the members of a particular group have highly similar personalities (e.g., all high in Succorance), then the group could be said to possess that personality trait (e.g., the group is highly succorant). However, group members were not hypothesized to have highly similar personalities. To the contrary, members within groups are anticipated to vary in terms of the measured personality traits. Given the difficulty of justifying aggregation of the personality variables, an alternative approach is needed to address the nonindependence when testing hypotheses involving personality.

Statistical control is another approach that can mitigate violations of independence. Removing the variance associated with the contextual factors causing nonindependence reduces the variance that would undermine analyses (Grawitch & Munz, 2004, p. 236). In the current study, controlling for the effect of the participants'

supervisor would remove the variance due to the three contextual factors contributing to nonindependence. Due to the nested nature of the data (i.e., supervisors within locations within organizations), controlling for the contextual factor at the lowest level (i.e., supervisor) simultaneously controls for the other two factors (i.e., location and organization). An advantage of using statistical control is that it allows analyses of variables that would not be appropriate to aggregate (e.g., personality). Additionally, this approach allows data to be analyzed at the individual-level, maintaining sample size. A drawback of controlling for contextual factors is that it can remove meaningful variance. This could be the case in the current study. Controlling for the contextual factor associated with supervisors would remove the variance that differentiates supervisors. All supervisors would be statistically equated on a common mean. Any remaining variance would be due to differences in the rater (i.e., subordinate) and not differences in the target (i.e., supervisor). Comparisons between supervisors would not be possible. For example, the analysis would not permit comparisons between approachable and unapproachable supervisors. Instead, the analysis would compare differences in how subordinates perceive their supervisor. For example, subordinates who rate their supervisor higher than their coworkers could be compared with subordinates who rate their supervisor lower than their coworkers. This analysis is still meaningful and would shed light on the research questions. However, this is a more refined analysis that tests only a limited amount of meaningful variance. Given this limitation, the statistical control approach was used in the current study only when aggregation was not feasible.

More complex approaches (i.e., hierarchical linear modeling; HLM) offer an alternative approach to address data nonindependence. However, as James and Williams

(2000) note, there are certain situations where the use of HLM is not appropriate. Specifically, HLM model estimations may not be accurate when groups are small. This is the case in the current study where the average group size is 3.78.[9] Previous research with similarly small group sizes (cf., Hofmann, Morgeson, & Garras, 2003) has heeded James and Williams's (2000) counsel that "simpler is sometimes better" (p. 423) and relied upon alternatives to HLM. This approach was echoed in the current study. Aggregation and statistical control meet the study's needs and were used to address nonindependence.

Benefits of the Wave 2 Data

As discussed in the preceding section, the nonindependent nature of the Wave 2 data creates analytical challenges. However, the nested nature of the data also provides advantages. In Wave 1, rating variance attributed to the rater (i.e., subordinate) and variance attributed to the target (i.e., supervisor) were largely inseparable. If a participant were to rate her supervisor as highly approachable, it is difficult to determine how much of that rating is due to the rater and how much is due to the supervisor. The supervisor might, in fact, be very approachable. However, the supervisor also might be moderately approachable and have a lenient rater (i.e., subordinate). As such, Approachability scores can be understood by the following equation.

$$\text{Approachability}(x) = \text{Supervisor Effect}(S) + \text{Rater Effect}(R) + \text{Error}(\varepsilon)$$

[9] This calculation excludes groups of one. Including groups of one, the average group size is 2.44.

Wave 2 data provide an opportunity to better delineate the supervisor effect and rater effect outlined in the above formula. The aggregated leadership variables (i.e., Approachability, Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness) provide better estimates of the supervisor effect. By aggregating the individual ratings, rater effects (e.g., leniency bias or severity bias; Landy & Conte, 2010) have the opportunity to cancel each other out, producing a more reliable estimate of the given attribute. Conversely, and as discussed in the proceeding section, controlling for contextual effects (e.g., supervisor mean's) provides a more refined understanding of the rater effects. For example, if a subordinate perceives her supervisor to be approachable, regardless of the supervisor's true level of Approachability, how does that contribute to the prediction of work outcomes? Wave 2 data are analyzed with these advantages in mind and provide additional insight beyond merely replicating Wave 1.

Analyses

Wave 2 analyses are reviewed below in the same order as in Wave 1.

Assessing Within- and Between-Group Agreement

Before aggregating the Wave 2 data, the degree of within- and between-group rating similarities were assessed as these properties can affect the viability of analyzing aggregated data. Ideally, data will exhibit within-group agreement as exhibited by high $r_{WG(J)}$ indices and between-group dissimilarity as exhibited by high intraclass correlation coefficients (*ICC*s). Two *ICC* variants are typically computed: *ICC(1)*, which captures the amount of variance in the score that can be attributed to group membership, and

ICC(2), an index of the reliability of the group means (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The $r_{WG(J)}$, *ICC(1)*, and *ICC(2)* indices were computed and are reported in Chapter 4.

Approachability's Structure

As in Wave 1, CFA was used to test Hypothesis 1 comparing (a) a general one-factor model of Leader Approachability with (b) a three-factor model (i.e., availability, warmth, and receptivity; see Appendix A for a list of the 27 items categorized within the three proposed Approachability dimensions). To address nonindependence, item data were aggregated to the supervisor-level.

Approachability's Relationships with Extant Leadership Constructs

As in Wave 1, Approachability's relationship with extant leadership measures was tested using one-tailed, directional Pearson correlations. Correlations were calculated between Approachability and Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness individually (Hypotheses 2a to 2c). To address the nonindependence of data, correlations were computed at the supervisor-level[10] (i.e., Approachability, Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness were aggregated before computing correlations). $N = 136$ for these analyses.

[10] All aggregated variables were subjected to the same data conditioning procedures outlined for the individual-level data. Specifically, skewness was corrected utilizing transformations, outlier influence was reduced utilizing winsorization, and multivariate outliers were dropped.

Approachability's Outcomes and Incremental Validity

Pearson correlations using one-tailed, directional tests were computed to assess the relationship between supervisor-level Approachability scores and the aggregated outcome measures (Job Satisfaction, OCBs, Voice, and Turnover Intention; Hypotheses 3a to 3d).

As in Wave 1, Hypotheses 3.1 to 3.4, specifying incremental prediction of a targeted outcome by Approachability over each of Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness (separately), were tested using hierarchical regression. For each analysis, the existing leadership measure (i.e., Consideration, PDM, or Trustworthiness) was aggregated to the supervisor level and entered in Step 1. Aggregated Approachability scores were entered in Step 2. Significance was evaluated using 1-tailed tests in light of the directional nature of the hypotheses.

Approachability-Outcome Relationship Moderators

As in Wave 1, moderation hypotheses (Hypotheses 5 to 7) were performed using hierarchical regression. Hypotheses 5.1 to 5.4 specified personality traits as moderators of the Approachability-outcome relationship. These hypotheses involve personality variables and, consequently, aggregation could not be used to address nonindependence. Instead, a statistical control approach was utilized (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This required using supervisor mean scores of Approachability to compute a residualized Approachability score for each participant. This residualized score represents the degree to which each participant's rating of the supervisor diverged from the average score given to that supervisor. The main hierarchical regression analysis was performed after

residualized Approachability scores were computed. For each moderator tested, the following variables were entered into Steps 1 to 3 of the hierarchical regression:

1. Supervisor mean score of the targeted outcome (e.g., mean Job Satisfaction)
2. Residualized Approachability and centered personality variable (e.g., Cognitive Structure)
3. Two-way interaction term (e.g., residualized Approachability x Cognitive Structure)

As in Wave 1, moderation would be indicated if the product term accounted for a significant ($p < .05$) improvement in DV variance explained.

Hypotheses 6.1 to 6.4 specified situational features as moderators of the Approachability-outcome relationship. All variables involved in these hypotheses can be conceptualized at the group-level, allowing aggregation within supervisor to be used to address nonindependence ($N = 136$). The group-level outcome was entered as the dependent variable for each moderator tested (e.g., group-level Job Satisfaction). Next, the following variables were then entered into Steps 1 to 2 of hierarchical regression:

1. Centered group-level situational variable (e.g., group-level Role Ambiguity) and centered group-level Approachability rating
2. Two-way interaction term (e.g., group-level Role Ambiguity x group-level Approachability rating)

As before, moderation would be evident if the product term accounted for a significant ($p < .05$) improvement in DV variance explained.

Hypotheses 7.1 to 7.3 specified three-way interactions between Approachability, personality traits, and situational features to predict target work outcomes. A statistical

control approach was used to address nonindependence because the hypotheses involve individual-level personality variables. Group mean scores of Approachability and the situational features were used to compute residualized scores for Approachability and each situational feature. These residualized situational feature scores represent the degree to which each participant's rating of the situation diverges from the group mean. To test the hypotheses, the following variables were entered into Steps 1 to 3 of a hierarchical regression:

1. Supervisor mean score of the targeted outcome (e.g., mean Job Satisfaction)
2. Residualized Approachability, centered personality variable (e.g., Cognitive Structure), residualized situational feature (e.g., residualized Role Ambiguity), and all possible two-way product terms (e.g., residualized Role Ambiguity x Cognitive Structure, Cognitive Structure x residualized Approachability, and residualized Role Ambiguity x residualized Approachability)
3. Three-way interaction term (e.g., residualized Approachability x Cognitive Structure x residualized Role Ambiguity)

A three-way interaction would be supported if the three-way product term accounts for a significant ($p < .05$) improvement in DV variance explained over the variables entered in Steps 1 and 2. The directional nature of the hypothesized moderator effects afforded reliance on one-tailed tests.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Chapter Overview

Results are presented per wave, starting with Wave 1. Within each wave, hypotheses are reviewed in numerical order as outlined in Chapter 2. The hypotheses test (a) the structure of Approachability and its relationship to similar constructs (Hypotheses 1 & 2), (b) the outcomes associated with Approachability (Hypotheses 3 & 4), and (c) whether relevant employee personality traits and situational features moderate Approachability-outcome relationships (Hypotheses 5 to 7).

Wave 1 Results

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Means, standard deviations, alphas, skew statistics (pre- and post-transformations), reliability coefficients, and scale characteristics are presented in Table 4.1.1. Alphas fall within an acceptable range from .69 to .97 (median $\alpha = .91$). Correlations among variables are presented in Table 4.1.2. Overall, the correlations are strong (e.g., Approachability and Job Satisfaction $r = .77$) and in the expected directions. Consistent with the hypotheses, Approachability correlated with the existing leadership measures and the outcome variables.

Table 4.1.1

Descriptive Statistics, Transformations, Reliabilities, and Characteristics of Wave 1 Measures

	M	*SD*	α	*N* Items	Scale Range	Pre-Trans. Skew	Trans.	Post-Trans. Skew
Leadership Scales								
1. Availability	3.65	.81	.90	7	1-5	-.73 **	Sqrt	-.31
2. Warmth	3.84	.86	.96	9	1-5	-.86 **	Sqrt	-.41
3. Receptivity	3.50	.81	.92	8	1-5	-.49		-.49
4. Approachability	3.67	.79	.97	24	1-5	-.74 **	Sqrt	-.32
5. Approachability Targets	3.70	.88	.80	3	1-5	-.61 **	Sqrt	-.22
6. Consideration	3.42	.78	.92	10	1-5	-.45		-.45
7. Consideration (Reduced)	3.38	.77	.90	9	1-5	-.38		-.38
8. PDM	2.61	.95	.95	12	1-5	.33		.33
9. Ability	3.94	.84	.95	6	1-5	-1.04 **	Log	-.12
10. Benevolence	3.60	.97	.94	5	1-5	-.64 **	Sqrt	-.24
11. Integrity	3.64	.88	.89	6	1-5	-.71 **	Sqrt	-.28
12. Trustworthiness	3.73	.83	.96	17	1-5	-.79 **	Sqrt	-.36
Outcome Scales								
13. Voice	3.70	.74	.88	6	1-5	-.74 **	Sqrt	-.19
14. Satisfaction with Org. Justice	4.54	1.64	.91	5	1-7	-.38		-.38
15. Satisfaction with Company	5.24	1.43	.90	5	1-7	-.58 **	Sqrt	-.23
16. Satisfaction with Work Condition	5.75	1.07	.81	5	1-7	-1.07 **	Sqrt	-.54
17. Satisfaction with Supervisor	5.58	1.40	.95	5	1-7	-1.27 **	Log	-.32
18. Satisfaction with Pay	4.41	1.81	.92	4	1-7	-.33		-.33
19. Satisfaction	5.14	1.28	.97	24	1-7	-.64 **	Sqrt	-.26
20. Turnover Intention	2.64	.96	.71	3	1-5	.48		.48
21. OCBOs	4.86	1.41	.93	8	1-7	-.42		-.42
22. OCBIs	5.18	1.27	.91	8	1-7	-.84 **	Sqrt	-.34
23. OCBs	5.02	1.27	.95	16	1-7	-.63 **	Sqrt	-.19
Personality Scales								
24. Cognitive Structure	5.08	.71	.69	13	1-7	.14		.14
25. Succorance	3.86	.69	.74	16	1-7	-.12		-.12
26. Proactive Personality	5.21	.84	.91	17	1-7	-.44		-.44
Situation Scales								
27. Role Ambiguity	2.27	.74	.74	4	1-5	.59 **	Sqrt	.06
28. Job Stress	2.68	.92	.76	3	1-5	.34		.34
29. Opp. for Workplace	3.52	.65	.76	5	1-5	-.05		-.05

$N = 195$; *$p < .001$, two-tailed

Note. Means & *SD*s before transformations & winsorization; Trans. = Transformation; Sqrt = Squareroot; Alphas & skew statistics computed before dropping multivariate outliers ($N = 208$).

Table 4.1.2

Intercorrelations Among Wave 1 Variables

	Leadership Scales									Outcome Scales				Personality Scales			Situation Scales	
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.
Leadership Scales																		
1. Availability																		
2. Warmth	.83 **																	
3. Receptivity	.83 **	.89 **																
4. Approachability	.92 **	.96 **	.96 **															
5. Approachability Targets	.78 **	.81 **	.81 **	.84 **														
6. Consideration	.85 **	.91 **	.92 **	.94 **	.81 **													
7. Consideration (Reduced)	.84 **	.89 **	.91 **	.93 **	.79 **	1.00 **												
8. PDM	.59 **	.52 **	.61 **	.60 **	.61 **	.65 **	.65 **											
9. Trustworthiness	.76 **	.80 **	.80 **	.83 **	.72 **	.85 **	.85 **	.62 **										
Outcome Scales																		
10. Voice	.53 **	.42 **	.48 **	.50 **	.50 **	.46 **	.46 **	.65 **	.56 **									
11. Satisfaction	.70 **	.73 **	.76 **	.77 **	.64 **	.80 **	.80 **	.62 **	.86 **	.53 **								
12. Turnover Intention	-.42 **	-.47 **	-.46 **	-.48 **	-.37 **	-.50 **	-.49 **	-.33 **	-.52 **	-.26 **	-.61 **							
13. OCBs	.44 **	.41 **	.47 **	.47 **	.51 **	.48 **	.49 **	.66 **	.55 **	.65 **	.60 **	-.40 **						
Personality Scales																		
14. Cognitive Structure	-.04	.00	-.02	-.01	.01	-.04	-.04	-.03	.12	.10	.03	.04	.18 *					
15. Succorance	.24 **	.25 **	.33 **	.29 **	.21 **	.28 **	.28 **	.23 **	.26 **	.23 **	.22 **	-.13	.19 **	-.03				
16. Proactive Personality	.32 **	.27 **	.29 **	.31 **	.31 **	.30 **	.31 **	.49 **	.46 **	.59 **	.51 **	-.22 **	.60 **	.07	.22 **			
Situation Scales																		
17. Role Ambiguity	-.43 **	-.40 **	-.43 **	-.44 **	-.31 **	-.40 **	-.40 **	-.23 **	-.51 **	-.26 **	-.59 **	.36 **	-.28 **	-.13	-.22 **	-.29 **		
18. Job Stress	-.48 **	-.55 **	-.54 **	-.56 **	-.47 **	-.55 **	-.55 **	-.34 **	-.55 **	-.31 **	-.62 **	.37 **	-.32 **	-.10	.01	-.25 **	.52 **	
19. Opp.for Improvement	-.27 **	-.33 **	-.34 **	-.33 **	-.20 **	-.37 **	-.38 **	-.15 *	-.33 **	-.05	-.46 **	.31 **	-.10	-.09	.00	-.06	.52 **	.42 **

N = 195; *p < .05; **p < .01, two-tailed

Approachability's Structure

Hypothesis 1 states that the Leader Approachability measure would support a three-factor model (availability, warmth, and receptivity) over a one-factor model (overall Approachability). CFA results are reported in Table 4.1.3. Model fit was tested by comparing goodness-of-fit indices. Results show that a one-factor model, in which items were allowed to load onto an overall Approachability factor, fit the data poorer (χ^2_{252}= 607.84, $p < .01$; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .09) than the proposed three-factor model in which items were allowed to load only onto their respective Approachability facet (i.e., availability, warmth, or receptivity; χ^2_{249}= 488.00, $p < .01$; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .07). The CFI and RMSEA indices improved in the three-factor model and a χ^2 difference test showed the improvement of the three-factor model over the one-factor model was significant ($\Delta\chi^2_3$ = 119.84, $p < .01$). These results support Hypothesis 1 and the three-factor model of Approachability is retained in subsequent analyses.

Although goodness-of-fit indices supported the three-factor model, the CFA's modification indices suggested several alterations to improve fit. Specifically, the indices suggested allowing the error terms between specific items to covary. Allowing error to covary is appropriate if items are keyed in the same direction, as item keying constitutes a shared method effect that can artificially inflate relationships between items (Brown, 2006). Correlated error was specified between eight pairs of similarly keyed items. Error terms were freed to correlate only when (a) modification indices were greater than 4.00 (cf., Jaccard & Wan, 1996), (b) items were keyed in the same direction, and (c) items were associated with the same Approachability facet. For example, the error terms for two negatively keyed receptivity items showed a modification index of 5.61. Meeting the

established criteria, these two error terms were allowed to correlate. These criteria for adding covariates are conservative and likely underestimate the shared method effects influencing the observed Approachability items. Conservative criteria were established to limit overfitting the model to sample-specific idiosyncrasies.

Goodness-of-fit indices of the modified three-factor model, allowing for correlated measurement error, are also presented in Table 4.1.3. The modifications generated model improvement ($\Delta\chi^2_8$ = 67.48, p < .01), resulting in indices demonstrating acceptable model fit (χ^2_{241}= 420.52, p < .01; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .06). When determining appropriate model fit, χ^2 tends to reject models with even minor deviations from perfect fit, especially with large sample sizes (Brown, 2006). For that reason, the additional indices (CFI & RMSEA) are relied upon to assess fit. CFI values greater than .95 and RMSEA values of .06 or less indicate good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The current model met both those criteria, providing psychometric support for the newly developed Approachability scale. Factor loadings of Approachability scale items are provided in Table 4.1.4.

Table 4.1.3

Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Wave 1 Leader Approachability Models (N = 195)

Model	χ^2	df	*p*	CFI	RMSEA
One-factor	607.84	252	.00	.91	.09
Three-factor	488.00	249	.00	.94	.07
Three-factor with correlated measurement error	420.52	241	.00	.96	.06

Table 4.1.4

Factor Loadings of Wave 1 Three-factor Leader Approachability Model (N = 195)

Item	Availability	Warmth	Receptivity
My supervisor…			
... actively communicates his/her availability to meet with employees.	.71		
... keeps an "open-door" policy for meeting with employees as needed.	.82		
... responds positively and quickly to employees' requests to meet.	.83		
... welcomes unscheduled visits from employees.	.80		
... is too busy to meet with employees most of the time. (R)	.71		
... tells employees he/she is too busy to meet. (R)	.62		
... keeps his/her door shut to unscheduled visitors. (R)	.61		
... creates a welcoming atmosphere.		.91	
... is friendly towards his/her employees.		.84	
... is good-natured and kind.		.87	
... makes employees feel at ease.		.87	
... makes employees feel comfortable.		.83	
... is cold and aloof towards employees. (R)		.85	
... makes employees feel awkward. (R)		.81	
... loses his/her temper when interacting with employees. (R)		.73	
... puts employees on edge. (R)		.81	
... gives due consideration to ideas expressed by employees.			.76
... shows interest in employees' viewpoints.			.88
... welcomes perspectives different from his/her own.			.86
... seeks both positive and negative feedback from employees.			.75
... is open to ideas and suggestions provided by employees.			.86
... likes to do most of the talking when meeting with employees. (R)			.48
... is dismissive towards employees who offer their own ideas or opinions. (R)			.83
... expects others to stay quiet unless specifically asked to contribute. (R)			.64

Note: All parameter estimates are standardized

Approachability's Relationship to Extant Leadership Constructs

After analyzing Approachability's structure, its relationship to existing leadership constructs was tested. Hypothesis 2 predicts Approachability would demonstrate convergent validity by correlating positively with (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, and (c) Trustworthiness. As shown in Table 4.1.2, H2 was supported (r = .93, .60, and .83, respectively; p < .01 in each case).

