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LEADER-FOLLOWER SIMILARITY IN CONSTRUAL LEVEL AND LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE QUALITY

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ABSTRACT

Doctoral Thesis

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

Leader-Follower Similarity in Construal Level and Leader-Member Exchange Quality

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Since its launch almost four decades ago, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory has become the foremost leadership theory and sparked extensive research interest in organizational behavior inquiry. Motivated to address the recent calls on furthering the understanding of antecedents of leader-member exchange (LMX) quality, this dissertation aimed to investigate the role of a novel and germane factor, leader and follower similarity in construal level in determining the LMX quality. Specifically, it was hypothesized that dyadic similarity in construal level, that is compatibility between dyadic parties to mentally represent things either abstractly or concretely, would contribute positively to LMX quality. In order to test the hypothesis, three studies were conducted. The first experimental study examined whether participants, assigned leader roles, preferred followers whose construal level similar to their own (N = 74). Results revealed that leaders did not show a tendency to prefer a follower with construal level similar to their own over a follower with different construal level than their own. The second qualitative study, included adaptation of work-based construal level scale by Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015). For this purpose, 31 interviews were conducted with people working in financial affairs departments of various organizations and a work-based construal level scale consisting 16 work activities was formed. The third quantitative study included surveying leader and follower dyads working in financial affairs departments. HLM analysis of 245 matched dyads revealed that dyads with similar work-based construal levels had greater LMX quality.

Keywords: Construal Level Theory, LMX, Construal Level Similarity, Leader-Follower Similarity, Cognitive Similarity

ÖZET

Doktora Tezi

Yönetici-Çalışan Arasındaki Kurgu Düzeyi Benzerliği ve Yönetici-Üye Etkileşim Kalitesi

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Lider-üye etkileşiminin (LÜE) öncüllerinin daha fazla araştırılması yönündeki çağrılara cevap vermeyi amaçlayan bu tez çalışmasında, özgün bir faktörün, lider ve çalışan arasındaki kurgu düzeyi benzerliğinin LÜE sürecindeki rolü incelenmiştir. Buna göre, çalışan-yönetici çiftindeki tarafların benzer kurgu düzeyine sahip olmaları durumunun, yani zihinsel olarak soyut ya da somut temsil etme biçimlerinin uyumlu olmasının, LÜE'ni olumlu yönde etkileyeceği varsayılmıştır. Hipotez testi için üç çalışma yürütülmüştür. Deneysel tasarıma sahip ilk çalışmada yönetici rolü atanan katılımcıların kurgu düzeyi kendilerine benzeyen çalışanları daha çok tercih edip etmedikleri incelenmiştir (N = 74). Sonuçlar, yöneticilerin kurgu düzeyi kendilerine benzeyen çalışanı, kurgu düzeyi kendisinden farklı olan çalışana kıyasla daha fazla tercih etmediğini göstermiştir. Kalitatif bir tasarıma sahip ikinci çalışma Reyt ve Wiesenfeld (2015) tarafından geliştirilen iş-temelli kurgu düzeyi ölçeğinin uyarlanmasını amaçlamıştır. Buna göre, çeşitli örgütlerin mali işler departmanlarında çalışan 31 kişi ile mülakat gerçekleştirilmiş ve 16-maddelik bir ölçek oluşturulmuştur. Üçüncü çalışmada ise mali işler departmanlarında çalışan yönetici-çalışan çiftlerine anket uygulanmıştır. 245 çiftten toplanan veri üzerinde yapılan hiyerarşik lineer modelleme analizi benzer iş-temelli kurgu düzeyine sahip çiftlerin daha iyi LÜE kalitesine sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kurgu Düzeyi Kuramı, LÜE, Kurgu Düzeyi Benzerliği, Yönetici-Çalışan Benzerliği, Bilişsel Benzerlik

LEADER-FOLLOWER SIMILARITY IN CONSTRUAL LEVEL AND LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE QUALITY

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ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CLT	Construal Level Theory
CR	Composite Reliability
df	Degrees of Freedom
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EGCL	Employee General Construal Level
EWBCL	Employee Work-Based Construal Level
GCL	General Construal Level
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
HLM	Hierarchical Linear Modelling
ICC	Intra-Class Correlation
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
M	Mean
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SD	Standard Deviation
SGCL	Supervisor General Construal Level
SWBCL	Supervisor Work-Based Construal Level
WBCL	Work-Based Construal Level

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INTRODUCTION

There is an old adage that "*people don't leave their companies, but they leave their managers*", which comes from the results of Gallup survey data conducted on thousands of working people. According to the survey, one in two people left their job so that "*they get away from their manager at some point in their career*" (Gallup, 2015: 18). Having an unhealthy and poor relationship with manager is among the top reasons of why people withdraw from their positions.

Consistent with the recognition of the significance of one's relationship with his/her supervisor, leader-member exchange theory (LMX) acknowledges the importance of interpersonal relationship between employees and their immediate supervisors by presuming that dyadic link between each employee and supervisor is unique and distinct. For the last four decades, LMX theory has gained great interest and emerged as one the most studied leadership theories (Erdogan and Bauer, 2014), which in turn resulted in a vast collection of studies focusing on furthering the understanding regarding quality of dyadic relationships (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2016; Rockstuhl et al., 2012; Schriesheim et al., 1999).

However, despite this significant amount of research, the understanding regarding the antecedents of LMX quality still needs to be advanced, as studies on consequences of LMX quality outstrip studies on antecedents of LMX antecedents (Erdogan and Bauer, 2014) and that is why calls for future studies have been made to further the current understanding on the antecedents of LMX quality and conditions under which dyadic work relationships thrive or decline (Dulebohn et al., 2012). As to antecedents of LMX quality, even though supervisors' are deemed to be more conclusive in determining the quality of LMX relationship, as a result of the fact that dyadic relationship between supervisor and subordinate incorporates power differential in favor of supervisor (Snodgrass et al., 1998), subordinates and subordinate characteristics also influence this process (Lapierre et al., 2006; Martin et al., 2005). Hence, both supervisor and subordinate characteristics have been suggested as significant predictors of the quality of dyadic work relationship (Dulebohn, et al., 2012).

Relatedly, the work on dyadic similarity (Basu and Green, 1995; Liden et al, 1993) and person-supervisor fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005b) pays attention to both sides of the relationship by considering the congruence in the characteristics of supervisor and subordinate to explicate dyadic relationship quality and other work-related outcomes. In other words, this field recognizes that both parties bring something into the relationship and the correspondence between their characteristics significantly matters for the course of the interaction. Consistent with the similarity approach that accommodates the influence of both parties on the relationship, this dissertation regards supervisor and subordinate similarity in one cognitive factor, that is construal level, as an antecedent to LMX quality. In other words, the aim of this thesis is to uncover the impact of construal level similarity between supervisor and subordinate upon LMX quality. Construal level refers to the level of abstraction that people use in their representation of any target or entity (Trope and Liberman, 2010). People deploy either abstract or concrete construal level to represent the way they undertake their work assignments, thus, work-based construal level, that is construal level used for mental representation of one's work, might be relevant factor in understanding work-related outcomes (Reyt and Wiesenfeld, 2015). The present dissertation attempts to address the question of "How does supervisor and subordinate similarity in work-based construal level influence quality of their work relationship?".

In order to provide empirical evidence to its research question, three distinct studies were conducted. The first study employs an experimental design which manipulates construal levels of participants to uncover the role of similarity in construal level between supervisor and subordinate in leader's preference for abstract-minded vs. concrete-minded employee. The second one is a qualitative study which aims to adapt work-based construal level scale to Turkish sample of financial affairs workers. The third study is a field survey which utilizes the adapted version of work-based construal level scale and analyzes the effect of supervisor and subordinate similarity in construal level on LMX quality.

This dissertation contributes to both LMX and construal level literatures. First, by addressing similarity between supervisor and subordinate, this study acknowledges roles of both parties in determining the course of dyadic relationship. Moreover, this study responds to the calls that emphasize the need to reveal the role of supervisor in the development of LMX relationships. Lastly, present studies make an important contribution to literature on construal level theory, which has just recently been leveraged in organizational studies, by recognizing the value of construal level for interpersonal relationships at workplace.

The framework of the present thesis has the following organization: chapter one reviews literature on the LMX including the evolution of the theory, measurement issues of LMX construct, factors that have been frequently investigated as consequences or antecedents of LMX quality. Chapter two concentrates on construal level theory, its main theoretical underpinnings and effect on socio-psychological outcomes, relevance of construal level theory with organizational phenomena and its relation with leader-follower interaction processes. Chapter three explains methodology, findings and discussion of the experimental study. Chapter four involves methodology and findings of both the qualitative study of survey adaptation and quantitative study of field survey. Lastly, conclusion section discusses the theoretical and practical implications of findings, explains limitations of current studies and suggestions for future studies.

CHAPTER ONE

LEADER MEMBER EXCHANGE THEORY

Leadership research embodies various theories that use different lenses to explain the leadership phenomena. While majority of the leadership theories have directed the attention to the leader itself, last decades in leadership research have introduced theories that embraced other domains such as followers and the relationship between leader and his/her followers (Graen and Ulh-Bien, 1995). While some theories discuss all three domains together like Fiedler contingency model (Fiedler, 1972) or path-goal theory (Wofford, and Liska, 1993), there are other theories that concentrate particularly on one domain to explain leadership phenomena such as transformational leadership (leader domain), employee empowerment (follower domain) or the leader-member exchange theory (relationship domain).

Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) adopts a relationship-based perspective to grasp the leadership phenomena. LMX theory rests on the attempt to understand the difference in the quality of interactions that a leader has with his/her followers. The theory first emerged as the vertical dyad linkage approach (VDL) (Dansereau et al., 1975) which is reviewed next.

1.1. VERTICAL DYAD LINKAGE APPROACH AS PREDECESSOR OF LMX

Traditional approaches to leadership like Ohio State and Michigan studies assume that leaders invariably treat all followers in a consistent manner and show a uniform leadership style which called as “average leadership style”. This viewpoint suggests that the quality and natures of the working relationship between a leader and his/her followers is quite similar across the unit and does not change from dyad to dyad. However, studies conducted roughly 40 years ago found that followers in the same unit assessed their manager’s leadership style and the quality of their exchanges on a dyad level quite differently from each other.

VDL approach challenged the very idea of average leadership style. Work on VDL (Dansereau et al., 1973; Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen et al., 1977; Graen et al., 1972; Graen et al., 1973) questioned two prevailing assumptions of the traditional leadership knowledge that a unit is composed of a group of homogenous employees with similar and consistent perceptions and judgments about the unit manager and; that managers display a typical way of behaving towards all followers in the unit. Instead, these studies assumed that leadership should be examined at vertical dyadic level, where both members of a dyad, the leader and the follower, and the linkage or the relationship between them are scrutinized. A longitudinal study on VDL conducted by Dansereau et al. (1975) covered interviews and surveys with 60 managers and 17 superiors of those managers in a university and at least one member of the dyads was a newcomer. The investigation of vertical relationships of newly formed dyads at four time points revealed results that are unsettling to then prevailing assumptions. More specifically, the study found that there were considerable differences in the same unit in terms of negotiation latitude granted to each follower by the same supervisor even from the very beginning of the relationship. Subordinates with high negotiation latitude fell within the in-group circle of the supervisor while those bestowed less latitude to negotiate the roles with the supervisor were placed in the out-group.

According to VDL, the degree of the negotiation latitude or one's place either in-group or out-group determine also his/her role in the unit. In-group employees soon become the cadre of the unit while out-group employees become the hired hands who perform in accordance with the employment contract. In-group members take more responsibility for and become more involved with things to be done in the unit, and contribute more to the unit. Hence, they are assessed by the supervisor as having higher performance than out-group employees (Liden and Graen, 1980).

According to Dansereau et al. (1975), those in in-group receives higher supervisor attention and supervisor support. Specifically, they showed that in-group employees got more information, concern, influence and confidence from the supervisor than did out-group employees, while supervisors confirmed that they gave more support for the exercises of the cadre in the unit. This variation accounted for the extent of vertical exchanges developed within each dyad. Supervisors developed extended social exchanges with in-group members based on mutual trust, interdependence and influence without authority, while they have minimum social exchange based on formal authority and job descriptions with other members.

Moreover, scholars view the presence of in-group/out-group dichotomy and variation of relationships within the same unit as a matter-of-fact or a practical occurrence (Dansereau, 1975; Graen and Scandura, 1987). Leaders given the formal authority to manage a unit are expected to achieve unit goals. Although leaders do not carry out unit tasks alone, generally they are the one held responsible and accountable for the unit's performance. Because leaders have limited time and energy to oversee all employees, they end up selecting a group of employees with high willingness and capacity to carry out critical tasks. Over time, supervisors rely more and more on these employees for unit's functioning and devote more time and attention to them, while subordinates depend more on supervisor for rewards and resources given for undertaking responsibility.

Importantly, findings of VDL studies were more than noteworthy for two reasons. First, these studies were among the first to analyze leadership by zooming in the relationship of the vertical dyads. Secondly, they discovered that each subordinate's perception and thus supervisor's attitude and role within each vertical dyad are unique, which causes variation in assessment of the relationship with the supervisor. These studies led the way to the development of LMX theory by pioneering a new way of approaching the leadership phenomenon, which is addressing vertical dyads as unit of analysis and involving the relationship domain of the leadership phenomena.

The aim of this introductory section was to give an idea about roots of LMX theory and how it begun evolving. Sections in ahead elaborate on LMX theory along with measurement, antecedents and consequences of LMX.

1.2. MAIN RESEARCH STREAMS IN LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE THEORY

The aim of the second section is to present theoretical aspects of LMX theory. Especially, issues related to the measurement of LMX quality between parties and processes through which parties of LMX go through are explained in detail, because understanding underpinnings of LMX theory is crucial to hypothesis development.

As meta-analyses and reviews conducted at various times have evidenced, LMX theory has attracted a great attention since its very beginning (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2016; Rockstuhl et al., 2012; Schriesheim et al., 1999). Studies following this discovery have evolved into mainly three directions; 1) further validation and evaluation of characteristics of LMX relationships, 2) consequences and significance of LMX for organizations, 3) antecedents/ determinants of LMX quality (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). In the present section, the focus will be on the clarification of the way LMX relationships are evolved and mechanisms defining relationship quality and on the prevalent implications in the literature pertaining to the measurement of LMX quality.

1.2.1. Validation and Evaluation of LMX Process and Characteristics

As previously mentioned, one fundamental assertion of LMX theory is that a leader's relationship quality with each of his/her followers differs depending on whether the follower is in-group or out-group (Graen and Scandura, 1987). This differentiation is regarded as natural rather than intentional (Erdogan and Bauer, 2014). Accordingly, both the leader and the followers bring into the relationship their distinctive characteristics such as personality, skills and abilities, experience and background. Along with their difference in competence, followers also differ in their willingness to undertake and accomplish difficult tasks. Leaders are the ones mainly responsible for managing accomplishment of departmental goals. However, because leaders have limited time, energy and resources, they need to distinguish followers that could be entrusted with the attainment of difficult and critical tasks. Hence, leaders end up developing stronger and closer bonds with those more dependable to delegate important tasks (Dansereau, 1975).

Some of the subsequent studies following VDL aimed to better understand and delineate the nature and the development process of LMX relationships. Two theories have been widely offered to explain the development of LMX relationships: role theory and social exchange theory.

Firstly, one aspect of the role theory that is applied in organizational studies is to understand how roles are defined and communicated across people at the workplace. In a work environment, there are certain roles and behaviors that are expected from incumbents of particular positions or functions. Role set describes any component in a work environment that conveys role expectations and role requirements to the focal persons. The normative expectations regarding organizational positions may come from both formal sources such as job descriptions or informal sources such as group norms. According to Kahn et al. (1964) people in a workplace are the main role senders that communicate role expectations, while Stewart (1967) notified organizational elements as the significant role senders. Accordingly, job requirements, task goals, work objectives all deliver cues regarding one's role expectations. Role expectations are comprised of organizational actors' belief and acceptance regarding what a certain position holder should do or should not do. According to Kahn et al. (1964), superiors, coworkers or other experts convey more information through communication regarding one's role than formal job requirements. The role expectations that are transmitted to the focal role holder are called sent role. Sent roles might be communicated directly as outlined in a job description or indirectly as someone (a coworker or supervisor) makes a comment on appropriateness of a behavior that the role holder performs.

Graen and Scandura (1987) proposed a "role theory" approach to describe the development process of LMX. According to this approach, LMX relationship is developed through three sequential stages which are role taking, role making and role routinization. Although these three stages follow each other in an order, failure in one stage may cause a regression to the previous stage. Also, three stages might be observed concurrently in a given time and the length of time each stage takes varies greatly from a very short of time to extended period.

Firstly, at the beginning of their relationship, called as the role-making phase, a supervisor and a subordinate are mere strangers. Both parties bring their experiences and aptitudes into the stage and their relationship might be interfered by the environmental, organizational and structural factors. This phase includes supervisor's testing subordinate on a number of work and relationship related issues. Testing the subordinate especially on unstructured tasks help the supervisor understand the limits of the employee. Testing starts with supervisor's sending a role, a demand or a task that requires the employee receive the role and respond back in an appropriate manner. When the supervisor sends the role, he/she actually conveys a set of expectations regarding the response of the employee. The subordinate responds back by showing a certain behavior. The supervisor receives and assesses response of the subordinate and at the same time makes a decision regarding starting another trial of role taking. This phase functions in one-way meaning that the supervisor starts the round and the subordinate only responds back. While this initial phase acts as a warm-up for the subordinate by introducing the procedures of the tasks and roles expected from him/her, it conveys valuable information for supervisor regarding competencies and limits of the employee regarding unstructured tasks. At this stage, however, the exchanges are transactional in nature, the relationship is lower quality and characterized by economic exchanges on formal basis. In other words, the supervisor asks the subordinate for performing a specific task and the subordinate performs exactly what he/she was required based on formal job descriptions. The duration of this phase varies from dyad to dyad in that a dyadic relationship might stay in this phase perpetually or pass to next stage in few days or weeks (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Following role taking stage is the "role making" phase (Graen and Scandura, 1987). This phase is also called as role development in which dyadic working relationship is cultivated. In this phase, the parties are become acquaintances suggesting that they start to get to know each other and the essence of their relationship. Working through unstructured tasks each party learns other's reactions to various difficulties and develop problem-solving approaches. Different from previous stage, in this phase not only the supervisor but also the subordinate sends roles and/or offers which serves as bids for developing an improved working relationship through making trials of exchanges. In a typical episode, the supervisor sends the subordinate an offer for working on an unstructured task. After receiving the offer, the subordinate prepares and sends a counter offer. The supervisor receives the perceived role which includes expectations of the subordinate from the supervisor. Throughout the repetition of these episodes of offers and counter-offers, the parties develop a common appreciation of appropriate exchanges regarding working together. Although limited, social exchanges are transferred along with contractual exchanges so that parties evaluate developing interdependencies. The important thing is that social exchanges need to be valued by other party or at least adequate to initiate negotiation and collaboration. Because mutual testing still continues, timing of exchanges matters a lot. More specifically, rather than extending over a period of time, exchanges of resources and returns need to be carried on immediately or at least within a limited time span. Along with the material resources that first come to mind like salary, bonus and premiums and promotion; supervisors utilize other resources for social exchange such as giving inside information, accepting subordinate's influence over work-related decisions, assigning attractive tasks, giving authority over the administration of the tasks, presenting supervisor support and showing concern for the needs and growth of the subordinate.

Furthermore, the second stage is crucial for the course of the relationship since it is the predecessor of a high-quality and intense LMX relationship that would be entrenched at the third stage. As stated previously due to on-going testing of parties, some dyads at the second phase might fall back to the first stage and continue their relationship as a transactional interaction (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Some dyads accomplish to carry their relationship to the third phase which is called as "role routinization". This stage occurs when dyad members develop interdependent and interconnected behaviors as a result of sticking to common understandings obtained by working collaboratively on unstructured tasks. This last stage is the commitment phase where members stick to continuously enhanced relationship norms that manifested as the result of working over various unstructured tasks. The fundamental characteristic of this phase is that both members agree upon the functional and relationship roles such that these roles convert into stable norms and recognized dyadic understandings. All in all, role theory approach to LMX is also considered as a process of trust-building where members attempt to test trustworthiness of other and whether other party has components of trustworthiness such as ability, benevolence and integrity (Bauer and Green, 1996).

Besides, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is another approach used to decipher the evolvement of exchanges between subordinates and supervisors. Interactions characterized as social exchange differ from economic exchange interactions. Basically, a social exchange relationship is characterized with the norm of reciprocity which states that people naturally feel an obligation to respond in kind to any behavior they experience. If the behavior is kind and benevolent, people repay with a similar fashion by returning the favor. If the behavior is hostile and unfriendly, people react with either negligence or retaliation in similar kind. Even though the payback in an economic exchange is based on calculation of the transaction, the nature of the return in a social exchange is unspecified. Social exchanges are based on mutual trust of parties and belief that parties eventually fairly reciprocate any favor in future.

In addition to the role theory approach, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) also provides a premise for the process of LMX development (Sparrowe and Liden, 1997; Wayne, Shore, and Liden, 1997). Social exchange is defined as the voluntary acts of people towards other parties driven by an expectation of receiving some return (Blau, 1964). Based on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), this approach suggests that work interactions involve situations that obliged parties to reciprocate favors and in turn determine the norms and rules for further exchanges. Subordinates who are rewarded and provided benefits and favorable treatment have a sense of obligation to reciprocate positive treatment. Hence, these subordinates return these favors by delivering high performance, being available when needed, and making contributions that might be beyond one's formal job description (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al., 1997). As parties engage in doing and paying pack the favors in a way that benefits the other party, trust is built between parties such that a contract-based economic work relationship is transformed into to a social exchange relationship. More specifically, rounds of favors reach to the point where members stop calculation of the value of the transactions- which is typical in economic interactions- and start to make contributions beyond their formal duties. High quality social exchange relationships involve "personal obligations, gratitude and trust; purely economic exchanges as such does not" (Blau, 1964: 94). Hence, in social exchange relationships, parties often go beyond formal work obligations and perform voluntary behaviors. For example, previous research revealed that employees who have high quality social exchange relationships with their supervisors show better performance levels and engage in more organizational citizenship behavior (Martin et al., 2016). As a result of this, these employees are granted and enjoy greater impact on decisions of work groups and organizations (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005), higher organizational support (Kraimer et al., 2011), more job autonomy empowerment (Gomez and Rosen, 2001), and enhanced resource supply (Scott and Bruce, 1994).

In a high quality LMX relationship, while parties are willing to maintain exchanges on a continuous basis, the kind of reciprocity that emerged is a general one rather than immediate reciprocity (Sparrowe and Liden, 1997). More specifically, parties do not record the timing and the number of exchanges and they might not necessarily provide exchanges that are in kind and in quantity but reciprocate with resources that are valued by the other party (Uhl-Bien and Maslyn, 2003). For example, Wilson et al. (2010) suggested a framework arguing that followers provide their leaders with affiliation, respect, and high performance in exchange for tangible resources (pay, bonus) and intangible resources (support, lobbying), which do not have equal but comparable value. Overall, in a high quality social exchange relationship, employees display increased involvement with tasks, commitment and loyalty to the supervisor, more contribution and cooperation in crucial assignments in exchange of the supervisors' favored treatment including supervisory support and attention, job autonomy, decision influence, interesting or highly visible tasks, feedback (Liden et al., 1997). Even though exchanges provided by each party seem unequal and long in time period, they serve the mutual interests of each party (Uhl-Bien and Maslyn, 2003).

1.2.2. Measurement of LMX Quality

In LMX literature, several scales have been developed to measure the quality of dyadic interaction. The diversity in LMX scales reflects the evolution in theoretical perspective taken to understand LMX construct. At the beginning of the chronological progression of the theory, vertical dyad linkage was operationalized as the decision latitude that is "*the extent to which a superior is willing to consider requests from a member concerning role development*" (Dansereau et al., 1975; 51). The studies measuring decision latitude used two items assessing the extent to which the leader accepts the member to influence his/her role and helps the member with his/her problems. Following the summation of scores of two items, median-split was applied to scores, resulting in two groups: in-groups (those with scores above the median) and out-groups (those with scores below the median).

In the last decades, two instruments, LMX-7 and LMX-MDM, stand out as the most frequently used scales to measure LMX quality. LMX-7 measure has taken its final form in the study of Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). This scale has been developed through fragmented additions or omissions of various studies on LMX (Liden et al., 2015; Scandura and Graen, 1984). However, the psychometric properties of LMX-7 scale have been well documented and recognized by previous studies (Gerstner and Day, 1997). LMX-MDM scale has been developed to respond to the criticisms of LMX-7 scale especially for it lacks a systematic scale development and validation procedure (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). LMX-MDM is made up of 12 items and consists of four dimensions, affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. LMX-MDM is appreciated for its methodological process of scale development and validation and also for its consideration of theoretical foundations of the LMX theory during this process (Schriesheim et al., 1999). Despite this differentiation and two scales have been shown to be strongly correlated (r = .9; Joseph et al., 2011). Moreover, meta-analyses examining the relationships between antecedents and consequences of LMX quality found that the tested relationship did not differ based on whether the scale was LMX-7 or LMX-MDM (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2016). Hence, predictive validity of LMX-7 scale is suggested to be appropriate compared to LMX-MDM contrary to criticisms.

Moreover, another important distinction with regard to LMX measurement is whether it is measured from follower perspective or leader perspective (Graen and Ulh-Bien, 1995; Greguras and Ford, 2006). Considerable majority of the studies on LMX, more specifically 83% of them, has preferred to measure the construct from the viewpoint of followers (Hiller et al., 2011). Since LMX theory has a dyadic nature, one would expect ratings of both parties to agree considerably. This theoretical expectancy was stated as "*expected agreement between leader and member reports is positive and strong and used as index of quality of data*" (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995: 237). However, empirical studies have not offered enough evidence to support this argument. A meta-analysis examining how much agreement existed among leader-rated and follower-rated LMX scores have revealed that the correlation between two scores was 0.37 (Sin et al., 2009), which was described as moderate. Similarly, another study found a low convergence with sample-weighted correlation of 0.29 and corrected correlation of 0.37 (Gerstner and Day, 1997). Several arguments have been proposed for this contradiction between theoretical expectations and empirical findings. Even though supervisor point of view provides valuable information regarding the quality of the relationship, it was argued that the problem was with scales used to measure supervisor LMX (SLMX) (Paglis and Green, 2002; Schriesheim et al., 2011). More specifically, relevant arguments suggested that studies examining SLMX was actually measuring how a leader rates his/her own performance with regard to his/her contribution to the exchange relationship. Hence, the majority of scales of SLMX are argued to be one-sided and to evaluate the same thing with scales of LMX. Nevertheless, if LMX measures how the follower perceives the leader's contribution to the relationship, then it is argued that SLMX should measure how the leader perceives the follower's contribution to the relationship.

However, one might ask the question "If these two scales assess the same thing then why is their correlation relatively low?". Several answers have been asserted for this question. One reason for the low convergence was said to be social desirability (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Since commonly used SLMX scales ask leaders to assess their own performance regarding their attempts to contribute and support a specific subordinate, leaders might concern that marking low scores discredit their leadership competencies. In the same vein, leaders do not like the idea of discriminating among their followers and prefer to state that they treat all subordinates the same way (Scandura et al., 1986). This tendency is called as "*apprehension to discriminate*" and leads to "*severe restriction of range of superiors' reports compared to their members' reports about the same LMXs*" (Scandura et al., 1986: 581).

Besides the social desirability effect, some factors have been contended to influence the degree of convergence between follower-rated LMX and leader-rated LMX. For example, high convergence was found for relationships with longer tenure (Nahrgang et al., 2009) and with intense communication patterns, for affect-based dimensions of LMX, and for studies using ad-hoc sampling (Sin et al., 2009). Lastly, leaders and followers are proposed to attend to different characteristics of the same relationship. Accordingly, supervisors tend to focus on task-related features such as competency of the follower, how much effort the follower put or degree of performance and give more weight to these features when evaluating LMX quality; while subordinates concentrate on social features of the relationship such as leadership support and trust and address these features to evaluate LMX quality (Zhou and Schriesheim, 2010).

Overall, this second section presented the general picture on LMX theory. Understanding how a dyadic relationship evolves through different stages (as explained in role theory account of LMX theory) and how a dyadic relationship is characterized by economic vs. social exchanges (as clarified in social exchange explanation of LMX theory) constitute the basis for other LMX studies aimed at furthering the theory's implementation in different grounds. These very basic underpinnings of the theory are crucial to better comprehend upcoming sections (third and fourth sections) which articulate the antecedents and the consequences of LMX quality.

1.3. CONSEQUENCES OF LMX

The vast majority of research on LMX has revealed out the considerable effect dyadic relationship between leaders and followers has on subordinates' work attitudes and behaviors. As suggested by relational leadership perspective, dyadic relationship quality might be more explanatory and conclusive with regard to subordinate attitude and behaviors compared to the distinctive effects of leader and follower characteristics (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Accordingly, when both leaders and followers exert effort toward developing the relationship and hold a favorable view of their interaction, this creates positive consequences for both parties (Cogliser et al., 2009). Hence, the quality of the interaction and the combination of leader and follower perception and characteristics reveals important job-related outcomes. Furthermore, the impact of LMX upon some work-related outcomes is independent of the culture. For example, the study conducted by Rockstuhl et al. (2012) in 23 countries showed that the positive impact of LMX on task performance and organizational commitment do not vary depending on the culture and followers across cultures are equally sensitive to how they are treated by their leaders.

Depending on the social exchange perspective which assumes that both parties give and take things in the dyadic relationship, some outcomes of LMX bring advantage mainly to one party (such as satisfaction with the pay mostly benefits the member) while some other outcomes serve the interests of both parties (such as job performance serves for the benefits of both parties).

Under this section, several consequences of LMX quality are explained in depth. These consequences are mainly arranged in three groups as consequences for the experience of the employee in the workplace, consequences for job attitudes of employees and consequences for job behaviors of employees.

1.3.1. Experience in the Workplace

Even though they work in the same workplace under the same supervisor, high-LMX members and low-LMX members experience conditions that are very distinct and different for each group. Some of the experiences involve the extent to which members could access to tangible and intangible resources, communication quality of members with their immediate supervisor, the degree to which members are bestowed the latitude to involve in the task-related decision, forms of different impression tactics preferred by members to influence supervisor and lastly opportunities differences in conditions are clarified below.

1.3.1.1. Access to Resources

One of the most favorable consequences of high quality LMX for members is to gain greater access to valuable tangible and intangible resources (Graen and Scandura, 1987). A variety of resources including crucial information, tasks that present learning and advancement opportunities, support, attention and time of the supervisor are provided generously by supervisors to members of high-LMX relationships. Being able to gain access to all these material and immaterial resources paves the way for greater successes and increase the chance of achieving outcomes that are more effective for high LMX members (Liden et al., 1997). As a result of their position in organizational hierarchy, supervisors hold superior resources than their subordinates do. Hence, having high quality exchange relationship with the supervisor begets opportunities and benefits that low LMX members cannot realize alone (Graen et al., 1977).

Moreover, LMX theory suggests that since time and attention of the leader are limited and hence very valuable resources, supervisors allocate these resources carefully among employees and give the lion's share to members of high-LMX relationship (Dansereau et al., 1975). Empirical evidence supports this suggestion; such that, high-LMX members reported receiving significantly more attention and support from their supervisor resulting high-LMX members stating their needs and problems at work were addressed more adequately compared to low-LMX members (Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden and Graen, 1980). Similarly, the study of Scott and Bruce (1994) linked LMX quality to perception of members regarding resource supply delivered. Accordingly, those employees in high quality exchange relationship with their supervisors perceived the resource supply (time, funding, personnel) delivered by the organization to be more satisfactory than did members of low LMX relationships.

Besides, leaders are valuable information sources through which employees can reach instrumental information such as future promotion opportunities, what is being planned in organization or how specific problems are approached (Rosen et al., 2011). It is leaders' decision whether to share information with employees or not. LMX theory proposes information is a valuable resource that leaders can offer as an exchange in high quality relationships (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Accordingly, it is easier for high-LMX members to access instrumental and key information because they are considered "trusted insiders" by their leaders and favored with communication of richer content (Yrle et al., 2002). For example, a study has shown that communication management of an upcoming change was rated much better by members of high quality LMX relationship than by members of low-LMX relationships (Van Dam et al., 2008). In other words, in-group members were provided with more detailed information and recent news by their supervisors so that they became well informed of upcoming events and felt more ready and less resistance about the organizational changes.

Furthermore, high-LMX members have access to crucial information not only through the direct exchanges of information by their leaders but also through the networks into which their leaders introduced them. Sparrowe and Liden (1997) proposed that leaders incorporate their trusted members into their network of relationship and provide a sponsorship under which members can reach out a collection of contacts that goes beyond their own close work group. High LMX members are expected to make use of and enjoy their leaders' network of contacts and attain favorable outcomes that low LMX members are devoid of. In line with these propositions, Sparrowe and Liden (2005) found empirical evidence that sponsorship, the extent to which a leader shares with members his/her network of contacts, is greater for high-LMX members. In other words, leaders are eager to share and do actually share their circle of trusted contacts with in-group members more than they do so with out-group members. By the virtue of this network, in-group members could go beyond the boundaries of their immediate work group and have much influence over others and on the organization. They also showed that other than its positive effect on LMX, sponsorship a member gets moderates the effect of LMX quality on his/her influence over other. The more a leader shares his/her contacts with a member, the higher the effect of LMX quality on that member's influence over others. This finding extends previous findings that high LMX quality enhances a member's decision influence (Dansereau et al., 1975; Gomez and Rosen, 2001; Graen and Cashman 1975; Scandura et al., 1986) and shows that a member's influence on others depends also on how much access he or she gains into his/her supervisor's circle of contacts.