Approachability's Outcomes and Incremental Validity

Hypothesis 3, predicting Approachability would correlate with four work outcomes (Job Satisfaction, OCBs, Voice, and TOI), was supported, as significant directional correlations were found between Approachability and Job Satisfaction (r = .77), OCBs (.47), Voice (.50), and TOI (-.48, p < .01 in each case; See Table 4.1.2).

Approachability's relationship with Job Satisfaction facets and OCB subscales was also tested. Approachability was significantly correlated with satisfaction with supervisor (r = .81), organizational justice (.70), company (.62), work conditions (.62), and pay (.60), and with OCBOs (OCBs directed towards the organization; .46) and OCBIs (OCBs directed towards individuals; .40; p < .01 in each case).

Hypotheses 4.1 to 4.4 specified incremental validity of Approachability over the three existing leadership constructs in predicting each of the four targeted outcomes. Tables 4.1.5 to 4.1.8 present the corresponding regression results.

Table 4.1.5

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Satisfaction (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2		β		r	Partial r
Step 1	.63						
Consideration				.80	**	.80	.80
Step 2	.63	.00					
Consideration				.65	**	.80	.33
Approachability				.16		.77	.09
Step 1	.38						
PDM				.62	**	.62	.62
Step 2	.62	.25	**				
PDM				.24	**	.62	.30
Approachability				.63	**	.77	.63
Step 1	.74						
Trustworthiness				.86	**	.86	.86
Step 2	.75	.01	**				
Trustworthiness				.72	**	.86	.63
Approachability				.17	**	.77	.19

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.1.6

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting OCBs (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.23				
Consideration			.48 **	.48	.48
Step 2	.23	.00			
Consideration			.33 *	.48	.12
Approachability			.16	.47	.06
Step 1	.43				
PDM			.66 **	.66	.66
Step 2	.44	.01 *			
PDM			.59 **	.66	.53
Approachability			.12 *	.47	.12
Step 1	.30				
Trustworthiness			.55 **	.55	.55
Step 2	.30	.00			
Trustworthiness			.52 **	.55	.33
Approachability			.04	.47	.03

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.1.7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Voice (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2		β		r	Partial r
Step 1	.21						
Consideration				.46	**	.46	.46
Step 2	.24	.04	**				
Consideration				-.13		.46	-.05
Approachability				.62	**	.50	.23
Step 1	.42						
PDM				.65	**	.65	.65
Step 2	.43	.02	**				
PDM				.54	**	.65	.50
Approachability				.17	**	.50	.18
Step 1	.31						
Trustworthiness				.56	**	.56	.56
Step 2	.31	.00					
Trustworthiness				.46	**	.56	.30
Approachability				.12		.50	.08

*p < .05, **p < .01, one-tailed.

Table 4.1.8

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Turnover Intention (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2		β		r	Partial r
Step 1	.24						
Consideration				-.50	**	-.50	-.50
Step 2	.24	.00					
Consideration				-.41	*	-.50	-.16
Approachability				-.09		-.48	-.03
Step 1	.10						
PDM				-.33	**	-.33	-.33
Step 2	.22	.12	**				
PDM				-.06		-.33	-.06
Approachability				-.44	**	-.48	-.37
Step 1	.27						
Trustworthiness				-.52	**	-.52	-.52
Step 2	.27	.01					
Trustworthiness				-.41	**	-.52	-.26
Approachability				-.14		-.48	-.09

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Hypothesis 4.1 was partially supported (Table 4.1.5), with Approachability showing incremental prediction of Job Satisfaction beyond (b) PDM ($\Delta R^2 = .25$, $p < .01$), and (c) Trustworthiness ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .01$), but not (a) Consideration.[11]

Hypothesis 4.2 was partially supported (Table 4.1.6), with Approachability showing incremental prediction of OCBs beyond (b) PDM ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .05$), but not beyond (a) Consideration, or (b) Trustworthiness.

Hypothesis 4.3 was partially supported (Table 4.1.7), with Approachability showing incremental prediction of Voice beyond (a) Consideration ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$), and (b) PDM ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .01$), but not (c) Trustworthiness.

Hypothesis 4.4 was also partially supported (Table 4.1.8), with Approachability showing incremental prediction of TOI beyond (b) PDM ($\Delta R^2 = .12$, $p < .01$), but not (a) Consideration, or (c) Trustworthiness.

Approachability-Outcome Relationship Moderators: Personality

Hypotheses 5.1 to 5.4 specified personality traits as moderators of Approachability's relationship with the four targeted outcomes. Tables 4.1.9 to 4.1.12 present the corresponding regression results.

Hypothesis 5.1 was not supported (Table 4.1.9), with the addition of the interaction terms (i.e., Personality x Approachability) not improving prediction of Job Satisfaction.

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[11] The parenthetical letters here correspond with hypothesis and, therefore, are not always presented in alphabetical order (e.g., b = Hypothesis 4.1b).

Table 4.1.9

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Job Satisfaction (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.59				
Cognitive Structure			.03	.03	.05
Approachability			.77 **	.77	.77
Step 2	.59	.00			
Cognitive Structure			.03	.03	.05
Approachability			.76 **	.77	.76
Cognitive Structure x Approachability			.06	.18	.09
Step 1	.59				
Succorance			-.01	.22	-.01
Approachability			.77 **	.77	.76
Step 2	.59	.00			
Succorance			-.01	.22	-.02
Approachability			.77 **	.77	.76
Succorance x Approachability			.02	.04	.03
Step 1	.67				
Proactive Personality			.29 **	.51	.43
Approachability			.68 **	.77	.75
Step 2	.66	.00			
Proactive Personality			.29 **	.51	.42
Approachability			.68 **	.77	.74
Proactive Personality x Approachability			.03	.21	.04

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.1.10

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality and Appproachability Interacting to Predict OCBs (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.25				
Cognitive Structure			.19 **	.18	.21
Approachability			.47 **	.47	.48
Step 2	.25	.01			
Cognitive Structure			.19 **	.18	.22
Approachability			.49 **	.47	.49
Cognitive Structure x Approachability			-.09	.01	-.10
Step 1	.22				
Succorance			.05	.19	.06
Approachability			.46 **	.47	.44
Step 2	.24	.03 **			
Succorance			.02	.19	.02
Approachability			.46 **	.47	.45
Succorance x Approachability			.17 **	.19	.19
Step 1	.44				
Proactive Personality			.50 **	.60	.53
Approachability			.31 **	.47	.37
Step 2	.44	.00			
Proactive Personality			.49 **	.60	.52
Approachability			.31 **	.47	.36
Proactive Personality x Approachability			.05	.21	.06

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

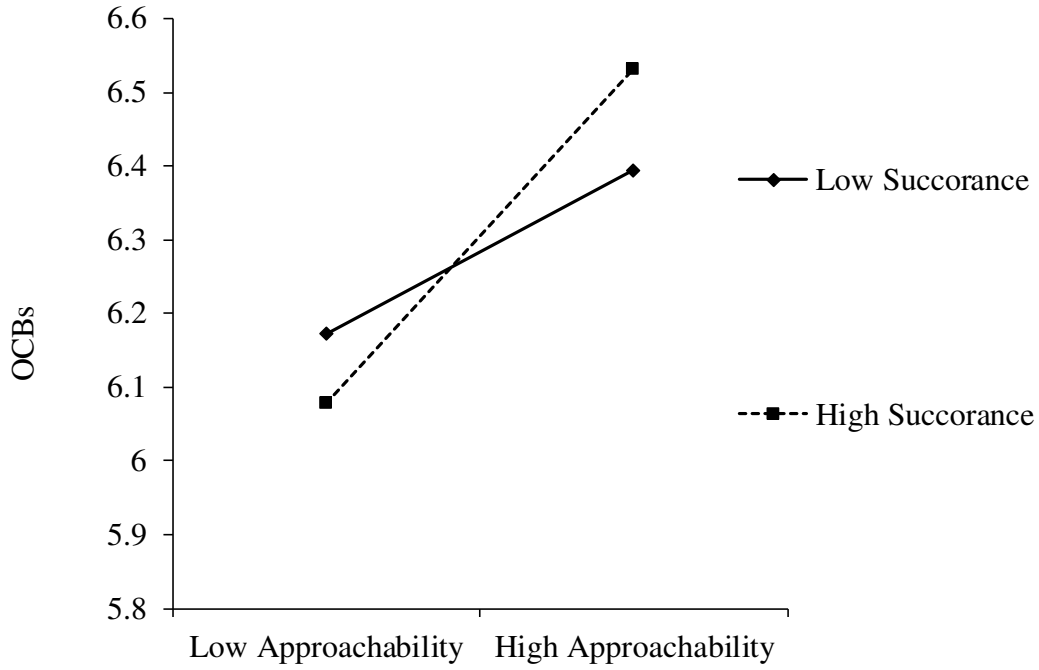

Figure 4.1.1. Relationship between Approachability and OCBs under high and low levels of Succorance.

Table 4.1.11

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Voice (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.25				
Cognitive Structure			.10	.10	.12
Approachability			.50 **	.50	.50
Step 2	.25	.00			
Cognitive Structure			.10 *	.10	.12
Approachability			.51 **	.50	.51
Cognitive Structure x Approachability			-.05	.04	-.06
Step 1	.25				
Succorance			.09	.23	.10
Approachability			.47 **	.50	.47
Step 2	.25	.01			
Succorance			.08	.23	.08
Approachability			.48 **	.50	.47
Succorance x Approachability			.08	.11	.09
Step 1	.46				
Proactive Personality			.48 **	.59	.53
Approachability			.35 **	.50	.41
Step 2	.45	.00			
Proactive Personality			.48 **	.59	.52
Approachability			.35 **	.50	.41
Proactive Personality x Approachability			.01	.18	.02

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.1.12

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Turnover Intention (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.22				
Cognitive Structure			.03	.04	.03
Approachability			-.48 **	-.48	-.48
Step 2	.22	.01			
Cognitive Structure			.03	.04	.04
Approachability			-.47 **	-.48	-.47
Cognitive Structure x Approachability			-.07	-.15	-.08
Step 1	.22				
Succorance			.01	-.13	.01
Approachability			-.48 **	-.48	-.46
Step 2	.22	.00			
Succorance			.01	-.13	.01
Approachability			-.48 **	-.48	-.46
Succorance x Approachability			-.01	-.03	-.01
Step 1	.23				
Proactive Personality			-.07	-.22	-.08
Approachability			-.46 **	-.48	-.44
Step 2	.23	.00			
Proactive Personality			-.06	-.22	-.07
Approachability			-.45 **	-.48	-.44
Proactive Personality x Approachability			-.06	-.15	-.06

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Hypothesis 5.2 was partially supported (Table 4.1.10), with the prediction of OCBs improved by adding the (b) Succorance x Approachability interaction term (ΔR^2 = .03, $p < .01$) but not improved by adding either the (a) Cognitive Structure x Approachability or the (c) Proactive Personality x Approachability interaction terms. The moderating role of Succorance on the Approachability-OCBs relationship is shown in Figure 4.1.1. The relationship between Leader Approachability and OCBs is stronger for individuals high in Succorance than it is for individuals low in Succorance.

Hypothesis 5.3 was not supported (Table 4.1.11), with the addition of the interaction terms (i.e., Personality x Approachability) not improving prediction of Voice.

Hypothesis 5.4 was also not supported (Table 4.1.12). The addition of the interaction terms (i.e., Personality x Approachability) did not improve prediction of TOI.

In addition to testing Hypotheses 5.1 to 5.4 using overall Approachability scores, the hypotheses were tested using the Approachability facet identified as most relevant to the given personality trait (i.e., availability with Cognitive Structure, warmth with Succorance, and receptivity with Proactive Personality). Testing the Hypotheses in this manner produced results that mirror those described above (i.e., Only Hypothesis 5.2a resulted in significant results; $p < .05$).

Approachability-Outcome Relationship Moderators: Situational Features

Hypotheses 6.1 to 6.4 specified situational features as moderators of Approachability's relationship with the four targeted outcomes. Tables 4.1.13 to 4.1.16 present the corresponding regression results.

Hypothesis 6.1 was not supported (Table 4.1.13), with the addition of the interaction terms (i.e., situational feature x Approachability) not improving prediction in Job Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6.2 was also not supported (Table 4.1.14). The addition of the situational feature interaction terms did not improve prediction of OCBs.

Hypothesis 6.3 was not supported (Table 4.1.15). The prediction of Voice was not improved by adding the (b) Job Stress x Approachability interaction term. Although the addition of both the (a) Role Ambiguity x Approachability ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .05$; two-tailed) and the (c) Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability interaction terms improved prediction of Voice ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .05$; two-tailed), the moderating effects were not in the direction hypothesized. Figure 4.1.2 shows the relationship between Leader Approachability and Voice is unexpectedly stronger in situations low in Role Ambiguity. Figure 4.1.3 shows the relationship between Leader Approachability and Voice is unexpectedly stronger in situations low in Opportunities for Workplace Improvement.

Hypothesis 6.4 was supported (Table 4.1.16). The prediction of TOI was improved both by adding the (a) Role Ambiguity x Approachability interaction term ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .05$) and by adding the (c) Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$) interaction terms. Although the addition of the (b) Job Stress x Approachability interaction term was not significant using conventional alpha criteria, the *p*-value approached significance ($p = .05$). The moderating effect of Role Ambiguity on the Approachability-TOI relationship is shown in Figure 4.1.4 (Hypotheses 6.4a). The negative relationship between Leader Approachability and TOI is

stronger in situations with high Role Ambiguity than in situations with low Role Ambiguity. The moderating effect of Job Stress on the Approachability-TOI relationship is shown in Figure 4.1.5 (Hypotheses 6.4b). The negative relationship between Leader Approachability and TOI is stronger in situations of high Job Stress than in situations of low Job Stress. The moderating effect of Opportunities for Workplace Improvement on the Approachability-TOI relationship is shown in Figure 4.1.6 (Hypotheses 6.4a). The negative relationship between Leader Approachability and TOI is stronger in situations high in Opportunities for Workplace Improvement than in situations low in Opportunities for Workplace Improvement.

In addition to testing Hypotheses 6.1 to 6.4 using overall Approachability scores, the hypotheses were tested using the Approachability facet identified as most relevant to the given situational feature (i.e., availability with Role Ambiguity, warmth with Job Stress, and receptivity with Opportunities for Workplace Improvement). Testing the Hypotheses in this manner produced results similar, but slightly weaker, to those described above. In this test, hypotheses 6.1 to 6.3 were not supported and hypothesis 6.4 was only partially supported (Hypothesis 6.4c was supported, $p < .05$; Hypotheses 6.4a and 6.4b were not).

Table 4.1.13

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Situations and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Job Satisfaction (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.67				
Role Ambiguity			-.31 **	-.59	-.43
Approachability			.63 **	.77	.70
Step 2	.67	.00			
Role Ambiguity			-.32 **	-.59	-.44
Approachability			.62 **	.77	.70
Role Ambiguity x Approachability			.06	.06	.11
Step 1	.64				
Job Stress			-.28 **	-.62	-.37
Approachability			.61 **	.77	.65
Step 2	.65	.01			
Job Stress			-.28 **	-.62	-.37
Approachability			.61 **	.77	.65
Job Stress x Approachability			.07	.14	.12
Step 1	.64				
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			-.23 **	-.46	-.34
Approachability			.69 **	.77	.74
Step 2	.64	.00			
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			-.26 **	-.46	-.35
Approachability			.68 **	.77	.72
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability			.07	.06	.11

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.1.14

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Situations and Appproachability Interacting to Predict OCBs (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.22				
Role Ambiguity			-.09	-.28	-.09
Approachability			.43 **	.47	.40
Step 2	.22	.01			
Role Ambiguity			-.07	-.28	-.07
Approachability			.44 **	.47	.41
Role Ambiguity x Approachability			-.09	-.07	-.10
Step 1	.22				
Job Stress			-.08	-.32	-.08
Approachability			.42 **	.47	.37
Step 2	.22	.01			
Job Stress			-.09	-.32	-.08
Approachability			.43 **	.47	.38
Job Stress x Approachability			-.10	-.06	-.11
Step 1	.22				
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			.07	-.10	.07
Approachability			.49 **	.47	.47
Step 2	.23	.01			
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			.11	-.10	.11
Approachability			.52 **	.47	.48
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability			-.13 *	-.04	-.13

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.1.15

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Situations and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Voice (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.25				
Role Ambiguity			-.05	-.26	-.05
Approachability			.48 **	.50	.44
Step 2	.26	.02 *			
Role Ambiguity			-.02	-.26	-.03
Approachability			.50 **	.50	.46
Role Ambiguity x Approachability			-.15 **	-.13	-.17
Step 1	.24				
Job Stress			-.04	-.31	-.04
Approachability			.48 **	.50	.42
Step 2	.25	.01			
Job Stress			-.05	-.31	-.05
Approachability			.48 **	.50	.42
Job Stress x Approachability			-.12 *	-.07	-.14
Step 1	.26				
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			.13 *	-.05	.14
Approachability			.54 **	.50	.51
Step 2	.27	.02 *			
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			.18 **	-.05	.19
Approachability			.58 **	.50	.53
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability			-.14 *	-.03	-.15

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

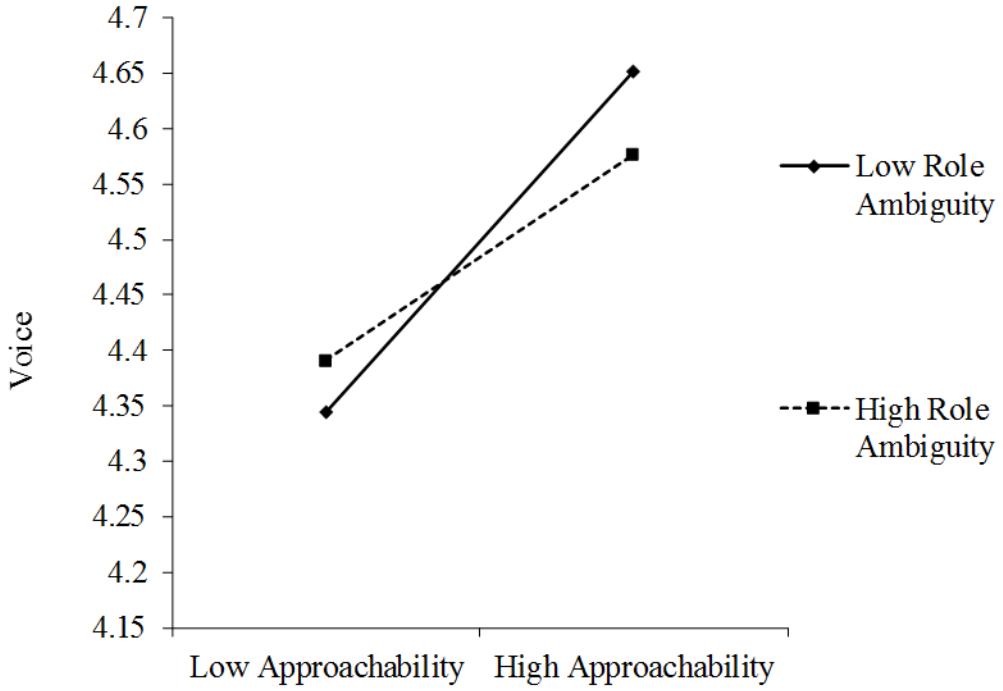

Figure 4.1.2. Relationship between Approachability and Voice under high and low levels of Role Ambiguity.