High-LMX members also benefit from getting access to tangible resources to a greater extent compared to low-LMX members. Accordingly, LMX quality is found to be positively associated with salary rates and benefits that an employee acquires and also with promotability and speed of promotion an employee achieves (Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994; Wakabayashi and Graen, 1984). Moreover, high LMX members feel more satisfaction about the amount of pay and salary they have and promotion level they succeed compared to low LMX members (Seers and Graen, 1984; Sparrowe, 1994; Vecchio et al., 1986). Satisfaction with pay and promotion is an attitude not an actual resource; hence, it is an indirect measure of access to resources as it signals the experience of employees regarding the resources they tap into.

Overall, this section summarized several tangible and intangible resources that members with high quality LMX enjoy more than those with low quality LMX. To name a few, these benefits include learning and advancement opportunities, support, attention and time of the supervisor, higher salary rates, qualified network.

1.3.1.2. Communication/ Conversation Quality

The content and the nature of communication between a follower and a leader differ greatly depending on whether the dyad has a high vs. low quality relationship. Accordingly, the conversation frequency rises as the relationship quality increases (Gajendran and Joshi, 2012; Kacmar et al., 2003; Sin et al., 2009). The content of communication also differs depending on the relationship quality. While leaders allow lower power distance and high influence of subordinate to exist in conversations with high-LMX members, conversations with members of low LMX relationships are characterized by high power distance and low influence. In their ethnographic work, Fairhurst and Chandler (1989) investigated how power and social distance are reflected in conversations of dyads. Their investigation of language forms adopted by both parties revealed that leaders gave members of high-LMX more elbowroom to make oppositions, question the decisions and challenge the authority, while their conversations with low-LMX members signaled leader’s direct authority over the subordinate. Another study investigating social interactions of dyads through conversation analysis reached a similar finding that the degree of dominance exerted by leaders considerably differed among low and high LMX members (Fairhurst et al., 1987). This study also supported that nature of the conversation between leaders and high-LMX members is less dominating and includes more negotiation of the roles while it is more prescriptive with regard to formal roles and the tone is more dominant with low-LMX members. Overall, the tone of conversations in high quality LMX relationships is more positive and trust-building; while it is more aggressive and authoritative in low quality LMX relationships (Fairhurst, 1993). Lastly, conversation quality in terms of richness of the content is another aspect that varies depending on LMX quality. According to the studies of Jian and his colleagues (Jian et al., 2014; Jian and Dalisay, 2017) conversation of high LMX members is more productive in terms of efficiency, coordination and accuracy. More specifically, leaders and followers with high quality LMX relationship are more successful in transmitting the required information between each other, more coordinated in aligning meanings and expectancies, and more accurate in interpreting the meaning of transmitted information.

Taken as a whole, this section exemplified the ways that high quality LMX enriches communication between followers and leaders. Communications between parties of high-LMX are more frequent, rich in content, more effective, accurate and less authoritative compared to those of parties of low-LMX relationships.

1.3.1.3. Decision Influence and Psychological Empowerment

One of the main duties of managers is to make decisions which are either taken by the manager alone or together with employees. The degree to which a manager shares his/her decision-making authority and delegates his/her controlling power over decisions is defined using various constructs such as participation, power sharing, shared/participative decision making, and empowerment. Both LMX theory and empirical evidence suggest that members of high-LMX experience increased decision influence or latitude since it is only natural for leaders to ask opinions and allow influence of high-LMX members to whom they trust (Dansereau et al., 1975; Gomez and Rosen, 2001; Graen and Cashman 1975; Scandura et al., 1986). Gajendran and Joshi (2012) hypothesized that high LMX signals to followers that their contribution and input are valued; hence, members of high-LMX feel motivated and encouraged to contribute and share their effort during team tasks. Supporting their proposition, they found that team members that engage in higher quality interactions with the team leader reported to have higher influence on team decisions.

High LMX-members have more decision influence also as a result of social exchange process with their supervisors. As mentioned above, employees in high-LMX relationship with the supervisor enjoy making use of resources that low-LMX members have little access. This brings about a power difference among members within the same working group. Hence, this power, regardless of whether it is actual or just perceived by other members, leads to a hierarchy of influence in the work group (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005).

Importantly, empowerment construct is conceptualized under two distinct types: structural empowerment and psychological empowerment Maynard, Gilson, and Mathieu, 2012). Structural empowerment is focused on structural characteristics in organizations that determine the transmission of decision-making responsibility to employees and decentralization of decision-making authority (Kanter, 2008). Psychological empowerment, on the contrary, is about the cognitive perception of employees regarding how much control they believe they have over the decisions at work (Thomas and Velthouse 1990). Psychological empowerment deals with the belief of employees that they are able to carry out work tasks autonomously rather than the actual control they truly have (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Psychological empowerment is reflected as enhanced meaning of the work, increased competence or self-efficacy, higher self-determination and autonomy, greater impact on work outcomes (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Accordingly, previous studies have acknowledged LMX as a significant predictor of empowerment and reported that high quality relationships result in increased sense of empowerment (Aryee and Chen, 2006; Gomez and Rosen, 2001; Harris et al., 2009; Keller and Dansereau, 1995; Sparrowe, 1994). As proposed and supported by the work of Aryee and Chen (2006), providing followers with challenging tasks and critical information should enhance the meaning they derive from their work. Moreover, supervisor support and attention together with the access to other resources essential for high performance might help increase a strong sense of self-efficacy and competence. Impact and self-determination components of empowerment are served by the delegation of autonomy by the supervisor and (Bauer and Green, 1996) and enhancement in employees' feelings of job autonomy (Gomez and Rosen, 2001). Previous research has also demonstrated the enhanced perception of job autonomy and entitlement of those followers in high quality LMX relationship (Chen et al., 2007; Liden et al., 2000; Yukl and Fu, 1999).

On the whole, high-LMX members enjoy more delegation and shared decision-making power bestowed by their immediate supervisors. Hence, employees with high-quality LMX relationships experience greater job autonomy and psychological empowerment compared to their counterparts with low-LMX quality.

1.3.1.4. Impression Management

Given the greater autonomy and influence they have, it is reasonable that high-LMX members prefer to use open persuasion and strategic persuasion more as upward influence tactics (Krone, 1991). On the contrary, low-LMX members more often rely on influence tactics that are more manipulative and deceptive. This finding was explained by assuming that low-LMX members may feel the need to guard themselves against potential retaliatory approach that an unsupportive leader might take. This is consistent with another finding that leaders' downward influence tactics that are based on trust (such as inspirational appeals, consultation, exchange) result in favorable outcomes for employees with whom they have high quality relationship; while the same tactics have negative impact on employees with low quality LMX relationship. However, leaders' downward tactics that are based on legitimacy and authority of the leader (such as legitimation, pressure) work better with low-LMX members compared to high-LMX members (Sparrowe et al., 2006). Similarly, another study found that (Moss et al., 2009) employees' engagement with feedback avoidance behavior was related to LMX quality. Accordingly, members of high quality LMX relationships were more comfortable with getting feedback in case of poor feedback from their supervisor as their relationship was characterized by mutual trust, open and frequent communication (Kramer, 1995; Mueller and Lee, 2002). On the contrary, low-LMX members felt uneasiness with regard to confronting their managers about their performance for the reason that their relationship was lack of psychological safety and trust instead was based on economic exchanges and less frequent communication. Hence, members of low-LMX showed more feedback avoidance behavior.

Moreover, the effect of LMX quality on using different impression management tactics might be explained by the way parties interpret and make attributions regarding each other. For example, one study claimed that leaders would give more credit for high performance of high LMX members and give them the benefit of the doubt for their poor performance (Heneman et al., 1989). Supporting their claim, their study showed that leaders tended to attribute high performance of high-LMX members to internal factors which were derived from the characteristics of members rather than external factors that are outside the control of members such as situation, circumstances or luck. Another study proposed a supporting argument and theorized that leaders make internal attributions regarding constructive and positive behaviors of high-LMX members (Bowler et al., 2010). Accordingly, it is argued that organizational citizenship behaviors of high-LMX members are attributed to their pro-social and organizational considerations by their managers. Along with these studies that claim leaders' positive perception of high-LMX members, some studies have demonstrated a parallel observation from members' viewpoint. Accordingly, employees evaluated trust-violating transgressive behaviors of their leaders in a less punitive way when they have high-quality relationship with the leader (Shapiro et al., 2011). Accordingly, members of high-LMX are proposed to give their leaders more credit and latitude to diverge from expected norms and hence show less punitive evaluations of transgressions such as verbal/physical abusiveness, dishonesty, absenteeism/negligence of duty. Moreover, negative effect of perceived unfairness on employee outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior and task performance was observed especially for employees in low quality LMX relationship (Johnson et al., 2009; Rosen et al., 2011). Hence, in a high quality LMX relationship both parties show more benevolence to each other and give the benefit of the doubt when other party deviates from expected norms and show undesirable acts.

Altogether, employees enjoying high-quality relationships also get the opportunity to be more open and sincere as part of impression tactics, while those with low-quality relationships need to obscure or disguise their underlying motivations (e.g. using manipulative impression tactics).

1.3.1.5. Opportunities for Learning and Growth

High-LMX members are able to reach more learning and growth opportunities owing to the fact that they receive more time and support of their supervisor. For example, leaders were found to assign promising and favorable jobs to high-LMX members and help them to climb career ladders (Law et al., 2000). In return, high-

LMX members reported greater satisfaction regarding growth opportunities and resourcefulness of the work environment (Breevaart et al., 2015; Seers and Graen, 1984). Aside from growth opportunities, high-LMX members are able to reach learning opportunities to a greater extent. For example, members in high quality LMX relationship show greater interest and commitment towards performing learning activities during work (Bezuijen et al., 2010). High-LMX members also are more eager to take part in training programs and motivated to get the most out of the trainings they participated in (Scaduto et al., 2008).

Greater access of high-LMX members to growth and learning opportunities is not surprising given that they receive more feedback and guidance from their supervisor. More specifically, high-LMX members seek (Harris et al., 2007; Peng et al., 2009) and receive more direct (Lee et al., 2007) and negative feedback (Chen et al., 2007) from their supervisor. Moreover, they do not refrain from receiving negative feedback regarding their failures (Moss et al., 2009) and welcome feedback and evaluations on their performance by reporting more positive responses to these feedbacks (Elicker et al., 2006).

By and large, high quality LMX relationships provide employees with both learning and growth opportunities. Those employees with high-LMX receive greater time of their supervisor, have the opportunity of getting more feedbacks and are presented with more promising jobs which ultimately carry them up towards higher career levels.

1.3.2. Job Attitudes

Research on LMX quality has uncovered its significant effect on various employee attitudes. The overall result of these findings confirms that the way employees perceive their job, work setting and the organization they work in is considerably influenced by their relationship quality with their supervisor.

Among mostly studied job attitudes are turnover intention, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. There has been almost an agreement among studies that high quality LMX is negatively related to turnover intention and high-LMX members have greater tendency to stay in their organization. This negative relationship is expected given that high-LMX members are satisfied with their job, supervisor, pay and other aspects of their job overall (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997). Another possible reason of why high-quality LMX diminishes turnover intention is the higher job embeddedness of high-LMX members in their job or organization (Harris et al., 2011; Wheeler et al., 2010). Accordingly, high-LMX members develop strong ties with their supervisor, job and organization as a result of accumulated resources so that the costs associated with leaving their job gets higher and they become less willing to withdraw. However, recent studies have added to this well-accepted relationship between LMX and turnover intention. For example, one study found that the relationship might be moderated by personality characteristics of employees (Bauer et al., 2006). Accordingly, high-quality LMX relationship reduced intention to leave the organization only for those employees with high introversion. Turnover intention of extravert employees, on the other hand, was not affected by LMX relationship quality.

In addition, as evidenced by meta-analyses (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997), LMX quality is positively related to overall job satisfaction and overall organizational commitment. Untangling organizational commitment perception, both affective commitment and normative commitment perceptions of employees boost as their relationship quality with their supervisors improve. Employees view their leaders as proxy of the organization and interpret their acts as the acts of the organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Hence, employees' LMX with their supervisor extends into their relationship with the organization so that their senses of loyalty and responsibility towards their leader are transferred to their organization.

In the same vein, the exchange quality with the supervisor shapes how employees see their exchange relationship with the organization. The construct of perceived organizational support (POS) defines how employees' perception regarding how well their organization treat them and values their contributions to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Both LMX and POS are based on social exchange processes, yet their antecedents and consequences differ greatly which means they are distinctive both theoretically and empirically (Wayne et al., 1997). Moreover, employees are able to perceive the difference between support coming from the leader and support coming from the organization (Kottke and Sharafinski, 1988). Yet, employees also see leaders as the agents of the organization, the first connection points that they refer to in order to interpret and decipher decisions and policies of the organization. Hence, employees tend to perceive higher POS as their exchange quality with their supervisor enhances. In other words, employees feel that their inputs and contributions are appreciated more when they have high quality relationship with their supervisor (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001; Eisenberger et al., 2002).

More importantly, organizational justice, politics and ethics perceptions of employees are also related to LMX quality with the supervisor. People perceive justice and equity at work setting when they compare themselves with others and reckon that they experience fair treatments and fair procedures such as application of just procedures, unbiased and objective allocation of resources and rewards, ethical, transparency and accountability of decisions (Leventhal, 1980). Scandura (1999) proposed a model which integrated LMX processes with justice perceptions of members. He argued that during the LMX process which leads to a natural distinction of in-groups and out-groups among members, members form their justice perceptions. Some members might want particularly to be in out-group due to their unwillingness to devote additional time and effort beyond formal job description. Scandura (1999) claimed that LMX is based on equity (not equality); hence, being in the out-group does not necessarily cause a perception of inequality and outgroup members perceive fairness as long as leader provides all members with procedural justice (fair procedures) and interactional justice (clear communication). Lastly, he proposed that outgroups will be more sensitive with matters related to distributive justice as they are in a form of cash-and-carry exchange, while ingroups will be more concerned with procedural justice issues.

Importantly, empirical studies have found support for the role of LMX quality in shaping justice perceptions of members. As a result of the favored treatment of high-LMX members by leaders, these members unsurprisingly perceive higher distributive and procedural justice (Erdogan and Bauer, 2010; Fein et al., 2013). For example, Lee's cross-sectional study (2001) found that LMX relationship quality was related to distributive justice and procedural justice perceptions of followers. These findings were corroborated by an intercultural study showing the positive association of LMX relationship quality with perceived distributive and procedural justice in four countries (Pillai et al., 1999).

Other studies investigating mediating role of organizational justice perceptions between LMX and several organizational and job-related outcomes also provided empirical evidence for LMX predicting perceived justice. For example, Kim et al. (2009b) found that high-quality LMX relationships improve both distributive and interactional justice perceptions, which then increases organizational citizenship behavior of followers. Other studies tested and supported the mediating role of perceived justice between LMX relationship quality and turnover intention (Lee et al., 2010b) and organizational commitment (Torka et al., 2010).

Overall, the view of justice perception as outcome of LMX quality has been discussed by two meta-analytic studies (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Dulebohn et al. (2012) asserted that development of LMX relationships occurs much earlier than followers' forming justice perceptions and depicted LMX as a predictor of justice perceptions. These meta-analytic reviews found correlation scores ranging between 0.36 and 0.63 for the effect of LMX on justice perceptions.

However, majority of the studies examining LMX quality as antecedent to justice perceptions have employed cross-sectional methodology and the direction of the relationship has been based on theoretical arguments. Hence, the significant findings of LMX and justice perceptions could be also interpreted as the other way around. Yet, there are studies that theorize organizational justice perceptions as antecedent to LMX quality not consequence of it. These studies allege that fair enactment of procedures, rewarding system, and interaction and communication is at the discretion of the supervisor and supervisor's fair treatment of the follower is decoded as the willingness of supervisor to involve in a social exchange relationship by follower (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). This approach is delineated in the following sections related to LMX antecedents.

Additionally, another organizational perception that is linked with LMX is organizational politics. This construct is deemed negative since it is connoted with self-centered and selfish acts of people in the organization and self-serving use of resources during competition or conflict (Kacmar and Baron, 1999). Compared to high-LMX members, low-LMX members assess their organization as more political and perceive more political behavior at organizational setting (Atinc et al., 2010). The reason might be that low-LMX members observe the favored treatment towards high-

LMX members and ascribe political motives to high performance and better rewards that high-LMX members are granted (Davis and Gardner, 2004). Lastly, LMX is related to how much trust employees feel towards their organization and the degree of psychological contract breach they experience with the company (Dulac et al., 2008).

Taking everything into consideration, high quality LMX relationships instill positive attitudes in employees with regard to their job, their supervisor and their organization. As to their job, high-LMX members, relative to low-LMX members, have higher job satisfaction and job motivation. Concerning attitudes toward supervisor, high-LMX members perceive greater distributive, procedural and interactive justice as a result of supervisors' favoring them over low-LMX members. More importantly, the degree of positivity and favorability in dyadic relationship echo on members' relationship with the organization, whereby high-LMX members attribute positivity in the dyadic relationship to the organization and nurture positive feelings toward the organization such as higher affective commitment, higher perceived organizational support and lower organizational politics. Yet, this association between LMX quality and job attitudes represents a gloomy picture on the other side of the coin, that is from the perspective of low-LMX members. Those employees with low quality LMX relationships bear fewer positive feelings with regard to their jobs, supervisors and organization, which might beget undesired consequences for organizations.

1.3.3 Job Behaviors

One oft-studied behavioral outcome of LMX quality is job performance of employees. Several reasons are suggested for the link between LMX and job performance. Based on social exchange theory, supervisors provide in-group members with additional valuable resources and in return, they expect employees to reciprocate with higher performance (Graen and Cashman, 1975). According to role theory, within a high-quality relationship, role expectations would be conveyed clearly and accurately between dyad partners such that standards for high performance would be clearer and meeting those criteria could be easier for high-LMX members. Another reason, relying on self-determination theory, is that in-group members have the chance to cherry-pick tasks that are better match with their competencies and work with high intrinsic motivation in these tasks (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006).

Accordingly, one recent meta-analysis on the link between LMX and work performance found an overall moderately strong correlation of .30. (Martin et al., 2016). When the performance criteria are objective, the correlation is .24. This meta-analysis also revealed that the relationship is weaker when constructs are measured from different sources or with different methods and when LMX data is collected from follower rather than the leader. Another meta-analysis conducted by Gerstner and Day (1997) found a correlation of .10 when the performance is measured with objective criteria, and a correlation of .28 when it is measured through subjective ratings of supervisors and a correlation of .41 when it is measured by employee ratings (Gerstner and Day, 1997). The considerable difference in the correlation strength with objective criteria between these two meta-analyses might be due to the sample size as the recent one included more than twice studies.

Even though the overall relationship between LMX quality and job performance is positive, the strength of this relationship varies across studies. One factor that creates the variation across studies is whether the constructs are measured from the same source or with same method (for example, both LMX and performance are assessed by supervisor) or from different sources or with different method (for example, LMX is assessed by the supervisor and objective performance is obtained from company records). Using the same source or method lead to inflated effect sizes and results become confounded with common method or common source bias. Supporting this argument, meta-analyses found that the strength of LMX-performance relationship is weaker when both constructs are measured from different sources or with different methods (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Martin et al., 2016).

Importantly, possible mediation mechanisms, as explained earlier in this section, were tested by Martin et al.'s study (2016). Role clarity was tested for role theory explanation yet was not found as a significant mediator between LMX quality and performance. Since LMX relationship is conceptualized as a trust-building process from social exchange perspective (Liden et al., 1993), trust in leader was tested and found a significant mediator through which LMX quality influences job performance. Lastly, motivation and sense of empowerment suggested by the self-determination perspective were found as important mechanisms in LMX-performance association (Martin et al., 2016).

Furthermore, conservation of resources theory was also proposed as another mechanism in LMX and performance relationship (Breevaart et al., 2015). According to conservation of resources theory people strive for acquiring, retaining and maintaining their resources. Within an LMX relationship, some of the resources that employees are motivated to preserve are leader attention and support, job autonomy, opportunities of growth and advancement. These resources obtained from a high-quality LMX relationship are argued to enhance employee work engagement (Halbesleben, 2010) and then increase job performance. This proposed sequential mediation (LMX-job resources-work engagement-job performance) was tested and supported by the data obtained from a public service organization. The findings corroborated the attempt to utilize conservation of resources as a theoretical approach to delineate LMX-performance association.

Another study also attempted to explain LMX-job performance relationship through a resource perspective. Accordingly, those employees with high-LMX with their supervisor have more frequent interaction with their supervisors and hence have greater access to information critical to high performance (Kramer, 1995), which enhances their understanding regarding supervisor’s expectations from them. As a result of this mechanism, high LMX members feel more comfortable with seeking advice and confronting with supervisor in case of failure. This argument was supported by one study (Moss et al., 2009) demonstrating that compared to low LMX members, high LMX members show less feedback avoidance behavior which mediates the effect of LMX on performance. In other words, those with high quality LMX with the supervisor show less feedback avoidance behavior which in turn improves their performance.

Besides, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is another well-recognized behavioral outcome of LMX relationship quality. Besides fulfilling expectations of in-role performance, some employees engage with extra role performance which is beyond formal work requirements. OCB is one discretionary extra role performance behavior including prosocial and helping behaviors and considered critical to the success of organizational operations (Podsakoff et al., 2000). High LMX quality boosts employees' willingness to show voluntary helping behaviors and go beyond traditional reward system. The effect of LMX on OCB could be explained by the social exchange perspective. High quality LMX relationships are social exchange relationships characterized by mutual trust and affect and entail such exchanges that go beyond formal job requirements. When leaders work for and contribute to the dyadic relationship, followers feel the obligation to return to the contribution of leaders with various ways and OCB is one these ways. Putting more effort than prescribed in formal job requirements, followers actually pay back the favorite treatment of their leaders, consistent the norm of reciprocity.

According to a meta-analysis with 50 studies conducted by Ilies et al. (2007), a correlation of 0.38 was found between LMX and OCB towards supervisor and colleagues was found and a correlation of 0.31 was found between LMX and OCB towards the organization. Meta-analysis of 27 studies by Dulebohn et al. (2012) found a correlation of 0.39 between LMX and overall OCB. A cross-cultural meta-analysis conducted in 23 countries with 84 samples found the association of LMX with OCB to be 0.35 for individualistic cultures and 0.28 for collectivistic cultures (Rockstuhl, et al., 2012). Even though the relationship was attenuated in collectivistic cultures and the difference between scores was significant, the overall relationship was significantly positive. Lastly, the most recent meta-analysis on the same relationship with a sample of 97 studies (Martin et al., 2016) found an overall correlation of 0.34. However, the same study also found that the strength of the correlation was 0.33 when LMX was rated by the employee and 0.50 when LMX was evaluated by the leader. This indicates that the effect weakened when LMX was rated by the follower. One reason of this difference might be explained by inflation in responses stemming from leaders' perception of self-assessment of their performance (Sin et al., 2009). Moreover, the same study also found a common method bias for the effect of LMX on OCB with a correlation of 0.31 for studies with different multisource and a correlation of 0.39 for studies with one source.

Additionally, one another behavioral outcome of LMX quality is the employee creativity at work, which is the behavioral tendency of employees to bring forward original and new ideas to problems and puzzling situations. Considerable amount of empirical evidence has been suggested for the relationship of LMX with both self-rated and leader-rated workplace creativity (Atwater and Carmeli, 2009; Basu and Green, 1997; Joo et al., 2013; Scott and Bruce, 1994; Tierney et al., 1999).

Accordingly, a number of theoretical arguments have been proposed for the effect of LMX quality on employee creativity. One of them is encouragement of employees through promoting a supporting climate for innovation (Scott and Bruce, 1994) and the sense of psychological safety (Carmeli et al., 2009). Both perceptions are important to encourage employees to take risk and challenge the status quo, which are critical to creative and innovative behavior (Kark and Carmeli, 2009). As stated earlier for other behavioral outcomes, a similar argument for this link could be the norm of reciprocity resulting from high quality social exchange relationship. Members of high-quality exchange relationship could be more motivated to come up with useful solutions at the workplace and be beneficial to their leaders or organizations to reciprocate favors of their leaders. This argument is consistent with the findings showing association of LMX quality with employees' identification with their leader or organization (Sluss et al., 2008) and the mediation effect of LMX between employee identification and employee creativity (Gu et al., 2015).

Moreover, previous research has suggested and offered empirical support for various mediators for the LMX quality and creativity link. One mediation mechanism through which LMX quality inspires creative behavior is enhancement of self-efficacy, which is of great importance for creative behavior (Tierney and Farmer, 2002). Previous studies have proposed that LMX quality promotes employee creative behavior through enhancing job-related and creative self-efficacy (Liao et al., 2010; Tierney and Farmer, 2004). High-quality LMX enhances employees' sense of self-efficay since it provides the tangible and intangible resources and inspiring tasks (Graen and Scandura, 1987). These supplies support the members in quest for creative performance and foster the link between member's efforts and success, which instill a positive view of self and confidence (Eden, 2001).

Furthermore, the study of Pan et al. (2012) proposed two mechanisms for the linkage of LMX and employee creativity, one was psychological empowerment of employees and the other one was employees' feeling of obligation. Sense of autonomy and intrinsic motivation are central to the creativity of employees (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Zhang and Bartol, 2010). Hence, high quality LMX relationship was found to increase employee creativity by enhancing employee's psychological empowerment through instilling sense of meaningfulness, competence, self-determination, and impact. Moreover, felt obligation, which is the sense of responsibility employees feel with regard to contributing the welfare of their organization, was found to mediate the effect of LMX on creativity. One source of creative behavior has been suggested to be the result of the feeling obliged to contribute and reciprocate to the supplies and investments made by organization. Since LMX as a social exchange process infuses the obligation of reciprocation, it is only natural that this feeling of obligation to repay gives rise to creative behaviors when necessary.

Additionally, the work on LMX-creativity relationship has examined the moderators that impact upon on the strength and the direction of the relationship. The relationship is stronger when both leaders and members share a set of high expectations of creativity (Qu et al., 2015), when the member has a cognitive style facilitating innovative behavior and high intrinsic motivation towards involving creative assignments (Tierney et al., 1999) and when the job autonomy is high (Volmer et al., 2012). The relationship disappears or attenuate when leaders and members jointly have low creativity expectations, when members have low levels of intrinsic motivation and creative cognitive style, and when job autonomy is low.

Lastly, LMX not only results in positive consequences but also reduces undesired behavioral outcomes. Counterproductive work behaviors are a set of actions such as theft, property destruction, misuse of information, time and resources, absenteeism, inappropriate and uncivil verbal and physical actions that has harmful and destructive effects on the organization, work unit and coworkers (Gruys and Sackett, 2003). These are deliberate behaviors that the organization views conflicting with its interests (Sackett and DeVore, 2001). High quality LMX and supportive leadership have been proposed to reduce employees' involvement in counterproductive and deviant behaviors at the workplace. Many studies confirmed this proposition showing that compared to low-LMX members high-LMX members actually undertake fewer deviant behaviors (Lau et al., 2003; Martin et al., 2016; Rotundo and Sackett 2002) and show less retaliation behavior in opposition to the organization (Townsend et al., 2000). The disproportionate amount of resources and support allocated among high and low LMX members has been proposed to create a discomfort especially for low-LMX members. Using relative deprivation theory, Bolino and Turnley (2009) suggested that the reason why low-LMX members engage with more counterproductive work behaviors might be their perception that they are treated unfairly compared to high-LMX members and this perception might lead to a tension of relative deprivation. Hence, higher engagement in counterproductive work behaviors is proposed to be the expression of relative deprivation of low-LMX members. One another study theorized the relationship as the negative reciprocation of low LMX members in return for receiving lesser outcomes for doing the same job with high-LMX members (Chullen et al., 2010). The evaluation of outcome to input ratio in comparison to others is known as the equity perception (Adams, 1963). This theorization is consistent with the finding that interpersonal injustice perceptions mediate the relationship between LMX relationship quality and counterproductive work behaviors of employees (Peng et al., 2011).

Moreover, actual (voluntary) turnover is another negative employee behavior that is deemed a destructive and costly response that employees exhibit in the face of dissatisfaction (Hirschman, 1970; O'Connell and Kung, 2007). Similar to the LMX turnover intention relationship, high LMX quality decreases actual turnover of employees (Dulebohn et al., 2012). This is reasonable considering that the resources high-LMX members are granted may not be provided in another organization. On the contrary, given that their relationship with the leader is driven by transactional concerns, low-LMX members do not have much at stake in leaving the organization. A longitudinal study on the link between LMX and actual turnover put a new perspective on this relationship (Morrow et al., 2005). Accordingly, the study found that the nature of relationship between LMX and turnover is actually curvilinear not linear. More specifically, along with low- LMX members, employees with very high LMX were found to have higher tendency to leave the organization. This is explained by the opportunities of high-LMX members to advance their skills and competence by means of favorite treatment of their supervisor, which eventually increase their marketability and attractiveness in the eyes of other organizations.

Overall, this section provided a detailed summary of behavioral outcomes of LMX quality with regard to job behaviors of employees. Quite similar to job attitude outcomes, behavioral outcomes of LMX quality have focused on employee side of the dyadic relationship. In other words, rather than supervisor-related attitudinal or behavioral outcomes, employees-related outcomes have generally been emphasized. This might be result of power differential between leaders and followers whereby high-quality LMX relationship provides more benefits to employees than it does to supervisors. In a nutshell, behavioral outcomes of high-quality LMX manifest as improved employee performance, enhanced organizational citizenship behavior, boosted creative behavior, reduced counterproductive work behavior and diminished actual turnover. Even though these behavioral outcomes are called as employee-related, not only employees but also supervisor and the organization benefit from these outcomes. For example, high-quality LMX enhances organizational citizenship behaviors of employees towards supervisors, coworkers and organizational overall.

1.4. ANTECEDENTS OF LMX

Given significant consequences of LMX for effective functioning of organizations, it is of great importance to reveal what makes a good relationship between supervisors and their subordinates. There is a substantial amount of studies uncovering antecedents and determinants of LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012). These studies attempt to uncover why some relationships make it to the mature stage and some others do not, as suggested by LMX theory (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Even though the number of studies investigating antecedents of LMX quality has been rising recently, still their number is lower compared to the studies examining outcomes of LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Erdogan and Bauer, 2014). Hence, future studies are encouraged to further research exploring factors improving LMX quality. In this section, five groups of antecedents have been reviewed: follower characteristics and behaviors, leader characteristics and behaviors, interpersonal factors, contextual factors and dyadic similarity between leader and follower.

1.4.1. Follower Characteristics and Behaviors

Studies investigating follower attributes and behaviors are examined in this section. One group of follower characteristics that has been found to have impact on LMX quality is personality characteristics of the follower. Certain employee personality characteristics have been found to provide an advantage to employees for developing high quality LMX relationships with their supervisors. One of the studied personality characteristics is big five personality factors. There are studies that find evidence for the effect of each of five personality factors, a meta-analysis suggested and found effect for only three of these factors, which are extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Employees with high extraversion have been found to have higher quality relationship because they are more willing to reach out and find it easier to build interpersonal connection with others including their leaders. Research on the link between follower extraversion has found firm support from both leader’s and follower’s view of the relationship quality (i.e. leader-rated LMX and follower-rated LMX) (Bernerth et al., 2008; Nahrgang et al., 2009; Phillips and Bedeian, 1994).

In addition, conscientiousness of employees is another big five factor that has been found to benefit LMX quality (Bernerth et al., 2008; Kamdar and Van Dyne, 2007). Conscientiousness is related to one’s dependability, persistence, diligence and self-discipline (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Moreover, conscientiousness has been found to a strong determinant of one’s performance level (Barrick et al., 2001). Considering importance of performance for LMX quality especially for leader’s judgment, it appears reasonable to propose role of the follower’s conscientious personality in determining LMX quality.

Agreeableness indicates the extent to which a person is cooperative, kind and thoughtful towards others. The degree of agreeableness has been found to positively influence the number and quality of relationship one has (Asendorpf and Wilpers, 1998) and also degree of internalization of the norm of reciprocity (Perugini et al., 2003), both of which are vital for forming high quality social exchanges (Gouldner, 1960). Empirical findings on this relationship suggest slightly mixed signals with some studies presenting support for the relationship (Sears and Hackett, 2011) while some others showing no significant finding (Bernerth et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the meta-analysis by Dulebohn et al. (2012) with a sample size of nine studies found a positive significant correlation of 0.19 between agreeableness and LMX quality.

Another personality factor that has been related to LMX is employee locus of control that refers to the extent to which people believe they could control consequences of events happening in their lives (Rotter, 1966). People with internal locus of control are prone to take initiative to make changes in their environment and attempt to influence their relationships with other people to a greater extent compared to people with external locus control who perceive to have limited control and influence on their environment and on outcomes of events. Hence, people with internal locus of control are suggested to engage in proactive behaviors such as negotiating work roles, pursuing feedback from and improving communication with their supervisor (Phillips and Bedeian, 1994). Moreover, internals reported to take part in upward influence tactics (Schilit, 1986), build new relationships (Turban and Dougherty, 1994) and receive more social support and have better relationships with their leaders to a greater extent (Ng et al., 2006). Considering their proactivity in relationships and orientation towards taking initiatives, internals are expected to successfully participate in role making processes and develop higher quality LMX relationship with their supervisors (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Phillips and Bedeian, 1994). Consistent with this argument, internal locus of control was found to have positive association with LMX quality (Harris et al., 2007; Kinicki and Vecchio, 1994; Martin et al., 2005).

What is more, employees' affective tendency to feel more positive or negative is also related to LMX quality. High positive affectivity denotes the dispositional propensity of a person to feel positive, enthusiasm, interest and joy. Positive affectivity is related to higher greater motivation toward goal-directed behavior (Seo et al., 2004), higher task performance (Kaplan et al., 2009) and higher quality LMX relationships (Chiu, 2000; Kinicki and Vecchio, 1994). On the contrary, high negative affectivity, which is the dispositional tendency of individuals to feel fear, anxiety, hostility, and guilt. Negative affectivity is concerned to an emphasis on negative features of people and events (Watson and Clark, 1984) and negative response to the situations (Watson et al., 1988). Moreover, those with high negative affectivity are evaluated unfavorably by others (Leary et al., 1986), have lower task performance (Kaplan et al., 2009) and argued to have problem with building and maintaining productive work relationships (Hui et al., 1999). Expectedly, high negative affectivity has been found to be negatively related to LMX quality (Hui et al., 1999; Dulebohn et al., 2012).