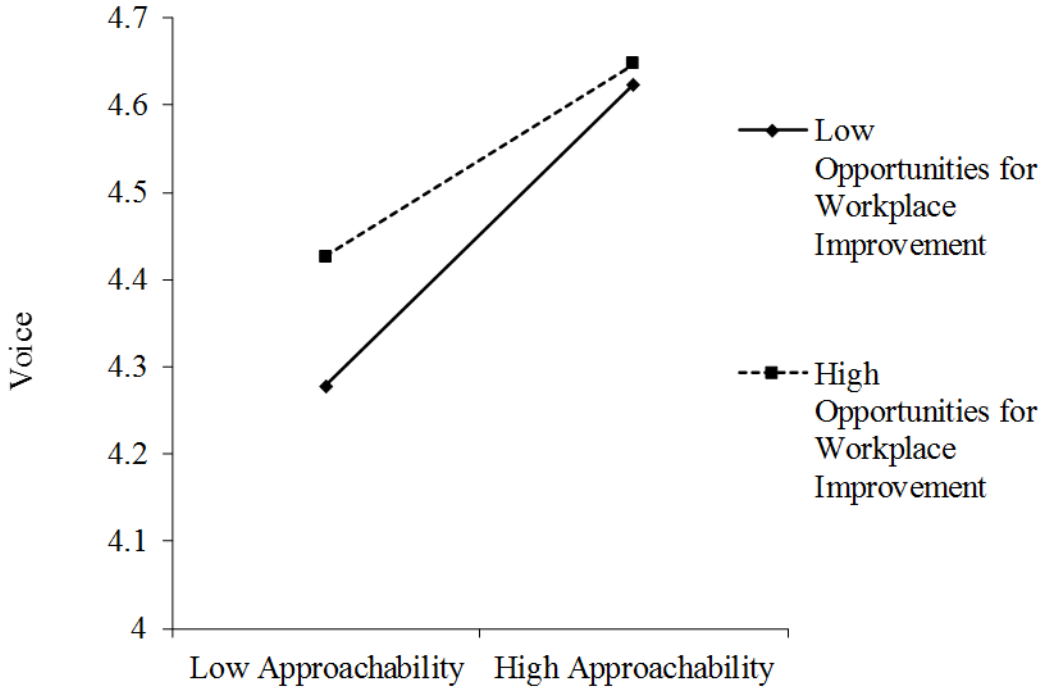

Figure 4.1.3. Relationship between Approachability and Voice under high and low levels of Opportunities for Workplace Improvement.

Table 4.1.16

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Situations and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Turnover Intention (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.25				
Role Ambiguity			.18 **	.36	.18
Approachability			-.40 **	-.48	-.38
Step 2	.26	.01 *			
Role Ambiguity			.20 **	.36	.20
Approachability			-.39 **	-.48	-.37
Role Ambiguity x Approachability			-.11 *	-.11	-.13
Step 1	.24				
Job Stress			.15 *	.37	.14
Approachability			-.40 **	-.48	-.35
Step 2	.24	.01			
Job Stress			.14 *	.37	.14
Approachability			-.39 **	-.48	-.35
Job Stress x Approachability			-.10	-.15	-.12
Step 1	.25				
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			.17 **	.31	.18
Approachability			-.42 **	-.48	-.42
Step 2	.27	.03 **			
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			.24 **	.31	.24
Approachability			-.38 **	-.48	-.38
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability			-.18 **	-.15	-.20

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

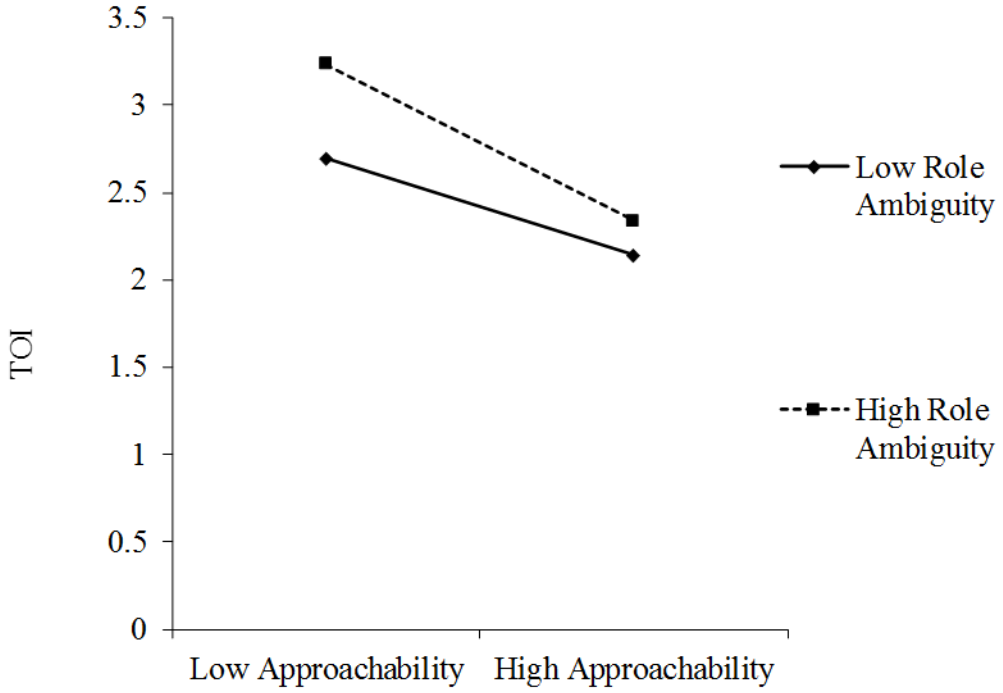

Figure 4.1.4. Relationship between Approachability and TOI under high and low levels of Role Ambiguity.

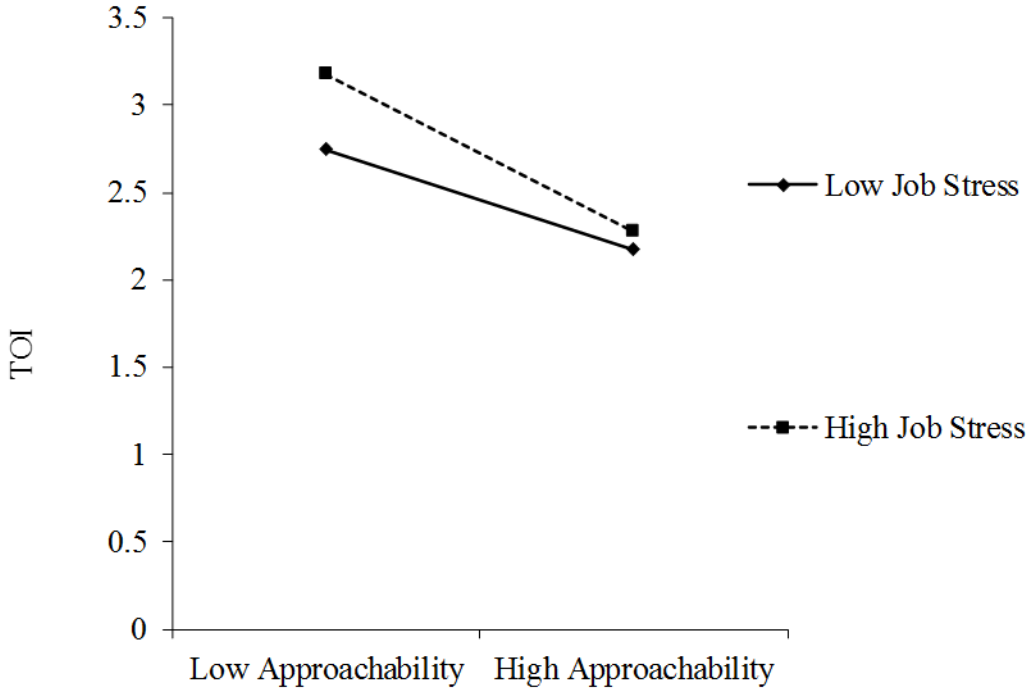

Figure 4.1.5. Relationship between Approachability and TOI under high and low levels of Job Stress.

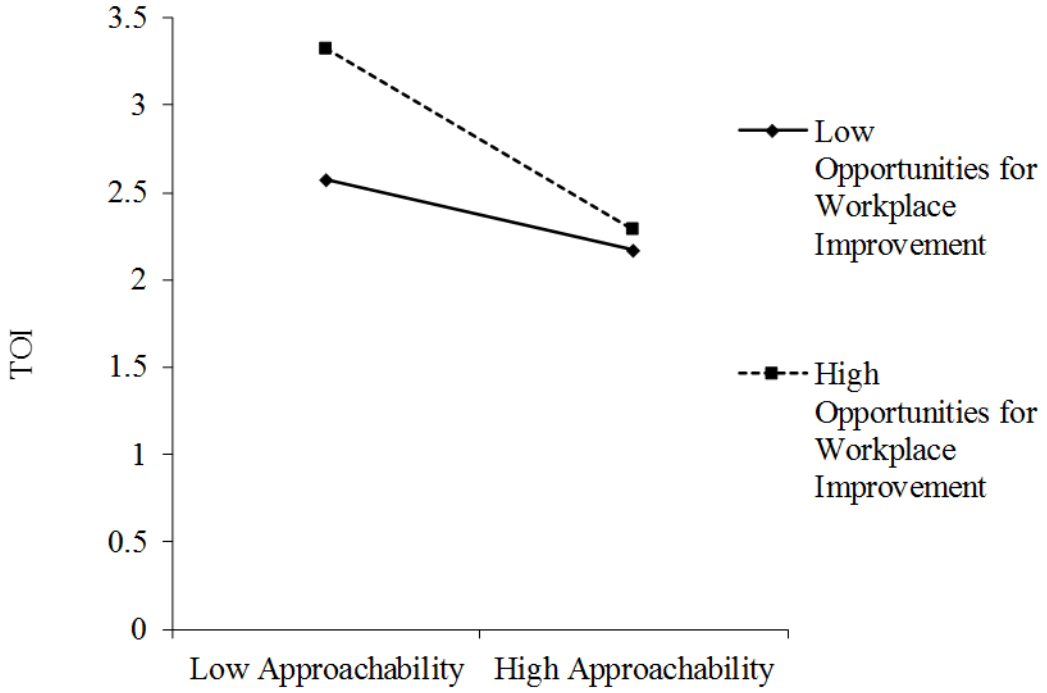

Figure 4.1.6. Relationship between Approachability and TOI under high and low levels of Opportunities for Workplace Improvement.

Approachability-Outcome Relationship Moderators: Three-Way Interactions

Hypotheses 7.1 to 7.3 specified three-way interactions between Approachability and relevant pairs of personality and situational features.

Hypothesis 7.1 predicted that the relationship between Leader Approachability and each of the targeted work outcomes is strongest when both Role Ambiguity is high *and* subordinates are high in Cognitive Structure. Tests of Hypothesis 7.1 are reported in Table 4.1.17. The hypothesis was not supported, with the interaction term (Role Ambiguity x Cognitive Structure x Approachability) not adding significantly to the prediction of (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) OCBs, (c) Voice, or (d) TOI.

Table 4.1.17

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Adding Three Way Interaction Term (Role Ambiguity x Cognitive Structure x Approachability) to Predict Work Outcomes (N = 195)

	Outcomes			
Variable	Job Satisfaction	OCBs	Voice	Turnover Intention
Step 1				
Adj. R^2	.67	.25	.27	.27
Step 2				
Adj. R^2	.67	.26	.28	.27
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.01	.01
Role Ambiguity x Cognitive Structure x Approachability				
β	.07	-.12	-.12	-.09
r	-.03	-.23	-.18	.01
Partial r	.10	-.13	-.12	-.10

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Hypothesis 7.2 predicted that the relationship between Approachability and each of the targeted work outcomes is strongest when both Job Stress is high *and* the subordinates are high in Succorance. Tests of Hypothesis 7.2 are reported in Table 4.1.18. The hypothesis was not supported, with the interaction term (Succorance x Job Stress x

Approachability) not adding significantly to the prediction of (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) OCBs, (c) Voice, or (d) TOI.

Table 4.1.18

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Adding Three Way Interaction Term (Job Stress x Succorance x Approachability) to Predict Work Outcomes (N = 195)

	Outcomes			
Variable	Job Satisfaction	OCBs	Voice	Turnover Intention
Step 1				
Adj. R^2	.64	.24	.25	.23
Step 2				
Adj. R^2	.64	.23	.25	.23
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.00
Job Stress x Succorance x Approachability				
β	.00	-.03	-.07	-.04
r	-.31	-.22	-.27	.15
Partial r	.00	-.03	-.07	-.04

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Hypothesis 7.3 predicted that the relationship between Approachability and each of the targeted work outcomes is strongest when both Opportunities for Improvement is high *and* the subordinates are high in Proactive Personality. Tests of Hypothesis 7.3 are reported in Table 4.1.19. The hypothesis was not supported, with the interaction term (Opportunities for Improvement x Proactive Personality x Approachability) not adding significantly to the prediction of (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) OCBs, (c) Voice, or (d) TOI.

In addition to testing Hypotheses 7.1 to 7.3 using overall Approachability scores, the hypotheses were tested using the Approachability facet identified as most relevant to the given situational feature-personality trait pair (i.e., availability with Role Ambiguity and Cognitive Structure, warmth with Job Stress and Cognitive Structure, and receptivity with Opportunities for Workplace Improvement and Proactive Personality). Testing the

Hypotheses in this manner produced results that mirrored those described above where Hypotheses 7.1 to 7.3 were not supported.

Table 4.1.19

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Adding Three Way Interaction Term (Opportunities for Improvement x Proactive Personality x Approachability) to Predict Work Outcomes (N = 195)

	Outcomes			
Variable	Job Satisfaction	OCBs	Voice	Turnover Intention
Step 1				
Adj. R^2	.73	.43	.46	.29
Step 2				
Adj. R^2	.73	.43	.46	.29
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.01	.00
Opp. for Improvement x Proactive Personality x Approachability				
β	.07	-.06	-.11	-.05
r	-.18	-.24	-.26	.12
Partial r	.10	-.07	-.12	-.05

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

The final, and somewhat tangential, question to be addressed with Wave 1 data is whether Approachability perceptions vary by topic content (e.g., work issues vs. personal issues). Participant ratings of Leader Approachability in regards to personal, work-life, and work issues are presented in Table 4.1.20. Correlations between these ratings are also presented in the table. Although the ratings are correlated ($r = .55$ to $.62$, $p < .01$; two-tailed), the correlations may be low enough to suggest that the participants' perceptions of Leader Approachability sometimes differ by target.

Table 4.1.20

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Among Approachability Targets

			Approachability Targets		
	M	*SD*	1.	2.	3.
1. Personal	3.41	1.15			
2. Work-life	3.84	.99	.62 **		
3. Work	3.84	.95	.55 **	.61 **	

N = 195; *p < .05; **p < .01, two-tailed

Wave 2 Results

Wave 2 Levels: Individual and Group

As discussed in Chapter 3, Waves 1 and 2 included the same set of variables and tested the same hypotheses. However, due to the manner in which the Wave 2 data were collected (within organization), data analysis could be performed at the individual- or group-level. Wave 2 descriptive statistics and intercorrelations are first presented at the individual-level, followed by the group-level. Results of the hypotheses are presented at the group-level, except the hypotheses involving personality, which are testable only at the individual-level.

Table 4.2.1

Descriptive Statistics, Transformations, Reliabilities, and Characteristics of Wave 2 Measures

	M	*SD*	α	*N* Items	Scale Range	Pre-Trans. Skew	Trans.	Post-Trans. Skew
Leadership Scales								
Availability	4.09	.59	.84	10	1-5	-1.11 *	Log	-.24
Warmth	4.23	.81	.94	10	1-5	-1.57 *	Inv.	-.07
Receptivity	3.75	.75	.88	7	1-5	-.86 *	Log	.03
Approachability	4.05	.66	.95	24	1-5	-1.34 *	Inv.	.22
Approachability Targets	4.10	.82	.68	3	1-5	-1.04 *	Log	-.22
Consideration	3.88	.68	.87	10	1-5	-1.08 *	Log	-.20
Consideration (Reduced)	3.82	.69	.84	9	1-5	-.98 *	Log	-.10
PDM	2.47	.76	.91	12	1-5	.25		.25
Ability	4.28	.70	.93	6	1-5	-1.35 *	Inv.	.10
Benevolence	4.00	.80	.89	5	1-5	-1.08 *	Log	-.06
Integrity	3.98	.73	.84	6	1-5	-.94 *	Log	.00
Trustworthiness	4.09	.70	.95	17	1-5	-1.15 *	Log	-.25
Outcome Scales								
Voice	3.67	.62	.79	6	1-5	-.29		-.29
Satisfaction with Org. Justice	4.84	1.52	.88	5	1-7	-.60 *	Sqrt	-.17
Satisfaction with Company	6.14	1.01	.86	5	1-7	-1.41 *	Inv.	-.13
Satisfaction with Work Conditions	5.90	.96	.75	5	1-7	-1.00 *	Log	-.19
Satisfaction with Supervisor	6.08	1.12	.91	5	1-7	-1.83 *	Inv.	-.08
Satisfaction with Pay	6.20	1.03	.84	4	1-7	-1.84 *	Inv.	-.18
Satisfaction	5.82	.91	.94	24	1-7	-.92 *	Log	-.12
Turnover Intention	2.01	.91	.75	3	1-5	.89 *	Log	.18
OCBOs	5.05	1.15	.85	8	1-7	-.45 *	Sqrt	-.02
OCBIs	5.11	1.11	.81	8	1-7	-.26		-.26
OCBs	5.08	1.05	.90	16	1-7	-.31		-.31
Personality Scales								
Cognitive Structure	5.24	.75	.72	13	1-7	-.09		-.09
Succorance	3.75	.74	.73	16	1-7	.01		.01
Proactive Personality	5.57	.71	.87	17	1-7	-.50 *	Sqrt	-.11
Situation Scales								
Role Ambiguity	1.99	.68	.70	4	1-5	.77 *	Sqrt	.27
Job Stress	2.44	.91	.82	3	1-5	.33 *	Sqrt	-.06
Opp. for Workplace Improvement	3.32	.61	.78	5	1-5	-.15		-.15

$N = 625$; *$p < .001$, two-tailed

Note. Means & *SD*s before transformations & winsorization; Trans. = Transformation; Sqrt = Squareroot; Inv = Inverse; Skew statistics computed before dropping multivariate outliers ($N = 634$).

Table 4.2.2

Intercorrelations Among Wave 2 Variables

	Leadership Scales									Outcome Scales				Personality Scales			Situation Scales	
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.
Leadership Scales																		
1. Availability																		
2. Warmth	.71 **																	
3. Receptivity	.72 **	.75 **																
4. Approachability	.88 **	.90 **	.91 **															
5. Approachability Targets	.59 **	.56 **	.54 **	.60 **														
6. Consideration	.76 **	.79 **	.82 **	.85 **	.58 **													
7. Consideration (Reduced)	.74 **	.76 **	.81 **	.84 **	.57 **	1.00 **												
8. PDM	.45 **	.37 **	.54 **	.49 **	.37 **	.55 **	.55 **											
9. Trustworthiness	.65 **	.63 **	.65 **	.71 **	.53 **	.71 **	.70 **	.43 **										
Outcome Scales																		
10. Voice	.27 **	.21 **	.32 **	.31 **	.26 **	.31 **	.32 **	.45 **	.40 **									
11. Job Satisfaction	.44 **	.40 **	.45 **	.47 **	.31 **	.53 **	.53 **	.29 **	.54 **	.65 **								
12. Turnover Intention	-.21 **	-.22 **	-.20 **	-.23 **	-.07	-.27 **	-.27 **	-.09 *	-.24 **	-.43 **	-.60 **							
13. OCBs	.29 **	.21 **	.28 **	.30 **	.21 **	.32 **	.33 **	.35 **	.34 **	.25 **	.52 **	.93 **						
Personality Scales																		
14. Cognitive Structure	.09 *	.11 **	.08 *	.12 **	.01	.09 *	.09 *	.00	.10 *	.21 **	.24 **	.21 **	.26 **					
15. Succorance	.06	.03	.03	.05	-.03	.11 **	.11 **	.12 **	.08	.09 *	.21 **	.12 **	.16 **	.10 *				
16. Proactive Personality	.20 **	.20 **	.20 **	.24 **	.10 *	.23 **	.23 **	.18 **	.24 **	.22 **	.29 **	.44 **	.48 **	.41 **	-.05			
Situation Scales																		
17. Role Ambiguity	-.34 **	-.30 **	-.31 **	-.35 **	-.19 **	-.39 **	-.39 **	-.16 **	-.38 **	-.34 **	-.55 **	-.23 **	-.29 **	-.13 **	-.09 *	-.15 **		
18. Job Stress	-.27 **	-.30 **	-.27 **	-.31 **	-.13 **	-.31 **	-.31 **	-.08	-.26 **	-.30 **	-.54 **	-.23 **	-.29 **	-.16 **	-.10 *	-.18 **	.47 **	
19. Opp.for Improvement	-.26 **	-.29 **	-.26 **	-.30 **	-.15 **	-.30 **	-.31 **	-.14 **	-.31 **	-.26 **	-.50 **	-.16 **	-.24 **	-.08	-.06	-.02	.38 **	.41 **

$N = 625$; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$, two-tailed

Individual-Level Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Means, standard deviations, alphas, skew statistics (pre- and post-transformations), reliability coefficients, and scale characteristics of the individual-level data are presented in Table 4.2.1. The reliabilities for the study scales fall within an acceptable range from .70 to .95 (median $\alpha = .85$).[12] Individual-level intercorrelations between variables are presented in Table 4.2.2. Intercorrelations should be interpreted with care due to their nonindependence.

Within- and Between-Group Agreement

As discussed in Chapter 3, it is helpful to consider the degree of within- and between-group rating similarity when aggregating group scores. Here indices of both within-group agreement and between-group dissimilarity are reported ($r_{WG(J)}$s and *ICC*s, respectively).

The $r_{WG(J)}$ indices of the leadership, outcome, and situational scales are presented in Table 4.2.3 and the frequency distributions of these scores are presented in Tables 4.2.4 and 4.2.5. Following the recommendations of LeBreton and Senter (2008), multiple distributions were used to calculate $r_{WG(J)}$ indices.[13] However, alternatives to the uniform

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[12] Cronbach's alpha was computed for the three Approachability target items ($\alpha = .68$). However, these items were included in the study to test the exploratory question of whether Approachability perceptions vary by target. As such, there was no expectation that the reliability of these items would meet conventional standards (i.e., $\alpha > .70$).

[13] The $r_{WG(J)}$ indices are computing by comparing the observed variance against the variance expected when there is a lack of agreement among judges. Typically, a uniform

null distribution resulted in high rates of out-of-range values. For example, using a slightly skewed null distribution resulted in 412 (19%) out-of-range values across the 16 scales and 137 groups. A high proportion of values falling outside the 0 to 1 range suggest that the incorrect null distribution has been specified (LeBreton & Senter, 2008, p. 827). Accordingly the uniform null distribution, and not a skewed distribution, is likely the most appropriate to calculate the $r_{WG(J)}$ indices of the current data. The $r_{WG(J)}$ statistics presented in Tables 4.2.3, 4.2.4, and 4.2.5 are based on a uniform null distribution. Although the uniform distribution minimized out-of-range values, it did not eliminate them. This is to be expected given the small group sizes in the current study. When group sizes are small, sampling error will likely produce some out-of-range values even when the correct null distribution has been identified (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Following the recommendation of James, Demaree, & Wolf (1984), the 153 (7%) out-of-range values, which resulted from the uniform null distribution comparison, were reset to zero.

Overall, the $r_{WG(J)}$ indices demonstrate adequate within-group agreement. The median $r_{WG(J)}$ values across all 16 scales were greater than traditional .70 criteria for establishing adequate agreement (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006), providing support for group-level conceptualization of the variables and corresponding analyses. The wide range of values (e.g., .00 – 1.00) evident across scales indicates that groups were not always in agreement. However, disagreeing groups were a minority for all scales. For

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null distribution is used in this comparison to represent lack of agreement among judges. However, Lebreton and Senter (2008) recommend considering alternative null distributions (e.g., skewed, triangular) in addition to the uniform null distribution.

example, only 5.8% of the Availability scale $r_{WG(J)}$ indices are below .70 (see Table 4.2.4). Dropping groups with low $r_{WG(J)}$ indices was considered. However, disagreeing groups were ultimately retained in subsequent analyses for three reasons. First, the proportion of low values is consistent with sampling error due to the small group sizes. The $r_{WG(J)}$ indices for groups with fewer than 10 judges have a high probability of being attenuated (Lindell & Brandt, 1999; Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992). Second, the disagreements affect a minority of groups. Previous research has retained groups with $r_{WG(J)}$ indices lower than .70 when they constitute such a minority (cf., Frazier & Bowler, 2015). Third, some disagreement between groups is meaningful per the aims of the current study. As discussed in the Method chapter, rater effects are understood to be a source of rater disagreement (e.g., one rater suffers from leniency bias and the other from severity bias). Following this logic, aggregating the ratings of disagreeing raters results in a better estimate of the supervisor effect.

*ICC*s, presented in Table 4.2.6, account for unequal group sizes by following the procedures outlined by Bliese and Halverson (1998). *ICC(1)*s range from .03 (Voice) to .28 (warmth) with the median *ICC(1)* being .17. *ICC(1)*s are typically interpreted as effect sizes (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). In the current study, they indicate that supervisors have an effect on subordinate ratings on the various scales. The majority of the scales have *ICC(1)* values meeting the criteria for a medium effect size (i.e., .10 or above; LeBreton & Senter, 2008) and a few scales have values near or exceeding the criteria for a large effect size (i.e., .25 or above; *ICC(1)*s of warmth, Trustworthiness, Consideration, and Approachability = .28, .24, .22, and .22, respectively). However, two scales have

ICC(1) values near the criteria for a small effect (i.e., .01). Voice had an *ICC(1)* value of .03 and OCBs had a value of .04.

*ICC(2)*s range from .12 (Voice) to .60 (warmth) with a median of .43. None of these meets the traditional .70 guideline used to establish reliable group means. The low *ICC(2)* values across scales, and the small *ICC(1)* values associated with the Voice and OCB scales (.03 and .04, respectively), are not ideal but they do not preclude analysis of aggregate-level for three reasons. First, the low *ICC* values are likely due to methodological artifacts and not because the constructs are inappropriate to conceptualize at the group-level. *ICC*s are attenuated by small group sizes (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000) and range restriction (LeBreton, Burgess, Kaiser, Atchley, & James, 2003). Both these factors are in operation in the current study. Average group size is 3.78 and the variability of the scale with the lowest *ICC*s (e.g., Voice) is noticeably low (*SD* = .39, See Table 4.2.7). Second, although the *ICC*s were low, all demonstrated significant levels of between-group differences. Thirteen scales were significant using traditional alpha levels (e.g., $p < .05$). TOI approached significance at traditional alpha levels (i.e., $p = .05$). Two scales were only significant using a higher alpha-level ($p < .20$) but this higher alpha-level is recommended by Kenny et al. (2002) when calculating *ICC*s to avoid mistakenly rejecting the existence of nonindependent data. Third, $r_{WG(J)}$ indices provided support of analysis at the group-level. LeBreton et al. (2003) state that both $r_{WG(J)}$ and *ICC* indices should be considered in conjunction with one another to form a system of "checks-and-balances" (p. 121). Specifically, in situations with substantially restricted between-target variance, relying only upon *ICC*s could lead to falsely concluding that aggregation is not

appropriate (LeBreton & Senter, 2008, p. 840). Taking these factors into consideration, the analysis of these variables remained at the group-level.

Table 4.2.3

Means, Medians, & Range of Scale Rwg(j)'s

	M	Med	Min	Max	Range
Leadership Scales					
1. Availability	.90	.96	.00	1.00	1.00
2. Warmth	.88	.97	.00	1.00	1.00
3. Receptivity	.86	.93	.00	.99	.99
4. Approachability	.94	.98	.00	1.00	1.00
5. Approachability Targets	.71	.83	.00	1.00	1.00
6. Consideration	.89	.94	.00	.99	.99
7. Consideration (Reduced)	.87	.93	.00	.99	.99
8. PDM	.83	.94	.00	1.00	1.00
9. Trustworthiness	.92	.98	.00	1.00	1.00
Outcome Scales					
10. Voice	.84	.92	.00	.99	.99
11. Satisfaction	.88	.97	.00	1.00	1.00
12. Turnover Intention	.62	.75	.00	1.00	1.00
13. OCBs	.73	.90	.00	.99	.99
Situation Scales					
14. Role Ambiguity	.77	.90	.00	1.00	1.00
15. Job Stress	.67	.78	.00	1.00	1.00
16. Opp. for Workplace Improvement	.80	.89	.00	.99	.99

N = 137

Table 4.2.4

Rwg(j) Distribution Frequencies of Leadership Scales (N = 137)

Lower Value	Upper Value	Availability		Warmth		Receptivity		Approachability		App. Targets		Consideration		Cons. (Reduced)		PDM		Trustworthiness	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
.00	.00	6	4.38	7	5.11	7	5.11	3	2.19	12	8.76	4	2.92	4	2.92	12	8.76	5	3.65
.01	.20	0	.00	1	.73	0	.00	1	.73	2	1.46	0	.00	1	.73	0	.00	0	.00
.21	.40	1	.73	0	.00	1	.73	0	.00	8	5.84	1	.73	1	.73	1	.73	3	2.19
.41	.60	0	.00	2	1.46	0	.00	1	.73	13	9.49	3	2.19	3	2.19	1	.73	1	.73
.61	.80	3	2.19	7	5.11	12	8.76	1	.73	26	18.98	6	4.38	11	8.03	14	10.22	1	.73
.81	1.00	127	92.70	120	87.59	117	85.40	131	95.62	76	55.47	123	89.78	117	85.40	109	79.56	127	92.70
.70	1.00	129	94.16	124	90.51	127	92.70	132	96.35	97	70.80	126	91.97	124	90.51	118	86.13	128	93.43

Table 4.2.5

Rwg(j) Distribution Frequencies of Outcome and Situation Scales (N = 137)

		Outcomes								Situations					
Lower Value	Upper Value	Voice		Job Satisfaction		Turnover Intention		OCBs		Role Ambiguity		Job Stress		Opp. for Improvement	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
.00	.00	8	5.84	10	7.30	25	18.25	22	16.06	12	8.76	19	13.87	12	8.76
.01	.20	0	.00	0	.00	3	2.19	2	1.46	0	.00	0	.00	0	.00
.21	.40	2	1.46	2	1.46	9	6.57	0	.00	4	2.92	5	3.65	1	.73
.41	.60	3	2.19	0	.00	14	10.22	6	4.38	9	6.57	20	14.60	3	2.19
.61	.80	12	8.76	2	1.46	25	18.25	10	7.30	20	14.60	30	21.90	20	14.60
.81	1.00	112	81.75	123	89.78	61	44.53	97	70.80	92	67.15	63	45.99	101	73.72
.70	1.00	122	89.05	125	91.24	80	58.39	104	75.91	106	77.37	84	61.31	115	83.94

Table 4.2.6

Intraclass Correlation Coefficients of Wave 2 Measures (N = 503)

	ICC(1)	*ICC(2)*	*p*
Leadership Scales			
1. Availability	.11	.31	.00
2. Warmth	.28	.60	.00
3. Receptivity	.19	.46	.00
4. Approachability	.22	.52	.00
5. Approachability Targets	.16	.43	.00
6. Consideration	.22	.51	.00
7. Consideration (Reduced)	.20	.49	.00
8. PDM	.19	.47	.00
9. Trustworthiness	.24	.54	.00
Outcome Scales			
10. Voice	.03	.12	.18
11. Satisfaction	.17	.43	.00
12. Turnover Intention	.06	.20	.05
13. OCBs	.04	.13	.16
Situation Scales			
14. Role Ambiguity	.10	.30	.00
15. Job Stress	.08	.24	.02
16. Opp. for Workplace Improvement	.11	.33	.00

Note: ICC = Intraclass correlation coefficient; *p* = probability value.

Group-Level Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Means, standard deviations, alphas, skew statistics (pre- and post-transformations), reliability coefficients, and scale characteristics of the group-level data are presented in Table 4.2.7. Group-level correlations among variables are presented in Table 4.2.8.

Table 4.2.7

Descriptive Statistics, Transformations, Reliabilities, and Characteristics of Wave 2 Group-Level Measures

	M	*SD*	Pre-Trans. Skew	Trans.	Post-Trans.	*N* Items	Response Option Range
Leadership Scales							
Availability	4.11	.37	-1.11 *	Log	-.39	10	1-5
Warmth	4.27	.55	-1.82 *	Log	-.65	10	1-5
Receptivity	3.78	.48	-.76 *	Sqrt	-.43	7	1-5
Approachability	4.08	.43	-1.53 *	Log	-.68	24	1-5
Approachability Targets	4.09	.54	-1.24 *	Log	-.22	3	1-5
Consideration	3.89	.44	-1.15 *	Log	-.61	10	1-5
Consideration (Reduced)	3.82	.45	-1.06 *	Log	-.56	9	1-5
PDM	2.47	.51	.14		.14	12	1-5
Ability	4.30	.49	-1.39 *	Log	-.46	6	1-5
Benevolence	4.03	.54	-.88 *	Sqrt	-.39	5	1-5
Integrity	4.01	.50	-.93 *	Sqrt	-.43	6	1-5
Trustworthiness	4.12	.48	-1.09 *	Sqrt	-.62	17	1-5
Outcome Scales							
Voice	3.67	.39	-.13		-.13	6	1-5
Satisfaction with Org. Justice	4.84	1.00	-.40		-.40	5	1-7
Satisfaction with Company	6.09	.65	-.80 *	Sqrt	-.45	5	1-7
Satisfaction with Work Conditions	5.88	.60	-.69 *	Sqrt	-.33	5	1-7
Satisfaction with Supervisor	6.05	.80	-2.01 *	Log	-.43	5	1-7
Satisfaction with Pay	6.19	.68	-1.23 *	Log	-.37	4	1-7
Satisfaction	5.79	.59	-.84 *	Sqrt	-.35	24	1-7
Turnover Intention	2.02	.56	.40		.40	3	1-5
OCBOs	5.05	.68	-.34		-.34	8	1-7
OCBIs	5.12	.63	-.06		-.06	8	1-7
OCBs	5.08	.61	-.25		-.25	16	1-7
Situation Scales							
Role Ambiguity	2.03	.42	.66		.66	4	1-5
Job Stress	2.46	.56	.20		.20	3	1-5
Opp. for Workplace Improvement	3.31	.40	-.33		-.33	5	1-5

$N = 136$; *$p < .001$, two-tailed

Note: Means & *SD*s before transformations & winsorization; Trans. = Transformation; Sqrt = Squareroot; Skew statistics computed before dropping multivariate outliers ($N = 137$).

Table 4.2.8

Intercorrelations Among Wave 2 Group-Level Variables

	Leadership Scales									Outcome Scales				Situation Scales	
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.
Leadership Scales															
1. Availability															
2. Warmth	.73 **														
3. Receptivity	.75 **	.79 **													
4. Approachability	.89 **	.93 **	.92 **												
5. Approachability Targets	.68 **	.57 **	.56 **	.65 **											
6. Consideration	.80 **	.86 **	.88 **	.93 **	.62 **										
7. Consideration (Reduced)	.80 **	.84 **	.87 **	.91 **	.61 **	1.00 **									
8. PDM	.46 **	.35 **	.49 **	.46 **	.36 **	.48 **	.48 **								
9. Trustworthiness	.79 **	.77 **	.77 **	.84 **	.58 **	.84 **	.84 **	.54 **							
Outcome Scales															
10. Voice	.24 **	.11	.14	.17 *	.24 **	.15	.16	.48 **	.31 **						
11. Job Satisfaction	.38 **	.30 **	.37 **	.38 **	.19 *	.46 **	.47 **	.21 *	.49 **	.59 **					
12. Turnover Intention	-.18 *	-.21 *	-.14	-.19 *	-.02	-.24 **	-.24 **	.04	-.21 *	-.49 **	-.58 **				
13. OCBs	.27 **	.16	.20 *	.23 **	.13	.23 **	.23 **	.32 **	.31 **	.06	.52 **	.93 **			
Situation Scales															
14. Role Ambiguity	-.28 **	-.23 **	-.23 **	-.27 **	-.03	-.28 **	-.28 **	-.12	-.32 **	-.32 **	-.56 **	-.23 **	-.29 **		
15. Job Stress	-.20 *	-.20 *	-.16	-.20 *	-.06	-.20 *	-.21 *	.00	-.18 *	-.27 **	-.60 **	-.29 **	-.36 **	.51 **	
16. Opp.for Improvement	-.33 **	-.22 *	-.24 **	-.28 **	-.11	-.27 **	-.27 **	-.19 *	-.36 **	-.30 **	-.62 **	-.35 **	-.46 **	.47 **	.51 **

$N = 136$; $*p < .05$; $**p < .01$, two-tailed

Note: Reliabilities shown in diagonal

Approachability's Structure

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the Leader Approachability measure would support a three-factor model (availability, warmth, and receptivity) over a one-factor model (overall Approachability). As in Wave 1, CFA was performed imposing both a one-factor and three-factor solution and model fit was tested by comparing the chi-square, CFI, and RMSEA goodness-of-fit indices. CFI and RMSEA are especially appropriate for Wave 2. Some indices have been shown to overestimate fit when the sample size is below 200. However, CFI and RMSEA perform well even with small sample sizes (Fan, Thomson, & Wang, 1999). Resulting fit indices for both models are included in Table 4.2.9. Results show that a one-factor model, in which items were allowed to load onto a single Approachability factor, fit the data poorer (χ^2_{324}= 752.64, $p < .01$; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .10) than the three-factor model in which items were allowed to load onto their respective Approachability facet (i.e., availability, warmth, or receptivity; χ^2_{321}= 572.05, $p < .01$; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .08). CFI & RMSEA indices improved in the three-factor model and a χ^2 difference test showed the improvement of the three-factor model over the one-factor model was significant ($\Delta\chi^2_3$ = 180.59, $p < .01$). These results support Hypothesis 1 and the three-factor model of Approachability is retained in subsequent analyses.

As in Wave 1, the three-factor model was modified to account for the shared method effect due to item keying. Goodness-of-fit indices of the modified, three-factor model allowing for correlated measurement error are also presented in Table 4.2.9. The modifications generated model improvement ($\Delta\chi^2_{10}$ = 76.35, $p < .01$), resulting in improved goodness-of-fit indices (χ^2_{311}= 495.71, $p < .00$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .07). These indices are slightly lower than the parallel model presented in Wave 1. The CFI is

slightly below an ideal level (i.e., .95; Hu & Bentler, 1999) but it still falls above the conventional criteria for acceptable fit (i.e., .90; Bentler, 1990). Similarly, CFI is not within the ideal range (i.e., < .06; Hu & Bentler, 1999) but it still falls within an acceptable range (i.e., < .08; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara et al., 1996). As such, the remaining hypotheses were tested using Wave 2's Approachability scale. Factor loadings of the Approachability scale items are provided in Table 4.2.10.