In addition, followers' core self-evaluation has been found as another antecedent of LMX quality. Comprised of four dimensions, self-esteem, self-efficacy, emotional stability and locus of control; core self-evaluation increases motivation and goal commitment of employees and in turn enhances performance (Erez and Judge, 2001). Given its effect on motivation and performance, members' positive core self-evaluations have been found to contribute to LMX through increased role clarity (Sears and Hackett, 2011).

Besides, employees' mastery goal orientation, the drive of gaining and developing competencies, skills and knowledge that could serve for improving and mastering task goals, and employees' proactive personality, dispositional tendency to take self-initiative acts in order to instigate change in work environment or roles (Griffin et al., 2007) improves LMX relationship quality (Janssen and van Yperen, 2004; Joo and Ready, 2012; Li et al., 2010).

In addition, follower competency and ability have been revealed as strong predictors of LMX quality. This uncovering is not surprising provided that LMX theory proposes follower competence as a central antecedent to dyadic exchange quality (Liden and Graen, 1980). More specifically, it is theorized that leader assessment of follower competence and ability determines whether a member would be selected for a high-quality exchange relationship. Assignment of tasks is carried out by leaders as a result of their assessment of member competency based on the how a member performs at an initial assignment (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). Followers achieving initial assignments are evaluated by their leaders as competent and qualified for the assigned roles and are chosen over to build high quality relationships (Graen and Scandura, 1987). This theoretical assumption has been confirmed by the empirical research. According to a lab experiment, signals of member competence and ability evaluated by the leader at the beginning of the dyadic interaction, influences the leader's decision on inciting a leadership exchange with the follower (Dockery and Steiner, 1990). This finding was supported by another lab experiment assessing member cognitive ability with an objective test that uncovered that not only the subjective signals perceived by the leader but also objective ability of members predicted leader-rated LMX quality during the initial interaction (Day and Crain, 1992). This effect has been observed in field studies as well. According to a study on sales people, leader's evaluation of follower competence significantly predicted follower-rated LMX relationship quality. Lastly, meta-analytic review of Dulebohn et al. (2012) with 6 studies found a moderate association of 0.38 between follower competence and LMX quality.

Along with the task-oriented effort, effort spent by the member for the development of the dyadic relationship emerges as an antecedent. Accordingly, a study showed that managers' perception regarding the amount of effort expended by the subordinates predicted LMX quality for both on the part of manager and subordinate (Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001). Moreover, this relationship was strengthened when it was joined with high leader effort toward relationship development.

Lastly, impression management and upward influence tactics employed by members also play a role in development of high quality LMX relationships. It is theorized that influence tactics employed by the follower change positively the attributions leader makes about the follower which successively affects LMX quality (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). Moreover, it is proposed that effectiveness of upward influence tactics depends on both accurate implementation of the tactics and leaders' perceiving these tactics as anticipated (Liden and Mitchell, 1988). For example, in a study, where followers' feedback seeking behavior were interpreted either in terms of performance enhancement motivation or impression management motives, LMX quality was enhanced by feedback seeking behavior only when this behavior was perceived to be driven with performance enhancement motive (Lam et al., 2007).

Moreover, empirical studies have supported the theoretical argument on the role of upward influence tactics in LMX development (Herold, 1977; Kipnis et al., 1980). Some studies have furthered these findings by examining the influence of using particular upward tactics on LMX quality. For example, Wayne and Ferris (1990) showed that supervisor-focused impression tactics promoted LMX quality more than tactics focused on job or the self. Employees might employ mainly three strategies during impression management; first of which is soft strategies comprise tactics like ingratiation, behaviors targeted to be liked or appreciated by others, or self-promotion, which is the behaviors demonstrated with an intention to appear competent by others. The second group is called rational approaches includes tactics of rationality which is using logical arguments or cognitive reasoning to convince others and bargaining. The last group is hard strategies and includes tactics of assertiveness, forcing others by making repeated requests and expressing strong emotions, or coalition forming an alliance by gathering support of other people and using their opinion to convince others (Farmer et al., 1997).

According to empirical evidence, soft strategies like ingratiation, self-promotion, showing friendliness are related to higher LMX quality; while, hard approaches assertiveness and coalition have been found detrimental for development of LMX relationships (Deluga and Perry, 1994; Dockery and Steiner, 1990). Meta-analytic review of previous research also presented supporting findings with a correlation of 0.27 for ingratiation, a correlation of 0.45 for self-promotion (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Taken together, above review suggests that follower characteristics and behaviors significantly predict the quality of LMX relationships. Among them, follower personality emerges as the substantial predictor of LMX quality. It is evident that employees' dispositional tendencies of extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, internal locus of control and positive affectivity help them to develop high-quality relationships with their supervisors. Moreover, positive core-self evaluations, increased amount of effort spent for task accomplishment, superior task-related competencies and abilities all help employee excel in the task assignments and effectively establish the ground for better quality LMX relationships.

1.4.2. Leader Characteristics and Behaviors

Within a dyadic relationship exists a power differential where the leader holds greater power and the follower is dependent on the leader for reaching rewards (Snodgrass et al., 1998). Hence, it is suggested that leaders play greater role in determining the quality of LMX relationships by influencing perceptions and responses of followers (Liden et al., 1997).

Similar to follower personality characteristics, leader personality has been related to LMX relationship quality. Beginning with Big five factors, among other personality traits extraversion has been found the most consistent predictor of effective leadership by a meta-analytic research (Judge et al., 2002). Considering the finding that extraverted leaders tend to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors which are individualized consideration, idealized influence, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation (Bono and Judge, 2004), extraversion trait of leaders has been argued to contribute to LMX quality. Moreover, socially outgoing and engaged nature of extraverted leaders are suggested to facilitate building high quality relationships (Schyns et al., 2012). However, empirical findings on this relationship are mixed. For example, Nahrgang et al. (2009) measured personality characteristics and LMX ratings of both parties at four time points and found that leader extraversion was positively associated with leader-rated LMX measured at four time points. However, for follower-rated LMX, the association was not significant at initial interaction. Similarly, a study found that leader extraversion was related to only loyalty dimension of LMX (Schyns et al., 2012). Nevertheless, meta-analytic review of four studies on leader extraversion and LMX quality found a correlation of 0.18 between these two constructs, which was consistent with theoretical expectation (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Bearing in mind the inconsistent findings they involve; these studies should be interpreted cautiously.

What is more, leader agreeableness, as another Big Five trait, has been related to LMX quality. Agreeable leaders are perceived as warm, friendly, and cooperative (LePine and Dyne, 2001; Tjosvold, 1984). Followers perceive leaders with such features as more approachable and hence build social relationships more easily. Moreover, agreeable leaders are more likely to reciprocate contribution and assistance of followers (Erdogan and Liden, 2002). Previous research presented empirical evidence for the positive association between leader agreeableness and LMX quality (Bernerth et al., 2008; Sears and Hackett, 2011).

Additionally, leader core self-evaluation has been argued to influence LMX quality. Accordingly, leaders with higher self-efficacy are expected to be more comfortable with their job and less concerned with their performance which would facilitate maintaining good dyadic relationships (Schyns, 2012). Empirical research has supported this argument by showing that leader's self-efficacy is related to both leader-rated and follower-rated LMX quality (Murphy and Ensher, 1999; Sears and Hackett, 2011).

Besides, an interesting antecedent to LMX quality that has been investigated by empirical studies is implicit theories. Implicit theories refer to cognitive schemas and categorizations that are previously created and deeply embedded in cognitions of people. These schemas are frequently used in social processes during sense making, and interpreting a behavior and developing a response. Epitropaki and Martin (2005) examined implicit leadership theories as an antecedent to LMX quality. Their study intended to understand how subordinates' cognitive schemas and prototypical categorizations on leadership (i.e. implicit leadership theories), influenced their perception of relational quality with their leaders. More specifically, their study examined the degree of difference between implicit leadership traits entrenched in cognitive schemas of followers and explicit leadership traits actually possessed by their leader and how this difference influenced LMX quality. The study tested and supported the proposition that the lesser the prototype (implicit trait-explicit trait) difference a follower perceived, the higher the LMX quality perceived by the follower.

Transformational leadership is comprised of leadership behaviors such as conveying an appealing vision, serving that vision through his/her actions, setting clear goals and high expectations, encouraging people to work towards attaining goals by providing support, recognition and inspiration (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Transformational leadership is predicated on social exchange processes, as is LMX theory. LMX theory is proposed to have transactional nature at the beginning of the dyadic interaction and grow into transformational relationship as the relationship get to the maturity stage (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Transformational leaders motivate employees to transcend their personal interests for the sake of collective interests by exchanging mostly rewards such as showing individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, similar to a social exchange in a dyadic LMX relationship (Basu and Green, 1997). Transformational leadership behaviors strengthen the social bonding between leader and follower (Dvir et al., 2002), which facilitates social exchanges between parties (Deluga, 1992). Moreover, the tendency of transformational leaders to build individualized relationships focused on the unique needs and potential of each follower has been suggested to result in enhanced follower identification with the leader and improved social exchange (Wang et al., 2005). Empirical studies support theoretical arguments by showing that subordinates of managers with transformational leadership behaviors reported having better quality LMX relationships with their managers (Barbuto et al., 2011; Deluga, 1992; Howell and Hall-Merenda, 1999; Kent and Chelladurai, 2001; Wang et al., 2005). Similarly, meta-analytic examination of 20 studies found a strong correlation of 0.73 between transformational leadership and LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Furthermore, leader's ethicality and ethical behaviors are also associated with LMX quality. Ethical leadership involves showing concern about well-being of followers, acting honestly, and behaving as a role model for moral behavior. Ethical leaders also emphasize fairness and moral principles during decision-making, reward employees for their ethical conduct (Treviño et al., 2006). More importantly, subordinates are suggested to regard their relationship with ethical leaders as a social exchange and their relationship is presumed to be grounded on social exchange processes (Brown and Trevino, 2006). This expectation is plausible given that ethical leaders not only treat their employees fairly and caringly but also accelerate the development of trust-based relationships where employees could voice their opinions and ideas without worry (Brown et al., 2005; Walumbwa and Schaubroeck, 2009). The theoretical presumption that ethical leadership strengthens the perception of employees LMX quality has been supported by empirical studies. For example, in one study followers reported higher quality LMX leadership as their supervisors showed more ethical leadership behaviors (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Similarly, another study confirmed the positive association between ethical leadership and LMX quality, also demonstrated that this relationship was mediated by relation-oriented behaviors of the leader (Mahsud et al., 2010). In other words, ethical leaders were perceived to exhibit behaviors such as showing more concern for needs of the employees, recognizing potential and performance of employees, asking suggestions and opinions of employees, which in turn enhanced dyadic relationship quality.

Similar to ethical leadership, perceived justice and fairness of the supervisor contribute significantly to quality of dyadic relationship. Employees tend to make social comparisons frequently at the workplace and put the inferences from these comparisons in the center of their judgments (Greenberg et al., 2007). One of these judgements relates to how fairly and equitably a supervisor treats his/her employees, and this assessment is among the most appreciated behaviors of a supervisor (Hollander, 1978). Moreover, fair treatment is crucial to fulfillment of psychological needs such as control, belonging and self-esteem (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Employees form their fairness perceptions in terms of three dimensions, distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001). Even though some scholars distinguish between these dimensions by identifying procedural and distributive justice perceptions as system/organization-oriented and interactional justice perception as supervisor-oriented (Cropanzano et al., 2002), some views have claimed the opposite suggesting each justice perception could be the product of organization-related or supervisor-related assessment (Colquitt et al., 2001). For example, an employee derives procedural fairness perceptions regarding performance appraisal system either based on the extent to which the appraisal system is composed of fair and just formulas (organization-related) or based on the supervisor's efforts to be fair during the implementation of the appraisal system. Consisting with this view, studies examining the role of followers' justice perceptions on their LMX quality assessments have demonstrated that all justice dimensions were instrumental in perceptions of LMX relationship quality (Burton et al., 2008; Erdogan et al., 2006; Hassan and Jubari, 2010; Sparr and Sonnentag, 2008).

Furthermore, psychological contract is an exchange relationship between employees and their organization and it is also closely related to justice perceptions of employees. Psychological contract indicates an employee's beliefs and expectations regarding reciprocal obligations that define the exchange relationship between the employee and the employer (Schein, 1980; Rousseau, 1989). Violation of psychological contract is considered a kind of injustice or unfairness where promised outcomes or expected obligation are not addressed (Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995). The violation of psychological contract breach results in a similar effect as injustice/fairness does with regard to LMX quality. In other words, the presence of a psychological contract violation harms LMX quality, even though the counterparty is the organization, not the supervisor. Since leaders put the decisions and policies formed by the organization into practice and hence are seen as important agents of the organization by the followers; followers may generalize a violation of psychological contract to their dyadic relationship and hold it against leaders, as they are the most accessible representative of the organization (Shore and Tetrick, 1994). An empirical study has found supporting evidence on this relationship; such that, the violation of relational obligations influenced LMX relationship quality negatively (Restubog et al., 2011).

All in all, in sharp contrast with its significance in determining LMX quality, owing to power differential in favor of the leader, leader characteristics and behaviors are less frequently studied compared to follower-related antecedents. Yet, it is clear that both leader characteristics such as higher extraversion, agreeableness and positive core-self evaluations along with leader behaviors of transformational, ethical and justice-oriented behaviors significantly improve the quality of LMX relationship from the viewpoint of employees.

1.4.3. Interpersonal Factors

One of the relational factors that influence LMX quality is liking or affect that parties feel towards each other. Within relationships, both liking and being liked increase the attraction toward someone (Backman and Secord, 1959) and these feelings might affect the way individuals form their judgements and assessments (Zajonc, 1980). In the same vein, LMX theory suggests that dyadic work relationships in which parties feel affection and liking to the other party are better quality (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). More specifically, leader's liking towards the follower and follower's liking towards leader are both expected to contribute relationship quality. This argument has been supported by laboratory and field studies. For example, Dockery and Steiner (1990) showed with an experimental design that both leader's feeling of liking for the follower and follower's liking of leader influence LMX relationship quality, even at the very early stage of the interaction. Similarly, the work of Wayne and Ferris (1990) consisting of an experiment and field study revealed that leader's liking of follower mediated the relationship between follower impression tactics and relationship quality. One study examining the course of dyadic relationship development through six months with a longitudinal design found that both leader's liking of follower and follower's liking of leader at the very beginning of the relationship predicted exchange quality at the different time points in next six months (Liden et al., 1993). Engle and Lord (1997) proposed that affection that parties feel toward each other might be the mechanism through which perceptional and attitudinal antecedents influence exchange quality. More specifically, their study showed that congruence between leader and follower in cognitive self-schemas regarding implicit performance theories and perception of similarity between leader and follower first fostered feelings of liking which in turn enhanced LMX quality. Lastly, the association of liking with LMX quality has been evidenced irrespective of how LMX is measured. For example, Wayne et al. (1997) found that leader's liking of follower influenced LMX relationship quality rated by followers. Lastly, meta-analytic review of the 19 studies on follower liking for leader and LMX association found a moderate correlation of 0.49 (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Given that role-making processes are central to the development of dyadic relationships (Graen and Scandura, 1987), role expectations sent and received over the course of relationship history are suggested as an antecedent to LMX quality (Liden et al., 1993; Wayne et al., 1997). This effect is interpreted with regard to self-fulfilling prophecy or pygmalion effect where a person develops preliminary expectations about the target person and then act on these expectations to make decisions and judgements (Darley and Fazio, 1980). Leaders' expectations about followers are suggested to influence both perceptions of followers and behaviors towards followers. For example, a leader with high expectations about a subordinate might make internal attributions (i.e. ascribing the behavior to dispositional features of the subordinate) for the desired behaviors and high performance of that subordinate and might make external attributions for another subordinate with whom the leader has low expectations (Heneman et al., 1989). Moreover, leaders' behaviors might change depending on the expectations such that leaders' positive expectations about followers might influence subsequent behaviors toward followers; like providing higher support and interesting job opportunities to those followers. Similarly, followers' positive expectations of leader behaviors including providing beneficial feedback and training, delivering attractive rewards might lead higher follower acceptance of sent work roles and requests (Graen, 1976). This proposition is tested by a study (Liden et al., 1993) with newly formed dyads over a course of six months. The study measured initial expectations of both parties about the other party with regard to work competence and fulfillment of role requirements at beginning of the relationship history, precisely in the very first five days of dyadic relationship. Then both parties' perceptions of LMX relationship quality were measured at three time point over six months. Results showed that leaders' expectations about followers were positively related to leader-rated LMX at two time points, but not to follower-rated LMX. Followers' expectations about leaders were also positively associated with follower-rated LMX at all time points, but not with leader-rated LMX. Although these findings might appear as inflated effects stemming from a common-source bias, it should be noted that expectations and LMX quality were measured at different time points. Moreover, this effect has been corroborated by other experimental and field studies showing that signals of positive leader expectations influence relationship quality rated by follower (Wayne et al., 1997) through boosting employee motivation and self-efficacy (McNatt and Judge, 2004).

Another key interpersonal factor to the development of high quality LMX relationships is interpersonal trust that parties feel in each other (Graen and Scandura, 1987). LMX theory portrays high LMX relationship as characterized with mutual trust, yet it mostly emphasizes leader's trust in follower for enhancing quality of exchanges. Accordingly, one of the factors that determine whether a follower is picked for the in-group circle of the leader is the extent to which the leader can trust that follower, along with competence and motivation of the follower (Liden and Graen, 1980).

Besides, some studies propose leader's trust in followers as an outcome of high-quality relationship or a dimension of LMX construct (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). However, there is sound evidence that interpersonal trust in LMX relationship should be treated as a separate factor and as an antecedent. Trust literature suggests that interpersonal trust is built upon the assessment of two types of trust, which are cognitive-based trust and affect-based trust (Lewicki et al., 2006). Cognitive-based trust is predicated on the evaluation of the target person in terms of competence, dependability and reliability. This type of trust includes rational assessment of evidences signaling trustworthiness of the target person and using this knowledge for deciding how much trust to build (Johnson-George and Swap, 1982). Affect-based trust is grounded on emotional ties and faith between parties that emerge as a result of emotional investment and mutual concern. Earlier stages of relationships are suggested to be characterized by cognitive-based trust which develops into effect-based trust as the relationship matures (McAllister, 1995). Hence, it is reasonable to expect leader's trust in follower to be a precondition for initiating role episodes with follower, which in turn leads up a high-quality relationship with enhanced mutual trust.

Furthermore, a conceptual study on the interplay between trust and LMX relationship delineated a relational model where LMX relationships develop out of leader's trust in follower (Brower et al., 2000). Accordingly, leader first evaluates subordinate's ability, benevolence and integrity and assesses the trustworthiness of the subordinate, which ultimately determines leader's trust in subordinate. This evaluation process is moderated by leader's propensity to trust or base rate of trusting in a subordinate at the beginning of the dyadic relationship. The level of leader's trust in subordinate then influences leader's risk-taking behavior that is operationalized as the extent to which the leader delegates decision making authority to the subordinate. The higher the leader's trust in subordinate, the more leader takes risk or delegates critical tasks to the subordinate. Empirical studies found supporting evidence for the relationship between interpersonal trust and LMX quality. A cross-sectional study by Gomez and Rosen (2001) revealed that followers' perceptions of LMX quality were influenced by leader's trust in followers composed of leader's perceptions of follower competence, openness, consistency, and care.

Even though LMX theory mostly emphasizes leader's perspective to understand the role of interpersonal trust in the development of high-quality exchanges, follower's trust in leader is also important for the relationship quality. For example, one study with a longitudinal research design took into account perspectives of both dyadic parties to delineate how interpersonal trust enhanced LMX quality (Sue-Chan et al., 2012). Accordingly, they proposed and tested whether follower's trust in leader predicted follower-rated LMX and leader's trust in follower predicted leader-rated LMX. Results demonstrated that follower's trust in leader measured at time one significantly contributed to relationship quality rated by follower at time two. Similarly, the study also found that leader's trust in follower was positively associated with leader-rated LMX, noting that these two variables were measured at the same time.

Additionally, the work of Scandura and Pellegrini (2008) considered trust as a multidimensional construct and portrayed their differentiated nature when examining the role of follower's trust in LMX quality. The study distinguished between two types of trust, calculus-based trust (CBT) and identification-based trust (IBT). CBT has transactional and calculative nature, where parties compare the outputs received from maintaining the relationship to the costs of breaking the relationship. This type of trust appears mostly in low-quality relationships sustained by the parties considering that doing so is in their favor (Boyd and Taylor, 1998). IBT, on the other hand, involves mutual caring and consideration of other's needs, emotional bonds and high interdependence between parties (Lewicki and Bunker, 1995). The study of Scandura and Pellegrini (2008) alleged that high quality LMX relationships should involve both forms of trust considering that social exchange relationships include economic transactions together with social transactions (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). However, they also added that the strength of each type of trust should alter as the LMX relationship evolved. The study adopted a cross-sectional design and found a non-linear S-shaped relationship between CBT and LMX quality. More precisely, CBT was low in high-quality LMX relationships; yet, it increased as quality of the relationship enhanced. This finding indicates that costs associated with high quality LMX may elevate to a level where additional demands of the supervisor might distress subordinates so much that subordinates continually weight associated costs to benefits of sustaining the relationship. Moreover, the study found a positive linear relationship between IBT and LMX quality. Lastly, due to cross-sectional nature of the study, it cannot evidence statistical justification for the direction of the relationship. In other words, it does not rule out the odds that the trust might be an outcome of the relationship quality than the other way around. Following the theoretical arguments regarding development of LMX relationships, the findings of cross-sectional studies of this type interpret the significant association of trust with LMX quality as trust predicting LMX quality, not vice versa. Overall, meta-analytic examination of 18 studies on the relationship between leader's trust in followers and LMX quality found a strong correlation of 0.73 and deemed trust as antecedent to LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

On the whole, above review clarified the importance of interpersonal process of LMX relationships. Even though LMX is sometimes considered as a result, it actually is a process which go through different stages. That is why interpersonal factors that impact upon through these processes prove to be substantial factors that determine experienced quality of dyadic relationship. Accordingly, mutual liking and mutual trust felt by parties during the course of LMX development.

1.4.4. Contextual Factors

Dienesch and Liden (1986) proposed work group composition, leader's power and organizational policies and culture as contextual factors that may influence development process of LMX. With regard to work group composition, studies examined the effects of supervisors' span of control and organizational size on LMX quality. Leader resources that are already limited such as time, attention, energy and material rewards are further constrained as the number of subordinates reporting to the same supervisor increases (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). Leaders with higher span of control are likely to provide subordinates with fewer opportunities for interaction and take time for appreciating high performance (Yukl, 1994). Hence, increased span of control is anticipated to constrain the development of high quality of exchanges. Empirical evidence has supported the negative relationship between span of control and LMX quality by showing that followers reported lower quality LMX relationship as leaders' span of supervision or unit size increased (Green et al., 1996; Green et al., 1983; Schriesheim et al., 2000; Schyns et al., 2005).

Moreover, organizational culture was suggested as another contextual antecedent to the development of LMX relationships (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). The underlying idea is that cultures trigger actions and behaviors that are congruent with cultural values among all members of the organization (i.e. supervisor, subordinates and team members), which in turn either nurture or impede development of high-quality LMX relationship depending on the type of organizational culture. Organizational cultures characterized by cooperation, trust, caring and friendly relationships are suggested to foster an environment that facilitates the emergence of supportive leadership behaviors and the development of high-quality LMX relationships (Erdogan et al., 2006; Major et al., 2008). For example, Pearson and Marler (2010) proposed a framework depicting that family firms instilled with stewardship values including norms of cooperation, altruism, prosocial behavior induce stewardship motivation among all members of the organization and this ultimately enhances quality of LMX relationship manifested as increased follower commitment and trust in leader.

Additionally, empirical studies have supported the role of organizational culture in promoting LMX quality. One study examined how LMX quality is affected by work-family organizational culture, which refers to the extent to which organization-wide norms and practices value and support work-family balance through respecting workers' family time, showing concern for family-related needs (Major et al., 2008; Thompson et al., 1999). Adopting a cross-level design, the study gathered data from employees in 10 different organizations and showed that work-family culture measured at organizational level had cross-level effect on LMX quality perceptions of employees measured at individual level. Another study with a similar multilevel analysis strategy collected data from 516 teachers in 30 schools and found a positive cross-level relationship between team-orientation culture of schools and LMX perceptions of teacher (Erdogan et al., 2006). In other words, the extent to which an organizational culture stressed cooperative and interdependent work among members, encouraged harmonious, conflict-free and friendly relationships significantly predicted the development of high-quality LMX relationships. Other studies with cross-sectional nature also found that employees' perceptions of organizational learning culture, group culture, and collectivism culture enhanced their LMX quality assessments (Aryee and Chen, 2006; Herrera et al., 2013; Joo, 2010)

Furthermore, work climate has also been investigated as a contextual factor influencing LMX quality. Cogliser and Schriesheim (2000) investigated how various climate-related factors might influence LMX quality. They anticipated and supported the positive effect on work unit cohesiveness on LMX quality. They also found a positive association of several work climate factors with LMX quality; such that, in climates characterized by cooperativeness, autonomy, skill variety and support, LMX quality was better. Similarly, Aryee and Chen (2006) hypothesized that a work climate characterized by cooperation, trust and consensus makes it easier to build high quality exchanges as it might reduce the anxiety of losing face in pursuit of relationship building. Conducted on a Chinese sample, their study found that work climate emphasizing social ties, employee needs and concerns, teamwork and cohesion positively contributed to LMX perceptions of followers.

Finally, the organizational resources and power held and controlled by a leader is argued to be a contextual factor affecting LMX quality. Dienesch and Liden (1986) argued that leaders need to have adequate resources, power and autonomy so that they could differentiate among members. These resources allow leaders to offer their subordinates tangible and intangible materials to exchange in LMX relationship. Gibsons (1992) contended that amount of resources (abundance vs. scarcity) conferred on leaders by the organization greatly influences the ability and success of leadership behaviors. Consistent with these arguments, Cogliser and Schriesheim (2000) revealed that expert, referent, legitimate and reward bases of power hold by the leader enhanced LMX quality. Similarly, Aryee and Chen (2006) tested the relationship between supervisor control of rewards and LMX quality on a Chinese sample. Results of the study exhibited a positive association indicating that as followers' perceptions regarding their supervisors' control over rewards increased, LMX relationship quality improved. Lastly, another study stressed the importance of organizational resources and funding existing in the company (Green et al., 1996). Accordingly, this study argued that the presence of greater resources would enable leaders the discretion in starting high quality exchanges. Results of the study found a positive association between financial resources and LMX quality, consistent with the arguments.

In sum, LMX relationships are susceptible to circumstantial factors that might hinder or promote the quality of interpersonal interactions. Among many factors, leader's control over the course of relationship is determined by the level of organizational resources and control over rewards and also a function of span of control. More importantly, organizational circumstances that go well beyond the control of supervisors might also exert influence over development of LMX relationships, such that organizational cultures and climates characterized by support, cooperation, harmony, cohesiveness, trust, friendship prepare the ground for building enriched social interactions and better-quality dyadic relationships.

1.4.5. Dyadic Similarity

According to similarity attraction theory, similarities between individuals are expected to enhance mutual liking and attraction (Byrne, 1971). In addition to enhancing attraction and affiliation feelings towards similar others, interpersonal similarity has been found to boost cooperative behavior (Roberts and Sherratt, 2002) and enhance friendship intensity and communication frequency (Selfhout et al., 2009).

In the work context, compatibility or dyadic similarity between leader and follower is suggested as an important contributing factor for the development of high-quality LMX relationships (Liden et al., 1993). Moreover, dyadic partners see each other in a more positive light and evaluate other party's performance favorably when they perceive each other similar (Pulakos and Wexley, 1983).

Accordingly, dyadic similarity between supervisor and subordinate is analyzed in two forms: perceived similarity and actual similarity. Perceived similarity refers to the extent to which dyadic parties perceive each other similar in terms of attitudes, values, interests and goals and it is measured by asking people to rate the degree of similarity they perceive between them and other party. Actual similarity, on the other hand, first measures actual attributes of each party objectively (rather than perceptually) and calculates similarity/dissimilarity between scores of two parties.

Importantly, research revealed that both perceived similarity and actual similarity in various characteristics between supervisor and subordinate predict relationship quality at work similarity (Graen and Schiemann, 1978; Liden et al., 1993). Hence, in the following sections, first perceived similarity, then actual similarity will be explained in detail.

1.4.5.1. Perceived Similarity

The primary reason for why the perceived similarity improves LMX quality is that it produces positive emotions like affect or affiliation towards each other.

According to similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), it is only natural that people feel attracted to others with whom they *perceive* to have similar attributes. Interpersonal attraction results in liking and affect towards others, which is crucial in interpersonal relationships (Zajonc, 1980). High-quality LMX relationships entail mutual affection, caring and support which are an important characteristics of social exchange relationships (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Hence, affect and liking originating from dyadic similarity contribute positively to LMX quality (Dienesch and Liden, 1986).

Turban and Jones (1988) measured perceived similarity of dyadic parties by asking each party to assess how much similar they were with other party in terms of outlook, perspectives and point of views, values, and work habits. They found that both similarity perceived by supervisor and similarity perceived by subordinate predict how supervisor assesses performance and potential pay raise of a subordinate. Specifically, as perceived similarity by either party increases, subordinates' performance on the eye of supervisor gets better.

Furthermore, the work of Liden et al. (1993) tested how perceived similarity by leaders and followers in a general sense is related to liking of each other and LMX quality. Their findings revealed a positive relationship of leader similarity and follower similarity with liking and with LMX quality assessed by both parties. In other words, perceived similarity enhances both affection and LMX quality experienced by both parties.

Besides, other studies examined perceived similarity in more specific fields. For example, Phillips and Bedeian (1994) investigated attitudinal similarity by asking supervisors to evaluate how much similar they are and their subordinates in terms of their attitudes on life goals, money and family issues, career, education and overall view. They found that supervisor-rated perceived similarity is positively associated with LMX quality rated by subordinate. Likewise, Engle and Lord (1997) demonstrated that leader perceived similarity in attitudes is positively related to follower-rated LMX as well as leader-rated LMX. Follower perceived attitudinal similarity is also found to be related to both leader-rated LMX quality and follower-rated LMX quality. Their study also revealed that this association between attitudinal similarity and LMX quality was mediated by liking that parties they feel towards each other. This finding proves the evidence for well-founded similarity-attraction paradigm across different settings by showing the role of dyadic similarity in enhancing affiliation and liking in work context. Overall, meta-analytic review of nine studies showed a moderate correlation of 0.50 between follower perceived similarity and LMX relationship quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Importantly, some studies distinguished between different forms of dyadic similarity and grouped them into two groups, surface-level actual similarity and deep-level similarity (Harrison et al., 1998; Harrison et al., 2002; Kacmar et al., 2009). These studies suggested that contrary to surface-level similarities, deep-level similarities are not noticed immediately and requires parties to work together for a longer period of time; so that they can comprehend their similarity. Deep-level similarities are about values, attitudes, belief and dispositional characteristics of a person and they are suggested to have more deeper and more enduring effects on interpersonal interactions. Surface-level similarities are based on demographic factors gender, age, race and they are easily recognized and used as criteria for social categorization. Surface-level similarities are suggested to be more salient and influential at the earlier history of the relationships and become irrelevant as partners get to know each other better.

Additionally, the study of Kacmar et al. (2009) figured surface-level actual similarity by measuring disparity in demographic characteristics such as gender, age, race and between leader and follower. Deep-level perceived similarity was analyzed with three factors which are common perspective, receptiveness and liking. What common perspective construct measures is almost the same with Liden et al.'s (1993) general perceived similarity construct, except two additional questions. The second factor of deep-level perceived similarity, receptiveness, asks both parties to assess the amount of latitude and decision influence offered to subordinate by supervisor. Lastly, liking factor predictably measures the degree to which parties feel liking and affect towards each other. The study pointed that surface-level similarity based on demographic factors predicts LMX agreement of dyadic parties only when deep-level perceived similarity is absent. Inclusion of all three of common perspective, receptiveness and liking to the model adds greatly to the variance explained in LMX quality agreement ($\Delta R^2 = 0.46$), while causing surface-level actual similarity to become insignificant. This finding supports previous arguments that perceived deep level similarity might have greater influence in LMX quality than surface-level demographic similarity and the effect of demographic similarity might be attenuated in the presence of much deeper similarity forms (Turban et al., 1999).

All in all, research on perceived similarity between leader and follower makes important contributions to the understanding of LMX relationships. Perception of both parties regarding how similar they are, comes up as a significant predictor of both affect-based (e.g. liking) and task-based (e.g. performance expectations) attitudes. These favorable attitudes, in turn, positively contributes to the willingness to put effort for developing social exchanges which ultimately serves for the good of the dyadic relationships.

1.4.5.2. Actual Similarity

Actual similarity between supervisor and subordinate is investigated based on various factors including but not restricted to demographic characteristics, personality, cognition, attitudes, goals, values of dyadic parties. Actual similarity is assessed by calculating the degree of correspondence across objective measures of a particular factor for both supervisor and subordinate. For example, a study investigating the effect of supervisor and subordinate similarity in competence levels could ask each party to make self-assessments (which is an objective measurement rather than subjective, as it evaluates actual competence level of the person but not the competence level perceived by the other party) and then use this self-assessments in analyses (Snyder and Bruning, 1985). Similarity in competence could be used either by testing joint effects of each self-assessments or by creating one common similarity factor.