Table 4.2.9

Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Wave 2 Leader Approachability Models (N = 136)

Model	χ^2	df	*p*	CFI	RMSEA
One-factor	752.64	324	.00	.85	.10
Three-factor	572.05	321	.00	.91	.08
Three-factor with correlated measurement error	495.71	311	.00	.93	.07

Table 4.2.10

Factor Loadings of Three-factor Leader Approachability Model (N = 136)

Item	Availability	Warmth	Receptivity
My supervisor…			
...actively communicates his/her availability to meet with employees.	.59		
...keeps an "open-door" policy for meeting with employees as needed.	.67		
...responds positively and quickly to employees' requests to meet.	.78		
...has a regular time slot set aside to meet with employees.	.28		
...welcomes unscheduled visits from employees.	.64		
...is too busy to meet with employees most of the time. (R)	.56		
...tells employees he/she is too busy to meet. (R)	.72		
...makes it hard to schedule appointments with employees. (R)	.71		
...is unavailable to meet with employees. (R)	.66		
...keeps his/her door shut to unscheduled visitors. (R)	.43		
...creates a welcoming atmosphere.		.81	
...is friendly towards his/her employees.		.88	
...is good-natured and kind.		.89	
...makes employees feel at ease.		.86	
...makes employees feel comfortable.		.74	
...is cold and aloof towards employees. (R)		.75	
...is easily annoyed by employees. (R)		.85	
...makes employees feel awkward. (R)		.84	
...loses his/her temper when interacting with employees. (R)		.80	
...puts employees on edge. (R)		.89	
...gives due consideration to ideas expressed by employees.			.85
...shows interest in employees' viewpoints.			.90
...welcomes perspectives different from his/her own.			.80
...seeks both positive and negative feedback from employees.			.75
...is open to ideas and suggestions provided by employees.			.85
...likes to do most of the talking when meeting with employees. (R)			.43
...is not receptive to feedback provided by employees. (R)			.76

Note: All parameter estimates are standardized.

Approachability's Relationship to Extant Leadership Constructs

Hypothesis 2, predicting Approachability (aggregated) would demonstrate convergent validity by correlating positively with (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, and (c) Trustworthiness, was supported (r = .91, .46, and .84, respectively; $p < .01$ in each case; See Table 4.2.8). These correlations are at the aggregate-level, controlling for the contextual factor of supervisor. As covered in the Method chapter, shared supervisor is

the most prominent contextual factor in the current study. However, location and organization are two additional contextual factors that may contribute to nonindependence and aggregating to the supervisor-level does not address those factors. To address location and supervisor, both were statistically controlled for at the aggregate-level using partial correlations. After controlling for location and organization, hypothesis 2 was still supported. Approachability still correlated positively with (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, and (c) Trustworthiness (r = .89, .39, and .80, respectively; $p < .01$ in each case).

Approachability's Outcomes and Incremental Validity

Hypothesis 3, predicting Approachability would correlate with four work outcomes (Job Satisfaction, OCBs, Voice, and TOI), was supported, as significant directional correlations were found between Approachability and Job Satisfaction (r = .38; $p < .01$), OCBs (.23; $p < .01$), Voice (.17; $p < .05$), and TOI (-.19, $p < .05$; See Table 4.2.8). Controlling for location and organization produced slightly weaker results. Significant directional correlations were between Approachability and Job Satisfaction (r = .31; $p < .01$), OCBs (.16; $p < .05$), and TOI (-.16, $p < .05$), but not for Voice (.17; p = .13).

Approachability's relationships with Job Satisfaction facets and OCB subscales were also tested. Approachability correlates significantly with satisfaction with supervisor (.64; $p < .01$), with organizational justice (.25; $p < .01$), company (.16; $p <$ .05), work conditions (.29; $p < .01$), and pay (.16; $p < .05$), OCBOs (.19; $p < .05$) and with OCBIs (.22; $p < .01$). Controlling for location and organization produced slightly

weaker results. Approachability was significantly correlated with satisfaction with supervisor (.57; $p < .01$), organizational justice (.20; $p < .01$), work conditions (.22; $p < .01$), and pay (.16; $p < .05$), and with OCBIs (.18; $p < .05$), but not satisfaction with company (.11; $p = .10$), or OCBOs (.11; $p = .10$)

Hypotheses 4.1 to 4.4 specified incremental validity of Approachability over the three existing leadership constructs in predicting each of the four targeted outcomes. Tables 4.2.11 to 4.2.14 present the corresponding regression results.

Hypothesis 4.1 was partially supported (Table 4.2.11), with Approachability showing incremental prediction of Job Satisfaction beyond (b) PDM ($\Delta R^2 = .10$, $p < .01$), but not (a) Consideration, or (c) Trustworthiness. Controlling for location and organization produced parallel results with only PDM being significant ($\Delta R^2 = .04$; $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 4.2 was not supported (Table 4.2.12), with Approachability showing no incremental prediction of OCBs beyond (a) Consideration, (b) PDM, or (b) Trustworthiness. Controlling for location and organization also produced non-significant results.

Hypothesis 4.3 was partially supported (Table 4.2.13), with Approachability showing incremental prediction of Voice beyond (c) Trustworthiness ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .05$), but not (a) Consideration or (b) PDM. Although Hypothesis 4.3c was supported, it is worth noting that the beta weight assigned to Approachability in the final model was negative ($\beta = -.30$). Controlling for location and organization produced parallel results with only Trustworthiness being significant ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 4.4 was also partially supported (Table 4.2.14), with Approachability showing incremental prediction of TOI beyond (b) PDM ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$), but not (a) Consideration, or (c) Trustworthiness. Although Hypothesis 4.4b was supported, it is worth noting that the beta weight assigned to Approachability in the final model was negative ($\beta = -.27$). Controlling for location and organization produced parallel results with only PDM being significant ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .05$).

Table 4.2.11

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Satisfaction (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2		β		r	Partial r
Step 1	.21						
Consideration				.46	**	.46	.46
Step 2	.22	.02					
Consideration				.79	**	.46	.32
Approachability				-.36		.38	-.15
Step 1	.04						
PDM				.21	**	.21	.21
Step 2	.13	.10	**				
PDM				.05		.21	.05
Approachability				.35	**	.38	.32
Step 1	.23						
Trustworthiness				.49	**	.49	.49
Step 2	.23	.00					
Trustworthiness				.58	**	.49	.34
Approachability				-.11		.38	-.07

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.12

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting OCBs (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.04				
Consideration			.23 **	.23	.23
Step 2	.04	.00			
Consideration			.12	.23	.05
Approachability			.12	.23	.05
Step 1	.09				
PDM			.32 **	.32	.32
Step 2	.09	.01			
PDM			.27 **	.32	.25
Approachability			.10	.23	.09
Step 1	.09				
Trustworthiness			.31 **	.31	.31
Step 2	.09	.00			
Trustworthiness			.41 **	.31	.23
Approachability			-.12	.23	-.07

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.13

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Voice (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2		β		r	Partial r
Step 1	.02						
Consideration				.15	*	.15	.15
Step 2	.02	.01					
Consideration				-.03		.15	-.01
Approachability				.20		.17	.08
Step 1	.23						
PDM				.48	**	.48	.48
Step 2	.22	.00					
PDM				.51	**	.48	.46
Approachability				-.07		.17	-.07
Step 1	.09						
Trustworthiness				.31	**	.31	.31
Step 2	.11	.03	*				
Trustworthiness				.56	**	.31	.31
Approachability				-.30	*	.17	-.17

*p < .05, **p < .01, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.14

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Turnover Intention (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2		β		r	Partial r
Step 1	.05						
Consideration				-.24	**	-.24	-.24
Step 2	.05	.01					
Consideration				-.47	*	-.24	-.18
Approachability				.25		-.19	.10
Step 1	-.01						
PDM				.04		.04	.04
Step 2	.04	.06	**				
PDM				.16	*	.04	.15
Approachability				-.27	**	-.19	-.24
Step 1	.04						
Trustworthiness				-.21	**	-.21	-.21
Step 2	.03	.00					
Trustworthiness				-.16		-.21	-.09
Approachability				-.06		-.19	-.03

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Approachability-Outcome Relationship Moderators: Personality

Hypotheses 5.1 to 5.4 specified personality traits as moderators of Approachability's relationship with the four targeted outcomes. Tables 4.2.15 to 4.2.18 present the corresponding regression results.

Hypothesis 5.1 was not supported (Table 4.2.15), with the addition of the interaction terms (i.e., Personality x Approachability) not improving prediction of Job Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5.2 was not supported (Table 4.2.16), with the addition of the interaction terms (i.e., Personality x Approachability) not improving prediction of OCBs.

Hypothesis 5.3 was not supported (Table 4.2.17), with the addition of the interaction terms (i.e., Personality x Approachability) not improving prediction of TOI.

Hypothesis 5.4 was not supported (Table 4.2.18), with the addition of the interaction terms (i.e., Personality x Approachability) not improving prediction of Voice.

In addition to testing Hypotheses 5.1 to 5.4 using overall Approachability scores, the hypotheses were tested using the Approachability facet identified as most relevant to the given personality trait (i.e., availability with Cognitive Structure, warmth with Succorance, and receptivity with Proactive Personality). Testing the Hypotheses in this manner produced results that mirror those described above (i.e., no hypotheses were supported).

Table 4.2.15

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Job Satisfaction (N = 625)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.52				
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.72 **	.72	.72
Step 2	.63	.11 **			
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.71 **	.72	.76
Cognitive Structure			.07 **	.24	.11
Approachability			.32 **	.32	.46
Step 3	.63	.00			
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.71 **	.72	.76
Cognitive Structure			.07 **	.24	.10
Approachability			-.01	.01	-.01
Cognitive Structure x Approachability			-.01	.01	-.01
Step 1	.52				
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.72 **	.72	.72
Step 2	.64	.11 **			
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.71 **	.72	.76
Succorance			.08 **	.21	.13
Approachability			.32 **	.32	.47
Step 3	.63	.00			
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.71 **	.72	.76
Succorance			.08 **	.21	.13
Approachability			-.01	-.03	-.02
Succorance x Approachability			-.01	-.03	-.02
Step 1	.52				
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.72 **	.72	.72
Step 2	.64	.11 **			
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.71 **	.72	.76
Proactive Personality			.09 **	.29	.14
Approachability			.31 **	.32	.45
Step 3	.64	.00			
Mean Supervisor Job Satisfaction			.71 **	.72	.76
Proactive Personality			.09 **	.29	.14
Approachability			.00	.10	-.01
Proactive Personality x Approachability			.00	.10	-.01

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.16

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality and Appproachability Interacting to Predict OCBs (N = 625)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.41				
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.64 **	.64	.64
Step 2	.50	.09 **			
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.62 **	.64	.66
Cognitive Structure			.12 **	.26	.16
Approachability			.26 **	.28	.34
Step 3	.50	.00			
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.62 **	.64	.65
Cognitive Structure			.12 **	.26	.16
Approachability			-.03	-.03	-.05
Cognitive Structure x Approachability			-.03	-.03	-.05
Step 1	.41				
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.64 **	.64	.64
Step 2	.49	.09 **			
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.63 **	.64	.66
Succorance			.09 **	.16	.13
Approachability			.28 **	.28	.36
Step 3	.49	.00			
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.63 **	.64	.66
Succorance			.09 **	.16	.13
Approachability			-.02	-.02	-.02
Succorance x Approachability			-.02	-.02	-.02
Step 1	.41				
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.64 **	.64	.64
Step 2	.55	.15 **			
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.56 **	.64	.63
Proactive Personality			.28 **	.48	.36
Approachability			.22 **	.28	.31
Step 3	.55	.00			
Mean Supervisor OCBs			.57 **	.64	.63
Proactive Personality			.27 **	.48	.36
Approachability			-.04	.01	-.06
Proactive Personality x Approachability			-.04	.01	-.06

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.17

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Voice (N = 625)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.40				
Mean Supervisor Voice			.63 **	.63	.63
Step 2	.47	.07 **			
Mean Supervisor Voice			.63 **	.63	.66
Cognitive Structure			.05 *	.12	.07
Approachability			.26 **	.27	.33
Step 3	.47	.00			
Mean Supervisor Voice			.63 **	.63	.66
Cognitive Structure			.05 *	.12	.07
Approachability			-.04	-.01	-.05
Cognitive Structure x Approachability			-.04	-.01	-.05
Step 1	.40				
Mean Supervisor Voice			.63 **	.63	.63
Step 2	.47	.07 **			
Mean Supervisor Voice			.63 **	.63	.66
Succorance			-.01	.01	-.01
Approachability			.27 **	.27	.34
Step 3	.47	.00			
Mean Supervisor Voice			.63 **	.63	.66
Succorance			-.01	.01	-.01
Approachability			-.03	-.05	-.05
Succorance x Approachability			-.03	-.05	-.05
Step 1	.40				
Mean Supervisor Voice			.63 **	.63	.63
Step 2	.51	.11 **			
Mean Supervisor Voice			.59 **	.63	.64
Proactive Personality			.20 **	.37	.26
Approachability			.22 **	.27	.30
Step 3	.51	.00			
Mean Supervisor Voice			.59 **	.63	.64
Proactive Personality			.20 **	.37	.26
Approachability			.01	.08	.01
Proactive Personality x Approachability			.01	.08	.01

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.18

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Personality and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Turnover Intention (N = 625)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.46				
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.68 **	.68	.68
Step 2	.49	.03 **			
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.67 **	.68	.68
Cognitive Structure			-.04	-.15	-.06
Approachability			-.17 **	-.17	-.23
Step 3	.49	.00			
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.67 **	.68	.68
Cognitive Structure			-.04	-.15	-.06
Approachability			.05	.04	.06
Cognitive Structure x Approachability			.05	.04	.06
Step 1	.46				
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.68 **	.68	.68
Step 2	.49	.04 **			
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.67 **	.68	.69
Succorance			-.06 *	-.11	-.09
Approachability			-.18 **	-.17	-.24
Step 3	.49	.00			
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.67 **	.68	.69
Succorance			-.06 *	-.11	-.09
Approachability			.03	.05	.04
Succorance x Approachability			.03	.05	.04
Step 1	.46				
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.68 **	.68	.68
Step 2	.49	.03 **			
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.68 **	.68	.69
Proactive Personality			.01	-.11	.02
Approachability			-.18 **	-.17	-.24
Step 3	.49	.00			
Mean Supervisor Turnover Intention			.68 **	.68	.69
Proactive Personality			.02	-.11	.02
Approachability			.04	-.04	.06
Proactive Personality x Approachability			.04	-.04	.06

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Approachability-Outcome Relationship Moderators: Situational Features

Hypotheses 6.1 to 6.4 specified situational features as moderators of Approachability's relationship with the four targeted outcomes. Tables 4.2.19 to 4.2.22 present the corresponding regression results.

Hypothesis 6.1 was not supported (Table 4.2.19), with the addition of the interaction terms (i.e., situational feature x Approachability) not improving prediction in Job Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6.2 was also not supported (Table 4.2.20). The addition of the situational feature interaction terms did not improve prediction of OCBs.

Hypothesis 6.3 was also not supported (Table 4.2.21). The addition of the situational feature interaction terms did not improve prediction of OCBs.

Hypothesis 6.4 was also not supported (Table 4.2.22). The addition of the situational feature interaction terms did not improve prediction of OCBs.

In addition to testing Hypotheses 6.1 to 6.4 using overall Approachability scores, the hypotheses were tested using the Approachability facet identified as most relevant to the given situational feature (i.e., availability with Role Ambiguity, warmth with Job Stress, and receptivity with Opportunities for Workplace Improvement). Testing the Hypotheses in this manner produced results mirroring those described above (no hypotheses were supported). Finally, Hypotheses 6.1 to 6.4 were tested controlling for location and organization. Again, none of the hypotheses was supported.

Table 4.2.19

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Situations and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Job Satisfaction (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.36				
Role Ambiguity			-.50 **	-.56	-.52
Approachability			.24 **	.38	.28
Step 2	.36	.00			
Role Ambiguity			-.50 **	-.56	-.52
Approachability			.25 **	.38	.29
Role Ambiguity x Approachability			-.03	.05	-.03
Step 1	.42				
Job Stress			-.55 **	-.60	-.58
Approachability			.27 **	.38	.33
Step 2	.42	.00			
Job Stress			-.54 **	-.60	-.57
Approachability			.27 **	.38	.33
Job Stress x Approachability			.06	.11	.08
Step 1	.42				
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			-.56 **	-.62	-.58
Approachability			.22 **	.38	.27
Step 2	.42	.00			
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			-.55 **	-.62	-.56
Approachability			.22 **	.38	.27
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability			.06	.16	.08

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.20

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Situations and Appproachability Interacting to Predict OCBs (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.10				
Role Ambiguity			-.25 **	-.29	-.25
Approachability			.16 *	.23	.16
Step 2	.09	.00			
Role Ambiguity			-.25 **	-.29	-.25
Approachability			.17 *	.23	.17
Role Ambiguity x Approachability			-.06	-.02	-.06
Step 1	.14				
Job Stress			-.33 **	-.36	-.33
Approachability			.16 *	.23	.17
Step 2	.14	.00			
Job Stress			-.34 **	-.36	-.34
Approachability			.16 *	.23	.17
Job Stress x Approachability			-.06	-.03	-.07
Step 1	.21				
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			-.43 **	-.46	-.42
Approachability			.11	.23	.11
Step 2	.21	.01			
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			-.44 **	-.46	-.43
Approachability			.10	.23	.11
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability			-.08	.00	-.09

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.21

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Situations and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Voice (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.02				
Role Ambiguity			.00	-.05	.00
Approachability			.17 *	.17	.17
Step 2	.01	.00			
Role Ambiguity			.00	-.05	.00
Approachability			.18 *	.17	.17
Role Ambiguity x Approachability			-.03	.00	-.03
Step 1	.02				
Job Stress			.04	.01	.04
Approachability			.18 *	.17	.18
Step 2	.02	.01			
Job Stress			.05	.01	.05
Approachability			.18 *	.17	.18
Job Stress x Approachability			.08	.08	.08
Step 1	.02				
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			-.01	-.06	-.01
Approachability			.17 *	.17	.16
Step 2	.01	.00			
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			-.01	-.06	-.01
Approachability			.17 *	.17	.16
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability			.04	.05	.04

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 4.2.22

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Situations and Appproachability Interacting to Predict Turnover Intention (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.11				
Role Ambiguity			.30 **	.33	.29
Approachability			-.11	-.19	-.11
Step 2	.10	.00			
Role Ambiguity			.30 **	.33	.29
Approachability			-.11	-.19	-.11
Role Ambiguity x Approachability			-.03	-.07	-.03
Step 1	.26				
Job Stress			.49 **	.51	.49
Approachability			-.09	-.19	-.11
Step 2	.25	.00			
Job Stress			.49 **	.51	.49
Approachability			-.09	-.19	-.11
Job Stress x Approachability			-.03	-.07	-.03
Step 1	.14				
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			.35 **	.38	.34
Approachability			-.09	-.19	-.10
Step 2	.13	.00			
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement			.34 **	.38	.33
Approachability			-.09	-.19	-.10
Opportunities for Workplace Improvement x Approachability			-.04	-.10	-.04

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Approachability-Outcome Relationship Moderators: Three-Way Interactions

Hypotheses 7.1 to 7.3 specified three-way interactions between Approachability and relevant pairs of personality and situational features.

Hypothesis 7.1 predicted that the relationship between Leader Approachability and each of the targeted work outcomes is strongest when both Role Ambiguity is high *and* the subordinates are high in Cognitive Structure. Tests of Hypothesis 7.1 are reported in Table 4.2.23. The hypothesis was not supported, with the interaction term (Role Ambiguity x Cognitive Structure x Approachability) not adding significantly to the prediction of (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) OCBs, (c) Voice, or (d) TOI.

Table 4.2.23

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Adding Three Way Interaction Term (Role Ambiguity x Cognitive Structure x Approachability) to Predict Work Outcomes (N = 625)

	Outcomes			
Variable	Job Satisfaction	OCBs	Voice	Turnover Intention
Step 1				
Adj. R^2	.52	.41	.40	.46
Step 2				
Adj. R^2	.70	.51	.47	.54
ΔR^2	.18 **	.11 **	.08 **	.09
Step 3				
Adj. R^2	.70	.51	.47	.54
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.00
Role Ambiguity x Cognitive Structure x Approachability				
β	-.02	-.03	.02	.02
r	-.09	-.11	-.02	.09
Partial r	-.03	-.03	.03	.02

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Hypothesis 7.2 predicted that the relationship between Approachability and each of the targeted work outcomes is strongest when both Job Stress is high *and* the subordinates are high in Succorance. Tests of Hypothesis 7.2 are reported in Table 4.2.24. The hypothesis was partially supported, with the interaction term (Succorance x Job Stress x Approachability) adding significantly to the prediction of (d) TOI ($\Delta R^2 = .003$, $p < .05$), but not (a) Job Satisfaction, (b) OCBs, or (c) Voice. The three-way interaction predicting TOI is shown in Figure 4.2.1 (Hypotheses 7.2d). The negative relationship between Leader Approachability and TOI is strongest when both the participants are high in Succorance *and* the situation is high in Job Stress.

Table 4.2.24

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Adding Three Way Interaction Term (Job Stress x Succorance x Approachability) to Predict Work Outcomes (N = 625)

	Outcomes			
Variable	Job Satisfaction	OCBs	Voice	Turnover Intention
Step 1				
Adj. R^2	.52	.41	.40	.46
Step 2				
Adj. R^2	.69	.50	.47	.57
ΔR^2	.17 **	.10 **	.07 **	.11 **
Step 3				
Adj. R^2	.69	.50	.47	.57
ΔR^2	.000	.003	.000	.003 *
Job Stress x Succorance x Approachability				
β	.00	-.06	.01	-.07 *
r	-.06	-.08	.04	-.03
Partial r	-.01	-.08	.01	-.09

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

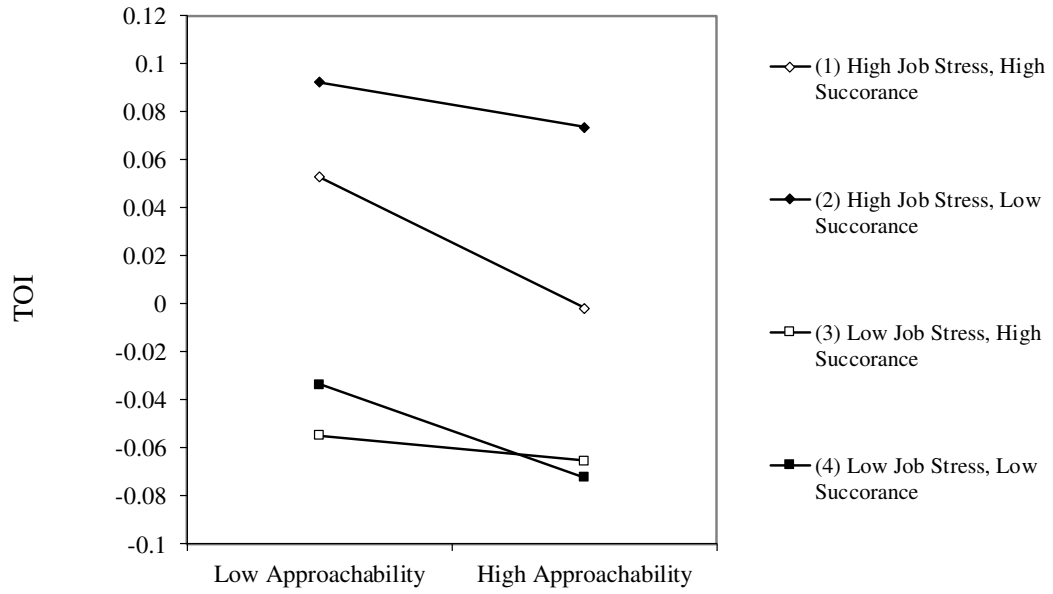

Figure 4.2.1. TOI predicted by the three-way interaction among Leader Approachability, Job Stress, and Succorance. (TOI displayed in units relative to mean.)

Hypothesis 7.3 predicted that the relationship between Approachability and each of the targeted work outcomes is strongest when both Opportunities for Improvement is high *and* the subordinates are high in Proactive Personality. Tests of Hypothesis 7.3 are reported in Table 4.2.25. The hypothesis was partially supported, with the interaction term (Opportunities for Improvement x Proactive Personality x Approachability) adding significantly to the hypothesized prediction of (a) Job Satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .004$, $p < .01$) and (d) TOI ($\Delta R^2 = .004$, $p < .01$), but not (b) OCBs, (c) Voice. Although the interaction term was significant when predicting Voice ($\Delta R^2 = .004$, $p < .05$), it did not operate in the predicted direction.

The three-way interaction predicting Job Satisfaction is shown in Figure 4.2.2 (Hypotheses 7.3a). The positive relationship between Leader Approachability and Job

Satisfaction was strongest under two personality/situational feature combinations. The first combination was when both the participants were high in Proactive Personality *and* the situation was high in Opportunities for Workplace Improvement (predicted). The second combination was when both participants were low in Proactive Personality *and* the situation was low in Opportunities for Workplace Improvement (not predicted).

The three-way interaction predicting Voice is shown in Figure 4.2.3 (Hypotheses 7.3c). Contrary to the hypothesis, the positive relationship between Leader Approachability and Voice was not the strongest when both the participants were high in Proactive Personality *and* the situations was high in Opportunity for Workplace Improvement.

Table 4.2.25

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Adding Three Way Interaction Term (Opportunities for Improvement x Proactive Personality x Approachability) to Predict Work Outcomes (N = 625)

	Outcomes			
Variable	Job Satisfaction	OCBs	Voice	Turnover Intention
Step 1				
Adj. R^2	.52	.41	.40	.46
Step 2				
Adj. R^2	.68	.56	.51	.53
ΔR^2	.16 **	.16 **	.11 **	.07 **
Step 3				
Adj. R^2	.68	.56	.51	.53
ΔR^2	.004 **	.001	.004 *	.004 **
Opp. for Improvement x Proactive Personality x Approachability				
β	.07 **	.03	-.08 *	-.08 **
r	-.03	-.04	-.11	-.02
Partial r	.11	.04	-.09	-.10

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

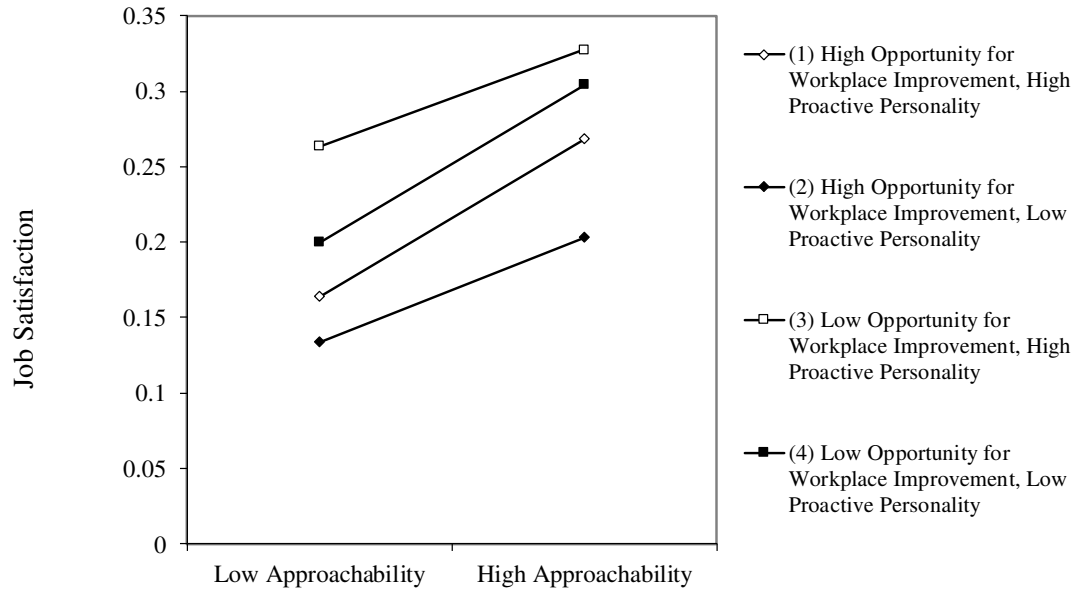

Figure 4.2.2. Job Satisfaction predicted by the three-way interaction among Leader Approachability, Opportunity for Workplace Improvement, and Proactive Personality. (Job Satisfaction displayed in units relative to mean.)

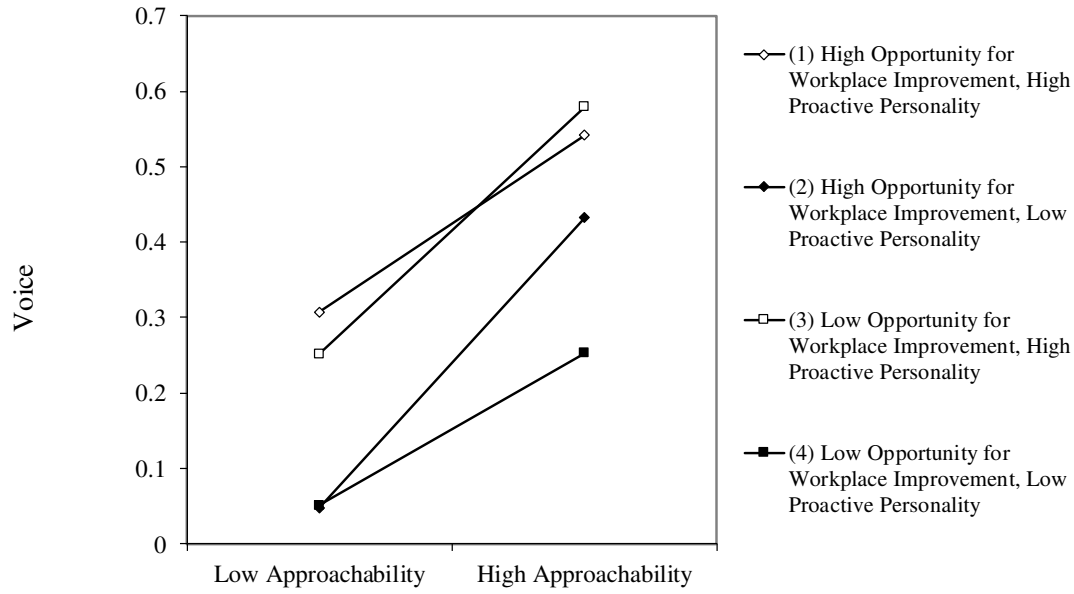

Figure 4.2.3. Voice predicted by the three-way interaction among Leader Approachability, Opportunity for Workplace Improvement, and Proactive Personality. (Voice displayed in units relative to mean.)

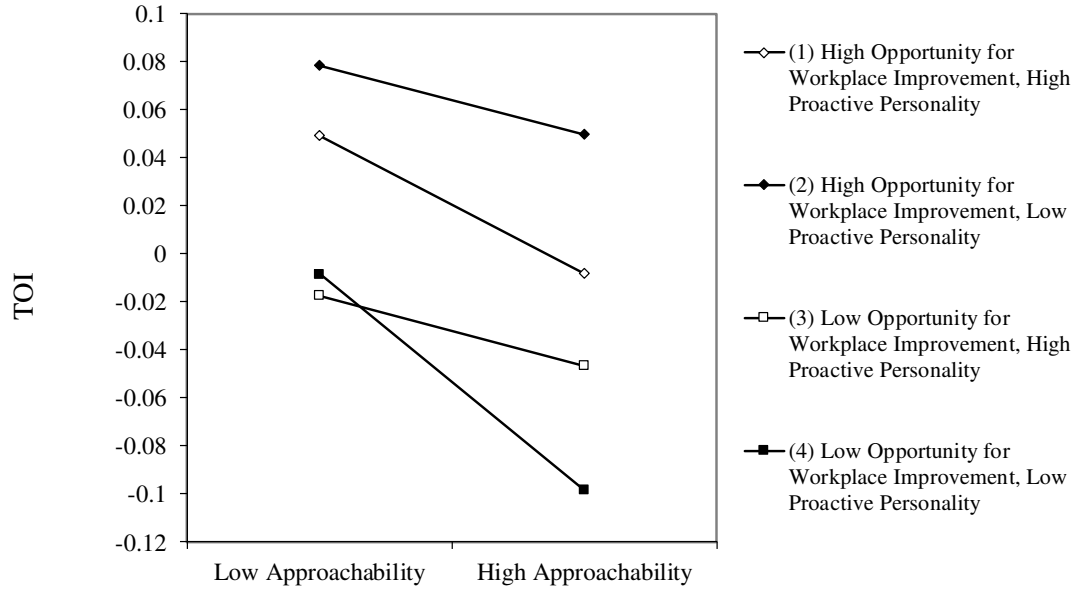

Figure 4.2.4. TOI predicted by the three-way interaction among Leader Approachability, Opportunity for Workplace Improvement, and Proactive Personality. (TOI displayed in units relative to mean.)

The three-way interaction predicting TOI is shown in Figure 4.2.4 (Hypotheses 7.3d). The positive relationship between Leader Approachability and TOI was strongest under two personality/situational feature combinations. The first combination was when both the participants were high in Proactive Personality *and* the situation was high in Opportunities for Workplace Improvement (predicted). The second combination was when both participants were low in Proactive Personality *and* the situation was low in Opportunities for Workplace Improvement (not predicted).

In addition to testing Hypotheses 7.1 to 7.3 using overall Approachability scores, the hypotheses were tested using the Approachability facet identified as most relevant to the given situational feature-personality trait pair (i.e., availability with Role Ambiguity and Cognitive Structure, warmth with Job Stress and Cognitive Structure, and receptivity with Opportunities for Workplace Improvement and Proactive Personality). Testing the Hypotheses in this manner produced results that were similar to those described above. Hypothesis 7.1d, 7.3a, and 7.3d were supported. Although Hypothesis 7.3c was significant when using the overall scale, it was not significant at the facet level.

The final question, and somewhat tangential question, to be addressed with Wave 2 data is whether Approachability perceptions vary by topic content (e.g., work issues vs. personal issues). Participant ratings of Leader Approachability in regards to personal, work-life, and work issues are presented in Table 4.1.26. Correlations between these ratings are also presented in the table. As in Wave 1, the ratings are correlated (r = .42 to .49, $p < .01$; two-tailed) but the correlations may be low enough to suggest that the participants' perceptions of Leader Approachability sometimes differ by target.

Table 4.2.26

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Among Approachability Targets

Target	*M*	*SD*	1.	2.	3.
1. Personal	3.93	.66			
2. Work-life	3.87	.79	.44 **		
3. Work	4.48	.59	.42 **	.49 **	

N = 136; *p < .05; **p < .01, two-tailed

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Chapter Introduction and Overview

The term "approachable" is a common adjective often used to describe people or even objects (e.g., “The subject is complex but the book is very approachable”). Despite its frequent use in colloquial language, the concept of approachability is largely absent from the academic leadership literature. When approachability is mentioned in the literature, it is treated indirectly. For example, previous research identifying behaviors of leaders high in Consideration has included Approachability in the list. However, Approachability is just one of many Consideration behaviors and receives no special attention (Fleishman, 1953). Similarly, research investigating antecedents of employee voice offers Approachability as just one of various potential determinants (Saunders et al., 1992). Previous to the current study, Approachability had not yet been investigated in its own right. This study begins to correct the absence of Approachability in the leadership research. As such, this study represents a series of firsts. To the best of the author’s knowledge, this is the first study to directly study Leader Approachability, identify key attributes that define Leader Approachability (i.e., availability, receptivity, and warmth), and validate a measure of Leader Approachability.

The intent of this chapter is to discuss the study’s contributions to understanding Leader Approachability, and leadership more broadly. The chapter begins by synthesizing the results of the two waves of data and explores how the results bear on the

primary research questions (i.e., what is Approachability, what is it good for, and who needs it?). Subsequently, the chapter considers implications of the results for both theory and practice. Finally, limitations and strengths of the current study are outlined, and recommendations are offered for future research.

Understanding Approachability: Answers to the Research Questions

What Approachability is

The current study provides several answers to the question, "What is Approachability?" First, compositional elements of Approachability were offered (i.e., availability, warmth, and receptivity) and the validity of the proposed structure was tested. Second, Approachability's relationship with previously-researched constructs was tested to determine its similarity to comparable leadership constructs.

The two waves of data provided consistent results regarding the composition of Approachability. Across both, greater fit was observed with a three-factor model of Approachability. This provides support for the proposed conceptualization of Approachability and suggests that this novel construct is best understood as three separable, but related, components (i.e., availability, warmth, and receptivity). Dove-tailing with this question, the study also explored whether Approachability perceptions varied by topic content (i.e., personal, work-life, and work issues). The preliminary results of this exploratory question were similar across both waves. The correlations between the three Approachability topics ranged between .42 and .62, and might suggest that some distinctions are made between topics, and supervisors may be perceived as

more approachable about certain issues (e.g., work issues). However, each of the topics was assessed with only one item. To more adequately assess if distinctions are made between Approachability topics, each Approachability target would need to be assessed using a multi-item measure. Only then could the reliability of each measurement be assessed.

Beyond the structure of Approachability, the study provides insight into the degree of similarity between Approachability and more established leadership constructs. Consistent across waves, results supported hypothesized similarities of Approachability with Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness. These findings provide convergent validity for the new measure. Although not hypothesized, the magnitude of these relationships displayed a consistent rank-order across waves. Approachability showed the weakest relationship with PDM and the strongest relationship with Consideration, suggesting that Approachability shares the least conceptual similarities with PDM and the most overlap with Consideration.

The conceptual and empirical similarity between Approachability and Consideration (r =.93, .84, and .91 in Wave 1, individual-level Wave 2, and group-level Wave 2, respectively) might be interpreted as evidence that Approachability lacks discriminant validity; that is, it is "old wine in new bottles." This conclusion merits reconsideration for several reasons. First, the correlation between the two scales is almost certainly inflated due to halo bias. Halo has been judged "ubiquitous" (Cooper, 1981, p. 218) anytime individuals (e.g., subordinates) rate others (e.g., supervisors). Previous research has shown correlations between Consideration and other leadership dimensions to be similarly inflated due to halo (e.g., Lord, Binning, Rush, & Thomas, et al., 1978).

Supporting the suspicion that halo is inflating the correlation between Approachability and Consideration, the correlation between Consideration and Trustworthiness is also substantial (Wave 1 r = .85; Wave 2 aggregate-level r = .84). The strength of this relationship might suggest "old wine in new bottles" but does not render the research literature on Trustworthiness obsolete. To the contrary, research on Trustworthiness has provided uniquely valuable insights into leader-follower relationships (e.g., Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Thus, the high correlation between Consideration and Approachability observed here does not, by itself, negate future study of Approachability as a distinctly useful leadership construct.

The strong relationship between Approachability and Consideration may actually strengthen the value of future Approachability research. Consideration captures a class of behaviors much broader than Approachability (Fleishman, 1953). The strong relationship between the two constructs suggests that Approachability may be a definitive feature of employees' perceptions of leader Consideration. Given the robust research findings linking Consideration with employee motivation, organizational performance, and leader effectiveness (Judge, Piccolo, & Illies, 2004), the narrower domain of Approachability may provide a more manageable target for organizational interventions aimed at training leaders.

Another practical advantage to assessing Approachability in lieu of Consideration is that leaders may be more open to feedback about their Approachability than their Consideration. Hearing negative feedback about Approachability (e.g., "The survey results indicate that employees are unlikely to approach you") is likely more palatable than hearing negative feedback about Consideration (e.g., "The survey results indicate

that you are not considerate") or Trustworthiness (e.g., "The survey results indicate that you are not trustworthy"). Furthermore, hearing negative feedback about Approachability is more prescriptive. For example, an Approachability assessment may indicate that a leader is not approachable because s/he is not available. This feedback would provide the leader with a clear understanding of what s/he needs to improve. Conversely, improving Consideration is a more ambiguous goal. A leader may have a hard time acting upon negative feedback about Consideration because s/he may not know where exactly the problem lies. If negative feedback about Approachability is more palatable and more prescriptive than feedback about Consideration, assessing Approachability may be more productive. With Approachability, leaders may be more likely to accept negative feedback and have a clearer target for change.