This section focuses on four main actual similarities that previous research has extensively investigated, which are demographic similarity, personality similarity, value similarity and cognitive similarity.

1.4.5.2.1. Demographic Similarity

Demographic similarity between supervisor and subordinate is analyzed under relational demography which concerns with the effect of (dis)similarity in age, race, gender, education, and tenure between the person and others in the group (supervisors, or coworkers) on organizational and job-related outcomes such as turnover, communication, organizational attachment and conflict (Pelled et al., 2001; Tsui et al., 1991; Zenger and Lawrence, 1989).

Accordingly, the effect of relational demography on work outcomes is explained by social identity theory and social categorization processes. Social identity theory refers to the processes where people base their identity on the social groups they belong to or are a member of (Turner and Tajfel, 1986). During this process, individuals perform social categorization through which they categorize all people including themselves (self-categorization) and separate people as in-groups and out-groups. People might have several social identities and situationally switch across them when one of these identities is made salient. For example, in US people mostly use race and gender as group membership criteria to derive their identity (Tsui et al., 1991). Research suggests that people tend to categorize others based on their immediate observable features such as gender or race (Stangor et al., 1992).

Importantly, people feel attraction to and favor those people with whom they share membership (in-groups). For example, people tend to prefer those in the same group with them such as those with same race or same gender to make friendship than those in different groups (with dissimilar race or gender) (Ibarra, 1992; Thomas, 1990). Moreover, people evaluate others in out-group more negatively with respect to others' trustworthiness, collaboration and honesty than those in their in-group. For instance, people make internal attributes (ascribe the reason of the behavior to internal causes such as personality trait, dispositional tendency) for the positive behaviors conducted by those in in-group and for negative behaviors conducted by those in out-groups (Stephan, 1985).

Given this difference, it is no surprise that demographic dissimilarity on race, gender and tenure negatively influence performance, work attitudes and social integration (Williams and O'Reilly, 1998). In addition, demographic disparity within a work group has been associated with low levels of satisfaction and commitment, poor communication quality, higher levels of conflict and withdrawal; while demographic similarity has been related to increased satisfaction and commitment, high quality communication and lower levels of conflict and withdrawal (Mueller et al., 1999; Jehn et al., 1999; Mehra et al., 1998; Tsui et al., 1991).

Parallel to the effect of demographic similarity on individuals' work and group-related experiences, LMX theory suggests demographic similarity between leader and follower as a significant contributing factor to the quality of the relationship (Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Tsui and O'Reilly, 1989). As a result of identification with in-group members and favoritism toward in-group members, demographic similarity is expected to enhance productive circumstances for developing high-quality relationships (Uhl-Bien, 2003; Wayne et al., 1994). More specifically, it is seen more likely that members with similar demographic attributes, compared to members with different attributes, would find it easier to reach their supervisor and be treated more favorably by their supervisor. Empirical studies have yielded mixed results. Supporting the above arguments, some studies demonstrated the importance of demographic (dis)similarity for the exchange quality. For example, Farh et al. (1998) conducted a study on a Chinese sample showing that similarity in gender and education between supervisor and subordinate is positively related to trust in leader, an antecedent of relationship quality. Another study showed that employees who have dissimilar race with their supervisor experience poorer LMX relationship quality than employees with similar race with their supervisor (Brouer et al., 2009). Another study examining gender, age and education similarities as a predictor of LMX quality found that only gender similarity predicts LMX quality (Green et al., 1996). Likewise, on a Mexican sample, the study of Pelled and Xin (2000) demonstrated that only gender similarity but not race and age similarity has positive relationship with LMX quality rated by member. The work of Loi and Ngo (2009) found support for the effect of gender similarity on LMX quality showing that the lowest LMX quality was reported by male employees working with a female supervisor and highest LMX quality was reported by male employees working with a male supervisor. Vecchio and Brazil (2007) demonstrated the same gender similarity effect on a military sample where same-sex dyads have reported to have higher quality LMX. Lastly, one study with a

Malaysian sample found that gender similarity is positively associated with only affect dimension of LMX (Bhal et al., 2007).

Nevertheless, there is a fair amount of studies showing no effect of demographic similarity on LMX quality. For example, Liden et al. (1993) formed a composite demographic similarity variable including similarities of gender, age, education and race and investigated how overall demographic similarity affected the relationship quality of newly formed dyads within a 6-month period. They found no significant effect of demographic similarity on LMX rated by leader or rated by follower measured in three time points. Yet, the same study demonstrated that perceived similarity by leader and follower predicts LMX experiences of both leader and follower. Comparably, Epitropaki and Martin (1999) found no support for the effect of similarity with regard to gender, age or tenure on LMX quality. Lastly, the study by Bauer and Green (1996) failed to present any evidence for the effect of gender similarity on LMX quality, despite its significant finding on the positive association between personality similarity and LMX quality.

Bringing together the studies of Liden et al. (1993), Bauer and Green (1996) with previously explained study of Kacmar et al. (2009), it appears that the effect of demographic similarity might attenuate in time as much deeper similarity factors are introduced and dyadic parties experience increased familiarity. This is parallel with the findings that people select others with whom they want to work based on the degree to which they have familiarity and previous work experience (Hinds et al., 2000) and people reach higher performance level after they have the opportunity and the time to learn more about their deep-level similarities (Phillips et al., 2006).

1.4.5.2.2. Personality Similarity

Personality similarity might be viewed from two perspectives (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987). One perspective which is called supplementary model, appreciates the presence of similarity and proposes that those with similar personalities could go along better than those with dissimilar personalities. This view suggests that compatibility in personalities should bring along similar perspectives which could improve communication and increase individuals' motivation to work with similar others (Neuman et al., 1999). Moreover, individuals find it easier to predict and anticipate actions of those with similar personalities, which is suggested to result in more delegation by a supervisor to a subordinate with similar personality (Bauer and Green, 1996). Moreover, similar personalities between supervisor and subordinate are expected to enhance quality of interpersonal interactions because both partners share congruent goals, values and norms (Jackson and Johnson, 2012; Zhang et al., 2012).

Additionally, the second perspective, complementary model, concerns with how the match of dissimilar personalities might offset each other and indeed produce more positive results than match of similar personalities. According to this perspective, opposite personalities might bring diverse views and innovative perspectives and fill the deficiencies created by others, which is required to solve unique problems at work place and produce better performance. For instance, a group composed of introverts and extraverts might have more effective functioning because extraverts might take the role of leading others due to their outgoing and social nature, while introverts might be more willing to hold the roles that requires following the lead of others. In a contrary case where all members are characterized with high extraversion and inclined to take the lead, they might experience conflict and power struggles, which would weaken relationship quality (Barry and Stewart, 1997; Neuman et al., 1999).

However, at this point one could question which perspective, supplementary model or complementary model, is more relevant to the relationship quality between supervisor and subordinate. The answer is that it depends on the nature of personality characteristic that is being examined and how this characteristic influences the dynamics of functioning, interaction and communication within exchange relationship. For example, Neuman et al. (1999) found that among five personality factors, members' similarity on high levels of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience are positively related to team effectiveness, which supports supplementary view. Yet, the same study revealed that heterogeneity or dissimilarity of group members with regard to extraversion and emotional stability better predict team functioning, which endorse complementary perspective. Likewise, another study found that people are attracted to groups with dissimilar characteristics of extraversion (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005a). In other words, in the study opposites attract each other where individuals with high extraversion prefer to work with people of low extraversion, while those with low extraversion choose to belong to workgroup composed of people of high extraversion.

Overall, whether similarity or dissimilarity of a particular personality characteristic would predict better results requires keeping a close eye on the combined and interactive effects of the personality characteristic. The interpersonal interaction theory might help illustrate this view by providing a guiding framework to understand how particular personality characteristics might bring differentiated effects into interpersonal interactions (Horowitz et al., 1997). The theory examines interpersonal behaviors along two dimensions. The first dimension, affiliation, includes behaviors that vary along a continuum ranging from friendly to hostile. The second dimension, dominance, consists of behaviors on a continuum ranging from dominant to submissive. The basic idea underlying this theory is that every interpersonal behavior invites a response that is complementary of the initial behavior. For affiliation dimension, warm and friendly behaviors or cold and aloof behaviors invite and incite behaviors that are similar in kind. That is, for affiliation dimension complementary behaviors are similar behaviors to those conducted by initiator. A warm and agreeable partner invites and prefers those people with similar warmth and agreeableness. For dominance dimension, dominant behaviors invite responses that are submissive; while submissive behaviors do the opposite. In other words, for dominance-oriented behaviors complementarity comes with dissimilar responses where other party is invited and expected to behave in opposite manner. A dominant and controlling person invites and prefers a partner with submissive and unassertive style. On the contrary, a submissive person invites a dominant and assertive response from his/her counterpart. The theoretical arguments of interpersonal interaction theory have been tested and supported by various studies. For example, Dryer and Horowitz (1997) found in an experimental work that dominant people reported more satisfaction from an interaction with a submissive partner than with a similarly dominant partner. Likewise, submissive people stated more interaction satisfaction when their partner is dominant than when their partner is submissive. A field study with an organization context (Glomb and Welsh, 2005) revealed that subordinates are more satisfied when their supervisors have dissimilar style for dominance dimension. More precisely, consistent with relational norms and social categorization processes, submissive subordinates reported greater satisfaction with a supervisor who had dominant traits.

Despite the theoretical underpinnings of interpersonal interaction theory, most of the studies examining leader and follower congruence in personality characteristics expect and report positive outcomes for personality similarity. For example, a study investigating the role of congruence in four of the big five personality characteristics between subordinates and supervisors expected incongruence in conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional stability and intellectual openness to be detrimental to follower-rated LMX quality (Bernerth et al., 2008). Put it differently, the more similar leader and follower are in their big five personality characteristics, except neuroticism, the higher their exchange quality becomes. In an attempt to extend Bernerth et al.'s (2008) work, a study tested how leader-follower similarity in big five personality characteristics predicts LMX quality and then influences follower OCB (Oren et al., 2012). Contrary to the authors' expectations and to Berneth et al's (2008) study, the findings of their study indicated a significant and negative association between big five personality similarity between leader and follower and quality of LMX relationship. There might be two reasons for the variation across findings of these two studies. First, the latter study was conducted with a sample of Israeli employees and their direct supervisors, which is a culturally different context than the former study of Bernerth et al. (2008) that employed North America context. Hence, the first reason for the variation might be related to the cultural differences of samples; consistent with a study suggesting that cultural values might influence the way dyadic similarity functions (Hui et al., 2003). The second reason might be the way similarity between supervisor and subordinate calculated. In Bernerth et al.'s study, a method called Euclidian distance, computing the square root of the sum of the squared differences for each scale item of every personality characteristic, was employed. As for Oren et al.'s study, an overall similarity score was calculated by generating a similarity index based on the correlation of five personality characteristic for each supervisor-subordinate dyad. Both the calculation method and whether actual personality similarity is treated a unidimensional or a multidimensional construct might have affected the association between personality similarity and LMX quality.

Besides, one another study examined the dyadic similarity in personalities of leader and follower using another personality taxonomy, the Myer-Briggs Type Indicator (Schaubroeck and Lam, 2002). The study measured personality similarity of employees with their peers in the same unit and with their supervisor. Using an international sample of Hong Kong and US bank tellers of the same bank, the study measured personality types, LMX quality, job performance of the follower, and demographic features of both followers and leaders, two months prior to decisions with regard to promotions of tellers to supervisory position. A logistic regression analysis revealed that leader-follower similarity in personality significantly predicted whether a teller was promoted or not, controlling for demographic similarity between leader and follower. More importantly, this association between personality similarity and promotion decisions was mediated by LMX quality but not by job performance of the subordinate. This finding is especially important for two reasons. First, personality similarity as a deep-level factor has a stronger effect beyond the effect of surface-level demographic similarity. This is consistent with previous arguments proposing that dyadic relationships with longer tenure should be affected more strongly and enduringly by deep-level similarities as in the case of personality similarities, rather than surface-level similarities in demographic characteristics (Harrison, et al., 1998; Meglino et al., 1989). Second, the consequences of personality similarity are not limited to the relationship quality but extends well over to the promotion decisions made by the leader.

Moreover, Bauer and Green (1996) examined leader-follower similarity in positive affectivity. Based upon the arguments that similarity enhances predictability and eases interpretations of interacting parties (Meglino et al., 1991), they expected to find congruence in positive affectivity to influence LMX quality positively. Their study employed 112 dyads with a longitudinal design making measurements at three time points, and found that similarity in positive affectivity between supervisor and subordinate significantly contributes to LMX quality. They also found that the effect of the former variable on the latter one occured through the mediation of subordinate work performance, which suggests an indirect relationship between positive affectivity congruence and LMX quality.

Additionally, empirical research found that emotional intelligence composition of supervisor-subordinate dyads significantly influences quality of exchanges (Sears and Holmvall, 2010). Emotional intelligence is about the capacity of individuals to understand, distinguish, and manage emotions of their own and other people and use this knowledge as guidance in their interactions with others (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Anchored in similarity-attraction paradigm, this study expected emotional intelligence similarity to simplify the role expectations of parties from each other, clarify role definitions, and broaden the effectiveness of communication process, all of which are significant elements underlying the role-making processes of LMX relationships. Employing a sample of executives as supervisors and senior managers as subordinates from a public service institution, the study found that the greater the difference scores of emotional intelligence, the lower the quality of exchange (r = -.50), controlling for dyadic similarity in core self-evaluation and conscientiousness. That is similarity in the ability of parties to read, use and manage emotions is positively associated with LMX quality. Together with difference score analysis, the study applied a hierarchical moderated regression analysis and found that employees with high emotional intelligence describe their dyadic relationship as high quality when their supervisor is also high in emotional intelligence than when their supervisor is low in emotional intelligence. Likewise, subordinates with low emotional intelligence scores have higher LMX quality, when they are matched with a supervisor with low emotional intelligence scores than an emotionally intelligent supervisor.

Furthermore, one study tested the effect of compatibility in proactive personality between supervisor and subordinate in the relationship quality and employee-related outcomes (Zhang et al., 2012). Proactive personality denotes propensities of individuals to take initiates in order to influence and change their environment and circumstances in a better way (Bateman and Crant, 1993). The study proposed that proactive personality congruence should improve LMX quality since it brings along goal congruence that eases addressing the role expectations of other party. Moreover, having goal congruence is expected to help gain time for leaders by spending less time and effort for setting and aligning goals for followers. In order to test hypothesis, the study employed a Chinese sample of leaders and followers working in different branches of a bank and applied the polynomial regression analysis on the collected data. Results revealed that increased congruence in proactive personality regardless of whether it is at high level or low level, significantly improves the quality of social exchange, which in turn enhances job performance, job satisfaction and affective commitment of followers. Moreover, comparing congruence at different levels, findings showed that proactive personality congruence at high levels (i.e. both of the dyadic parties possess high levels of proactive personality) is more beneficial for LMX quality than congruence at low levels. This finding indicates that having similar perspectives and mutual understanding regarding spending effort for improvement of the work environment and related outcomes provides a productive and fruitful ground for developing work relationships.

Overall, majority of the studies examining personality similarity between leader and follower suggest that higher similarity is good for the quality of dyadic interactions, as personality similarity improves communication, increases predictability of person and provides more effective role processes. Yet still, depending on the type of personality that is being examined, complementarity whereby opposite personality might counterbalance each other might bring about better interactions. Hence, arguments and inferences about personality similarities should be interpreted with caution by considering interactive nature of specific personality traits.

1.4.5.2.3. Value similarity

Values refer to beliefs that individuals hold about with regard to what is important and desired in their life and set of standards that guides their behavior (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987). Values could be grouped under two main groups as general life values and specific values. Work values denotes people’s beliefs, and core principles about what they desire, and value about their work. Both general values and work values are important reference points that shape and guide goals, decisions, actions and perceptions of individuals in life and at work. Value similarity has been suggested as a basis for favoritism at workplace and value difference as a source of conflict by previous studies (Senger, 1971). Similar orientations both in general values (love, power, money etc.) and in work values (salary, supervision, status etc.) between supervisors and subordinates are positively associated with subordinates’ satisfaction with work itself and with supervision provided by their direct supervisor (Kemelgor, 1982). A study which initially measured participants' values using the Survey of Work Values developed by Wollack et al. (1971), later applied a scenario based study and showed that individuals evaluate their exchange relationships with a supervisor as high quality when their work values are similar than when their values are dissimilar (Steiner, 1988). Utilizing another scale for work values (Work Values Scale) developed by Nevill and Super (1989), one another study found consistent results showing that dyads holding similar values are more likely to have high quality exchanges (Gessner, 1992).

Additionally, some other studies tested similarity for more specific values. For example, Dose (1999) investigated the role of value similarity with regard to Protestant work ethic, one's belief that appreciates hard work and discipline, and work environment preferences (independence, self-development, creativity, money, security etc.) in LMX quality. Analysis of the data collected from a residence hall employees and directors revealed that perceived similarity (rather than actual similarity) in both Protestant work ethic and work environment preferences between directors and employees positively influences quality of dyadic relationships. Ashkanasy and O'Connor (1997) examined leader-follower congruence in five domains of personal values (freedom, achievement, mateship, obedience, and coping) and its association with LMX quality. Gathering data from 30 teams and 160 participants and applying analyses of variance, the study found that dyads sharing similar values in achievement and obedience have higher quality LMX. Another study also measured value congruence in achievement along with values of helping and concern for others, fairness, and honesty (Meglino et al., 1989). Importance of these four values were measured by generating 24 pairs of behavioral statements composed of binary combinations of four values and each comparing two values. Participants of the study were asked to choose among two behavioral statements. Three hierarchical levels of a production plant, workers, supervisors and managers, participated to the study. Analysis of the data showed that similarity in values ranking between workers and direct supervisors predicted job satisfaction in various aspects (including supervision) and commitment of workers. In addition to these field studies, an experimental study tested how participants reacted towards leaders that are perceived to have similar values (Meglino et al, 1991). The study proposed that value similarity should enhance predictability of behaviors of interactants and efficiency of task-related interactions and also help build a high-quality communication as a result of similar interpretations and classification of the events. In order to test its propositions, the study employed an experimental design that first measured participants' values on four aspects with a methodology similar to those of Meglino et al. (1989) and later got participants watch a videotape of a leader either emphasizing only achievement value or stressing all of four values (achievement, helping and concern for others, fairness, and honesty). Then, participants rated the extent to which they would be satisfied working with a leader they watched in the video. Results revealed that participants with congruent values with the leader expressed more anticipated satisfaction with the leader.

Overall, the research on value congruence shows that rather than general personal values (freedom, friendliness, generosity), values that are more relevant to work context (achievement, such as achievement, fairness, supervision) are more likely to have stronger effect on the quality of dyadic relationships. This finding has been endorsed also by the work of Huang and Iun (2006). Their study examined a deep-level work-related value that individuals possess, which is the growth-need strength meaning that one's desire to attain personal growth, learning and development for through his/her work (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). The study suggested that congruence in growth-need strength between supervisor and subordinate should contribute positively to the way parties perceive and relate to each other. More specifically, supervisors with high growth-need strength might deem subordinates with low growth-need strength as inadequate and incompetent for challenging goals that requires intrinsic motivation; while, subordinates with high growth-need strength might perceive their supervisors with low growth-need strength as a hindrance on their journey to personal development and growth. On a sample of 205 dyads from 31 organizations in Hong Kong, hierarchical regression analysis found a significant cross-level interactive effect of supervisor growth-need strength and subordinate growth-need strength, controlling for leader-follower similarity in demographics, proactive personality and self-esteem. More specifically, results revealed that dyadic similarity in growth-need strength contribute to the way parties evaluates each other; such that, those dyads with high similarity (at low levels or at high levels) have more trust to the other party. Moreover, subordinates showed higher loyalty to supervisors with similar levels of growth-need strength and supervisors rated the performance of subordinates with similar levels of growth-need strength higher than performance of subordinates with dissimilar levels.

Additionally, dyadic value congruence is also suggested as a moderator between LMX quality and various outcomes. For example, the positive association of LMX quality with subordinate job performance is moderated by value agreement between leader and follower such that the relationship becomes stronger as the value congruence increases (Markham et al., 2010).

Nonetheless, when it comes to the mechanisms of how value congruence improves LMX quality, the literature remains unexplored. Majority of previous research has focused on outlining the particular values in which congruence produces better outcomes, rather than delineating the mechanisms between value congruence and LMX quality. However, a careful investigation might provide insight about potential factors that might explain the mechanism. For example, an empirical research that employed a cross-lagged panel design measuring variables at two time points found that leader-follower value congruence perceived by the subordinate positively influences subordinates' identification with the leader (Marstand et al., 2018). Considering that leader identification and increased internalization of leader's values and expectations make subordinates more concerned about addressing leader's role expectations and by doing so improves LMX quality, one potential mechanism between dyadic value congruence and LMX quality could be subordinate's identification with the leader (Gu et al., 2015).

Besides, complementary fit approach may also account for the relationship between value compatibility of leader and employee and LMX quality. Complementary fit approach to employee values emphasizes the fulfillment of work values of employees by an environmental factor, such as supervisor, the work itself or the organization (Cable and Edwards, 2004). Put it differently, employees experience value fulfillment when their values or their desires about work are met by a supplier. When the supplier is the leader or work values of a follower are supplied by his/her leader, then leader serves as a source of value fulfillment. When work values of a subordinate are fulfilled by his/her leader's supplies, then this should raise positive feeling in the subordinate towards the leader and hence, enhance exchange quality. This argument was tested for five different values (interesting and challenging work, influence and authority, access to information and training, salary and benefits, and social work environment) in a two-wave study (Marstand et al., 2017). The results of polynomial regression analysis between employee values and leader supplies of these values revealed that the higher the fulfillment of all five work values by the supervisor, the higher the LMX quality. Based upon this finding, one possible explanation regarding how leader-follower similarity in values cultivates high quality LMX relationship might be that the leader provides opportunities that address work values of a follower more easily as long as the leader believes the importance of the same values.

Taken together, above review suggests that value similarity between leader and follower in both general values and work values contributes positively to quality of dyadic interactions. However, work value similarity between parties or work value fulfillment of employee by the supervisor might add more to relationship quality because they directly influence perception of parties regarding work-related attitudes of the other party and bring about predictability of other’s behaviors and increased identification with the other party.

1.4.5.2.4. Cognitive Similarity

The last group of actual similarity that has been frequently investigated in the leader-follower congruence literature is cognitive similarity. Cognition denotes several mental processes including but not restricted to information processing, memorizing, reasoning, perceiving, learning and decision making. Cognitive similarity between leader and follower refers to the similar approaches that parties have and practice with regard to perception, interpretation and comprehension of the events and experiences at the workplace. Research on LMX antecedents has shown interest in investigating the cognitive factors and congruence of these factors in relation to LMX quality. For example, one study revealed that mental representations of followers regarding their leadership expectations are shaped by their experiences with previous leaders, which in turn influence how they evaluate their current leader (Ritter and Lord, 2007).

Besides cognition of followers, leaders' cognition processes are also important. For instance, leaders' positive cognitive schemas about followership bring about a mindset whereby leaders expect higher performance from followers, which in turn positively influences leaders' liking for subordinate and leaders' perception of the quality of social exchange relations (Whiteley et al., 2012). The effect of leaders' cognitive schemas is not limited to the relationship quality, they also effect other interpersonal attributes such as leaders' trust and liking for followers (Sy, 2010).

Importantly, one of the earliest studies relating to cognitive similarity was conducted by Triandis (1959; 1960). His studies found that cognitive similarity between members of a dyad enhances effectiveness of communication and employees who have similar cognitive features with their supervisor have more effective communications with their supervisor.

Moreover, one cognitive process that gained attention in dyadic similarity is the use of cognitive schemas and categorizations in social relationships. People make social categorizations to ease and smooth information processing and use previously established categories and schemas automatically as the base of social relationships (Lord and Maher, 1991). In the same vein, people at workplace also use automatic categorization when evaluating, making judgments about or responding to behaviors of someone at work, be it a subordinate or supervisor. Lord and Maher (1991) proposed a model which argues that dyadic parties use previously formed implicit theories as schemas or categories in order to interpret behaviors of each other and decide on their behavioral response. By doing so, parties produce smoother and easier information processing and have predictable responses in their social interactions. Engle and Lord (1997) suggested that dyadic congruence in implicit theories should help parties develop a common understanding where parties could address role expectations of other party more easily and interpret behaviors of each other more accurately. Suggesting that expectations from a leader should be based on different features than expectations from a follower, Engle and Lord (1997) suggested two social schemas for dyadic interactions, implicit leadership theories and implicit performance theories. Accordingly, followers are expected to consider leadership qualities more important for evaluation of leaders and hence use implicit leadership theories. Leaders, on the other hand, are expected to emphasis performance more than qualities and hence use implicit performance theories to evaluate a subordinate. Using a sample of 76 dyads, the study tested whether dyadic congruence both in implicit leadership theories and implicit performance theories contribute to influence LMX quality. Regression analyses found that not dyadic congruence in leadership theories but dyadic congruence in implicit performance theories explains LMX quality; such that, supervisor-rated LMX quality is higher when both parties are congruent in implicit performance theories. Moreover, this relationship is mediated by liking felt for subordinate indicating that dyadic congruence produces positive affect between parties.

Moreover, the positive impact of leader-follower congruence on implicit followership/performance theories on relationship quality has also been corroborated by other studies employing other methodological approaches. For example, on the contrary to the study of Engle and Lord (1997) which employed a direct-measurement of cognitive schemas, Sy (2013) utilized an indirect tool called interpretation-based projective tests in order to reveal how parties represent the general image of follower characteristics. Sy (2013) also found that when both leaders and followers are congruently positive in implicit followership theories, they have higher quality relationships. Moreover, experimental assessment of the effect of the congruence in implicit schemas on relationship quality also presented supporting evidence (Coyle and Foti, 2015). Accordingly, a lab study measured participants' leader and follower cognitive prototypes and after assigning "leader" and "follower" roles to participants the study had them work on a matrix designed task in which participants made decisions on whether to cooperate or not. The analysis of the experimental data showed that similarity of leader prototypes and similarity of follower prototypes between those with leader role and those with follower role cause development of high quality LMX relationships through increased cooperative behavior.

Besides schemas of leadership and followership, cognitive similarity literature assessed also the role of relational schemas shared by dyadic parties in the development of LMX relationships (Tsai et al., 2017). Relational schema refers to a cognitive map that people use during their social interaction and provides a guideline to process information and construe a proper response during social interactions (Baldwin, 1992). As for work context, relational schema refers to an individual's mental representations of how a dyadic relationship between leader and follower should be and how parties should behave and reciprocate in response to acts of each other. Considering that LMX relationship is based on social exchange theory, relationship prototypes or schematic assumptions about reciprocity and exchanges at work context hold by both parties are expected to play important role in the development of LMX relationship. Cognitive similarity in regard to leader-follower relational schema is expected to lead to better understanding of behaviors of both parties and enhance quality and efficiency of dyadic communication and thus improve LMX quality. However, the effect of congruence might vary depending on the type of relational schema that parties hold. When both parties have high levels of *expressive* relational schema, they share the belief that dyadic relationships at work should embrace emotions and feelings of each party and be characterized by social exchanges that goes beyond economic exchanges. *Instrumental* relational schema congruence occurs when both parties believe that dyadic relationships should be based on economic exchanges where parties interpret behaviors of other party and generate behavioral responses as a reflection of pure economic intentions. A polynomial regression test of dyadic data from 205 dyads found that congruence of parties in their relational schema does indeed matter for the quality of LMX relationship. Accordingly, when leader and follower are matched at a high level of expressive relational schema they enjoy higher quality social exchanges compared to when they are congruent at low levels of expressive relational schema. As to instrumental relational schema, in contrast, congruence at low levels produces higher social exchanges then congruence at high levels. This is because the fact that when both parties pursue economic goals ignoring needs and affects of each other and view other party only through economic lenses, this prevents devotion of time and energy beyond formal job responsibilities, which constitutes an obstacle for development of high-quality affect and trust-laden LMX relationships. Another finding is that dyadic congruence in expressive and instrumental relational schemas generates higher quality LMX relations than incongruence in both relational schemas. This is consistent with the finding that individuals desire to have social interactions with those whose relational schemas are predictable and similar with theirs (Sanchez-Burks et al., 2000).

Additionally, another cognitive factor examined for its congruence effect on dyadic relationship quality is self-identity. Self-identity refers to the mental representations of people regarding the way they define themselves in relation to others (Markus and Wurf, 1987). Self-identity could be defined at three levels and each level includes a different conceptualization of self which is shaped by the focus of the person while doing self-definition (Brewer and Gardner, 1996). Even though self-identity might be situationally induced, people also have stable tendencies regarding how they define themselves; that is, chronic self-identity (Johnson et al., 2006). The first level is “individual self” and this level stores a personal self-concept where people base their value on their unique traits, individuated features, and achievements that help distinguish themselves from others. People with individual self are motivated with and appealed to enhancing their distinctiveness from others and their self-interests. Consistent with this argument, previous research demonstrated that at work context employees whose individual-self is salient are more concerned with receiving fair outcomes and respond more negatively in the face of unfairness (Holmvall and Bobocel, 2008). The second level is called relational self-identity and people at this level is characterized by a self-concept that is based on individuals’ dyadic relationships with other people, at work context for instance with supervisor, colleagues or subordinates. People at this level draw on having dyadic relationship that are high quality; hence, they are driven by working for meeting expectations of their partner. Supporting this argument, a study found that interpersonal justice predicts employees’ satisfaction with outcomes and management more strongly for individuals with high relational self-identity (Johnson et al., 2006). The third level is called group or collective self-identity which is grounded on person’s affiliation with a specific group or team. People with group self-identity derive their self-worth from performing group roles that addresses role expectations and norms of the group that they have membership. The study of Jackson and Johnson (2012) investigated how similarity in different levels of self-identity between dyadic parties influences the quality of their exchanges. Drawing on the facilitating effect of similarity on communication quality and social integration (Tsui and O'Reilly, 1989), the study of Jackson and Johnson (2012) proposed that leader-follower similarity in self-identity at all three levels would enhance LMX quality because people with similar self-identities have parallel values and social motivations in their relationships. Results of the study showed that when congruence of self-knowledge at relational and collective levels positively contribute to LMX quality. On the other hand, leader-follower similarity in individual self-identity has negative effect on LMX quality. Put it differently, dissimilarity in individual self-identity enhances relationship quality. This unexpected finding illustrates a complementary fit indicating that being driven more by personal achievements and less by role expectations of others might be harmful for development of social exchanges.

Taken together, extensive empirical evidence delineated above underlines the significance of cognitive factors for LMX processes pertaining to how both leaders and followers comprehend, interpret and react to behaviors and role expectations of each other. Along with the distinctive effects of cognitive factors, the combination of these factors and their joint effects adds to our understanding of how similarity or dissimilarity might explain development of LMX relationships. Given the significance of the cognitive factors for providing valuable insight into social exchange processes and following the calls to further the role of other cognitive factors in LMX processes (Epitropaki et al, 2013; Tsai et al., 2017), this dissertation aims to answer these calls by exploring the role of another cognitive factor, construal level of dyadic parties, in development of high quality LMX relationships.

I think that addressing construal level similarity could significantly improve the understanding regarding cognitive antecedents of LMX quality. Because people prefer those people whose schemas are predictable and similar to theirs over those whose schemas are different, construal level similarity could make behaviors and judgments of similar others more predictable and enhance liking and positive evaluations towards similar others. Moreover, as put forward by previous research in cognitive similarity, construal level similarity might improve communication between dyadic parties and in turn promote higher quality LMX relationships. In order to better delineate the effect of construal level similarity on LMX quality, next chapter provides a detailed outline of construal level theory and its implementation in organizational research.

CHAPTER TWO

CONSTRUAL LEVEL THEORY

This chapter provides a detailed explanation about construal level theory (CLT) because CLT is one of two theories (the other is LMX theory) that form the basis of theoretical arguments tested in this dissertation. CLT is primarily rooted in social psychology but have received extensive attention from other fields such as consumer behavior, economics, and organizational behavior (Liberman et al., 2007b; Leiser et al., 2008). The theory provides researchers with an organized and meticulous structure to explore and explain human behaviors in decision-making, communication and persuasion, evaluation, self-regulation, and prediction (Trope and Liberman, 2011). Yet in recent years, scholars from organizational and management fields have begun to show a growing interest in the theory and attempted to apply it to enhance the current understanding of various constructs such as motivation, leadership behaviors, innovation, negotiation, group work and communication (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). This chapter will review the construal level theory and its main tenets in social psychology literature and also go through organizational studies that utilized the theory to look into the existing concepts through new lenses. Lastly, main hypothesis of this dissertation is built based on the underpinnings of LMX and CL theories.

2.1. CONSTRUAL LEVEL

Construal level refers to the cognitive structures that people use to construe information about any event, person or target and to the cognitive ways how relevant information is encoded and mentally represented. According to construal level theory (CLT), mental representations of targets vary along a continuum with abstract representation of things at one end (high-level construal) and concrete representation of things at the opposite end (low-level construal). This continuum reflects the degree of abstraction for the mental representation of the targets in which one either sees the forest with an all-embracing view at the expense to skipping individual trees or concentrates on a specific group of trees through a selective view, forgoing broader panorama of the forest. More specifically, these mental representations do not coexist at the same time meaning that preference toward one direction cancels out the other one.

High-level construal brings abstract representation of targets and includes processing information in a more general, broad and comprehensive way that is concerned with central and stable characteristics of the target. On the contrary, low-level construal includes mental representation in a more detailed, focused way where the attention is directed toward secondary, contextual and easily discernable characteristics of the target. For example, a pen could be construed either as stationery (abstract/higher construal) as a more inclusive and broader category or as a marker pen (concrete/lower construal) emphasizing its observable and specific features (Rosch and Lloyd, 1978). One of the basic tenets of construal level is that abstraction of a target might be enacted through multiple levels. Considering the previous example, abstraction of a pen as stationery might be moved to a higher level of abstraction by defining it as a material. Hence, any concrete representation could have many alternative and possible abstract representations with differing levels. The decision of which alternative abstract definition to pick is shaped by considering its relevance with the context. For example, if one conducts a physical inventory count as an accounting practice, then calling a pen as a material stock is relevant; yet, when one plans to purchase a pen as a gift, then stationery becomes a more relevant.

A shift from concrete representations to more abstract construals leads to a change in the meaning as it requires a decision on which secondary details to leave out and which primary features to retain. As in the case of an object, any act or activity could also be represented abstractly or concretely. More specifically, activities could be represented along with a hierarchy of abstraction at each level of which the construal transforms into more abstract representations. For example, the activity of "making a list" could be stated as "writing list items down on a piece of paper" providing more detailed and concrete information about the "how" the activity is done. The same event of making a list could be expressed as "getting organized" which is a more superordinate and abstract way of defining the activity and explaining "why" the activity is performed (Vallacher and Wegner, 1987). During the conversion of concrete representation of "writing list items down on a piece of paper" into abstract construal of “getting organized”, all the secondary details that seem irrelevant for the context are omitted, leaving the abstract construal with central and only relevant features. Hence, compared to concrete ones, abstract representations turn out to be more prototypical and context-free, more schematic and consistent, and simpler.

As mentioned earlier, objects and targets that fit into categories could be represented along a hierarchy of abstraction. This means that as one advances higher along the abstraction, the categories become more comprehensive and simpler by excluding details and contextual features, as in the example of marker, pen, stationery (Rosch and Lloyd, 1978). The same abstraction hierarchy applies to other constructs, as well. Actions are also organized along hierarchical levels of abstraction and more abstraction generates representation with fewer circumstantial details with regard to how and through which mediums the action is performed (e.g. writing list items on a piece of paper vs. getting organized) (Semin and Fiedler, 1988). Similarly, traits of people and other targets are subject to abstraction. At highest level of hierarchy people are evaluated with a reference to their traits and dispositional tendencies (honest, helpful) without any indication to circumstantial or contextual factors. Lower construal level, on the other hand, includes reference to specific behaviors that may include objects and situational factors affecting the behavior (Hampson et al., 1986; Joshi and Wakslak, 2014). Lastly, goals and goal-related behaviors also make hierarchies of abstraction and at each level of the hierarchy, the goals and goal-related behavior are defined with more superordinate and overarching motivations that derive the behavior; while, lower levels of the hierarchy provide the details on how the behavior is conducted (Carver and Scheier, 2000). For instance, exercising behavior might have a superordinate goal of maintaining a healthy and satisfying life and a subordinate reason of how such as going out for a run. However, abstraction does not necessarily lead to representations with poor quality; quite the reverse, abstract categories comprise frequently the typical features that characterize lower categories, so that abstract representations may provide additional and more general information about the category. For example, stationery involves more features (in terms of function, color, size, shape etc.) which are not detected in pen category.

Overall, this section introduced the construal level idea. It refers to the level of abstraction in mental representation of targets. Objects, actions, goals, people characteristics (i.e. trait related vs. behavioral descriptions), all could be construed along the hierarchy of abstraction which ranges from very low abstraction (i.e. concrete construal) from very high abstraction (i.e. abstract construal). However, the shift along this hierarchy comes at a cost, whereby increasing abstraction requires letting forgoing details specific to circumstances. The understanding of the construct of construal level would remain incomplete without discussing its interplay with psychological distance, which is explained in the following section.

2.2. PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTANCE

Construal level research was originally inspired by an appeal to understand how people differentiate between their choices for today vs. choices for future and how they plan on these choices. This is called as temporal construal, how people mentally image and comprehend time-related constructs and initial research was about understanding effect of temporal construal on prediction (Kahneman and Tversky 1973), illusion in planning (Gilovich et al., 1993) and delaying gratification (Mischel, 1974). Similarly, Trope and Liberman (2003) explored that when people think over events in the past or far future, this makes them to experience a situation authors called the “psychological distance”. People can directly experience things that are here in the present moment. Things that are beyond here and now are psychologically distant to people. Hence, rather than directly experiencing, people can only construct psychologically distance things through mental travelling. Psychological distance applies to temporal issues that are in the past or in the future such as the first work day of a senior worker, or the graduation ceremony of a current student. Spatial or physically remote places are also psychologically distant as is Brazil for someone living currently in Europe. Taking the perspective of other people or putting shoes of another are called as social distance and creates a psychologically distant situation from here and now. Lastly, ruminating about hypothetical situations regardless of the probability helps one to transcend beyond the current reality as in the case of imagining a student if she/he had been attending another department in the university. These four situations beyond immediate experience and existence of a person describe the dimensions of psychological distance and are called as temporal distance, spatial distance, social distance, and hypotheticality. The things occurring here and now is the basis of a zero point in distance and things further away from this point temporally (alternative times), spatially (alternative places), socially (alternative views belonging to other people), hypothetically (alternatives to the immediate experience) can only exist through mental representation and cognitive construction.

One basic tenet of the construal level theory pertains to the relationship between construal level and psychological distance (Liberman and Trope, 1998). People construct psychologically distant targets on an abstract mental level; that is, psychological distance induces higher-level construals or abstract representations. Moving further away from proximal experiences to more remote ones necessitates one to construe targets with more abstraction because the knowledge and information on hand about the target diminishes as one departs away from it. Moreover, similarity that one has with the psychologically distant entities diminishes as these entities become more distant, and again people cannot directly experience but can only rely on construals and cognitive schemas to experience them. Another reason suggested for effect of psychological distance on construal levels is about the scarcity of cognitive resources available in a given time. Accordingly, when people focus on greater distances across time, space, probabilities, fewer available cognitive resources are left to be used in processing incidental and circumstantial features of a target (Amodio and Frith, 2006; Trope and Liberman, 2010)

People still construe psychologically distant targets abstractly and psychologically close targets concretely although they could reach equal knowledge and information for these distal and closer targets. With increasing proximity, one could more confidently grasp additional details and specifics unique to an entity and hence construe the entity with a low-level construal. This process of construing proximate targets and entities more concretely is reasonable given that people need to take action against a very close target and decide how to adapt their reaction emotionally, mentally and behaviorally toward that target. Ordinarily, the process of construing distal targets on a high level on the availability of equal information is again reasonable considering that central and primary characteristics of entities are likely to remain same and consistent whether one is close or far away from that entity. For example, high-level goal of staying fit does not change easily in time compared to low-level goal of consuming less fat, assuming that the person recently could not find enough time to cook healthy meals with less fat; so instead she/he increases the time spent in gym to offset the high level and rather stable goal of staying fit. Hence, even though people have more information about secondary features, it is reasonable to construe a distal entity by relying on features that are unlikely to change across time, locations or alternative situations.

Construal level theory hence suggests that because of reduced level of knowledge, information and similarity for distant entities than ones nearby, psychologically distant targets are construed more abstractly, while targets that are psychologically proximal are represented more concretely. At this point, it should be noted that psychological distance pointed out here has subjective nature or defined by perception of people rather than objective measures. Two persons may differ in the way they view an entity with a stable actual difference and perceive varying subjective distances for the same entity. Hence, the level of construal people apply to distant entities is shaped by the subjective or perceived psychological distance rather than objective distance.

The relationship between psychological distance and construal level is bi-directional. Put it other way, psychological distance both influences and is influenced by construal level (Ledgerwood et al., 2015). Abstract or high-level construal leads people to perceive targets and entities at greater distances and help them to connect larger distances more readily (Trope and Liberman 2010). People with high-level construal travel greater distances with less effort and find it easier to reach out targets and entities in distant time and places. For example, an activity represented as "exercising" rather than "playing ball" brings to one's mind connotations that exist in distant past or future, in distant places, in imaginary situations, and socially remote people. Hence, by expanding one's perspective, high-level construal serves as a bridge between people and their overarching goals and their broader values and makes these broader prospects salient. Low-level construal does the opposite effect on perception of distance. Concrete representation diminishes ones' prospect so that people could direct their focus to here and now. People with low-level construal perceive targets, entities more proximal, and they more readily deal with the necessities of the present moment.

This bi-directional relationship between psychological distance and construal level might seem insightful when the interchange between these two constructs is illustrated by an example. A person can watch a forest only from a particular distance and once the person gets closer, he/she starts to realize individual trees. From the opposite perspective, a person in the middle of a forest needs to retreat and move away from individual trees so that he/she could get a whole view of the forest. However, absent in this example are the other types of distances (temporal, social and hypotheticality) other than the spatial distance (Trope and Liberman 2010)

Lastly, it is important to note that despite the interplay between construal level and psychological distance, these are different constructs. Construal level indicates the content and properties of an entity and answers the question of what is perceived. Psychological distance denotes entity's distance from the person and how the person perceives an entity with regard to its time, location, probability and people involved in it.

Overall, this section focused on explaining psychological distance and its link with construal level. Psychological distance occurs for any experience with the targets that are away from here and now, which might be experienced in four dimensions, temporal distance, spatial distance, social distance, and hypotheticality. There is a reciprocal link between construal level and psychological distance where psychological distance influences construal level; and construal level influences psychological distance. Enhanced psychological distance in any four dimensions leads to higher construal level, and high construal level makes psychological distances more accessible.

2.3. THE EFFECT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTANCE ON CONSTRUAL LEVEL

As explained in the previous section, there is a two-way reciprocal relationship between psychological distance and construal level. The effect of psychological distance on construal level applies to multiple areas. This section illustrates these various areas where experienced psychological distance influences construal levels of people. Some of these areas that are included in following sections are construal level of visual perception, construal of actions, breadth of categorization, access to and implementation of values, construal of self, and construal of others.

2.3.1. Perceptual Level of Construal

Visual perception of an object entails either getting an overall view of the entire object or concentrating on specific details of the object. CLT suggests that psychological distance influences the construal level at which visual information is processed. A study suggested that psychological distance should ease catching a general global view but impede attention to detailed aspects (Liberman and Forster, 2009). In other words, the study expected to find parallelism between conceptual and perceptual levels of construal such that increased psychological distance (high conceptual level) facilitates perceptual view at a global scale (high perceptual level), while reduced distance (low conceptual scale) facilitates recognition of concrete details (low perceptual level). This proposition was tested with Navon's letter task which presents large/global letters composed of small/local letters (a large B letter composed of small K letters) and asks identify either the large letter (B) or small letter (K). In the study, some of the participants were primed with temporal distance and some with temporal proximity by writing an essay about tomorrow or a year later; while those in the control condition skipped the writing task. Then, participants were presented with Navon’s letter task and asked to indicate whether letter shown included a target letter. Results demonstrated that those in temporal distance condition perceived global letters better but local letters worse compared to those in control group whose psychological distance was not manipulated. In contrast, those in temporal proximity condition were better at perceiving local letters but worse at processing global letters compared to those in control group. This experiment was repeated by manipulating spatial distance and social distance and arrived at similar results indicating that increased psychological distance in time, space and social scope facilitates attention to global aspects of visual stimuli while decreased psychological distance facilitates of attention to details of perceptual stimuli.

Another perceptual phenomenon relates to the distinction between pictorial and verbal representations. Information of an object or target could be conveyed through visual representations such as pictures, photographs, and graphics or through verbal representations such as words, texts and poets. CLT suggests that pictorial and verbal representations of a target are mentally processed in different ways because they denote different levels of construals. Pictures mirror similar physical features of a target and convey more specific and concrete details about the object hence correspond to a low-level construal. By contrast, words convey abstract characteristics and gist of a target and do not share that much similarity with the target; thus, words represent a higher construal level compared to pictures. Because of physical similarity with the target, pictures are put through perceptual analysis; while words are not because they do not reflect particular physical characteristics of the target but instead convey much superordinate information about the target. Relying on this distinction between words and pictures, a study tested whether perceptual processing of verbal vs. pictorial representations differs as a function of psychological distance (Amit et al., 2009). The study predicted that people should have faster and more optimal information processing when stimulus is congruent with distance. In other words, words as high-level construal should be processed faster when they represent a distant object than a near object; while pictures as low-level construal should be processed sooner when they represent a near object than a distant object. One of the seven experiments conducted in the study participants were shown one ancient (e.g. quill pen, carriage, oil lamp) object representing increased temporal distance and modern (ball-point pen, car, electric lamp) objects representing reduced temporal distance. The participants were displayed two items in the same domain but with different distances (e.g. car and carriage) in word or picture format. They were asked to indicate what they see ignoring the format. The results revealed that participants responded faster to pictures of modern objects (low-construal stimulus with less temporal distance) than do they to pictures of ancient objects (low-construal stimulus with high temporal distance). Even though this experiment did not find significant difference in processing time across verbal representations of modern and ancient objects, other experiments in the same study found that effect.

All in all, parallel to the effect of psychological distance on construal level, increased psychological distance influences perception of visual stimuli. Because high construal level is about capturing overall view of the entire forest and low construal level is about recognizing individual trees, an abstract mindset as the result of increased psychological distance better process the global picture, while a concrete mindset due to reduced psychological distance better discerns the details in perceptual stimuli.

2.3.2. Construal of Actions

Psychological distance shapes the way people construe actions. Previous research demonstrated that when people imagine doing several activities such as reading a book tomorrow (low temporal distance) vs. a year later (high temporal distance), the way they describe these activities changes. Accordingly, research found that the activities are depicted at a high-level construal such as “getting entertained” when temporal construal is high (i.e. a year later); yet when the temporal distance is low (i.e. tomorrow) the same activities are described at a concrete level such as illustrating the activity as “flipping pages” (Liberman and Trope, 1998). A follow-up study in the same research paper also utilized a forced-choice construal level scale consisting of two choices one with an abstract description and the other with a concrete description for the same activity, again with an intent to figure out how psychological distance influences the level at which people represent actions. The findings of the study demonstrated that people prefer to describe an activity (locking a door) with it’s a high-level description (securing the house) rather than with a low-level description (putting a key in the lock) when the activities are indicated to occur in the distant future than in the near future.

Action identification theory (Vallacher and Wegner, 1987) also explicates how actions can be organized along a hierarchy ranging from low-level action identities to high-level action identities. High-level actions denote why the action is performed while low-level actions indicate how the action is conducted. The theory deals with the interrelation between what people do and the way they identify what they do. More specifically, theory posits that people move towards a cognition of action identification that facilitates the performance of that action. First principle of the theory is that people have a general tendency to define an action either at low-level or high-level and they conduct the action by having this action identification in mind. This tendency maintains stability and consistency across situations. The second principle is that people prefer high-level identities over low-level identities when both levels are available. Last principle states that when people have difficulty in performing an action their cognition shift from a high-level identity to low-level identity to facilitate maintaining the action. This is reasonable because low-level identities convey concrete and detailed information on how to conduct a particular action. These principles were tested in an experiment in which participants were served coffee either in a standard cup or in a very heavy (0.5 kg) cup. When participants were given 30 different actions to define their action, those drinking coffee from a standard cup were more likely to describe their actions with high-level identities such as “becoming alert” or “promoting my caffeine habit” (supporting the second principle); while participants drinking coffee from the heavy cup preferred low-level identities such as “putting a cup to my mouth” or “swallowing” over high-level identities to describe drinking coffee action (supporting the third principle).

In general, all activities could be described along a hierarchy of abstraction. Although people have a dominant tendency to define activities either with low-construal or high-construal, psychological distance also affects how they define an activity. As distance reduces, it is more reasonable to use more specific and secondary features of activities because feasibility concerns become more salient which results in describing activities using low-level construal. On the contrary, with enhanced distance incidental features become blurred and uncertain, which makes people to describe the same activity using high-level terms that refers to broader aim of the activity.

2.3.3. Breadth of the Categories

The effect of psychological distance on construal of actions also extends to the scope and inclusiveness of the categories that are formed. Specifically, with rising psychological distance and increasing abstractness in cognitive representations, categorization should be broader and wider. Research found supporting evidence for this argument. Participants in one study were given a list of 38 items to be used various in events such as a camping activity occurring in next weekend (low temporal distance) vs. months later (high temporal distance) and they were asked to classify these items into as many comprehensive categories without any overlapping items as possible (Liberman et al., 2002). When the number of categories created by each participant were assessed, it was found that the number of created categories was significantly greater when the event takes place in near future than when the same event occurs in distant future. This finding supports the argument that temporally distant events are represented with categories that are abstract and at high-construal level; while temporally proximate events are construed with concrete categories that are at low-construal level.

On the whole, along with visual perception and construal of actions, psychological distance also affects the scope of the categories used to define targets. Because enhanced psychological distance induces high-level construal and high-level construal brings about abstract representations focusing on general and superordinate features of targets, people categorize targets in few but more comprehensive groups which convey the essence of the target with increased psychological distance. On the contrary, as reduced psychological distance induces low-level construal and low-level construal leads to representations focusing on contextualized and incidental features, people classify targets using numerous categories with more specific attributes with reduced psychological distance.

2.3.4. Principles and Values

Values and principles are considered abstract constructs and broad guidelines that direct one’s behaviors and decisions. Given that increased psychological distance is associated with abstract thinking, one study expected to find a parallel effect between psychological distance and reference to moral values and principles (Eyal et al., 2008). In other words, it is anticipated that moral values are more accessible when people have more abstract construal. This prediction was tested by the work of Eyal et al. (2008) with a series of studies manipulating temporal or social distance and by doing so inducing an abstract or concrete construal. Findings of a vignette study describing different situations of moral violation (e.g. a person cleaning the house with the national flag) revealed that people prefer to describe the situation as an abstract moral principle ("desecrating a national symbol") rather than concrete contextual terms ("cutting a flat into rags") when the situation happens in distant future than in near future. Another study in the same paper showed that people judge a moral violation more severely when it is temporally distant (distant future) vs. temporally proximal (near future) and when it is socially distant (from a third-party perspective) vs. socially proximal (from their own perspective). Lastly, people assess a morally appropriate behavior (donation of clothes by a fashion company to poor people) more virtuous when the situation takes place one year later from now (temporally distant) vs. tomorrow (temporally close). These findings indicate that psychological distance and abstract mindset enhances one's reliance on and reference to the general moral principles and values.

Extending these findings, Agerström and Björklund (2009) examined the way psychological distance and construal level impact upon moral views of people in moral dilemmas in which there are conflicting selfish and altruistic motives. Their study suggested that altruistic motives have more abstract nature due to their supreme and overarching characteristics, while selfish temptations have more concrete nature as a result of their context-bounded incidental features. Supporting findings of Eyal et al. (2008), this study also found that importance of moral concerns during a social dilemma accentuates as the temporal distance enlarges. Throughout five experiments, the study pointed out that when people imagine moral dilemmas that occur in the far future rather than near future and hence process the relevant information abstractly, they are more likely to prefer altruistic behaviors over selfish behaviors, experience feelings of guilt when acting selfishly, view selfish behavior as immoral, behave in an altruistic manner. Moreover, this research also explored the moderating effect of moral values vs hedonistic values showing that enhanced moral concerns in social dilemmas with increasing psychological distance holds particularly for individuals who give greater weight to moral values relative to hedonistic values.

Overall, previous research suggests that enhanced psychological distance and by extension high-level construal not only rise one's access to superordinate moral values and principles and thus enhance moral concerns, but also influence the intention to act morally and how much guilt one would feel if acts selfishly.

2.3.5. Construal of the Self

Research on construal level theory has also examined how representation of the self is affected by psychological distance and construal level. One study adopting the same methodology used by Nussbaum et al. (2003) for analyzing the behavior consistency across situations examined whether people's representation of themselves would differ with increased psychological distance (Wakslak et al., 2008). Conducting the same methodology, the study asked participants to imagine themselves (the target is the self) across five different situations either in distant future or near future and to describe their own behavior using 15 traits of Big Five factors. As is the case with another person, participants expected themselves to act in a consistent manner across situations occurring in distant future than in near future. The same paper also examined construal of the self by using a paradigm of self-complexity. Accordingly, participants were asked to depict themselves to someone who would read their depiction in the distant future vs. the near future. For this purpose, participants are asked to select among 40 cards of trait adjectives that they thought best describe them and sort these adjectives into groups. For each participant a score for complexity of self-description was calculated indicating the number of categories and width of traits. A high complexity score is the result of greater number of categories with non-redundant adjectives. By contrast, a low complexity score is derived either from few numbers of categories or large number of categories with repetitive adjectives. The results of the study found lower complexity scores for self-descriptions conveyed to someone in the distant future than someone in the near future suggesting that people construct a self-representation in less complex and contextualized ways with the increased psychologically distance.

The same study conducted another six experiments to delineate the effect of psychological distancing on construal of self. For example, another experiment examining cross-situational consistency of distal-future self vs. near-future self, revealed that people expect themselves to behave more consistently across different situations with increased temporal distance. Moreover, people base predictions of their behaviors on typical personality characteristics more for distant future than for proximate future. Another experiment in the same study investigated impact of temporal distance upon the way people socially categorize. The prediction was that depending on temporal distance people should use either more broad and inclusive categories or more specific and narrow categories in order to define themselves. Participants were asked to describe themselves to someone who would read the description either a week later or a year later. Participants were allowed to choose among different groups of social categories each of which consisted of both broad (e.g. woman) and narrow (e.g. a woman in her early 20s) categories in varying degrees. As predicted, participants preferred to use more broad and wide-ranging social categories in their self-description more when it would be read in distant future than near future.

Taken all experiments together, it is suggested that temporal distancing enhances a construal of self that is based on abstract, schematic, less complex, consistent and invariant aspects; whereas taking a temporally closer standpoint to the self promotes a self-representation concrete, contextualized, less complex, less consistent and situational aspects.

2.3.6. Construal of Others

People generally tend to recognize enduring personal dispositions as the underlying cause of others' behaviors and discount the effects of situational factors, which is a phenomenon called correspondence bias (Gilbert and Malone, 1995). In CLT terms, correspondence bias signifies a representation at high-level construal based on abstract, schematic and decontextualized features. Hence CLT suggests that the effect of correspondence bias should be enlarged with increased psychological distance.

This argument is consistent with previous findings showing that attributions of a target's behaviors become more based on invariant dispositions and less on unique situational factors (Frank and Gilovich, 1989), and that concrete aspects of a memory disappear faster than general and decontextualized aspects leaving more distant memories with more abstract and less concrete features. Research has provided empirical backing on the magnifying effect of psychological distance on correspondence bias. A study asked students to read an essay including political argument on Israel's withdrawal from Lebanon which had been written by another student (Nussbaum et al., 2003). Participants were given the information that either the writer of the essay had been instructed to state positive opinions about the topic (constrained condition); or writer had been told to express his/her own opinion about the topic (unconstrained condition). Then, participants were asked to predict whether the writer would demonstrate behaviors consistent with his/her attitude on the topic, either in the near future or in the distant future. For instance, participants rated how likely they thought that the writer would state his/her attitudes expressed in the essay during a conversation with friends. Following making predictions about behaviors of the writer, participants were asked to evaluate writer's real attitude about the topic. Analysis revealed a main effect of constraint showing that participants predict the writer to behave less-consistently when the writer was in the constraint condition than when the writer was in the unconstraint condition. Importantly, this effect was found to be affected by temporal distance. Accordingly, irrespective of whether the writer was forced to express (constrained) or freely expressed (unconstrained) a particular opinion, in future condition the writer was predicted to show behaviors consistent with attitudes in the essay. Yet, in near future, participants expected behaviors of the writer to be more consistent with the attitude in essay when the writer was free to express his opinion (constrained condition) than when he/she was not (unconstrained condition). Overall, these findings indicate that when making inferences about future events, people underweight situational constraints suggesting an increase in correspondence bias.

Evaluation of behaviors of social targets in terms of consistency is also influenced by psychological distance. CLT suggests that people should expect social targets to behave more consistently through different distal situations compared to proximal situations. One study tested this argument by investigating expected cross-situational consistency in distant and near future by asking people to predict behaviors of a person they know in situations of attending to a birthday party, waiting in a queue, meeting someone new, and arguing with someone (Nussbaum et al., 2003). People were also given 15 characteristics with 3 characteristics that represent each of Big Five personality factors and asked to use these 15 characteristics to describe behaviors of the target across these four situations. Analysis of cross-situational consistency revealed there were lower cross-situational variance and higher cross-situational correlation when temporal distance is higher (i.e. situation is imagined taking place in distant future) than when temporal distance is lower (i.e. near future). In other words, participants predicted behaviors of the target person to be more coherent across situations that happen in the distant future than in situations in near future.

Altogether the review above suggests that people expect others to behave more consistently across far future situations by overlooking any situational factors that might affect the behavior, while this effect of consistency across behaviors and ignorance of situational constraints lessen with reduced psychological distance (i.e. near future situations). This effect is parallel to the arguments explicated in previous sections as to the fact that augmented psychological distance induces high-construal level which focuses on abstract and broader categories by forgoing situational and circumstantial factors.

2.3.7. The Effects of Other Forms of Psychological Distance

Even though the majority of studies on the psychological distance have employed future temporal distance by comparing near future with distant future, a considerable amount of studies has manipulated other forms of psychological distance. To begin with, past temporal distance has similar effect with future temporal distance, leading to more abstract representation of entities with less incidental details as the past temporal depth expands. For example, when people are asked to remember important events from either recent past or far past, the language they used to describe events from distant past is more abstract (Semin and Smith, 1999). This effect is explained by proposition that past events are stored in long-term memory system that processes information through abstraction and schematization. This proposition is consistent with previous studies on time-based variance in attribution. These studies showed that people attribute behaviors of a target more to dispositional factors and less to situational factors over time as a result of the shrinkage of information with regard to context-based details to a greater extent than the shrinkage in general and invariable information about the personality of the target (Frank and Gilovich, 1989; Nigro and Neisser, 1983).

As to the other forms of psychological distance, spatial distance from a target has been shown to influence construal level. With low spatial distance one can obtain more accurate and specific information regarding the target; yet, as spatial distance increases one gains a general view from high above but losing specific details. Construal level suggests this effect emerges not only for objective spatial distance but also for imagined spatial distance. For instance, one study (Fujita et al., 2006a) made participants watch a video taped conversation between two students talking about casual things. For spatial distance manipulation, the conversations were said to be recorded either in a remote location (another country) or in proximal location (the same city). Participants who were then asked to describe the conversation were found to use more abstract language in their descriptions when the conversation was imagined to take place in a distant location than when the same conversation was thought to be filmed in a near location. This finding confirms the suggestion of construal level theory that imagined spatial distance increases abstraction in representations of entities.

When it comes to social distance, the studies have operationalized the distance by comparing self with others, familiar people with unfamiliar people, members of ingroup with members of outgroup, people similar to self with people dissimilar to self. All of these distinctions rely on the premise that people perceive dissimilar and unfamiliar others socially distant and hence perceive them at a high-level construal.

The first social distance relates to the distinction between self and others. CLT suggests that others compared to self would be experienced at a distance. According to the effect of actor-observer in attributions to self and others, people tend to explain their own behavior with concrete circumstantial factors while ascribe behaviors of others to personality characteristics of the actor that are rather stable (Jones and Nisbett, 1972). This reflects the difference in representations of the self and others whereby self is construed at low-level construal and others are construed at high-level construal. For instance, people in a conversation to get acquainted with someone view their own behavior as a response to their partner (a situational explanation); whereas view other party's behavior as a result of his or her dispositional characteristics (Robins et al., 1996). Semin and Fiedler (1989) contended that this effect is the result of the abstraction difference in representation of the self (actor) and others (observer). They tested this proposal by asking participants to describe their own or others' behavior across various situations and analyzed the level of abstraction of these descriptions based on Linguistic Categorization Model (Semin and Fiedler 1988). Results of the analysis revealed that people describe behaviors of others (observers) using more abstract verbs than their description of their own behavior (actor). These findings support the proposal of CLT that people construe socially distant targets (others) more abstractly than socially proximal targets (their self).

In respect to the distinction between ingroup members and outgroup members, CLT suggests that people should represent outgroups with higher-level terms than they construe ingroups for two reasons; one the direct experience with outgroup members is limited and hence they are perceived as socially distant; second, the amount of information at hand about the outgroup members is scarce. Research on the perception of group members has shown that members of outgroups are depicted with more abstract words (Werkman et al., 1999), are viewed as more homogenous and less segregated (Park and Judd, 1990; Park et al., 1992), and are perceived to have less covariation in terms of their features and personality types (Linville et al., 1996). However, CLT suggests that abstract representation of outgroup members is unrelated to the degree of familiarity with outgroup members and affected by a general sense of larger social distance. Supporting this suggestion are the findings of the study of Jones et al. (1981). The study asked members of four student clubs to assess the average characteristics such as extraversion, refinement, and athleticism of all four-club members on a range scale. The results showed that the range of average characteristics was narrower for outgroup members suggesting that people perceive less variability among outgroup members than they do among ingroup members. More importantly, this effect was found to be unrelated to the number of members one knew among ingroup members as opposed to outgroup members indicating that outgroups are construed at higher-levels irrespective of the amount of information one has with members, as a result of the greater social distance.

Overall, extensive research on the association of psychological distance and level of construal suggests that enhanced psychological distance, not only in temporal distance dimension but also in spatial, social, hypotheticality dimensions increase the abstractness in which objects, events, activities, goals, categories and people represented.

2.3.8. Interrelation among Dimensions of Psychological Distances

CLT suggests that the four dimensions of psychological distance, namely temporal, spatial, social and hypotheticality, are interrelated and correlated to construal level in similar ways. These dimensions are suggested to be mentally associated and share meaning; such that, an object construed distant at one dimension is more likely to be represented to be distant rather than proximate on other dimensions. This suggestion is consistent with other social psychological phenomena. For example, people choose seats that are more distant (spatial distance) to seats of people who are also socially distant (Macrae et al., 1994). In other words, spatial distance reflects social distance among people.

CLT suggests that thinking about an aspect reflecting distance (vs. proximity) of an entity bring out other aspects of distance (vs. proximity) regarding that entity. For example, thinking about a distant time is more likely to summon remote rather than close locations, people socially distant rather than close, improbable rather than probable entities. This prediction on interrelation among dimensions of distance was tested by a picture-word Stroop task (Bar-Anan et al., 2007). In the experiment, participants were shown a landscape picture containing an arrow pointing to either a remote location or a close location. Accompanying this arrow was a word indicating either psychological distance (e.g. year, others, maybe) or psychological closeness (e.g. tomorrow, we, sure). Participants were asked to identify as quickly as possible whether the arrow was pointing at near or distant location. Results revealed that participants responded more rapidly when spatial distance of arrow was congruent with other distance aspects; for example, when proximate arrow was accompanied with tomorrow or us or sure than when accompanied with year or others or maybe. Finding of this study proposes that a common meaning is shared across dimensions of psychological distance and this common meaning of distance is retrieved automatically.

The automatic association across dimensions of distance indicates that perceived distance of a target on one dimension might influence perception of other distance dimensions. This suggestion was supported the study of Stephan et al. (2010)

which examined interrelations among social distance, spatial distance and temporal distance. Drawing on previous research associating politeness with social distance (Brown and Levinson, 1987), the study showed that people using more polite language hence engendering a perception of social distance are perceived to be also spatially and temporally distant. In the same vein, Wakslak and Trope (2008) demonstrated that the association occurs for hypotheticality dimension, as well. Specifically, increased hypotheticality or improbability is associated with increased temporal, spatial and social distances such that people anticipate improbable events, relative to probable events, to take place in distant locations, times and with other people.

Taken together all studies mentioned above, this section suggests that all dimensions of psychological distance are interrelated such that people attribute a common meaning for all dimensions, which occurs automatically.

2.4. THE EFFECT OF CONSTRUAL LEVEL ON THE PERCEIVED PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTANCE

As explained earlier, there is a bidirectional connection between psychological distance and construal level suggesting the opposite direction of the effect. This is partly due to the generalized effect of psychological distance on construal level in situations where the amount of knowledge about the target turns out to be irrelevant. Hence, a target represented at high-level construct should be perceived as to be more distant temporally, spatially, socially and hypothetically. This section aims to explain bidirectional relationship between psychological distance and construal level from the reverse direction, that is the effect of construal level on psychological distance perceptions by providing studies on the effect of construal level on three different psychological distance dimensions: temporal distance, social distance and hypotheticality.

2.4.1. The Effect of Construal Level on Future and Past Temporal Distance

Abstract construal of a target is suggested to enhance the perceived temporal distance of that target in future and in past. One study (Liberman et al., 2007a) tested this proposition through four experiments each manipulating construal of events with different tools and then measuring perceived temporal distance of the event. One experiment in this research, construal level was manipulated by asking participants to explain either why a person would carry out particular actions (opening a bank account; registering a fitness class) (high-level construal inducement) or how the person would carry out those particular actions (low-level construal inducement). Following responding to why or how questions in manipulations, all participants in both conditions asked to state an estimation regarding the time of each relevant action. The results showed a significant difference in the enactment times across high-level condition and low-level condition suggesting that participants estimated more distant times for the performance of abstractly defined activities (why condition) than concretely defined activities (how condition). Extending these findings to activities conducted by the person itself, another experiment was conducted. The experiment asked participants to write down three goals they would like to attain in the following few months and to state either why or how they would accomplish each goal. At the end, participants were asked to give an estimated time of when they planned to start taking action for each of these goals. The results demonstrated a similar pattern for own actions of the person denoting that people plan the enactment time of a goal more distant in the future when the goal is construed abstractly as opposed to when the goal is construed concretely.