What Approachability is good for

The current study begins to answer the question, "What is Approachability good for?" by providing insight into whether Approachability can benefit individuals and organizations. Across both waves, Approachability was associated with desirable work outcomes. Those rating their leaders as more approachable were higher on Job Satisfaction (r = .77, .47, and .38), OCBs (r =.47, .30, and .23), Voice (r =.50, .31, and .17), and lower on Turnover Intention (r = -.48, -23, and -.19).[14] The relationship between Approachability and the noted outcomes was observed in both waves, but this

[14] Correlations presented here are Wave 1 (Table 4.1.2), individual-level Wave 2 (Table 4.2.2), and group-level Wave 2 (Table 4.2.8), respectively.

relationship was more pronounced in Wave 1 (e.g., Approachability-Job Satisfaction r = .77 in Wave 1 vs. .38 in Wave 2 (aggregate-level; individual-level = .47). Some of this attenuation in Wave 2 may result from the aggregation procedure, where ratings of the subordinates for a given supervisor were combined. Chapter 3 discussed how aggregating data can reduce rater effects. Following this logic, in instances where rater effects contribute to stronger correlations (e.g., leniency effect), removing rater effects would weaken correlations. However, this explanation appears to account for only a relatively small proportion of the effect size attenuation. Before aggregating Wave 2 data, the correlation between Approachability and Job Satisfaction was already notably lower in Wave 2: .47, which is 61% the size of the Wave 1 correlation (r = .77).

It is difficult to identify the factors beyond aggregation that might have contributed to the discrepant effect sizes between the two waves. One possibility is that measures in Wave 2 were less reliable, causing the correlations between variables to be attenuated. On average, the Cronbach's alphas for the Approachability and work outcome variables were only .03 smaller in Wave 2. Voice showed the largest alpha decrease (-.09) moving from Wave 1 (α = .88) to Wave 2 (α = .79), Job Satisfaction showed the smallest alpha decrease (-.03) moving from Wave 1 (α = .97) to Wave 2 (α = .94), and TOI was the only alpha to increase (.04) moving from Wave 1 (α = .71) to Wave 2 (α = .75). At most, unreliability only accounts for a small proportion of the discrepant findings. Using the correlation between Approachability and Voice – the relationship where unreliability had the greatest chance to attenuate correlations – as an example, unreliability alone would decrease the Wave 1 (r = .50) correlation to .47. This accounts for only 16% of the smaller correlation observed in Wave 2.

Another possibility is that range restriction attenuated the Wave 2 relationships. The ranges were slightly more restricted in Wave 2. On average, *SD*s of Approachability and the outcome variables were .18 smaller in Wave 2 than they were in Wave 1. Job Satisfaction scores showed the largest *SD* decrease (-.37) moving from Wave 1 (*SD* = 1.28) to Wave 2 (*SD* = .91), TOI scores showed the smallest *SD* decrease (-.05) moving from Wave 1 (*SD* = .96) to Wave 2 (*SD* = .91), and none of the scale *SD*s increased moving from Wave 1 to Wave 2. At most, range restriction only accounts for a portion of the discrepant findings. Using the correlations between Approachability and Job Satisfaction – the relationship where range restriction had the greatest chance to attenuate correlations – as an example, correcting for range restriction increases the Wave 2 (*r* = .47) correlation to .60. This would account for 43% of the smaller correlation observed in Wave 2.

A final possibility for the attenuated correlations in Wave 2 is that idiosyncrasies of the organizations participating in Wave 2 influenced the results. Wave 2 participants were selected from only three organizations with the majority of participants employed by the freight company (91%). Uniqueness of the freight company (e.g., company culture or work conditions) may be attenuating the correlations between Approachability and work outcomes. If so, the broad array of organizations and industries contained in Wave 1 suggest that the results found in Wave 1 may be more generalizable.

Regardless of what is contributing to the discrepant findings between waves, the effect sizes from both waves are still meaningful. For example, the smaller Approachability-Job Satisfaction correlation observed in Wave 2 (*r* = .38) still falls

between a medium (.30) and large effect size (.50; Cohen, 1988). Overall, these results suggest that Approachability is associated with beneficial organizational outcomes.

In addition to examining whether Approachability is associated with desirable work outcomes, the study investigated whether it might account for additional variance in the outcomes beyond three alternative leadership constructs. Although evidence for incremental validity was not identified in all analyses, Approachability demonstrated some degree of incremental prediction beyond each of the alternative leadership measures included in the study (i.e., Consideration, PDM, & Trustworthiness). For Consideration, evidence of incremental validity was observed only when predicting Voice. For PDM, however, evidence of incremental validity was observed when predicting all four outcomes. In total, 24 relationships involving incremental prediction were tested (H4.1a to H4.4c; 12 analyses in each wave). Of those, nine (38%) showed evidence of significant incremental prediction, nearly eight times the number expected due to chance (i.e., 5%).

Of the outcomes included in the study, the strongest support for incremental validity was observed when Approachability was used to predict Job Satisfaction and Voice. Approachability showed incremental prediction in 50% of the analyses run for each outcome. When predicting Job Satisfaction, Approachability accounted for variance beyond PDM in both waves and variance beyond Trustworthiness in Wave 1. When predicting Voice, Approachability accounted for variance beyond all three leadership measures: Consideration and PDM in Wave 1, and Trustworthiness in Wave 2.

Fewer instances of incremental prediction were observed with the outcomes of TOI and OCBs. In the case of TOI, Approachability in both waves accounted for unique

variance only beyond PDM. In predicting OCBs, it accounted for unique variance only beyond PDM in Wave 1 but this effect failed to replicate in Wave 2.

Overall, the tests of incremental prediction did not produce as many significant results as predicted. However, Approachability did show evidence of incremental validity beyond each of the other leadership measures in predicting at least one outcome, offering some support for the value of Approachability as offering a unique contribution to understanding leadership. Furthermore, logic would suggest that incremental validity is more likely to be observed for outcomes particularly relevant to Approachability. For example, Job Satisfaction subscales vary in their relevance to Approachability (e.g., Satisfaction with Supervisor vs. Satisfaction with Pay). Approachability may show stronger incremental prediction of Satisfaction with Supervisor than other aspects of job satisfaction. To explore this issue, Approachability's incremental prediction of the Satisfaction with Supervisor subscale was analyzed post hoc. Results of these tests are shown in Table 5.1.1 (Wave 1) and Table 5.2.1 (Wave 2). These analyses offer improved evidence of incremental prediction. The original test, predicting overall Job Satisfaction, resulted in no incremental prediction beyond Consideration. The post hoc tests predicting Satisfaction with Supervisor reveals incremental validity for Approachability beyond Consideration. When predicting Satisfaction with Supervisor in Wave 1, Approachability accounted for variance beyond Consideration ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$), PDM ($\Delta R^2 = .33$, $p < .02$), and Trustworthiness ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .01$). When predicting Satisfaction with Supervisor in Wave 2, Approachability still accounted for incremental prediction only beyond PDM, but the change in R-square in that case increased nearly four-fold (Job Satisfaction $\Delta R^2 = .06$, Satisfaction with Supervisor $\Delta R^2 = .23$).

The results of these post hoc analyses provide additional evidence for Approachability's unique contribution to prediction of key outcomes, strengthening in particular the case that Approachability and Consideration are empirically distinct. Moreover, given the substantial track records of Consideration, PDM, and Trustworthiness (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007; Piccolo & Illies, 2004; Spector, 1986) in the leadership literature, showing any evidence of incremental validity beyond those more established constructs suggests Approachability may offer a meaningful contribution to the leadership literature.

Table 5.1.1

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Wave 1 Variables Predicting Satisfaction with Supervisor (N = 195)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β	r	Partial r
Step 1	.65				
Consideration			.80 **	.80	.80
Step 2	.67	.03 **			
Consideration			.35 **	.80	.20
Approachability			.48 **	.81	.27
Step 1	.34				
PDM			.58 **	.58	.58
Step 2	.67	.33 **			
PDM			.15 **	.58	.20
Approachability			.72 **	.81	.71
Step 1	.79				
Trustworthiness			.89 **	.89	.89
Step 2	.80	.02 **			
Trustworthiness			.69 **	.89	.66
Approachability			.24 **	.81	.29

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Table 5.2.1

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Wave 2 Variables Predicting Satisfaction with Supervisor (N = 136)

Variable	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2		β		r	Partial r
Step 1	.46						
Consideration				.68	**	.68	.68
Step 2	.45	.00					
Consideration				.63	**	.68	.31
Approachability				.05		.64	.03
Step 1	.20						
PDM				.45	**	.45	.45
Step 2	.43	.23	**				
PDM				.20	**	.45	.23
Approachability				.55	**	.64	.54
Step 1	.49						
Trustworthiness				.71	**	.71	.71
Step 2	.50	.01					
Trustworthiness				.58	**	.71	.41
Approachability				.15		.64	.11

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, one-tailed.

Who Needs Approachability

The final question addressed by the current study is, "Who Needs Approachability?" It was hypothesized that individuals with specific personality traits and in certain situations would particularly benefit from an approachable leader.

Personality Traits

Cognitive Structure, Succorance, and Proactive Personality, identified as particularly relevant to Leader Approachability, were tested as moderators to investigate if they would strengthen Approachability-outcome relationships. Twelve relationships involving personality as a moderator were tested in each wave. One relationship was

significant in Wave 1, and no relationships in Wave 2. The one significant moderation effect involved Succorance. Specifically, the positive relationship between Leader Approachability and subordinate OCBs was strengthened for individuals higher in Succorance. One significant finding across 24 analyses (4%) is approximately the number expected by chance (5%). Accordingly, this sole significant finding must be interpreted with caution.

The overall lack of significant findings prompts speculations as to why the hypotheses were not supported. The simplest answer is that the hypotheses are incorrect. If so, the relationships between Approachability and work outcomes may be impervious to the selected traits. This would suggest that, regardless of their standing on these three personality traits, individuals equally benefit from having an approachable leader. This conclusion would be interesting because these three personality traits were included in this study due to their particular relevance to Approachability. If these traits did not moderate the Approachability-outcome relationships, it may be difficult to find other traits that operate as moderators.

An alternative explanation for the lack of trait moderator effects is that individuals in the current study were able to satisfy their trait-based needs without input from their supervisor. For example, individuals high in Cognitive Structure may receive the clarity they desire at work without approaching their supervisor. If an employee high in Cognitive Structure encounters ambiguity at work, she might consult coworkers or an employee manual to obtain the desired clarity. A similar rationale can be applied to Succorance and Proactive Personality: if an individual high in Succorance has an unapproachable supervisor, he may be able to receive the support he needs from

coworkers. A worker high in Proactive Personality may implement her ideas to improve the work environment without discussing the matter with the supervisor. In their current form, the personality moderator hypotheses rested on the unstated assumption that supervisors would be a central source of meeting employee needs. This assumption may not be justified as other sources of need satisfaction can be identified (e.g., coworkers). Future research is needed to determine if this is a viable explanation of the null results involving personality traits. Specifically, centrality of supervisor might be assessed as a higher-order moderator such that the noted personality moderators are more likely to operate when the supervisor serves a more central role in the worker's need fulfillment.

Situations

Three situations were identified as relevant to Leader Approachability. Role Ambiguity, Job Stress, and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement. None of these hypotheses was supported across waves. However, support was found in Wave 1 for the hypotheses involving Turnover Intention. Specifically, Role Ambiguity and Opportunities for Improvement strengthened the negative relationship between Approachability and Turnover Intention. In addition, Job Stress's moderating effect on the Approachability-Turnover Intention relationship verged on significance ($p = .05$). These results suggest the strength of the negative relationship between Approachability and TOI is heightened in certain situations. More broadly, the results suggest there may be situations where Leader Approachability is especially beneficial. Notably, however, the moderating effects of situations were inconsistent across waves. The situational moderators were not significant in Wave 2. One explanation for the lack of replication in

Wave 2 may could be that that the low *ICC(2)*s characteristic of the group-level variables included in the Wave 2 analyses obscured the moderator effects. *ICC(2)*s ranged from .20 (TOI) to .52 (Approachability). These low values indicate that supervisor mean ratings do not reliably distinguish between groups, making significant results at the aggregate level more difficult to observe (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). To explore this possibility, the Wave 2 situation moderator hypotheses (Hypotheses 5.1 to 5.4) were also tested at the individual level. These tests were run in a manner similar to the testing of the personality variables, which was performed at the individual level using statistical control to account for variance associated with the shared contextual factors (i.e., supervisor, location, and organization). The analyses testing situation moderators at the individual level produced results that mirrored the results at the group level with none of the hypotheses being supported.

It is also worth mentioning that Role Ambiguity and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement were shown to be significant moderators of the Leader Approachability-Voice relationship. However, in both instances, the moderating role of the situational variables operated in the direction opposite that predicted. The positive relationship between Approachability and Voice was strengthened in situations low in Role Ambiguity and in situations low in Opportunities for Workplace Improvement. Given that these findings were contrary to the hypotheses, and that they were not replicated in Wave 2, the results may be best understood as spurious.

Personality Traits and Situations

Finally, none of the three-way interaction hypotheses involving Approachability, situations, and relevant traits was supported in Wave 1, whereas three three-way interaction hypotheses were supported in Wave 2. Of the latter effects, one involved the trait-situation pairing of Succorance and Job Stress and three involved Proactive Personality and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement. The discrepant results found between Wave 1 (no hypotheses supported) and Wave 2 (three hypotheses supported) may be due to the manner by which the hypotheses were tested. As discussed in Chapter 3, the three-way interactions in Wave 2 were tested at the individual-level and controlled for group effects. As such, the results of these analyses must be interpreted with care. The significant three-way interactions pertain to the variance unique to the individual. For example, Approachability, Proactive Personality, and Opportunities for Improvement interacted to predict Job Satisfaction. The main effect in this relationship would be interpreted as individuals who rate their supervisor as more Approachable than do their coworkers are more likely to rate Job Satisfaction higher than do their coworkers. The significant three-way interaction can then be understood as the main effect being stronger for individuals who are both high in Proactive Personality *and* rate Opportunities for Workplace Improvement higher than their coworkers.

It should be noted the effect size of all the significant three-way interactions was small (ΔR^2 = .003-.004). As such, the significant three-way interactions may be informative in a theoretical or academic sense; however, they probably do not provide much practical significance. In a more general sense, these significant three-way interactions provide evidence that relationships between Leader Approachability and

certain work outcomes may be best understood in light of the subordinates' personality and the situation combined.

Implications

The present study holds implications for both theory and practice. As noted in Chapter 1, the study served as a unique test of trait activation theory (TAT; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett et al., 2013). Contrary to expectations, little support was found for personality's moderating effect on Approachability-outcome relationships. As discussed previously, it is possible that these findings may be due to an unjustified assumption implicit in the hypotheses (i.e., that personality-based needs are met largely through supervisor-subordinate interactions). If this is so, the lack of interactions do not necessarily undermine TAT.

Furthermore, this study provides evidence that is informative to the long-standing competition among leadership paradigms. As discussed in Chapter 1, the behavioral approach to leadership operates under the assumption that certain leadership behaviors are universally beneficial (Northouse, 2012). A competing perspective known as the situational approach to leadership posits that the value of leadership behaviors is dependent upon unique factors of a given situation (Jex & Britt, 2008). These factors include subordinate and situational characteristics (e.g., Feidler 1971, Vroom & Jago, 1988, Blanchard, 1985).

Contrary to the situational leadership paradigm, this study generally did not find that the benefits associated with Approachability (e.g., increased Job Satisfaction) were dependent upon subordinate or situational characteristics. Instead, Approachability

largely appeared to be equally beneficial across individuals and situations. This adheres to the tenets of the behavioral leadership paradigm. However, this support must be kept in context. Approachability is only one of many leadership behaviors. The effectiveness of other behaviors may be contingent on additional factors. As such, the present findings do not necessarily undermine the situational leadership paradigm, although they do offer support for the behavioral leadership paradigm.

Approachability's apparent benefits across situations and individuals may provide a practical advantage to this leadership construct. If Approachability is beneficial across situations, as the current study suggests, this provides an additional rationale for training leaders to behave in an Approachable manner. Investing in training aimed at improving Leader Approachability may prove worthwhile regardless of the organizations' particularities.

Advancing leadership training in approachability may be one of the most important practical implications of the current study. As outlined in Chapter 1, leaders make themselves approachable by engaging in specific behaviors such as keeping the office door open or actively seeking others' input. The tangible nature of these behaviors makes Approachability observable and, at least in principle, amenable to change. The results of this study suggest that training aimed at increasing Leader Approachability may be associated with increased employee Job Satisfaction, Voice, OCBs, and reduced TOI.

Results supporting the three-part structure of Approachability offer some guidance on how Approachability might be trained. Specifically, Approachability training could provide instruction and opportunities to practice availability, warmth, and receptivity. Future research is needed to determine the trainability of Approachability and

its three components. There is some question as to the differential trainability of the three components. Logic might suggest that availability is the most amenable to training. Behaviors such as leaving an office door open or setting aside time in one's schedule to meet with employees are particularly concrete and may be fairly simple to change. Conversely, leader warmth seems the most difficult component of Leader Approachability to train. However, existing research suggests that warmth is trainable. Studies of facial expressions (e.g., Oosterhof & Todorov, 2008; Vernon, Sutherland, Young, & Hartley, 2014) indicate that behaviors such as smiling are associated with perceptions of pleasantness. This suggests that trainable behaviors such as body language and facial expressions may influence perceptions of warmth. Furthermore, research indicates that emotional intelligence is trainable (Mattingly, Kraiger & Huntington, 2016). If emotional intelligence has been shown to be trainable, it is not unreasonable to expect warmth to also be trainable. Future research is needed to assess the trainability of the warmth and the other two components of Approachability.

An additional practical benefit of this study is the development of the new Leader Approachability scale. This scale could be used in organizations to assess leaders regarding areas for improvement. The current study provided an initial evaluation of the scale, results offering some evidence of desirable psychometric properties. The full Approachability scale and its subscales demonstrated strong internal consistency reliabilities across both waves (α = .84 to .97). Furthermore, item-sorting results from scale development (using SMEs) and multi-stage item analysis methods support the measure's content validity. As discussed above, results also support convergent, criterion-related, and incremental validity. Evidence for convergent validity was robust as

correlations with measures of related constructs were strong in the expected direction. Moreover, Approachability exhibited the strongest correlation with Consideration, the construct sharing the most conceptual overlap (see Table 2.2). Criterion-related validity was demonstrated by strong relationships with targeted work outcomes (Wave 1 absolute value *r* range = .47 to .80; Wave 2 group-level absolute value *r* range = .14 to .38).

Tests of incremental validity were modestly supportive. This may be the most difficult type of validity to establish. Incremental validity comparing two similar scales sometimes is never tested. For example, the literature search for this study was unable to identify a single study testing the incremental validity of Trustworthiness over Consideration, despite their conceptual overlap.

Test features other than incremental validity can justify continued development and use of a new measure. An analogy from the field of medicine helps illustrate this point. New medical treatments are developed routinely with virtually no incremental improvement in health outcomes (Kesselheim, Misono, Lee, Stedman, Brookhart, Choudhry, & Shrank, 2008). New treatments may be justified instead for a range of practical considerations. For example, drugs with the same levels of effectiveness are developed to provide more convenient forms of administration (e.g., ingestion vs. subcutaneous administration) or to reduce cost. Similarly, the new Leader Approachability measure might be justified, despite modest incremental validity over more established measures, for practical reasons. Such reasons include its behavioral focus that promotes training and feedback acceptance. That some incremental validity was found in predicting important outcomes in the current study further strengthens the justification for future utilization of the new measure.

Limitations

It is helpful to consider the current study's limitations to properly understand its contribution to the literature and identify future research needs. The study's primary limitation is the possibility of common method bias affecting the results. Due to reliance on workers for both self-ratings and ratings of their supervisors, it is possible that participant response biases contaminated the results (Conway & Lance, 2010). However, research has shown that biases such as social desirability, acquiescence, negative affect, and positive affect do not have large, consistent effects (e.g., Chan 2001; Williams & Anderson, 1994). A common assumption is that using a common method to assess variables routinely creates upwardly biased correlations (Conway & Lance, 2010). Research has found that this fear is exaggerated (e.g., Conway & Lance, 2010; Spector, 2006), leading some to suggest that routine upward bias a myth (Conway & Lance, 2010). An important distinction exists between halo bias and common method effect. In the current study, halo bias would inflate correlations of the subordinate-rated attributes of the supervisor. Previous research shows that halo bias is common (Cooper, 1981) and it is reasonable to assume that it is inflating the relationships among Approachability, Consideration, and Trustworthiness. Common method variance is distinct from halo bias and it would inflate the relationships between any of the study variables (e.g., between the leadership and outcome variables). This type of inflated correlations is less likely to occur than halo bias (Conway & Lance, 2010; Cooper, 1981).