With the purpose of expanding the findings of Liberman et al. (2007a), one study investigated whether construal level affects actual implementation time of the goals along with the planned time of implementation McCrea et al., 2008). The study proposed that representing a task in a concrete (vs. abstract) way should shorten (vs. lengthen) the actual execution time of the task and reduce the likelihood of procrastination. The supportive evidence for this suggestion comes from implementation intention studies that demonstrate that generating concrete plans including details of how, when and where to perform a task makes the actual enactment of the planned task more possible and also moves the time of enactment to an earlier date (Gollwitzer, 1999). Accordingly, participants were given a take-home questionnaire assignment and asked to send their responses by e-mail in following next three weeks. The questionnaires were designed to induce either an abstract construal or concrete construal. For example, in one of the three experiments one questionnaire included 10 activities and participants either explained why a person would do a particular activity or how to do that activity (Liberman et al., 2007a). Procrastination was measured in relation to the announced deadline during the explanation of instruction to the participants. The completed questionnaires sent by participants were assessed in four time points, responses before deadline, responses on deadline, responses after deadline, and no responses. The analysis of the response times showed that participants induced with concrete construal responded significantly sooner than participants induced with abstract construal of the same task. In addition, this effect of construal level on response time was independent of participants' perceptions of importance, difficulty, pleasantness, convenience and interestingness of the task, measured both before and after the completion of the task by e-mail. Hence, construal representation of goals, tasks and activities affects not only estimated time of implementation but also actual enactment time of those activities, corroborating the effect of construal level on the perceived temporal distance.

The same effect holds for past temporal distance, as well. The work of Semin and Smith (1999) investigated whether abstract or concrete linguistic stimulus could influence recency of events retrieved back from the memory. Accordingly, the study suggested that age of past events in the memory is closely related to how abstractly they are communicated to others. Hence, events that are stored in the depths of memory due to their older age should be communicated more abstractly, while events from recent past should be communicated more concretely. The relationship is presumed to be held from the reverse direction suggesting that abstractness of language should also retrieval of certain types of events from memory. The study asked participants to recall four different types of events. However, the language of the instructions differed in terms its level of abstractness. Concrete instructions involved verbs describing specific interpersonal incidents such as to help, to tell the truth, to compete with; whereas abstract instructions consisted traits and adjectives that has more abstract nature such as helpful, honest, jealous. Difference in usage of interpersonal verbs or adjectives in the instructions served as retrieval cues leading to variance in recalled memories. As expected, abstract retrieval cues in instructions stimulated retrieval of much more older memories (8 months older) than did concrete retrieval cues in instructions. Findings of this research are consistent with and support the suggestion of CLT that construal level influences the way past temporal distance is perceived.

Overall, studies in this section depict that thinking abstractly (i.e. high-level construal) enhances perception of psychological distance such that abstract thinking helps people travel further into far future or far past. Moreover, this enhanced perception is not limited with estimation times of activities but relates also to actual performance times of the activities.

2.4.2. The Effect of Construal Level on Social Distance

As another dimension of psychological distance, social distance from a target is also affected by construal level of that target. One operationalization of social distance is politeness, theory of which suggests that people are prone to speak more politely to listeners that are socially distant (strangers) than ones that are socially close (acquaintances) (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Politeness has been proposed to both reflect and create social distance between individuals. In other words, politeness has been treated as a sign and an outcome of social distance. Hence, a two-way relationship between politeness and construal level has been suggested; politeness as an indicator of social distance affects construal level and it is affected by construal level. Stephan et al. (2010) examined the association between politeness and construal level and predicted a bi-directional relationship between them. The prediction that politeness as a reflection of social distance would expand construal level to more abstract levels was tested by examining how speakers' intention to be polite affected abstractness of their language. Participants given a scenario were asked to describe how a protagonist would address another person in a given situation (asking a classmate for notes) for each of the three conditions: a very polite way, or moderately polite way or rather impolite way. The language used in responses was analyzed based on linguistic categorization model (Semin and Fiedler, 1988) in terms of four categories of abstraction. The results showed that concrete terms were significantly more common in impolite condition while abstract terms were more commonly used in very polite and moderately polite conditions. The finding of this experiment indicates that politeness as an indicator of social distance enhances construal level of representations, particularly of speeches.

Additionally, the same study by Stephan et al. (2010) investigated the relationship in the opposite direction to explore the role of construal level of representations in the perceived social distance, namely perceived politeness. It was predicted that high-level construals would foster a person's perceived politeness, which reflected social distance. In order to test this prediction, the study manipulated participants' construal level by asking them to write down explanations for various behaviors of a character. Participants were asked to write down either dispositional reasons of why or situational or explanations of how the character would perform a behavior (e.g. "Maya is hurrying to a class. Please try to imagine the situation and write why (how) Maya is doing this.). Following the manipulation, imagining speaking to the character to request something participants wrote down how they would go about addressing that person and then rated on a scale the degree of politeness of their speech. The results supported the prediction showing that those who construed the character abstractly (why condition) addressed him/her in a more polite way than did those who construed the character on a low-level (how condition). These results indicate that rise in construal level promotes perceived social distance in the form of increased politeness.

Overall, construal level influences social distance dimension of psychological distance, as well. As people construe behaviors of a person more abstractly, they perceive social distance between them and the other person.

2.4.3. The Effect of Level of Construal on Hypotheticality

CLT suggests that concrete representation rather than abstract representation of a hypothetical event makes it appear more possible and increases its likelihood of turning into reality. As an example, a study tested whether abstract or concrete representation of a probable disease was related to estimations about the likelihood of getting the disease (Sherman et al., 1985). The study involved informing student participants about of a supposed disease on the campus in one of the two ways: either describing the concrete symptoms such as decrease in energy level, pain in muscles and headaches or explaining more abstract signs such as disorientation and nervous system malfunction. Then, participants were asked to imagine catching the disease and present their estimations about the likelihood of really catching the disease. The results demonstrated that participants who construed the disease at low-level of construal (concrete symptom condition) estimated the probability of catching the disease as being significantly higher than those who construed disease symptoms with abstract representation. In other words, concrete construal of an event makes it seem more probable to a person by decreasing the psychological distance to the event.

In brief, this section provided the evidence that construal level influences also hypotheticality dimension of psychological distance. Low-level construal, with its focus on specific and concrete features of a target, increases the perceived probability of any event; while high-level construal diminishes the perceived probability of any event.

2.5. COGNITIVE AND BEHAVIORAL CONSEQUENCES OF CONSTRUAL LEVEL

Previous sections so far provided a detailed description with respect to basics of construal level theory, interrelation between construal level and all dimensions of psychological distance. In addition to the interrelationship between construal level and psychological distance, research on the consequences of construal level theory has attracted wide interest among social psychology, marketing and organization scholars. Psychological distance from a target and hence the level at which the target is construed have an impact on people’s decision, feelings, and behaviors about that target. The following sections elaborate on the relevance of construal level with respect to predictions, preferences and decision-making and self-regulation, respectively.

2.5.1. Prediction and Construal Level

As discussed in the previous section, high construal level serves the purpose of going beyond the experiences that are here and now, as it entails representations with constant features conveying gist of available information and transferring these abstract representations into psychologically distant situations. Given this, predictions of psychologically distant events and situations rely on information that more schematic and simpler and reduce the weight given to contextual and situation-specific information through which the likelihood of conducting prediction biases increases (Gilbert and Wilson, 2007; Gilbert et al., 2004; Kahneman and Tversky, 1979). CLT predicts that psychological distance should amplify the prediction fallacies like planning fallacy, overconfidence, or durability bias, because prediction of distant events requires a schematic and coherent representation of the event with reduced attention to incidental details.

CLT proposes that as psychological distance from a target increases and as people apply abstracter construals on that target, they experience overconfidence in their predictions about the target. As to predictions that are based on a theory which hence are inherently abstract, temporal distance foster confidence in predictions of a theory. With increasing temporal distance, the effects of high-level construal would be more relevant and hence so would the relevance of a theory's principles. For instance, economic liberalism opposes state intervention by postulating that it leads to market distortion and inefficient results in the economy. Then, policy makers would have more confidence in predictions of the theoretical suggestions of economic liberalism that state intervention would engender inefficient markets in psychologically distant situations (in distant future than in near future, in physically distant markets than in near markets, for policies of other economies than their own economy, for hypothetical alternatives than actual situation).

The same overconfidence effect occurs with distant entities, as well. Normally, people have less information about other people than they have about themselves, which reasonably leads to the conclusion that a person should be less confident about behaviors of another person than his/her own behavior. However, CLT contradicts with this reasoning by suggesting that people should have more confident predictions about behaviors of another person than their own, as a result of boosting effect of high construal level on confidence in predictions. This view is in line with findings that people are more likely to attribute the causes to dispositional personality factors that are constant over time for behaviors of others than for their own behaviors (Jones and Nisbett, 1972). This view is also consistent with the finding that people perceive to know more about others than others know about themselves (Pronin et al., 2001). Overall, CLT suggests that the more distal the targets or entities, the more confident predictions people make about it.

This overconfidence effect relies on the argument that representations of distal entities and future events are oversimplified and grounded on schemas and symbols. People often ignore or fail to reflect contextual factors when making estimations and plans about future events. For the same reason, people tend to miscalculate the required time during planning; such that, they underestimate completion time of tasks by optimistically overlooking incidental details that might set them back from completing the task earlier than the estimated time (Buehler et al., 1994).

Research has provided empirical evidence for the association of construal level with confidence in prediction. Nussbaum et al. (2006) has examined students' degree of confidence in their predictions on their test performance either in the near future or in the distant future through four experiments. The study assumed (and actually supported this assumption in a pretest) that task related information that might influence performance, such as difficulty of the task or the format of the task, is a low-level information that should be more relevant for performance in near future than in distant future. On the contrary, the content of the task (e.g. subjects of the questions to be asked in a test) reflects high-level information which should be more relevant in abstract representation or psychologically distant situations because the content of task is seen more central and critical than format of the questions. Specifically, the study proposed that the information of task format should influence one's confidence in prediction of performance more in near future than in distant future. Participants of the study were told that they would take a test of 20 questions randomly selected from a 40-subject question list either in 15 minutes (low temporal distance) or one month later (high temporal distance). The confidence in prediction of the performance by asking students to appoint points ranging from 0 to 100 for each question they would answer, which would determine how much point they would gain if they correctly answer the question or lose if they answer the question wrong. Moreover, half of the participants were informed that the question type would be multiple-choice (easy task condition) and the other half were told that the question type would be open-ended (difficult task condition). Firstly, the results found a main effect of temporal distance on performance predictions such that those that would take the test one month later assigned higher points thus put more confidence in their confidence than those that would take the test sooner. More importantly, the information on test type affected predictions of performance in near future; such that, there were significant differences across test types with performance predictions in easy test condition being higher than performance predictions in difficult test condition. By contrast, for those that would take the test in the distant future there were no difference across easy and difficult test conditions. This suggests that abstract representation of the task diminishes the relevance of task type, which is low-level information, and did not influence confidence in predictions about the tasks. The results of all experiments in this study imply that people build more confidence in their predictions in temporally distant situations than in proximate situations.

Overall, the reason underlying the temporal distance and overconfidence is that psychological distancing enhances the impact of high-level construal information (general patterns, schemas, theories) and reduces the impact of low-level construal information (contextual and incidental features, atypical specifics) on prediction. Enhancing effect of psychological distance on overconfidence bias occurs as a result of two related processes: one includes the discounting of uncertainty about concrete information and the other process entails the overemphasizing certainty of high-level general information.

2.5.2. Preferences, Decision Making and Construal Level

The research concerning the relationship between construal level and preferences aims to understand how people evaluate choices, make decisions about psychologically proximal and distal options and how construal level influences evaluations and decisions.

Research on time discounting suggests that the value of an outcome depends on a person's temporal distance from the outcome; such that, its value reduces as the person's temporal distance from the outcome increases (Loewenstein and Prelec, 1992). CLT extends these studies by suggesting that the effect of temporal distance on value of an outcome is shaped by construal level of the outcome. More specifically, with increased temporal distance people place higher value on high-level construal related aspects (high-level value) of an outcome, whereas people give greater weight to aspects related to concrete construal (low-level value) of an outcome with reduced temporal distance. When high-level value of an outcome is perceived to be more favorable than its low-level value, attractiveness of the outcomes enhances with increased temporal distance, a case called as time augmentation. By contrast, if, compared to its high-level value, the low-level value is perceived to be more favorable, then the attractiveness is higher in near future, indicating time discounting (Liberman and Trope, 2003)

These effects of time discounting and time augmentation were illustrated with a study which asked students to make a choice between two tasks taken place either in a few minutes or few weeks later; one consisting of three consecutive boring main tasks each followed by an interesting filler task, other consisting of three consecutive interesting tasks each followed by a boring filler task (Trope and Liberman, 2000). Because the main task is more central aspect of the activity representing high-level construal; while the filler task is subordinate aspect of the activity representing low-level construal; it was predicted that the value of main task would take on more weight with increased temporal distance and filler task would be given greater weight with reduced temporal distance. Consistent with the prediction, people that would take the activity few weeks later placed greater value to the main task and preferred the alternative with an interesting main task over the alternative with a boring main task with boring filler task. Yet, for those who would take the activity soon, their preferences were affected to a lesser extent from the high-level or low-level aspects of the alternatives. This finding suggests that temporal distance increases the propensity of people to focus more on primary high-level aspects of the options.

Another aspect concerning preferences and decision making is about the relative values of desirability vs. feasibility of an outcome. Desirability indicates the value placed on the end-states as the result of an outcome. It indicates the extent to which the end result of an outcome is valued by person. Feasibility refers to means and mediums used to achieve an outcome and perceived ease or difficulty to achieve the end-state. For instance, desirability aspect of working on a project might be getting a promotion (end-state), while feasibility aspect might be spending substantial time and effort on certain tasks. Because there are several ways (feasibility aspect) to achieve an end-state (desirability aspect) and end-states are superior to means in long term, in situations of distant future, CLT expects desirability aspects of an outcome to outweigh feasibility aspects. However, with reduced temporal distance, feasibility concerns, relative to desirability concerns, are suggested to take on more weight and route preferences in the near future.

A study by Liberman and Trope (1998) tested this prediction with five experiments each with different designs. In one of these experiments, freshmen were allowed to choose two of the assignments that they were supposed to do during the semester. There were two sets of assignments, each set including four different assignments. One assignment among the first set of assignments was to be delivered during the class and submitted one week later (low temporal distance) and another assignment among the second set of assignments was to be delivered nine week later. In each set, the assignments had either an interesting topic ("stages of romantic love") or uninteresting topic ("historical trends in social psychology") and were either easy (in native language) or difficult (in English, foreign language for students). Desirability of taking the course (value of the end-state) pertains to its level of interestingness; while feasibility of taking the course (means to attain the end-state) relates to its level of difficulty. Desirability aspect of the course (degree of interestingness) reflects a high-level construal and feasibility aspect of the course (degree of difficulty) reflects a low-level construal; hence, the study expected desirability aspect to receive more weight in preferences for distant-future assignments and feasibility aspect to receive more weight in near-future preferences of assignments. Results revealed that with increased temporal distance (in distant future condition) students' preferences were affected less by difficulty of the assignment but more by level of interestingness of the assignment. In the near future, the pattern was opposite showing that preferences were affected more by the level of difficulty such that more students preferred easy tasks over difficult tasks in the near future. This means that in the distant future students made their choices by considering desirability of the task more than feasibility of the task. On the contrary, in near future, students were concerned more about the feasibility and the level of difficulty of the assignments. Moreover, further analyses also revealed that attractiveness of easy but uninteresting assignments reduced with time delay; while attractiveness of difficult but interesting assignments increased with time delay.

CLT also distinguishes effects of central vs. peripheral aspects of targets and entities in preferences and decisions. The theory suggests that weight given to central and incidental features of an outcome is a function of psychological distance. Psychological distancing is suggested to lead to overweighting of central features compared to incidental features while diminished distance is predicted to have the opposite effect. In one study participants were asked to imagine that they were going to buy a radio either next day or next year (Trope and Liberman, 2000). Then participants were asked to imagine that they purchased either a radio with good sound quality but with a poor radio clock or a radio with poor sound quality and with a good radio clock. Because the goal of buying a radio serves the goal of listening radio, the sound quality represents central features and high-level construal while a radio clock is a subordinate feature and hence represented at low-level construal. Hence, the study expected psychological distancing to increase weight placed on central feature relative to secondary feature. As predicted, even though the satisfaction for a radio with quality sound was higher in general, this effect was weaker for near future condition. In other words, those in distant future condition were more satisfied when they purchased a radio with good sound but poor clock relative to a radio with poor sound and good clock. Yet, those in near future condition cared less about poor sound quality such that the difference in satisfaction was much less between those getting a radio of quality sound but a poor clock and those getting a radio of poor sound and a quality clock. This suggests that psychological distancing enhances weight given to central features and reduces weight given to incidental features.

On the whole, this section demonstrated that construal level as a function of psychological distance considerably influences the way people assess alternatives and make decisions regarding these alternatives. With increased temporal distance and hence enhanced construal level, higher-level values emphasizing central aspects of alternatives becomes more conclusive on the preferences. When people make choices for far future, values attached to central and main aspects and desirability towards these aspects becomes more important. Whereas this effect lessens with reduced temporal distance, such that people focus on feasibility aspects of alternatives when making choices among alternatives in near future.

2.5.3. Self-Control and Construal level

One stream of research on construal level has focused on its association with self-control. As to this line of research, a situation that requires exerting self-control is described as a situation that involves two competing motivations that create a conflict. From the lenses of CLT, on one side, there is a motivation that represents high-level value and superordinate goals of the person, for example staying healthy; on the other side there is another motivation representing lower-level value and situational desires and temptations, for example eating a delicious cake. CLT proposes that exerting self-control requires one to construe the situation at high-level construal; while failing to exert self-control is a result of focusing on low-level construal. Accordingly, CLT posits that construing things with abstract representations make it easier to exert self-control.

This proposition integrates well with self-control literature. One group of scholars emphasize the need to resist continuous temptations and automatic urges to unfold self-control processes (Baumeister and Heatherton, 1996). For example, a dieter who decides to keep a balanced and healthy diet needs to resist the temptation on a continuous basis. Self-control, hence, requires one to scrutinize automatic behaviors in order to prevent the occurrence of these automatic behaviors. Another group of researchers suggest that self-control demands that one focus on long-lasting outcomes more than short-term and instant outcomes (Ainslie and Haslam, 1992). In this conceptualization of self-control, a person needs to forgo short-term temptations for the sake of long-term rewards. Accordingly, situations or features that highlight long-running consequences promotes self-control; whereas those that emphasize instant and proximal outcomes diminish self-control. As an example, self-control requires a dieter who decided to eat healthy and lose weight to focus on and act on this long-term outcome and to sacrifice the temptation to eat junks and high-calorie snacks which might be more satisfying in the short-term.

Fujita et al. (2006b) expands these conceptualizations of self-control by employing presumptions of CLT. As suggested by CLT, any event, target or action could be represented either by its high-level aspects, primary goals and central considerations or by its low-level aspects, subordinate goals, incidental considerations. From CLT perspective, self-control emerges as one follows up on high-level aspects of a situation rather than its low-level aspects. More specifically, one needs to focus on and act in agreement with high-level concerns of a given situation instead of low-level and immediate concerns. In order to test the argument that construing a situation or a target in abstract terms rather than in concrete terms would result in higher self-control, Fujita and colleagues (2006b) conducted a series of experiments. In one of these experiments, one group of participants were primed to use high-level construal by answering the question of "Why do I maintain good physical health?" and repeating answering why they would do that particular thing they wrote as an answer for four consecutive rounds. Other group of participants were primed with low-level construal by responding to the question of "How do I maintain good physical health?" and again keep on answering how they would that particular thing they wrote as an answer for four successive rounds. Then, self-control levels of the participants were measured by asking them to specify the amount of money they would pay immediately or in future in order to buy an item described in four scenarios (DVD player, movie passes for four movies, discount coupon to a bookstore, discount coupon to a restaurant). The study assumed that the amount of time required to receive the item was related to low-level value; whereas value of the item itself was the high-level aspect. Hence, a time delay was a secondary aspect and those valuing less time delay and paying immediate outcome much more than delayed outcomes. Hence, the self-control was measured by calculating the difference between amount paid for immediate and delayed purchase of the same outcome. The higher the difference in pay between immediate and delayed outcomes, the higher the value assigned to secondary time feature; indicating poorer self-control. As predicted, findings revealed that relative to those primed with high-level construal, participants primed with low-level construal valued immediate outcomes more than delayed outcomes. Results of other experiments in the same study employing different tools for manipulating construal level and operationalizing self-control showed a similar pattern indicating that abstract mindset results in greater self-control and helps one act in accordance with long-term interests.

Overall, given that self-control is about delaying or forgoing immediate outcomes for the sake of long-term benefits, high-level construal boosts self-control by directing the attention away from specific and instant attractiveness of short-term desires and temptations and instead by directing it to overarching and primary goals of the situation.

2.6. CONSTRUAL LEVEL THEORY IN ORGANIZATIONS

The previous part provided insight into construal level theory of psychological distance and described some of the studies in social psychology literature that present cognitive, behavioral, and perceptual consequences of construal level as a function of psychological distance. This part will introduce studies that have examined the role of construal level theory in the organizational context and by doing so extended implications of the theory beyond outcomes in social psychology. These recent studies have incorporated construal level theory and its implications in organizational behavior and management literatures and begun to offer promising routes that enhance our understanding in notions of leadership, vision communication, ethics, justice, change and innovation. This section firstly views the studies that have employed construal level as the outcome of organizational phenomena, in other words the studies that have attempted to explore how various organizational factors might influence construal levels of organizational members. Subsequently, this section presents prior research that has leveraged construal level as the antecedent to several organizational phenomena, in other words research that has investigated the role of organizational members' construal level on several organizational and job-related outcomes.

2.6.1. Organization-Related Antecedents of Construal Level

Given that construal level is affected by changes in psychological distances, any organizational conditions that introduce such changes might impact upon construal level of organizational members. For example, geographic distribution of organizational parts and groups, cultural attributes, size of the organization may well be influencing the psychological distance across members and between members and the organization and hence affecting construal level of members.

A study by Chen and Li (2018) developed a scale that measures the psychological distance between employees and their organization based on subjective perception of employees. Suggesting that the direct relationship between members and organization is determined by members' experiences and interactions with their organization, the study treated employee-organization relationship as a multidimensional process and hence attempted to entail factors that influence both realistic relationship relying on social, physical and, temporal distances and psychological relationship based on emotional ties and expectations of employees. Using qualitative methods, the study first identified the dimensions that determine psychological distance between an organization and its members by combining internal factors based on personal forces and external factors based on work attributes. Accordingly, six factors came out as the psychological distance dimensions: "*experiential distance, behavioral distance, emotional distance, cognitive distance, spatial-temporal distance, and objective social distance*". A following quantitative study surveying 554 employees provided support for reliability and validity of the scale. In a following work, this scale was employed to explore the degree of psychological distance currently hold by 315 Chinese employees and their organization (Li and Chen, 2019). The study used four categories to identify the degree of distance/closeness perceived by employees: an integrated relationship describes the relationship with the lowest distance suggesting very close and strongly attached type of relationship, loyalty relationship represents more distant relationship but indicating moderate levels of trust in and engagement with the organization, existence relationship refers to an employee motivation that is highly extrinsic and a relationship with almost no emotional ties and closeness, lastly exclude relationship represents the

most distant type of relationship where members feel intense detachment and withdrawal intention. The results of the study portrayed only few employees (2.64%) experiencing an integrated relationship based on close ties with their organization, and almost one-third of them experiencing exclude relationship characterized limited bonds and high turnover intention. The most important take-away from works of Chen and Li is that factors that create distance between an organization and its members are diverse in nature and many in number.
For their study, an employees' perception that whether they see a future in the organization (experiential distance), that they perceive a value similarity with the organization (cognitive distance), that they have emotional ties with the organization (emotional distance), that they work for the good of their organization (behavioral distance), that they observe a similarity with others in the same group (Objective social distance) all determine the level of psychological distance they perceive, such that the lower these perceptions, the higher the psychological distance.

In addition to the factors suggested by Chen and Li (2018) predicting psychological distance at organizational settings, power has been posited as another antecedent enhancing perception of psychological distance and hence influencing construal levels of organizational members (Smith and Galinsky, 2010; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). One stream of research on CLT has suggested and demonstrated power as a significant antecedent of cognitive abstraction (Smith and Trope, 2006). Accordingly, high power leads to an increase in perceived psychological distance, because increased sense of power instills feelings of distinctiveness, individuality and independence from others, all of which create a situation where power-holder experiences a social distance from others (Magee and Smith, 2013). Experienced psychological distancing as a result of feeling in power brings about more abstract information processing where power holder takes a step back to see the bigger picture and grasps the gist of the stimuli with a distal perspective (Smith and Trope, 2006). Roles with high power not only induces but also requires an abstract cognition in order to maintain managerial roles such as focusing on superior goals, making plans for future and seeing the bigger picture. For example, in one of the experiments by Smith and Trope (2006) testing the effect of power priming on construal level, participants were assigned to one of the three power conditions: high power condition (writing about an instance them having power over others), low power condition (writing about an instance others having power over them), control condition (writing about an instance irrelevant to power). Then, participants were asked to complete a categorization task where participants rated the extent to which an item (e.g. tractor) represented a general category (e.g. vehicle). This was repeated for three categories and 18 items in each category. The level of abstraction was the determined by the extent to which atypical items (e.g. tank item for vehicle category) were rated as representative member of a given category; the more inclusive a category with regard to atypical members (increased category breadth), the higher the abstraction level. As predicted, those in high-power condition, compared to those in low-power condition, indicated a higher number of atypical items as representing a given category suggesting that they included more atypical items to a given category. Moreover, again those induced with high power were more likely to assess atypical items as more representative than were those with low-power inducement. Other experiments in the work of Smith and Trope (2006) have shown that high power is associated with focusing on primary aspects, perceiving coherence in stimuli in order to obtain the gist of stimuli, and construing actions at higher levels.

Social distance theory of power suggests that the effect of power does not remain limited with increased abstraction in information processing (Magee and Smith, 2013). This approach proposes that increased abstraction in cognition associated with increased social distance further influence powerholders' behaviors such as enhanced engagement with own goals, greater focus on own internal states such as desires, feelings and needs (Smith and Galinsky, 2010), facilitated goal pursuit and emphasis on high-level goals, improved self-control, increased consistency between values and behaviors (Magee and Smith, 2013)

All these associations between power and its cognitive and behavioral outcomes are central to organizations because organizations are built upon systematic differences of power and hierarchy (Wiesenfeld and Brockner 2012). For instance, the extent of resources controlled or decision authority held by an organizational member as a function of work and organizational roles shape the degree of power possessed by the member. Hence, the implications of increased power and associated social distance on the cognition of organizational members appeal the interests of organizational scholars. For example, Magee et al. (2010) examined the language used in news reports on September 11 attacks. The news reports included quotes of people with varying power such as the President, Mayor or ordinary citizens. The study expected that those with high position power should be positioned in a more distant situation from the event leading them to experience social distance and hence construe the event in a more abstract manner compared to those with low power. As predicted, linguistic analysis of quotes in news reports revealed that people at higher positions and holding greater power used more abstract language in their statements indicating that increase in power leads to more abstraction as reflected in spoken language. Another study (Reyt and Wiesenfeld, 2015) examined language used in professional e-mails sent across employees and supervisors in order identify level of construal employed at work. The linguistic analysis of language in sent e-mails based on Linguistic Categorization Model (Semin and Fiedler 1988) found a positive association between hierarchical rank and construal level of sent e-mails indicating that those in higher-power positions formed their e-mails by using more abstract terms compared to those in lower power positions. These studies together point out that power emerges as a significant antecedent of construal level that shapes cognition of organizational members through creating social distance.

In addition, technological mediums might enhance psychological distance perceptions and thus influence construal level of members. Increased used of technological tools has transformed the usual way of doing work as in the case of virtual work teams and groups. Virtual work groups and teams refer to a group members of which are distributed geographically, have socially different characteristics such as different culture or language, and use technological mediums such as computer to communicate. Hence, inherent characteristics of virtual teams creating increased sense of distance in terms of location, time, culture, and language are suggested to enhance perceived psychological distance and thereby cause members of virtual teams to have higher-level construals (Wilson et al., 2013). The resulting abstract construal then is suggested to lead virtual team members to represent their colleagues, their team and themselves in a more abstract manner. For example, a virtual team member should have a more schematic and general view of others in the team that might lead to a homogeneity perception across all members. In other words, with increased psychological distance a virtual team member might be more prone to see distant others similar to each other exhibiting coherent traits and less able to distinguish differences across them. Similarly, members are expected to use stable and general factors like traits more than they use situational factors to make evaluations about distant members.

Besides distribution of members across locations, distribution of work tasks across roles can also influence construal level of employees. Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) suggested that ever increasing use of mobile work via tablets, laptops, and smartphones demands that workers be online anytime and anywhere. This new way of doing work blurs the distinction between work roles and social roles resulting in integrated and overlapped roles across domains, for example, checking and responding to work-emails at home while doing daily chores. The resulting role integration is suggested to reduce temporal, spatial and social boundaries between work roles and home roles by increasing transitions across these roles. On the contrary, in case of role segmentation workers delimit between roles by emphasizing the separation of time, space and social role boundaries across roles. The study proposes that role integration produces conflicting demands requiring attention of the worker simultaneously. In order to allocate limited cognitive attention optimally, the worker needs adapt his/her cognitive processes by renouncing attention to contextual and role-domain factors but instead by focusing more on overarching and encompassing stimuli that might serve demands of both domains. As a result, role integration forces workers to adjust their mental mindset to a high-level construal. They tested the prediction that increased role segmentation is associated with abstract construal level with three studies. In one of the studies, they examined the work e-mail of Enron workers and managers and coded abstraction level of language used in sent e-mails. They also recorded whether e-mails had been sent within or outside of working hours. The higher the amount of sent emails outside the working hours, the higher the temporal transitions the worker experienced across roles. As predicted, those sending e-mails outside the working hours were found to be using more abstract language in their e-mails. In the second study, the authors replicated previous study by manipulating the degree of role segmentation experienced by workers. Accordingly, participants were asked to describe work activities that were either overlapping and integrated or distinct and separated. Then, participants rated their own work-domain construal level. The scale measuring work-domain construal level was developed by the authors of the study and it provides 18 common knowledge work activities with two descriptions, one describing why the work activity is done (high-level construal) and the other describing how the work activity is done (low-level construal). As expected, those in role integration condition described their work with high-level terms by focusing on more central motives underlying the work activity; whereas those in role segmentation condition preferred low-level terms that emphasized how the work activity was conducted. Overall, the study of Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) provided evidence for the effect of role integration across domains associated with mobile technologies on the construal levels of organizational members.

Taken together all the studies viewed in this section, it is suggested that any organizational factor that influences objective and subjective psychological distance perceptions of organizational members also affects members' construal level. These organizational factors include the amount of unequal power distribution across levels and members within organizations, hierarchy between members, geographically widespread distribution of organizational members from each other and their distance from the organization, job designs that require the use of mobile tools for work purposes outside working hours.

2.6.2. Organization-Related Consequences of Construal Level

As depicted in the preceding section, factors inherent in the structure of the organizations such as hierarchical structures distributing power differentially, mobile working outside working hours causing integration across roles and distributed work teams enhancing distance among members all could influence perceived psychological distance and by extension shape construal levels of employees. However, construal levels of members could also influence their decisions, evaluations, attitudes, and behaviors with respect to leadership, fairness, organizational change and task-related issues, which are explained next.

2.6.2.1. Construal Level and Ethics and Justice

Recent empirical findings have successfully implemented tenets of construal level into ethical evaluations and fairness perceptions of people. A study investigated the moderating role of employees' construal level on the relationship between experienced workplace incivility and instigated incivility (Rosen et al., 2016). Workplace incivility is defined as "low intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (Andersson and Pearson, 1999, p. 457) and includes negative and rude behaviors like making insulting comments, demeaning and ridiculing others at workplace. The study argued that experienced incivility harms self-regulatory resources which are much needed to fight against the urge to reciprocate experienced incivility in kind. In turn, diminished self-regulatory resources will make it more difficult for person to regulate his/her behavior in accordance with interpersonal norms and overcome the impulse of acting uncivil in return, which ultimately stimulates the person to initiate incivility. Importantly, the study expected the heightening effect of reduced self-regulatory resources on instigated incivility to be moderated by construal level of the person. Accordingly, negative effects of diminished self-control on manifested incivility could be offset when the person is motivated to do so. One source of this motivation to resist the temptation to respond to experienced incivility by acting uncivilly was argued to be the construal level of the person. Two reasons were put forward for this moderating effect of construal level. First, construal level maintains one to be in connection with his/her higher order norms and primary goals that help them to behave consistent with these goals across situations. Generally, people desire to maintain positive and stable interpersonal relationships with other (Baumeister and Leary, 1995) and enhance their positive self-view (Leary, 2007). A person with high-construal level will be more likely to construe workplace experiences and their reactions to these experiences by considering these superior concerns (i.e. maintaining positive relationships and enhancing positive self-view) more than do people with low-level construal who most probably evaluate workplace experiences with contextual and situational terms. Moreover, construing actions with high construal level makes decisions taken by a person to be more in tune with the goals and values that characterize desired self-concept of the person (Freitas et al., 2008). Second, relying on the effect of high-level construal on exerting higher self-control in response to situational impulses as discussed earlier (Fujita et al., 2006b), it is reasonable to expect those with high-level construal to cope better with negative effects of depleted self-regulatory resources, for high-level goals and concerns like maintaining positive relationships would be more salient for these people. Overall, the study predicted that the exacerbating effect of experienced incivility on performed incivility via reduced self-control would be lower for those with dispositionally high-level construal. The study tested this prediction with experience sampling methods whereby participants rated on a daily basis their self-control levels, experienced incivility and instigated incivility three times a day for 10 consecutive days. Analysis of data of 70 employees with 482 data points revealed that experiencing workplace incivility reduced attentional resources and self-control and consecutively raise the tendency to respond by behaving in an uncivil manner. More importantly, even though they suffer from diminished self-control as much as those with lower construal level, people with high-construal levels were better able to cope with negative effects of diminished self-control and resist the impulsive desire to reciprocate with incivility leading them to behave in civil manners in response to experienced incivility.

One study, drawing on the impact of psychological distance and hence construal level on fairness perceptions as mentioned earlier (Eyal et al., 2008) suggested that psychological distance from leaders would influence the way unethical decisions of leaders are judged (Tumasjan et al., 2011). More specifically, the study argued that moral transgressions committed by a leader is judged more harshly and leaders are rated more unethical when employees (evaluators) are psychologically distant (high social distance) than when employees are psychologically close (low social distance). This prediction has been relied upon the finding of Eyal et al. (2008; 2009) which revealed that people judge moral transgressions of other people more severely with increasing psychological distance, because psychological distancing enables evaluator to access values, which are abstract and broader representations, more easily and apply those values to moral transgressions more readily. Parallel to this finding, the study expected moral violations of the leaders to be assessed more severely with increased social distance because increased social distance enables greater access to one's values and moral schemas. Moreover, it was suggested that the effect of psychological distance on ethicality ratings of an unethical leadership practice is mediated by moral reasoning which reflects the extent to which evaluator considers about the motives of leader and incidental aspects underlying moral transgression. More specifically, the study expected socially proximate employees to regard and deliberate on situational forces and circumstantial information more to explain leader's moral misconduct than socially distant employees. A scenario study was employed to test these predictions. The scenario depicted a leader listening in the talk of one of his/her subordinate with someone else on the feeling of tingling and numbness on her hand. The leader knowing that this might be the symptom of an illness (carpal tunnel syndrome) stays silent does not recommend that the subordinate visit a doctor. Half of the participants were asked to imagine that the leader was as someone they knew (low social distance) and the other half were asked to imagine that the leader was someone they did not have acquaintance (high social distance). Then participants were instructed to assess the ethical leadership of the leader and moral reasoning on which evaluators judged the basis of the leader's decision. Lastly, participants rated LMX quality with this hypothetical leader. The analysis revealed that participants in socially distant condition judged the leader less ethical than did those in socially proximate condition. Moreover, socially proximate evaluators relied more on moral reasoning than socially distant evaluators showing that individuals are more likely to consider motives and intentions underlying the moral transgression of leader when they are socially close to leader. The findings also showed that the indirect effect of social distance on ethical leadership ratings occurs via moral reasoning. Lastly, ethical leadership ratings were positively associated with LMX perceptions of evaluators. Overall, this study explains why after a moral transgression a close leader such as one in the same social group or in the same company might be perceived less unethical compared to another leader who is more distant. People judge a leader committing misconduct in a less severe way when they better know the leader than when they are less familiar with him/her even though the transgression is exactly the same. CLT offers an explanation as to why people might assume a positive bias for a leader that is socially distant as people consider more about circumstantial forces and situational motives that might drive the leader for committing a misconduct. Hence, the perception regarding ethicality of a leader is substantially influenced by social distance from the leader and from the construal level at which morality of leaders' behaviors are construed.

CLT also offers useful insight for the relationship that is the opposite of the one mentioned in the study of Tumasjan et al. (2011), namely the relationship between leader judgments of employee moral transgressions. Accordingly, a study suggested CLT as a framework to understand the difference across leaders in their representation of moral norms (van Houwelingen et al., 2015). The study argues that people represent moral norms either as a guideline for proper behavior or as a set of standards that limit their freedom and CLT shapes the way people construe moral norms. More specifically, hinging on the role of high-construal level in the influence of moral principles and values on moral judgments (Eyal et al., 2008; Eyal et al., 2009) and in increasing the tendency of complying with norms (Ledgerwood and Callahan, 2012), the study suggests that high construal level should instill a positive view of norms and; hence, increase the willingness of leaders to enforce moral norms against transgressions of employees. By contrast, low-level construal is suggested to foster a negative view of norms, which hinders leaders' willingness to impose these norms in response to moral employee misconduct. The study tested its arguments with two experimental studies and one field study. In the experimental studies, participants were first primed with either a high construal level or low construal level. In experimental studies, participants were positioned as a mid-level manager of a company. Participants interacted with a subordinate either intentionally or unintentionally committed a misconduct through a simulation. Then, the willingness of participants as managers to enact disciplinary action in response to transgression was measured. In the field study, dispositional construal level of low and middle-level managers was measured. Then, they were asked to think about an incident where a subordinate of theirs committed misconduct either intentionally or unintentionally and then describe their reactions to this instance. The results of all three studies showed that leaders with high-level construal are more likely to punish employee transgression compared to leaders with low-level construal. More specifically, leaders with high-level construal punish intentional transgression more severely than unintentional transgression. In contrast, leaders with low-level construal enact severer discipline in response to unintentional transgression than to intentional transgression. On the whole, these studies suggest that construal level of leaders is a decisive factor for enacting moral rules in response to moral misbehavior. Not all managers are willing to deliver discipline in response to each and every wrongdoing. Implementation of moral rules and enactment of disciplinary action are mostly related to the ability of managers to represent amoral incidents at an abstract level.

Given this link between psychological distance/construal level and ethical and justice perceptions, another study examined how people perceive fairness of explanations with regard to a negative organizational incident (Carter et al., 2019). The study claimed that the perceived fairness of a negative message depends on the interaction between level of construal of informative content and construal level of observers. More specifically, people with high-level construal are suggested to perceive higher fairness when accounts include the reasons of why the organization undertakes a negative action; whereas observers with low-level construal are proposed to have higher fairness perceptions when explanations account for the mediums of how organization implements the action. Testing these predictions in two studies, the paper found that both situational construal level and dispositional work-based construal level of people influenced their fairness perceptions of a negative organizational incident stated either with high-level terms or low-level terms. When accounts of negative action are presented with high-level construal, observers with high-level construal perceive greater fairness than do those with low-level construal. Similarly, explanations on how the negative action is implemented prompt fairness perceptions for those with low-level construal more than that of high-level construal.

Studies explained above mostly emphasize how construal level of organizational members shape the way they judge situations involving perceptions of ethics and organizational justice or how readily they apply moral values and norms in response to moral violations. One study taking a step further attempted to understand whether construal level of organizational members influence the extent to which they discriminate among others (Milkman et al., 2012). The study draws on previous findings that abstract construals' emphasis on general categories and global dispositional features (e.g. traits) to evaluate entities makes people with higher-level construal more likely to stereotype others by emphasizing similarities between entities and social categories (McCrea et al., 2012). Relying on this association between abstract construal and stereotyping, Milkman and others expected temporal distancing and by extension abstract construal to increase discrimination against women and minorities. This is because thinking about events in distant future, relative to near future, directs one's attention to the desirability considerations so that the person questions whether he/she would really like to do the activity or whether to do the activity at all. Thinking about immediate events on the other hand emphasizes feasibility considerations by directing one's attention to how to the event rather than whether it is worth doing or not. Drawing on association of abstract construal with making broad categorization, tendency to stereotype and focusing on desirability aspects, authors posits what they called "temporal discrimination effect". More specifically, the temporal distancing expected to increase the likelihood of discrimination against women and minorities. A field experiment tested this hypothesis by sending e-mails to 6000 professors supposedly by a student asking for an interview either the same day or next week. Student names in the e-mails were selected to signal about race (Hispanic, African American, Indian, Caucasian, or Chinese) and gender (man and woman). The dependent variables were whether professors returned request e-mail, whether they accepted meeting. Controlling for race and gender of professors, the analyses revealed a general tendency to respond less to minority or female students than Caucasian make students; yet this tendency was much higher in distant future condition (meeting next week) than near future condition (meeting the same day). Moreover, the same pattern was also observed even when the professor had the same race with the student. Similarly, females and minority students compared to Caucasian males were accepted less in distant future condition than in near distant future. These findings suggest that temporal distancing and correspondingly higher construal levels increase not only the access to stereotypical categorization but also the tendency to act on these stereotypes and discriminate against minority groups.

On the whole, review of the studies on the role of members' construal level with in shaping both their perceptions and reactions in response to moral instances. The basic premise of these studies relies on the previous finding that high-construal level increases the access to overarching and broader moral norms a person has.

Consistent with this premise, people evaluate a moral violation conducted by an organizational member, be it a leader or follower, more harshly and apply moral norms more strongly when they represent the moral violation at high-construal level than when they construe the event at low-construal level.

2.6.2.2. Innovation and Change

Research has associated increased psychological distance and abstract construal level with higher levels of creativity and innovative behavior. Accordingly, people produce better results in providing insight, generating creative solutions and analytical problem solving when they imagine performing these tasks in the distant future than in the near future (Förster et al., 2004). Similarly, people generated more creative outputs when they did on behalf of others (increased social distance) than on behalf of themselves (reduced social distance).

A comparable link in organizational context was explored by the study of Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) that examined the association of abstract construal with exploratory learning. Learning in organizational setting occurs either via exploitative activities which include using prior experiences and relying on experiential processes in order to make improvements, or exploratory activities that is based on trying out with innovative ideas and relying on cognitive processes to come up with brand new outcomes. Considering these differences in processes used and the scope of alternatives one comes up with at the end, exploratory learning is more relevant to creativity and innovation than exploitative learning (Levinthal and March, 1993). Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) suggests that owing to the requirement of exploratory learning to use cognitive processes to generate alternatives, cognitive representations might influence the extent to which people take part in exploratory learning activities. More specifically, their study posits that high-level construal should be positively associated with exploratory learning because abstract representations could facilitate moving beyond current experience and thinking over hypothetical alternatives with a focus on central rather than peripheral aspects, all of which are critical to exploratory learning. In an experimental design, construal levels of working participants were manipulated through generating either overarching categories (abstract construal) or specific exemplars (concrete construal) for a set of items. Exploratory learning behavior of participants were assessed by an information search task which measured distant searching behavior through selecting unfamiliar options despite associated costs. Results revealed that inducement of abstract construal produces more distant searching behavior and thus more exploratory activities. Moreover, high-level construal leads to greater exploratory learning intention and this greater motivation for exploratory learning mediated the positive relationship between abstract construal and exploratory behavior. The paper also tested the same prediction on a field study that measured work-domain construal levels of employees and the extent which employees engaged in exploratory learning behaviors at two different time points. The results were parallel to those in experimental study suggesting that having abstract construal promotes exploratory learning behavior of employees. This finding is consistent with the previous research on people's preferences on learning from distant vs. near sources. Particularly, when people construe a problem more abstractly, they expand the span of resources from which they search the required information and use resources that are more distant (Kalkstein et al., 2016). This evidence supports the finding that abstract construal promotes exploratory activities which also require willingness of learners to go beyond existing experiences in quest for discovering unfamiliar alternatives in distant places.

Relatedly, this link between abstract construal and innovation might have implications for how organizational change is perceived and construed by organizational members. Drawing on the link between higher-level construal and preference for change goals over stability goals (Packer et al., 2013), a study investigated how responses of organizational members to organizational change differ as to whether the change was depicted in high-level construal or low-level construal. Given this association between high-level construal and inclination towards change, Chen and Wiesenfeld (as cited in Wiesenfeld et al., 2017) expected high-level construal to reduce resistance to change. They tested this prediction in a field experiment whereby two schools went through a systematic change. The study implemented a preprogrammed two-staged training program in order to get teachers ready for the upcoming change. One stage of the training was designed with an emphasis on a high-level construal including primary reasons and goals for the change and the other stage characterized with a low-level construal focusing on how the change would be carried out. The order of stages was reversed in schools such that one school took high-construal training first while other school took low-construal training first. Right after first stage, attitudes of teachers were assessed. The results showed that teachers who were delivered high-construal level training at the first stage had higher levels of work-based construals and lower levels of resistance to change compared to teachers receiving low-construal level training at the first stage.

Additionally, the study of Kraft (2016) extends the research on the association of construal level and attitudes towards change by investigating how the content of leader appeals of change influences members' change readiness. In particular, the study, building on Berson and Halevy's (2014) construct of construal fit reviewed in the next section, suggests that members should experience greater change readiness when there is construal fit between content of the leader appeals (with high-level terms vs. low-level terms) and psychological distance with leader (distant in the hierarchy vs. close in the hierarchy). This prediction was tested with a scenario depicting an organizational change and assigning participants a role that was either close or distant to the board. Participants read leader's communication of change explaining either the purpose of the change with an emphasis to the distant future (high-level condition) or principles and systems to be used at the time (low-level condition). The results revealed that members distant to the leader experienced greater readiness in terms of managerial support when the leader's change communication was in abstract terms than when it was in concrete terms. Similarly, members with lower distance to leader reported greater readiness with respect to managerial support when leader appeal was in low-level terms than when it was in high-level terms.

All in all, findings of above studies suggest that underpinnings of CLT could be employed in order to boost the effectiveness of organizational change initiatives as well as to promote members' engagement in innovation and creativity.

2.6.2.3. Leadership

Recent studies have begun to delve into the association construal level with leadership. One stream of research on construal level and leadership focuses on how construal level of leaders might shape their representation of events and hence, shape reactions to these events and thus their strategic decisions. Other stream of research focus on relational nature of leadership, namely how psychological distance between followers and leaders might affect construal level of parties and effectiveness of leadership practices and perceptions of followers. The key take-away from these studies is that both leaders' and followers' construal levels have significant consequences for employee attitudes such as follower motivation, commitment, engagement with leader's messages and also for strategic decisions taken by the leader.

The first stream of research on the association of construal level with strategic leadership features studies exploring the ways how leader construal level could influence strategic decisions and as a consequence actions of the organization. A recent conceptual paper (Schilling, 2018) has theorized on the cognitive processes that enable leaders to formulate great (i.e. distinctive from common strategies) visionary strategies that cannot be imitated by others. Abstraction has been offered as one cognitive process that helps leaders to generate visionary strategies. As vision creation requires one to take a comprehensive perspective to grasp the bigger picture and trends of the industry, abstraction per se could facilitate this process. Production processes of many products and services have been fairly complex and sophisticated and so do the market dynamics affecting operations and actions of the companies in the industry. Hence, leader to create great strategies are proposed to need higher-levels of abstraction in order to see bigger picture in the industry. Abstraction liberates the mind from elaborating on situational details and focuses it on a set of features that are more central than others. It is proposed that leaders who attend to higher-level aspects of the market, could take a broader perspective and recognize the bigger pattern, and hence better identify larger trends in future technologies and customer preferences. Higher-level mindset would be less diverted by the prevailing details and incidents in the industry and focus the attention on long-term implications of forces in the market and as a result make better investment decisions.

Supporting the above proposition on the association between abstraction and creating visionary strategies, a study by Reyt and Rabier (2017) analyzed speeches of CEOs in earning calls as a signal of CEO's construal level and investigated whether abstractness of these speeches had any impact on forecasts of financial analysts on future company performance. They expected that CEOs using more abstract expressions would be perceived as more visionary than CEOs using concrete statement and this perception would lead to better forecasts of the company performance by financial analysts. The results supported their prediction such that financial analysts provided higher forecasts for companies whose CEOs used more higher-construal level terms than those with CEOs using lower-construal level terms.

Moreover, Barreto and Patient (2013) investigated how psychological distance of managers from an ambiguous shock affecting the organization influences managers' perceiving the shock as either threat or opportunity. In particular, when managers and their departments are closer to the shock, what they might lose and hence risk perception with respect to the shock become more salient. This makes people to focus on negative aspects that might impact them very soon and feasibility aspects such as capability perception; hence, perceive the shock as a threat rather than an opportunity. This prediction was tested on a group of managers of an energy company facing a shock (i.e. deregulation) whereby some parts of the company were affected by the shock and some were not. As predicted, those managers at a larger distance to the shock (i.e. working at the parts of the company that were not directly affected by the shock) interpret the shock more as an opportunity and less as a threat compared to those managers at a lower distance to the shock. The findings of this study indicate that managerial interpretation of an existing environmental factor as an opportunity or as a threat varies according to the psychological distance to that factor and thereby how it is cognitively represented by managers and to which parts the managerial attention is given.

Furthering the implications of above-mentioned work on the association between managers' psychological distance from external cues and how they construe and interpret them, a recent study has related the cognitive styles of top executives to the way they make strategic decisions. The study has offered a conceptual outline which integrates construal level theory into upper echelons theory in order to delineate the effect of information processing style of top executives on how they take strategic decisions and how effectively implement these decisions (Steinbach et al., 2019). According to upper echelons theory, executives vary in how they process information to make strategic decisions and so does the extent to which they use different information filtering mechanisms (i.e. limited field of vision, selective perception, interpretation through cognitive filters). Authors argue that the way information-filtering processes are implemented is closely related to construal level of executives. Hence, similar circumstances and cues relevant to strategic decisions could be interpreted differently as a function of construal level of the executive and lead to different strategic decisions. For example, an executive with a high-level construal is suggested to have a broader field of vision focused on distal goals, selectively perceive the information that is relevant to superordinate goals and interpret the information through its valence and desirability for the company's future; whereas an executive with a low-level construal is suggested to search for information with a narrower scope based on immediate goals, selectively perceive the concrete information more relevant to feasibility of reachable strategies, and interpret the obtained information through feasibility concerns. Authors differentiate between "*primary construal level*" determined by dispositional attributes and consistent in a given domain and "*current construal level*" actively used in a given moment. Owing to their sophisticated nature, strategic decisions might require executives to acquire both high-level and low-level construal depending on the situation. Hence, authors present the concept of construal shift that refers to the transition from an abstract information processing to a concrete one and as such enables executives to match their current construal level to demands of the present situation. Executives are suggested to differ in their abilities to make instant and smooth transitions between different construals in order to regulate their current construal level in line with situational demands, namely construal flexibility. This ability includes both recognizing one's current construal level used in a given time and being skilled at reading cues to identify when to make a construal shift and performing the shift as well. More importantly, the study demonstrate how construal shift should be implemented by using an acquisition process. For example, executives are suggested to employ a high-construal level in the early stages of a preacquisition because high-construal level helps them to adopt a broader perspective through which they could broaden the scope of targets to choose among and better assess whether the acquisition of a target matches well with company's strategic goals. On the contrary, in the late stages of preacquisition executives are suggested to adopt a low-construal level so that they could efficiently focus on feasibility and practicality issues such as whether two firms can effectively work together, what acquisition price would represent an adequate value given assets, resources, liabilities of a target. Taken together, this stream of research points out significant roles leader construal level could play in shaping how they process and act on external information affecting the organization, and which ultimately determine strategic actions and responses of organizations.

As representing the second stream of research on the association of construal level and relational aspect of leadership; Popper (2013) conceptualized psychological distance between leaders and followers as a significant factor shaping effectiveness of leadership and followers' attitudes towards the leader. Building on the fundamental association between psychological distance and abstraction, he theorizes that followers perceive psychologically distant leaders with greater abstraction and using general categories with fewer specific features whereas psychologically proximate leaders are described with more specific details and more categories by followers. This postulation is line with findings of Shamir (1995) which showed that followers choose to describe close leaders that they have direct contact by using more adjectives and more behavioral features; while distant leaders with no contact are described by followers using fewer adjectives and with traits and schematic features. Moreover, Popper proposes that leader's psychological distance influences the extent to which followers commit fundamental attribution error, namely that people attribute more weight to leader's personality (internal factor) and less weight to circumstances in which the leadership unfolds (external factor) in order to explain a certain situation. This is because when leaders are distant, followers have less information about the circumstantial factors that might impact upon the leader's decisions and it takes less cognitive effort to explain the situation with what comes to mind first, that is the leader's personality, than to ponder about the secondary and concrete details about the situation or circumstantial constraints affecting the outcome. Likewise, Popper expects a similar pattern for leader's behaviors and suggests that leader's personality traits receive greater weight over leader's behaviors when followers evaluate a leader who are psychologically more distant. Overall, the conceptualization of Popper depicts a thorough relationship between psychological distance of leaders from followers and the way leader-related information processed by followers. Followers evaluate more distant leaders, relative to proximate leaders by representing them in more abstract terms and general categories, giving greater weight to leaders than to circumstances to explain outcomes, overestimating the effect of dispositional traits of leader compared to conditional behaviors.

Confirming the proposition of Popper (2013) that psychological distance between leaders and followers influences how leadership practices are construed by followers, the study of Berson et al. (2015) also extends Popper's work by proposing an insightful framework conceptualizing how psychological distance between leaders and followers influences the effectiveness of the visions and goals communicated by leaders. The study introduces the concept of construal fit, namely, the fit between construal level of messages (i.e. appeals communicating visions and goals) and psychological distance between leaders and followers. Authors clarify the distinction between visions and goals which are two communication tools used by leaders. Visions and goals appear to have similar positive effects on employee performance and motivation yet they function through different mechanisms. Particularly, visions convey future-oriented aspirations of an organizational goals (Conger and Kanungo, 1998) conveying desirable common goals (what to accomplish) by addressing superordinate purpose of these shared goals (why to accomplish). Because vision emphasizes values and distal end-states, its content is characterized by abstract, superordinate, comprehensive features. The mechanism underlying the effect of visions on promoting motivation and performance of employees relates to enhancement of self-concept and emotions of followers by providing meaning and aspirations (Shamir et al., 1993). On the other hand, goals convey specific performance standards to attain within a limited time frame (Locke and Latham, 2002) conveying feasible tools to reach set standards (how to accomplish). Owing to its time-constraint nature, goals connote concrete, subordinate, and task-specific features. The effectiveness of goals comes from their ability to clarify the direction that an employee is supposed to take and guide employee effort throughout the performance so that they reduce vagueness associated with goal accomplishment (Locke et al., 1989). Berson et al. (2015) leverages CLT to address these differences between visions and goals with respect to the abstractness of their content. Specifically, they suggest that they basically differ in their hypotheticality and temporal distance pertaining to articulated end-states. From this point of view, visions convey highly hypothetical and imaginary outcomes with a long-lasting perspective in time whereas goals connote highly probable and concrete outcomes with a short-term focus. Drawing these differences, they propose that the motivating effects of both visions and goals should depend on a fit, namely construal fit, between abstractness of the content of the communication and psychological distance between communicator (leader) and audience (employees). Visions as abstract messages are proposed to be most effective by resulting in high employee motivation, when leaders are socially and spatially distant from employees. By contrast, goals as concrete messages are proposed to be most suitable for boosting employee motivation, when leaders are socially and spatially proximate to employees. In cases where leaders use vision for psychologically proximate employees or goals for psychologically distant employees, employees experience a construal misfit and these tools become less motivating. Hence, when appealing to employees who are spatially distant (e.g., located in a geographically distant place from the leader) or socially distant (e.g. positioned at the bottom of a highly hierarchical organization structure), leaders are suggested to communicate overarching goals, broad values and ideal outcomes to motivate employees. In contrast, when leaders share common characteristics that diminishes spatial and social distance with followers such as working in the same physical environment, have similar demographic characteristics and have less hierarchical difference, then leader's communicating concrete task goals and performance standards to attain would be more motivating. Overall, leaders are suggested to attune the abstractness of their message in accordance with their social and spatial distance from followers.

Furthermore, the above framework on construal fit between content of the message and leader-follower psychological distance has been tested in an empirical research of three-study (Berson and Halevy, 2014). In a field study, Berson and Halevy (2014) tested the effectiveness of presumed construal fit by examining its impact on employee job satisfaction. Specifically, they operationalized social distance with hierarchical levels, with immediate supervisor representing less power difference and hence less social distance; and supervisor of the immediate supervisor representing more power difference and thus more social distance. Communication of leaders was assessed pertaining to the extent to which rated leader was engaging in visionary leadership behaviors and feedback/mentoring behaviors. In other words, vision communication was captured by visionary leadership behaviors, whereas goal setting was denoted by the behavior of providing feedback and mentoring since it requires that the leader communicate concrete task-related information to the employee (Kluger and DeNisi, 1996). In particular, the study suggested that hierarchical difference between the leader and employee should predict the effectiveness of leader's visionary and feedback behaviors such that employee job satisfaction should be higher when hierarchically distant leaders provide employees with high levels of visionary leadership and close leaders with high levels of feedback and mentoring behaviors. The analysis of data from a sample of 2066 members of an organization representing five hierarchical management levels and subordinates reporting supervisors from different levels of the hierarchy provided supporting evidence. Specifically, the findings revealed that the degree of visionary leadership had significant effect on job satisfaction only when there was a greater hierarchical distance, such that high levels of vision expression produced higher levels of job satisfaction than low levels of vision expression only when the leader was hierarchically distant from the follower. On the contrary, communicating goal-related concrete feedbacks predicted job satisfaction only when there was less hierarchy between leader and follower, such that high levels of feedback-giving and mentoring resulted in greater job satisfaction only when the leader was hierarchically proximate to follower.

Additionally, with the aim of increasing generalizability and causality of the relationships observed in the first study, Berson and Halevy (2014) employed a subsequent experimental study which manipulated both hierarchical distance and abstractness of messages articulated by the leader. Participants of the study read a scenario which depicted the participant as a newcomer to an organization and learning about the values of the company via a message. Hierarchical distance was manipulated by informing the participant that the message was communicated either by a colleague talking to the newcomer face to face (high distance condition) or by the CEO of the company sending the participant an e-mail (low distance condition). The abstractness of the message was manipulated either by alluding to broad values and shared identity (abstract message condition) or by providing a detailed story representing the organizational values (concrete message condition). After reading scenarios, participants rated the extent to which they experienced a construal misfit, liked and respected the spokesperson, and felt commitment to the company in the scenario. The study predicted that construal fit (colleague communicating concrete message and CEO communicating abstract message) would generate less construal misfit which in turn result in higher organizational commitment, liking and respect for the message source. Study results revealed that participants experienced less construal misfit when a hierarchically distant source provided an abstract message relative to a concrete message and when a hierarchically proximate source provided a concrete message relative to an abstract message; which then led to higher commitment and social bonding with the source of the message offering the causal evidence for the effectiveness of construal fit with regard to positive employee outcomes such as engagement and commitment.

Moreover, one study attempted to expand the findings of Berson and Halevy (2014) by conceptualizing the construal fit between construal level of leader's appeal in terms of desirability focus vs. feasibility focus and construal level of employees (van Houwelingen et al., 2017). The study of van Houwelingen et al. (2017) applies a similar theorizing to that of Berson and Halevy (2014) to explicate the effectiveness of leader's goal communication with respect to promoting employee motivation; yet expands it in two ways. The first extension relates to the assessment of content of the leader's message with respect to desirability vs. feasibility aspects. While Berson and Halevy (2014) have assessed the leader goal communication by focusing on the extent to which it addresses abstract visionary communication based on articulation of visions and values vs. concrete goal communication based on expression of concrete feedbacks and specific examples; van Houwelingen et al. (2017) explores the effectiveness of leader goal communication by examining whether the message emphasizes desirability of end-states/goals or feasibility of end-states/goals to be attained. More specifically, the study assumes that visionary leadership and concrete goal-setting differ from each other in regard to the goal communication strategy; while the former emphasizes desirability of a goal, the latter highlights feasibility of a goal. Even though the study did not regard desirability and feasibility as two opposites, it still expects leaders to accommodate between the two in their communication with followers. The second extension of this study pertains to the assessment of construal level of employees. Specifically, the study considers construal level of employees (i.e. having an abstract vs. concrete cognition) an important factor determining the effectiveness of leader appeals as a function of desirability vs. feasibility content. The study proposed that the virtue of either desirable or feasible emphasis in goal communication is determined by the construal level of employees, whereby leader appeals on desirability lead to greater motivation for abstract-minded employees, whereas leader appeals on feasibility increases motivation for concrete-minded employees. They tested this prediction with an experimental design. Participants first were induced either abstract construal by answering a why question (e.g. why do I maintain and improve my health) for six repeated rounds, or concrete construal by answering a how question (e.g. how do I maintain and improve my health) for six repeated rounds (Freitas et al., 2004). Then, they read an appeal from their university dean about a recent campaign of purchasing fair-trade coffee. The dean's appeals emphasized either desirability aspect of the campaign (i.e. what higher purpose the campaign serve) or feasibility aspect of the campaign (i.e. how students could support the campaign). Following reading one of the appeals, students rated how much they would pay for a cup of fair-trade coffee. As predicted, desirability-focused leader appeals led students with abstract construal to pay higher amounts for coffee compared to students with concrete construal. On the contrary, feasibility-focused appeals were more effective for students with concrete construal since under feasibility condition, those with concrete mindset were willing to pay more compared to those with abstract mindset. Building on this finding that follower construal level determines whether desirable or feasible leader appeals work better in boosting the motivation, the study further theorized that the success of desirable vs. feasible leader communication could also be moderated by psychological distance between leaders and followers, given the bidirectional link between construal level and psychological distance. Employing an experimental design within university context, a second study used appeals of a committee leader of a student club asking for the support of the university students to protest against the university's intention of increasing tuition relying on either desirability arguments or feasibility arguments. Participants were given the information that the committee leader was either one km away or 100 km away in order to manipulate spatial distance between committee leader and the participants.

Lastly, participants rated perceived persuasiveness of the message, their willingness to join protests and give financial support the committee. The results showed that under reduced spatial distance between leader and followers, hence lower psychological distance, leader appeals with feasible emphasis were more effective than messages with desirability emphasis in terms of promoting the participation in protests and financial support. Under high spatial distance, participants' willingness to participate and support was higher for desirable messages than for feasible messages, yet this difference was not significant. The findings of this study together with those of Berson and Havely (2014) suggest that leader's psychological distance from followers and construal level of the followers determine whether an abstract visionary appeals emphasizing desirability of end-states or a concrete goal setting appeals highlighting feasibility of end-states would produce more success in terms of promoting employee motivation. Hence, leaders need to consider their distance from the followers they are addressing to and also mindsets of their followers and adjust the content of their messages accordingly to motivate followers.

From a different vantage point, a recent study tested leader's vision communication as a function of daily construal level of the leader (Venus et al., 2019). Building on the assumption that both leader behaviors (Lanaj et al., 2016) and construal level fluctuate on a daily basis, the study employed a within-person design to explore the effect of daily variations in leader's construal level on his/her vision communication. Building on the implicit association between high-level construal and vision with respect to the level of abstraction and long-term emphasis, the study expected leaders to engage in vision communication more frequently on the days they experience higher-level construal. In particular, reference to visions was predicted to be facilitated with a high-construal level because visions emphasize superordinate outcomes and broad values for long-term, all of which are also more accessible with abstract construals. On the other hand, a low-construal level is expected to focus leader's attention on contextual and short-term outcomes with pragmatic concerns (Kivetz and Tyler, 2007). Moreover, this association between high-level construal and daily vision communication was proposed to be contingent on leadership self-identity, which is the degree to which the leader defines leadership role as part of his/her self-identity (Day and Sin, 2011). Leaders with strong leadership self-identity were expected to be more willing to engage in vision communication which is a typical leadership behavior, because doing so would sustain their self-identity. Hence, the effect of daily experienced high-construal level on daily vision communication was argued to be higher for leaders with strong chronic leadership self-identity. The hypotheses were tested with a design of experience sampling whereby managers at the first wave rated their leadership self-identity and at the second wave assessed their own construal level every morning and daily vision communication every afternoon for 15 successive workdays. Results found positive but insignificant (p = .17) association between high-construal level and vision communication on a daily basis; yet found a significant cross-level interaction effect of leadership self-identity. Accordingly, results suggested that leaders with high levels of leadership self-identity engage in more vision communication on the days they experience higher-level construal, while this effect disappears for leaders with low leadership self-identity.

Taken together the above-mentioned studies on the relevance of construal level with leadership research, construal level emerges as a significant predictor of leadership outcomes with a potential to advance the current understanding of leadership-related phenomena. Effect of construal level on leadership is two-fold. One stream of research suggests that how leaders represent external and internal organizational factors shapes information processing of leaders pertaining to those factors and hence influence strategic decisions taken by those leaders. The second stream of research that emphasizes relational nature of leadership suggests that leaders' and followers' construal level as a function of either construal fit or hierarchical/social distance between them, both influences effectiveness of leadership practices such as visionary and goal related communication, and employee attitudes towards leaders such as liking and respect for the leader.

2.7. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT ON THE RELATIONSHIP OF LEADER-FOLLOWER SIMILARITY WITH LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIP

Drawing on the previous findings on LMX literature and construal level literature, this dissertation attempts to understand how construal level similarity between a leader and a follower might influence their relation quality, namely LMX quality. In order to develop relevant arguments, first relevant arguments in LMX and CLT literatures are revisited.

As stated in earlier sections, construal level is cognitive feature vary across people as well as situations. In other words, even though construal level might be induced temporally, people have a dominant and dispositional orientation of how to construe things (Rosen et al., 2016; Vallacher and Wagner, 1987; van Houwelingen et al., 2015). As put forward by Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) people have work-domain construal levels which suggests that people have a general tendency to construe their work either concretely or abstractly. In the same vein, this dissertation assumes that organizational members have a chronic work-domain construal level, a between-subjects stable cognitive characteristic.

The literature on leader-follower similarity has presented evidence that leader and follower objective similarities in demography, values and attitudes and personalities, as well as subjective similarity or perceived similarity of both parties are positively related to LMX quality (Nahrgang and Seo, 2015). Consistent with these studies, work on cognitive similarity also showed that similarity in cognitive factors enhances quality of LMX relationships (Engle and Lord, 1997; Jackson and Johnson, 2012). Even though these studies produce valuable knowledge about how cognition of parties influence their interaction, the scope of the factors used in these studies such as relational schemas, implicit leadership schemas, self-identities are limited and mostly relevant to how people represent themselves or their relationship with others. Yet, construal level provides more insight into how cognition as a function of abstraction level shapes representation, evaluation, and prediction of different entities; hence, it might offer a more comprehensive understanding on how organizational members' representation of work-related stimuli could be related to their interactions with others at workplace. Hence, this dissertation suggests construal level as an important cognitive factor for dyadic relationships and explores leader-follower similarity in construal level as antecedent of LMX quality.

The main proposition of this dissertation is that as leader and follower become more similar to each other in terms of their construal level (i.e. both have high-construal level or both have low-construal level), their relationship quality enhances.