Although the detrimental effects of common method bias have been exaggerated in previous literature (e.g., Conway & Lance, 2010; Spector, 2006), it still is an issue that should be taken seriously. Steps were taken in the design of this study to reduce the

effects of common method bias. One approach was to assess study variables using construct-valid measures (Conway & Lance, 2010). Whenever possible, well-validated measures were included in the current study. Measures such as Consideration, Trustworthiness, Voice, OCBs, and TOI are well-established and have been used extensively in previous research. In the case of the Leader Approachability and Opportunities for Workplace Improvement measures, no previously developed measures were available. However, the newly developed measures demonstrated adequate psychometric properties, in support of construct validity. Alpha for Opportunities for Workplace Improvement was .76 in Wave 1 and .78 in Wave 2. The Approachability measure's alpha was .97 in Wave 1 and .95 in Wave 2. Subscale alphas of the Approachability measure also demonstrated adequately high levels in Wave 1 (.90-.96) and Wave 2 (.82-.94). The CFA results provide additional evidence that the Approachability's measure exhibits appropriate psychometric properties. As discussed earlier, the CFA goodness-of-fit indices were adequately high. Using well-established measures and vetting the new measures, to some extent offsets the threat of common method bias (Conway & Lance, 2010).

It is important to note that common method bias is a concern primarily in Wave 1. Common method bias is driven by variance that is unique to each rater. For example, if a participant is high in negative affectivity, he may provide lower ratings across all items, creating a common method bias. Subordinate ratings were aggregated in Wave 2 and, as discussed in Chapter 3, this aggregating data reduces rater effects. For example, in a group of subordinates rating a supervisor, some of the subordinates might be high in negative affectivity and others might be high in positive affectivity. By aggregating their

scores, these rater biases caused by affectivity cancel one another out. In Wave 2, the aggregation procedure reduces rater effects and, consequently, common method bias.[15]

If common method bias were driving the results in Wave 1, the reduced effect of this bias in Wave 2 would cause the two waves to arrive at inconsistent results. However, the results from Waves 1 and 2 were generally consistent. This is especially true of the hypotheses addressing the Leader Approachability outcomes. In both waves, Approachability was associated with Job Satisfaction, OCBs, Voice, and reduced TOI. Wave 2 findings validate the Wave 1 findings and provide evidence that the relationships observed in Wave 1 were not artifacts of shared method bias.

The large sample size and the two waves of data collection are strengths of the study. Each wave compensates, to some extent, for the weakness of the other. Wave 2 results are less likely to be affected by common method bias and Wave 1 results are more likely to be generalizable. The generalizability of Wave 2 may be limited, as 94% of participants were male and only three industries were represented, but the generalizability of Wave 1 appears to be quite strong, with a 41:59 male/female ratio and participants representing 21 industries. Another strength of this study is the degree of scrutiny and

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[15] It is important to note that not all of the rater effect variance is driven by common method bias. For example, an employee may have worked for the company for many years and knows her supervisor very well. As a result, she provides ratings of her supervisor's Approachability that are much higher than the Approachability ratings provided by her coworkers. Given the good relationship she has with her supervisor, her TOI may also be lower than her coworkers. The variance in both these variables is unique to the individual but is not due to common method bias.

refinement given to the new Leader Approachability measure. The steps taken to develop the scale are summarized below.

1. Approachability was defined and items were written specifically per facet.
2. SMEs performed two rounds of item-sorting to evaluate and promote content validity.
3. Wave 1 data permitted a multi-stage item analysis to refine scale properties and direct item replacement and modification.
4. Wave 2 data permitted a second multi-stage item analysis to further refine and assess scale properties, yielding strong internal consistency reliability per subscale and overall.
5. CFA analysis performed on both waves supported the scale's expected three-factor structure.
6. Analyses undertaken with each wave provided overall support for (a) convergent, (b) discriminant, (c) criterion-related, and (d) incremental validity.

Future Research

Future research can build on the findings of the current study and account for its limitations. The discussion of future research is divided into three sections: alternative methodologies, approachability training, and miscellaneous issues.

To address the limitations of the current study, future research of Leader Approachability should rely on alternative research methodologies. To avoid common method bias, future research should rely upon multiple sources of data. Using coworker- or supervisor-rated OCBs, for example, future research could reduce the potential for

social desirability to distort OCB ratings. Future research could also rely on archival data to further explore outcomes of Approachability. Employee performance evaluations, unit-performance, or turnover data could be gathered to better test the criterion-related validity of the Approachability measure. The outcomes included in the current study (i.e., Job Satisfaction, OCBs, Voice, and TOI) are by no means an exhaustive list of possible Approachability outcomes. Further investigation of Approachability's benefits may discover that Approachability is linked to other important criteria (e.g., turnover, absenteeism, and unit/individual performance). Additionally, future research could provide a more refined investigation of the relationships between the outcomes included in the current study. As discussed in Chapter 2, Voice may also be understood as a mediator between Approachability and TOI (Hirschman, 1970). Similarly, Job Satisfaction may operate as a mediator between Approachability and OCBs (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983).

Research on Approachability would also be strengthened by experimental methodologies. The current study demonstrated robust relationships between Approachability and work outcomes but causality was not directly tested. An experimental study might be designed to demonstrate more conclusively that a causal relationship exists between Approachability and the work outcomes. For example, participants in a lab study could be asked to complete a task under the supervision of a leader who is either approachable or unapproachable. Outcomes such as performance or satisfaction with the task could be measured to determine if there are differences between the two conditions.

A second main area for future research targets the trainability of Approachability. The claim that Approachability is trainable needs to be tested. This could be tested directly through the use of a Solomon Four Group Design or a delayed treatment methodology. Alternatively, the trainability of Approachability could be tested indirectly. Training specialists could be shown the Leader Approachability measure items and asked whether, according to the specialists' experience, the behaviors captured in the measure are trainable.

A number of miscellaneous questions relating to Approachability could also be addressed in future research. As discussed previously, further research is needed to better diagnose why the hypotheses involving moderation were largely not supported. It is unclear why personality and situations generally did not strengthen the relationship between Approachability and work outcomes. It is possible that the selected traits and work features simply do not have an effect on the Approachability-outcome relationship. If so, future research may be able to identify traits not included in the current study that demonstrate robust moderator effects. Malleable traits (e.g., task-specific self-efficacy; Gist & Mitchell, 1992) or cultural value orientations (e.g., power distance orientation; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009) may be worth investigating as potential moderators. Alternatively, it is possible that the individuals in the current study were able to address their needs without approaching their supervisor (e.g., an employee high in Succorance may have been able to receive psychological support from coworkers). Future research could directly assess whether sources other than the leaders can adequately satisfy trait- and situation-based needs.

Future research could also explore the viability of assessing Approachability in an employee selection process. KSAs (knowledge, skills, and abilities) or personality traits may be linked to Leader Approachability. Future research could investigate if these attributes, or a more direct assessment of Approachability, might be used to hire or promote approachable leaders. A further area of future research would be to investigate in greater detail the exploratory question regarding Approachability targets. This study provides preliminary evidence that employee perceptions of Leader Approachability vary by topic (i.e., personal, work-life, and work). Future research could develop multi-item assessments of each Approachability target (i.e., personal, work-life, and work) and explore whether the various Approachability topics are equally important or if certain topics are particularly beneficial.

Conclusions

Practitioners and researchers have long recognized the benefits of egalitarian leadership practices (e.g., Senge, 1990; Lowin, 1968), and, looking forward, technology and globalization only heighten the need for democratic leadership (Alcover, Rico, Turnley, & Bolino, 2016, Cascio, 1995, Landy & Conte, 2013). The current study provides some evidence that Leader Approachability is valuable, and this value is likely to increase as organizations encounter accelerating rates of change (Huber & Glick, 1993). As discussed in Chapter 1, logic suggests that Approachability provides a way for leaders to stay apprised of what the organization is encountering and respond accordingly. Furthermore, reason implies that approachable leaders have more opportunities to motivate and mentor employees who must also adapt to change.

The current study initiates the study of Leader Approachability, developing and validating a measure that can be used to further explore this construct moving forward. The study provides initial answers to three fundamental questions regarding Approachability: (a) What is Approachability? Approachability is availability, warmth, and receptivity; (b) What is it good for? Approachability is associated with multiple benefits including Job Satisfaction, OCBs, employee Voice, and reduced TOI, in some cases incrementally over more established constructs; and (c) Who needs Approachability? The benefits of approachability do not appear to be linked to particular traits or situational features, suggesting its value may be broad. Hopefully, these initial answers prompt further inquiry into these and other questions regarding Approachability as a beneficial leader behavior.

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APPENDIX A

STUDY MEASURES

Survey Items

Survey items were not grouped by scale as they appear below when presented to participants. Survey items were presented to participants in pseudo-random order. Item order alternated between the various scales such that items within the same scale were not presented immediately following one another. Item order also alternated between positively and negatively keyed items to the extent possible.

Wave 1 Prescreening Items

1. I am 25 years old or older
2. I am currently a full-time employee.
3. I currently have a work supervisor.
4. I have worked for my current supervisor for less than one month. (Negatively keyed)

Wave 2 Prescreening Items

1. I am 18 years old or older
2. I currently have a work supervisor.
3. I have worked for my current supervisor for less than one month. (Negatively keyed)

Leadership Constructs

Approachability

- Availability - Positively keyed
    1. My supervisor actively communicates his/her availability to meet with employees.
    2. My supervisor keeps an "open-door" policy for meeting with employees as needed.
    3. My supervisor responds positively and quickly to employees' requests to meet.
    4. My supervisor has a regular timeslot set aside to meet with employees. (Dropped from Wave 1)
    5. My supervisor welcomes unscheduled visits from employees.
- Availability - Negatively keyed
    6. My supervisor is too busy to meet with employees most of the time.
    7. My supervisor tells employees he/she is too busy to meet.
    8. My supervisor makes it hard to schedule appointments with employees. (Dropped from Wave 1; Altered in Wave 2: My supervisor is unavailable to meet with employees.)
    9. My supervisor often ignores employees' requests to meet. (Dropped from Wave 1)
    10. My supervisor routinely keeps his/her door shut to unscheduled visitors.
- Warmth - Positively keyed
    1. My supervisor creates a welcoming atmosphere.
    2. My supervisor is friendly towards his/her employees.
    3. My supervisor is good-natured and kind.
    4. My supervisor makes employees feel at ease.
    5. My supervisor makes employees feel comfortable.
- Warmth - Negatively keyed
    6. My supervisor is cold and aloof towards employees.
    7. My supervisor is easily annoyed by employees. (Dropped from Wave 1)
    8. My supervisor makes employees feel awkward.
    9. My supervisor often loses temper when interacting with employees.
    10. My supervisor puts employees on edge.
- Receptivity - Positively keyed
    1. My supervisor gives due consideration to ideas expressed by employees.
    2. My supervisor shows interest in employees' viewpoints.
    3. My supervisor welcomes perspectives different from his/her own.

4. My supervisor seeks both positive and negative feedback from employees.
5. My supervisor is open to ideas and suggestions provided by employees.

- Receptivity - Negatively keyed
    6. My supervisor interrupts employees when they are sharing their thoughts. (Dropped from Wave 1 & Wave 2)
    7. My supervisor likes to do most of the talking when meeting with employees.
    8. My supervisor is dismissive towards employees who offer their own ideas or opinions. (Dropped from Wave 2)
    9. My supervisor is quick to jump to conclusions when employees are expressing new ideas. (Dropped from Wave 1; Altered in Wave 2: My supervisor is not receptive to feedback provided by employees.)
    10. My supervisor expects others to stay quiet unless specifically asked to contribute. (Dropped from Wave 2)

Approachability Targets

1. My supervisor is approachable about issues directly relating to work.
2. My supervisor is approachable about non-work-related personal matters (e.g., interests, hobbies, family).
3. My supervisor is approachable about personal matters that interfere with work (e.g., doctor's appointments, children's school events).

Consideration

- Positively keyed
    1. My supervisor is friendly and approachable.
    2. My supervisor does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.
    3. My supervisor puts suggestions made by the group into operation.
    4. My supervisor treats all group members as his/her equals.
    5. My supervisor gives advance notice of changes.
    6. My supervisor looks out for the personal welfare of group members.
    7. My supervisor is willing to make changes.
- Negatively keyed
    8. My supervisor keeps to himself/herself.
    9. My supervisor refuses to explain his/her actions.

10. My supervisor acts without consulting the group.

Participative Decision-Making

1. My supervisor asks for my opinion about how the work gets done.
2. My supervisor asks for my opinion about how to monitor quality.
3. My supervisor asks for my opinion about how fast the work gets done.
4. My supervisor asks for my opinion about how work is assigned.
5. My supervisor asks for my opinion about when the work gets done.
6. My supervisor asks for my opinion before hiring a coworker.
7. My supervisor asks for my opinion before disciplining a coworker.
8. My supervisor asks for my opinion before evaluating the performance of a coworker.
9. My supervisor asks for my opinion about training needs.
10. My supervisor asks for my opinion before making important purchases.
11. My supervisor asks for my opinion about organizational goals.
12. My supervisor asks for my opinion about organizational policies and rules.

Trustworthiness

- Ability
    1. My supervisor is very capable of performing his/her job.
    2. My supervisor is known to be successful at the things s/he tries to do.
    3. My supervisor has much knowledge about the work that needs done.
    4. I feel very confident about my supervisor's skills.
    5. My supervisor has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.
    6. My supervisor is well qualified.
- Benevolence
    1. My supervisor is very concerned about my welfare.
    2. My needs and desires are very important to my supervisor.
    3. My supervisor would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
    4. My supervisor really looks out for what is important to me.
    5. My supervisor will go out of her/his way to help me.
- Integrity - Positively keyed
    1. My supervisor has a strong sense of justice.
    2. I never have to wonder whether my supervisor will stick to his/her word.
    3. My supervisor tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.
    4. I like my supervisor's values.
    5. Sound principles seem to guide my supervisor's behavior.

- Integrity - Negatively keyed
    6. My supervisor's actions and behaviors are not very consistent.

Outcomes

Voice

1. I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect my work group.
2. I speak up and encourage others in my work group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
3. I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my work group even if my opinion is different and others in the group disagree with me.
4. I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to my work group.
5. I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in my work group.
6. I speak up in my work group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Job Satisfaction

- Satisfaction with Organizational Justice
    1. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    2. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    3. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    4. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    5. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
- Satisfaction with Company
    1. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    2. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    3. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    4. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    5. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
- Satisfaction with Work Conditions
    1. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    2. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    3. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]

4. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
5. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]

- Satisfaction with Supervisor
  1. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
  2. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
  3. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
  4. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
  5. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
- Satisfaction with Pay
  1. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
  2. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
  3. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
  4. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]

Turnover Intention

1. How often do you think of quitting your job?
2. How likely would you be to find an acceptable alternative to your current job?
3. How likely are you to search for another job and/or quit your current job within the next year?

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

- Organization
  - I attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
  - I keep up with developments in the organization.
  - I defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
  - I show pride when representing the organization in public.
  - I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
  - I express loyalty toward the organization.
  - I take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
  - I demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

- Individual
  - I help others who have been absent.
  - I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.
  - I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.

- I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
- I show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
- I give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.
- I assist others with their duties.
- I share personal property with others to help their work.

Work Situation Moderators

Role Ambiguity

- Positively keyed
    1. I work under unclear policies and guidelines.
    2. I don't know what is expected of me at work.
- Negatively keyed
    3. My work responsibilities are clearly defined.
    4. My job has clearly planned goals and objectives.

Job Stress

1. My job (e.g., the type of work, the amount of responsibility, etc.) causes me a great deal of stress and anxiety
2. Relations with people I work with (e.g., co-workers, supervisors, subordinates) cause me a great deal of stress and anxiety.
3. General aspects of the organization I work for (e.g., policies and procedures, general working conditions) tend to cause me a great deal of anxiety and stress.

Opportunities for Workplace Improvement

- Positively keyed
    1. I see many ways to improve my current workplace.
    2. My job is not designed as well as it could be.
    3. My company could do a lot of things better than it does.
- Negatively keyed

5. My work situation leaves no room for improvement.
6. There is very little I would change about my job, even if I could change it.
7. My company operates as well as can be expected.

Personality Moderators

Cognitive Structure

- Positively keyed
    1. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    2. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    3. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    4. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    5. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    6. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    7. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    8. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
- Negatively keyed
    9. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    10. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    11. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    12. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    13. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    14. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    15. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    16. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]

Succorance

- Positively keyed
    1. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    2. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    3. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    4. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    5. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    6. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    7. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    8. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]

- Negatively keyed
    9. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    10. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    11. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    12. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    13. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    14. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    15. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]
    16. [Propriety scale items redacted from digital copy.]

Proactive Personality

- Positively keyed
    1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.
    2. I feel driven to make a difference in my community, and maybe the world.
    3. I tend to let others take the initiative to start new projects.
    4. I enjoy facing and overcoming obstacles to my ideas.
    5. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
    6. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
    7. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
    8. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.
    9. I excel at identifying opportunities.
    10. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
    11. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.
    12. I love to challenge the status quo.
    13. When I have a problem, I tackle it head-on.
    14. I am great at turning problems into opportunities.
    15. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.
    16. If I see someone in trouble, I help out in any way I can.
- Negatively keyed
    17. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.

Need for Approachability

Instructions: Regardless of your current supervisor, tell us how much would you dislike or like it if your supervisor routinely…

- Availability - Positively keyed
    1. If my supervisor routinely communicated his/her availability to meet with employees.
    2. If my supervisor routinely kept an "open-door" policy for meeting with employees as needed.
    3. If my supervisor routinely responded positively and quickly to employees' requests to meet.
    4. If my supervisor routinely set aside timeslots to meet with employees.
    5. If my supervisor routinely welcomed unscheduled visits from employees.
- Availability - Negatively keyed
    6. If my supervisor routinely was too busy to meet with employees.
    7. If my supervisor routinely told employees he/she is too busy to meet.
    8. If my supervisor routinely made it hard to schedule appointments with employees.
    9. If my supervisor routinely ignored employees' requests to meet.
    10. If my supervisor routinely kept his/her door shut to unscheduled visitors.
- Warmth - Positively keyed
    1. If my supervisor routinely created a welcoming atmosphere.
    2. If my supervisor routinely was friendly towards his/her employees.
    3. If my supervisor routinely was good-natured and kind.
    4. If my supervisor routinely made employees feel at ease.
    5. If my supervisor routinely made employees feel comfortable.
- Warmth - Negatively keyed
    6. If my supervisor routinely was cold and aloof towards employees.
    7. If my supervisor routinely was easily annoyed by employees.
    8. If my supervisor routinely made employees feel awkward.
    9. If my supervisor routinely lost his/her temper when interacting with employees.
    10. If my supervisor routinely put employees on edge.
- Receptivity - Positively keyed
    1. If my supervisor routinely gave due consideration to ideas expressed by employees.
    2. If my supervisor routinely showed interest in employees' viewpoints.
    3. If my supervisor routinely welcomed perspectives different from his/her own.

4. If my supervisor routinely sought both positive and negative feedback from employees.
5. If my supervisor routinely was open to ideas and suggestions provided by employees.

- Receptivity - Negatively keyed
    6. If my supervisor routinely interrupted employees when they are sharing their thoughts.
    7. If my supervisor routinely liked to do most of the talking when meeting with employees
    8. If my supervisor routinely was dismissive towards employees who offer their own ideas or opinions.
    9. If my supervisor routinely was quick to jump to conclusions when employees are expressing new ideas.
    10. If my supervisor routinely expected others to stay quiet unless specifically asked to contribute.

Attention Checks

- I was born on February 30.
- I was born before the 9/11 terrorist attack on the World Trade Center. (Negatively keyed)
- I have never used a computer.
- I am employed. (Negatively keyed)

Demographic Questions

- What is your age (in years)?
- What is your gender?
- How much work experience do you have?
- How long have you been working with your current supervisor?
- What industry do you work in?
- What is the gender of your supervisor? (Wave 2 only)
- Indicate below the supervisor you work with most. (Names of supervisors listed in survey; Wave 2 only)

- Think about all the interactions you have with supervisors. What percentage of those interactions is with [name of supervisor selected in previous question]? (Wave 2 only)