In other words, the higher the leader-follower similarity in construal levels, the better the LMX quality. Main arguments for this relationship pertain to the positive effect of construal level similarity on enhanced communication. But first, how does communication relate to LMX quality? Research has shown that communication quality and frequency is a strongly predicts LMX quality, such that the higher the quality and the quantity of communication between leader and follower the higher the quality of their relationship (Gajendran and Joshi, 2012; Kacmar, et al., 2003; Mueller and Lee, 2002). There are even studies that suggest communication quality as a dimension of LMX relationships (Antonakis and Atwater, 2002; Jian and Dalisay, 2017). Moreover, communication style has been considered very important for role episodes (Kahn et al., 1964). Taken together, it is reasonable to explain the effect of construal level similarity on LMX quality through its effect on enhanced communication.

As Triandis (1959; 1960) demonstrated, an expected effect of cognitive similarity is better communication. His study found that as supervisors and subordinates become more similar in how they process information, they have more effective communications. Similarly, behavioral integration approach, an extension of similarity-attraction paradigm, points out the role of communication in how similarity between group members could enhance integration and relationship quality between members (Hambrick, 1994). Specifically, this approach argues that similarity between parties produces positive outcomes as a result of *"common referents in perceiving, interpreting, and acting on social information"* (Schaubroeck and Lam 2002: 1121). This indicates that sharing mental and cognitive commonalities enable parties to hold similar perspectives in processing and acting on relevant information. Moreover, these commonalities are suggested to enhance both quality in terms of richness and accuracy and quantity of information exchange and lead to more effective interaction, higher liking and collaboration among members (Hambrick 1994). Improved communication and increased information exchange might serve for both social communication purposes and communicating task-related information. Construal level similarity might enhance communication quality for both purposes. First of all, construal level similarity might improve "social communication" through the principles of similarity-attraction paradigm. The basic idea underlying similarity-attraction theory is that people are attracted to those who are similar to themselves (Byrne, 1971). This happens for a number of reasons. First of all, people have self-based schemas and images and similar others socially validate these self-images, confirming people's beliefs and values (Festinger, 1954), which positively affects people's liking towards similar others. Secondly, people can more confidently predict how similar others behave across different situations, because it is easier to make projections for behaviors of those with higher similarity. This confidence in prediction decreases uncertainty associated with interaction with dissimilar others (Berger and Calabrese, 1975; Broome, 1983). Moreover, people attribute more positive personal characteristics to those with higher similarity, which introduces a positive bias towards similar others. For these reasons, similarity between parties promotes liking, affect and attraction towards others and increases social interaction and communication between parties (Tsui and O'Reilly, 1989). In the same vein, having similar construal levels probably facilitates social communication and integration between leaders and followers, leading to greater liking between parties and higher quality LMX.

Moreover, construal level similarity might also improve task-related communication. CLT suggests that people differ in how they construe things. Those with high-level construal represents targets in more abstract, general, schematic ways, and by omitting details instead emphasizing target's relevance with superordinate goals. On the contrary, those with low-level construal construe targets in more concrete, specific, contextualized ways, with emphasis on secondary details and emphasizing subordinate goals. More importantly, people process information more effectively and more easily when it matches with their construal level. In other words, high-level construal (vs. low-level construal) mindset perceives and interprets information more effectively when information is also at high-construal level (vs. low-level construal) than when it is at low-construal level. This phenomenon is called as "construal level fit" (Berson et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2010a). For example, voters thinking about a distant situation and hence experiencing a high-construal level preferred appeals that were expressed with high-level terms over appeals expressed with low-level terms; while voters experiencing low-construal level found appeals with low-level statements more persuasive than ones with high-level statements (Kim et al., 2009a). The same construal fit effect emerges in the work context, as well. Van

Houwelingen et al. (2017) showed that employees are more motivated and persuaded by leader appeals that fit construal level of employees. More specifically, motivation of employees promoted most when employees with high-level construal are addressed with leader appeals that focus on superordinate goals and primary purposes (i.e. desirability aspects) and when employees with low-level construal are address with leader appeals that emphasizes specific means and ways to attain subordinate goals (i.e. feasibility aspects). Moreover, construal fit has been suggested to increase one's liking and bonding with the leader (Berson and Havely, 2014). This suggests that employees are better off and experience effective information processing when they work with a leader conveying information in a way that matches with their construal level.

However, does a leader with high-level construal (vs. low-level construal) necessarily mean that he/she will communicate also at a high-construal level (vs. low-level construal)? Empirical research has provided supporting evidence for this question. Accordingly, people with high-level construal not only construe things more abstractly, but they also communicate things more abstractly; whereas people with low-level construal communicate things more concretely (Magee and Smith, 2013; Smith and Trope, 2006). Accordingly, a study examining quotes in press about September 11 attacks found that people with social distance as a result of position power construed the events more abstractly and hence spoke about the event by using a more abstract language (Magee et al., 2010). Similarly, participants watching a movie produced in a distant location and hence representing it with a high-level construal described it using more abstract language; whereas those representing the movie with a low-level construal because it had been produced in a proximate location, described the movie using more concrete language. Taken together, research suggests that those construing targets abstractly also communicate them abstractly, while those representing targets concretely communicate them concretely.

More importantly, other people that are being communicated or addressed could identify communicator's construal level. For example, participants read a text written by an advisor in high-level terms (i.e. describing why things were done) and rated that advisor as "*big picture thinker, focused on why things are done, long-term goals, high-priority task, and important tasks*"; whereas participants reading a text by the advisor in low-level terms (i.e. describing how things were done) perceived the advisor as "*small picture thinker, focused on how things are done, short-term goals, low-priority task, and unimportant tasks*" (Reyt et al., 2016: 28). Similarly, a study, assuming that resumes should reflect and signal the construal level of the candidate (i.e. whether has a high or low construal level), analyzed and coded construal level of resumes applying to an entry-level job (Reyt et al., 2015). Hypothesizing that recruiters would prefer candidates with concrete mindset over those with abstract mindset for entry-level positions, the study found results supporting its prediction that the probability of being invited for the entry level position was higher for candidates with concrete resumes (as a cue for their concrete mindset) compared to candidates with abstract resumes (signaling abstract mindset). These findings suggest that people could automatically but most probably unconsciously recognize the signals of abstract and concrete mindsets of others through their communication.

At this point, it is reasonable to assume that each dyadic party communicates in a way that signals his/her construal level and that other party perceives and identifies these signals of construal level appropriately. Then, a leader with chronic high-level construal more likely conveys task-related information in a more abstract, general manner, giving less information about details but emphasizing superordinate features of tasks or assignments. From "construal level fit" perspective, an employee who also has a high-level construal more likely to process and act upon this abstract information much easier and faster, therefore be perceived more competent by the leader. On the contrary, for an employee with low-level construal it takes more time to process abstract information conveyed by the leader, because the information creates a construal misfit and it is difficult for the concrete-minded employee to capture relevant figures out of the abstract message. Hence, concrete-minded employee more likely feel confused by the abstract information and fail to address adequately message of the abstract-minded leader. Similarly, a leader with chronic low-level construal more likely communicates task-related information in a more concrete and specific manner, giving detailed information about secondary issues but less information on the meaning and valence of the tasks or how they relate to the big picture. From a "construal level fit" perspective, an employee who also has a low-level construal more likely to process the concrete information communicated by leader much easier and faster, hence be perceived more competent by the leader. On the contrary, for an employee with high-level construal processing concrete information by the leader takes much longer since employee experiences a construal misfit and he/she finds it more difficult to depict a big and meaningful picture with concrete information. Thus, abstract-minded employee more likely to feel puzzled in the face of concrete information and fall short of appropriately attending the message of the leader.

More importantly, construal level fit and construal level misfit experienced by the employee as a result of communications between leaders and followers might have significant implications for LMX quality. As reviewed in the first chapter, role theory assumes that LMX relationships develop through different role episodes (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). According to Kahn et al. (1964), supervisors communicate role expectations to employees and sent roles by a supervisor are deemed to be much more conclusive and to convey more information on role expectations than formal job requirements. Graen and Scandura (1987) proposes that LMX relationships develop through three sequential stages, the first two of which (i.e. role taking and role making) are critical to determining the quality of relationship in the long run. In role-taking stage, leader initiates episodes by sending roles to employee in order to test competency of the employee on several task and relationship related matters. This phase includes one-way interaction where leader sends role expectations to the employee and employee responds in some way. Evaluating the competency of employee response, leader decides whether to start another round of role taking depending on his/her satisfaction with the response of the employee. At this stage, a leader with high-construal level most probably sends his/her role expectations framed in an abstract and schematic manner with a focus on overarching goals of the role or the task. If the employee also has an abstract mindset, then he/she is more likely to process demands and tasks as part of the sent role expectations in a smooth and competent fashion, as a result of experienced construal fit, and give a response that fulfills expectations of the leader. However, if the employee has a concrete mindset, then he/she more likely have difficulty to figure out what really was expected from him/her and respond accurately. After evaluating the competency of responses, the abstract-minded leader more likely to pass to the next stage, namely role making phase, with abstract-minded employee by sending him/her more unstructured roles; but feel less confident of competency of the concrete-minded employee and more likely to continue testing concrete-minded employee at the first stage to ensure competency of the employee.

Different than the first stage, role making stage is a two-way relationship where the employee also sends roles to the leader. Accordingly, by working on unstructured tasks parties learn more about expectations of the other party and more importantly develop a shared problem-solving approach. After receiving an offer from leader to work on an unstructured task, the employee sends a counter-offer to the leader which transmits the employee's expectations from the leader. At this stage, a dyad where both parties have high-construal level or both parties have low-construal might more easily develop a common understanding and shared norms on how to approach unstructured task, because both represent problems and tasks similarly. Moreover, counter-offers sent by an abstract-minded employee most likely imply expectations of learning more about the meaning of the work (desirability aspect), big picture (broad categorization) and long-term goals. If the leader is also abstract-minded, addressing these counter-offers would be more possible for the leader. Yet, if the leader is concrete-minded, these counter-offers most probably create a construal misfit from the leader's perspective and confusion about expectations of the employee. On the contrary, counter-offers sent by a concrete-minded employee most likely entail expectations of figuring out more about effective means to accomplish tasks (feasibility aspect), specific parts of the picture (narrow categorization) and short-term goals. If the leader also has concrete mindset, he/she more readily attend to expectations regarding low-level features of the task, if not then the leader most probably experiences a construal misfit, which precludes leader from fulfilling role expectations of the employee.

Taken together, drawing onto the above arguments parties with similar construal levels are expected to have enhanced communication owing to experienced construal fit and develop higher quality relationship through effective role episodes. Hence, it is hypothesized as follows:

H1: The higher the similarity between a leader and a follower, the higher the LMX quality, such that LMX quality would be higher when an abstract-minded leader is matched with an abstract-minded employee relative to a concrete-minded.

CHAPTER THREE

STUDY ONE: AN EXPERIMENT

3.1. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Drawing on the literature review explicated in previous chapters, the aim of the present research is to investigate whether similarity in work-based construal level between supervisor and subordinate positively influences their relationship quality. Examining construal level dyadic similarity in relation to LMX quality advances the understanding regarding the role of cognition at workplace and also contributes to the literature of dyadic similarity. More importantly, the current study addresses the calls for further studies to delineate how cognitive factors influence LMX processes (Epitropaki et al, 2013; Tsai et al., 2017).

Based on the role theory and prior research suggesting that cognitive similarity between supervisor and subordinate contributes positively to the quality of dyadic interaction, it is expected that work-based construal level similarity, a type of cognitive similarity, would improve communication and facilitate role-driven processes, which in turn would promote better quality LMX relationships. Hence, as stated in the previous chapter, it is hypothesized that as the level of similarity or fit in work-based construal levels of supervisor and subordinate increases, the quality of LMX should be higher.

3.2. OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

In order to test the hypothesized relationship between leader-follower similarity in construal level and LMX quality, three studies were conducted. The first study employed an experimental design which assigned participants the role of department head and analyzed whether their preference for either an abstract-minded candidate or concrete-minded candidate varied depending on participants' construal level. The second study is a qualitative study aimed to adapt the work-domain construal level survey developed by Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) to tasks conducted under financial affairs department. The third study is a quantitative study which examined the link between dyadic similarity in work-domain construal level and LMX quality in a field setting. Methodology and results of each study are explained in sequence in following sections. Ethical approval of forms and procedures to be used in both experiments and field studies was obtained from the Faculty Ethics Committee prior to conducting all studies.

3.3. STUDY ONE

The aim of the first study is to test the causal association between similarity in construal level and LMX quality. However, because LMX relationships develop over time and require social interactions between parties, experimental designs might not adequately replicate the necessary conditions under which LMX relationships cultivate. Hence, we instead measured whether leaders prefer employees with similar construal level over employees with different construal level in a scenario study. This practice is consistent with LMX theory which posits that leaders are more decisive for the development of dyadic relationships (Dienesch and Liden, 1986*)*. Accordingly, leaders initiate role episodes through which they decide on which subordinates are more dependable and competent and which employees they could include in the in-group circle of the leader (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Hence, exploring the factors that motivate leaders to choose one employee over another might contribute to how these factors influence LMX development. In other words, leader's preference was assumed to be proxy of LMX quality. Consistent with the hypothesis, it is expected that leaders with high-level construal will favor an employee who also has high-level construal; while leaders with low-level construal will want to work with an employee with low-level construal more than they do with an abstract-minded employee.

3.4. METHODOLOGY

Experimental study included three stages. At the first stage, two different manipulation tools were tested in order to decide on the more suitable one for manipulating construal level of sample students. At the second stage, a scenario including self-descriptions of two candidates applying to a human resource position was created. Then, the scenario was pretested whether two candidates were perceived equally competent for the job. At the third stage, the actual experiment was conducted.

3.4.1. First Pretest: Validation of Manipulation Tools

3.4.1.1. Participants

Students of Faculty of Business in Dokuz Eylül University was recruited for pretest. There were 43 participants (18 women, 25 men) in the first group, 38 participants (21 women, 17 men) in the second group, 45 participants (23 women, 22 men) in the third group, 49 participants (27 women, 22 men) in the fourth group. Totally, 175 people (89 women, 86 men) voluntarily participated in the first pretest.

3.4.1.2. Measures

Aim of the first pretest was to test manipulation checks of two different tools and choose the one that worked better in the actual experiment. In CLT literature, there are different methods and tools to manipulate construal levels of individuals (Burgoon et al., 2013). Among these different tools, one commonly used instrument is Navon's letter task, in other words hierarchical letters (Navon, 1977; Wakslak and Trope, 2009). This tool involves large letters each of which is composed of smaller letters (e.g. a big H composed of small Ls). In other words, many small letters in same size come together and form a different single letter, which then configures a hierarchical letter. In the task, participants were shown 24 different hierarchical letters (global letters created by local letters). Those in the low-construal level condition were asked to identify and write down small letters; whereas in the high-construal level condition participants were asked to identify and write down big letters.

The second manipulation tool used in the pretest was Gestalt and Wechsler picture completion (McCrea et al., 2012). The Gestalt completion task (Street, 1931) presents participants with pictures composed of many fragmented pieces and spaces between these pieces. Participants are asked to identify and write down what they think the whole picture is. This task requires participants to take a global view and broader perspective so that they could recognize a coherent pattern between pieces; ultimately inducing high-level construal. On the contrary, Wechsler picture completion task presents participants with clearly identifiable pictures each with a missing feature (WISC; Wechsler, 2003). Participants are asked to identify and write down the missing part for each picture. This task requires participants to focus on details and incidental features; hence, induces more concrete thinking. Participants in the high-level condition were first shown a Gestalt picture (a soldier) as an example, then presented with 12 Gestalt pictures with a horizontal line under each to write down the name of the picture. Participants in the low-level condition were first shown a Wechsler picture (a cat missing its whisker), then presented with 12 Wechsler pictures and asked to write down the missing feature under each picture.

In order to test whether manipulations were successful in inducing abstract and concrete thinking, namely to do manipulation checks, two different measures were employed. One manipulation check was the Behavior Identification Form (BIF) which was developed by Vallacher and Wegner (1989) in order to measure chronic differences in abstraction across individuals but then also employed for measuring situational construal level following manipulation (Wan and Agrawal, 2011). This scale consists of 25 activities (e.g. locking a door) and followed by two descriptions one of which is in high-level terms defining why the action is done (e.g. putting a key in the lock) and other of which is in low-level terms defining how the action is done (e.g. securing the house). Participants are asked to choose one of the options that best describes the action. In order to calculate a general abstraction score, concrete answers are scored with 0 and abstract answers are scored with 1. Then, all scores are summed up. The higher the total score, the higher the abstraction level.

The other tool used for manipulation check was Rosch categorization task (Rosch, 1975). This method measures construal level of individuals through inclusiveness or breadth of categorization because people use wider and more inclusive categories with increasing abstraction (Liberman et al., 2002; Smith and Trope, 2006). Participants are presented with the name of a category (e.g. vehicle) followed by nine items, three of which are strongly exemplifying the category (e.g. car, bus, truck), three of which are moderately exemplifying the category (e.g. bicycle, airplane, trolley car) and three of which are weakly exemplifying the category (e.g. tractor, wheelchair, sled). Participants rate the extent to which each item is exemplary of the category using a 10-point scale (1 = *absolutely does not belong to the category*; 5 = *does not belong to the category, but is very similar to items of that category*; 6 = *does belong to the category, but is not a very good example of it*; 10 = *absolutely does belong to the category*). Strong and moderate examples are only fillers, hence in order to assess the inclusiveness of categorization only scores for weak examples are summed up. Scores of 6 and higher indicate that the item is included in the category by the participant. Thus, weak items that are rated 6 and higher are included in the calculation of inclusiveness scores. The higher the total score, the higher the abstraction. Hence, participants induced high-construal level are expected to have significantly higher scores than those in low-construal level condition, indicating that the former group perceives weak examples are more typical of and exemplifying the category. Accordingly, participants were presented with four different categories (furniture, vehicle, vegetables, sport), each followed by 9 example items (3 typical, 3 moderately typical, 3 atypical examples).

3.4.1.3. Procedure

Sessions were conducted in classrooms by getting permissions of the lecturers just before the class. Participants were asked for their voluntary participation in two purportedly independent studies. Those who agreed to participate were delivered a file containing the first study which was presented as a visual identification task (picture completion task) or as visual focus task (Navon’s letter task). Files were randomly distributed in all sessions to make sure that participants were randomly distributed across high-level construal condition and low-level construal condition for both manipulation tools. After all participants were done with the first study, the second study presented as behavior identification task (BIF) or presented as “customer research study” (Rosch categorization task). No time constraint was imposed and participants were told that that they could take their time. Following completion of the second task, all participants were thanked and briefed.

There were four groups for pretest. In the first group participants' construal level was manipulated with Gestalt and Wechsler picture completion and manipulation check was done with BIF. The second group received again picture completion tasks as manipulation but Rosch categorization task for manipulation check. The third group was delivered Navon's letter task for manipulation and BIF for manipulation check. The last group was again distributed Navon's letter task for manipulation but Rosch categorization task for manipulation check. Through four groups, the ability of tools in changing participants' construal level was tested by using two different manipulation tools and validation of tools as to whether the manipulation tools produce changes in the intended direction was performed by two different manipulation checks.

3.4.1.4. Findings

Results of analyses for all four groups are presented at Table 1. For the first group, between-subjects one-way ANOVA was conducted. Accordingly, there were significant difference between conditions, $F(1, 41) = 5.407$, $p = 0.025$. Accordingly, those performed Gestalt picture completion (high-level condition) ($M = 16.76$, $SD = 4.17$) experienced more abstraction and describe activities in BIF with high-construal terms than those performed Wechsler picture completion (low-level condition) ($M = 13.61$, $SD = 4.65$). This finding indicates that Gestalt and Wechsler picture completion task successfully manipulated construal levels of participants in the intended direction.

For the second group, between-subjects one-way ANOVA was conducted firstly to test the variance in the total number of atypical items rated as typical (scores of 6 and above) across conditions. Accordingly, the number of atypical items was calculated for a total of 12 atypical items for four categories that were scored 6 or more. Yet, no difference in terms of the number of atypical factors categorized as typical were found across conditions, $F(1, 36) = 0.386$, $p > 0.05$.

Next, actual ratings for atypical example items were calculated by averaging scores for 12 items. Then, one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the variance in mean ratings across conditions. However, despite the difference across groups was in the expected direction (M = 6.30 for high-construal condition, M = 6.07) for low-construal condition, it was not statistically significant, $F(1, 36) = 0.648$, $p > 0.05$.

For the third group, another one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the variance in BIF scores across two conditions of Navon's letter task (i.e. either focusing on larger letters in high-construal condition or focusing on smaller letters for low-construal condition). No difference was found across two conditions, F(1,43) = 2.317, $p > 0.05$.

Lastly, for the fourth group one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference in the number of atypical items considered typical (scores of 6 and above), F(1,47) = 0.009, $p > 0.05$, nor it found any difference in the mean ratings across conditions, F(1,47) = 0.170, $p > 0.05$.

Table 1: Results of the First Pretest Across Four Groups

Pretest Groups	**High-Level Condition**			**Low-Level Condition**			**F**	***p***
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*		
First group	25	16.76,	4.17	18	13.61	4.65	5.407	0.025
Second group	19	6.30	0.81	19	6.07	0.92	0.648	0.426
Third group	22	13.86	5.01	23	15.91	3.97	2.317	.135
Fourth group	24	6.25	1.00	25	6.38	1.08	0.170	0.682

3.4.1.5. Discussion

This first pretest intended to explore which manipulation tool serves best for manipulating construal levels of a sample on which the validation of these tools was not tested before. The results across four groups revealed that Gestalt vs. Wechsler picture completion tasks work better in manipulating construal level than Navon's letter task. In other words, those participants completed Gestalt pictures experienced higher-level construal as reflected in significantly higher BIF scores, whereas participants completed Wechsler pictures experienced lower-level construal as reflected in significantly lower BIF scores. On the contrary, following the performance of Navon's letter task, no significant change in construal levels was measured through neither BIF nor Rosch categorization task. Hence, Gestalt and Wechsler picture completion task was picked as the manipulation tool in actual experiment.

3.4.2. Second Pretest: Validation of the Scenario Content

As expressed in the introduction of Study 1, the aim of Study 1 is to test whether leaders' preference among employees is shaped by construal level fit among leader and employee. In other words, preference of leaders is assessed as a proxy of LMX quality. Hence, a scenario was built that assigned leadership role to participants and asked their preference among two employees with different construal levels.

3.4.2.1. Participants

Students of Faculty of Business in Dokuz Eylül University was recruited for the second pretest. Totally, 17 people (12 women, 5 men) voluntarily participated in the study.

3.4.2.2. Measures

In the leadership studies, it is not uncommon to assign leadership roles to students and then use their responses to evaluate leader-related attitudes (e.g. Decoster et al., 2014; Henson and Beehr, 2018). Accordingly, a scenario was built that asked participants to imagine themselves as the head of an HR department and about to hire a new employee for HR department (see Appendix 1). They were asked to make a decision on which one to hire among two candidates. Each participant described the tasks he/she had been doing as a human resource responsible in his/her current job. One candidate used a language with high-level terms focusing on the higher purpose that the each specific task served (e.g. announcing new job postings in order to attract the most appropriate candidates and build candidate pool of high-quality); while the other candidate used a language with low-level terms emphasizing the ways and tools used in performing a specific task (e.g. announcing new job postings by making a phone call to relevant persons and tell them how long the posting will be open). Totally four basic HR tasks were described by each candidate either in abstract terms or concrete terms; which were announcing new job postings, conducting recruitment interviews, training and development of the personnel, evaluation of performances.

Following reading descriptions of both candidates, participants were asked to rate which candidate they would hire to work in participant's department by using a 7-point scale (1 = Definitely the first candidate, 7 = Definitely the second candidate). The order of candidates in the scenarios were changed such that some participants read the abstract description first, while others read the concrete description first.

Moreover, previous studies proposed that abstract language might prompt the audience to ascribe powerful features to the speaker (Palmeira, 2015; Wakslak et al., 2014). Also, abstractness of the language might influence perceived warmth, competence and action orientation of the speaker (Palmeira, 2015; Wakslak et al, 2014). Because perceptions of power, warmth, competence, and action-orientation might affect the hiring decision of participants, participants were asked to rate each participant on the extent to which they perceived the candidate powerful (powerful, dominant), warm (friendly, trustworthy), competent (competent, knowledgeable, intelligent) and action-oriented (practical, task-focused) using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*). Moreover, participants were asked to evaluate whether the previous experience of each candidate was sufficient to succeed in performing the job (1 = *very insufficient*, 7 = *quite sufficient*) and the overall perception with the resume of each candidate (1 = *quite bad*, 7 = *quite good*).

Lastly, in order to ensure that the description of the candidate using an abstract language was indeed perceived abstract and description of the candidate with concrete language was perceived concrete, participants were delivered an adapted version of a previously validated scale to make the manipulation check of change in construal levels (Reyt et al., 2016). Accordingly, participants assessed the description of each candidate the extent to which it was 1) concrete vs. abstract, (2) giving many details vs. describing the global picture (3) describing the technical aspects of the job and how it is performed vs. describing purpose of the job and why it is performed, (4) focusing on subordinate and secondary details vs. focusing on main and defining characteristics.

3.4.2.3. Procedure

Students were asked for their voluntary participation in a study just before their human resource management class started. They were informed that the study involves a case study which asked participants to make an HR decision. Then participants were delivered a file containing the scenario study on deciding between two candidates. No time constraint was imposed and participants were told that that they could take their time. After all participants completed the study, they were thanked and briefed.

3.4.2.4. Findings

Firstly, participants' preferences between two candidates were tested whether the responses inclined to one or other side (candidate). Hence, a one-sample t-test on preference scores was conducted to evaluate whether preference mean was significantly different from the mid-point of the preference scale (which is four). Because two participants did not rate their preference between two candidates, this analysis was performed on a sample of 15 participants. The results found no significant difference between means of preference (M = 3.73, SD = 2.46) and mid-point, t(14) = -0.419, p = 0.681. This finding indicates that participants did not favor one candidate over the other, which is a desired result.

Then, paired-samples t-tests were conducted to test whether participants perceived and rated candidates differently in terms of power (abstract candidate α=.76, concrete candidate α=.81), warmth (abstract candidate α=.80, concrete candidate α=.85), competency (abstract candidate α=.87, concrete candidate α=.83) and action-orientation (abstract candidate α=.73, concrete candidate α=.65). The results, which are presented at Table 2, revealed that the candidate using abstract language and the candidate using concrete language were not perceived differently in terms of power t(16) = 1.02, p = .32 (abstract candidate M = 4.00, SD =1.46; concrete candidate M = 3.38, SD = 1.34), warmth t(16) = .101, p = .92 (abstract candidate M = 3.91, SD = 1.35; concrete candidate M = 3.85, SD = 1.38), competency t(16) = .03, p = .97 (abstract candidate M = 4.43, SD = 1.17; concrete candidate M = 4.41, SD = 1.34) and action orientation t(16) = -1.50, p = .15 (abstract candidate M = 4.14, SD = 1.18; concrete candidate *M* = 4.91, *SD* = 1.25). Moreover, two candidates did not differ in sufficiency of their work experience t(16) = -.285, *p* = .77 (abstract candidate *M* = 4.12, *SD* = 1.69; concrete candidate *M* = 4.29, *SD* = 1.53) nor in overall quality of resume t(16) = -.94, p = .36 (abstract candidate *M* = 4.47, *SD* = 1.28.; concrete candidate *M* = 4.94, *SD* = 1.19). These findings indicate that construal level difference in the descriptions of two candidates did not lead differentiated perceptions with respect to characteristics that might further influence preferences of participants for a specific candidate.

Table 2: Perceived Characteristics for Abstract and Concrete Candidates

Candidate Characteristic	**Abstract Candidate**		**Concrete Candidate**		**t**	***p***
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Power	4.00	1.46	3.38	1.34	1.02	0.32
Warmth	3.91	1.35	3.85	1.38	0.10	0.92
Competency	4.43	1.17	4.41	1.34	0.03	0.97
Action-orientation	4.14	1.34	4.91	1.25	-1.50	0.15
Sufficient experience	4.12	1.69	4.29	1.53	-0.28	0.77
Overall quality of CV	4.47	1.28	4.94	1.19	-0.94	0.36

However, even though two candidates were not perceived as significantly different from each other with respect to above-mentioned characteristics, it might still be possible that relative differences in these characteristics had influenced decisions on the preferences between two candidates. In other words, a participant's perceiving one candidate as, for example, more competent relative to the other might influence the participant's decision in favor of the candidate that was perceived more competent. Hence, a comparison score was formed for each characteristic by subtracting the rating of the second candidate from the rating of the first candidate. (e.g. warmth rating of the first candidate – warmth rating of the second candidate). Then, preference scores were regressed on each comparative characteristic one by one. It should be noted that preference score indicates whether one candidate is chosen over other, that is it is inherently comparative. Hence, regression results on the relationship between preference scores and comparative characteristics should be interpreted in absolute terms. Accordingly, the regression results, which are shown in Table 3, revealed that preference scores were significantly influenced by comparative power (B = -.99, *p* =

.00), comparative warmth (B = -.77, p = .00), comparative competency (B = -1.08, p = .00), comparative sufficiency of experience (B = -.89, p = .00), and comparative quality of resume (B = -.92, p = .00). On the contrary, comparative action-orientation did not influence the preferences, B = -.50, p = .11. However, when preference scores were regressed on individual scores of action-orientation of each candidate, perceived action-orientation of the first candidate did not significantly influence preference, B = -.52, p = .37, while perceived action-orientation of the second candidate marginally influenced preference scores, B = 1.024, p = .053. These findings indicate that perceived power, warmth, competence, sufficiency of experience, overall quality of resume of a candidate increased the likelihood of that participant being chosen and hired for the job. Action-orientation marginally influenced the preference only for the second candidate.

Table 3: Regression Results for Comparative Characteristics Predicting Candidate Preference

Variables	**B**	**SE**	**Adjusted R^2**	**F**
Comparative power	-0.99**	0.14	0.77	48.61
Comparative warmth	-0.77*	0.20	0.49	14.40
Comparative competency	-1.08**	0.14	0.81	59.74
Comparative action-orientation	-0.50	0.29	0.12	2.96
Comparative experience	-0.89**	0.12	0.80	56.21
Comparative quality of CV	-0.92*	0.22	0.55	18.22

Notes. N = 16, unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. ** $p < 0.001$, * $p < 0.01$.

Lastly, manipulation check was conducted by using four items on abstraction (abstract candidate α=.65, concrete candidate α=.81) to ensure that language of the candidates was perceived as intended. Paired samples T-test revealed a significant difference between two descriptions, t(16) = 3.49, p = .003, whereby abstract description was perceived significantly more abstract (M = 5.21, SD = 1.63) than concrete description (M = 2.55, SD = 1.70).

3.4.2.5. Discussion

The most crucial finding relates to significant differences between descriptions of two candidates in terms of abstraction level. This finding suggests that construal level manipulation of the language used in the descriptions was successful and abstract description was perceived more abstract and concrete description was perceived more concrete, as intended. Because these descriptions proved effective in signaling intended abstraction, they could be used in the actual experiment to measure the preferences of managers as a function of the construal fit between them and employee candidates.

Moreover, participants' perceptions of two candidates in terms of power, warmth, competency, action-orientation, sufficiency of experience, overall quality of resume did not significantly differ. Besides, there was not a tendency towards preferring a particular candidate. However, participants' decisions were influenced by the extent to which a candidate was perceived powerful, warm, competence, action-oriented, experienced and having a good resume. In other words, participants showed a higher preference for a candidate if they perceive that candidate as superior from the other in terms of above-mentioned characteristics. This finding suggests that due to their effect on preferences, these characteristics should be measured and controlled in the actual experiment, as well.

3.4.3. Actual Experiment

3.4.3.1. Participants

Undergraduate students in Dokuz Eylül University recruited for the actual experiment. Totally, 74 participants (35 women, 38 men, 1 no response) voluntarily participated in the study. 7 participants did not respond to the preference question, leaving 67 people for hypothesis testing.

3.4.3.2. Measures

Construal level manipulation was performed by using Gestalt and Wechsler picture completion task as described in the first pretest. A scenario study, assigning the role of HR manager to the participants and asking them to choose between two candidates, one with abstract language and the other with concrete language, was used to measure leader preferences between abstract-minded employee and concrete-minded employee, as described in the second pretest (see Appendix 1). In scenario study, along with their preference between two candidates, participants were also asked to rate how they perceive characteristics (power, warmth, competency, action-orientation, sufficiency of experience, overall quality of resume) of both employees, in order to control in analysis.

3.4.3.3. Procedure

Sessions were conducted in classrooms by getting permissions of the lecturers just before the class. Totally six different classes were invited to the study. Participants were asked for their voluntary participation in two supposedly unrelated studies. Those agreeing to participate stayed at the class, those who did not agree left the class. Then, remaining students were informed that the first study was a visual identification task aiming to evaluate visual perceptions of individuals by using some pictures and that the second study was a HR case study aiming to understand preferences of participants in HR issues. They were also asked to close the file when they were done with the first task, so that they could receive the next task. Then all participants were delivered a file containing the first task, namely manipulation of construal level. The distribution of files performed by splitting the class in half imaginarily (i.e. right group and left group), so that half of the students received a file with Gestalt pictures (abstract condition) and the other half received Wechsler pictures (concrete condition). By doing so, students sitting in close distances to each other as a result of classroom conditions could see a similar task just in case they stared around. Because there were no sitting order and people sat in the classes randomly, they were also assigned randomly to conditions, resulting in equal number of people in each condition (37 in abstract condition, 37 in concrete condition). As soon as participants finished the first task, they were delivered the second task, scenario study, in another file. Following completion of scenario study, they were thanked and debriefed.

3.5. FINDINGS

Firstly, a paired-samples t-test was conducted to perform manipulation checks. As expected, participants perceived description of the abstract candidate (M = 4.96, SD = 1.41) more abstract than description of the concrete candidate (M = 3.12, SD = 1.59), t(72) = 5.70, p = .00.

For hypothesis testing, a univariate analysis of variance was conducted to test the effect of construal level (abstract construal vs. concrete construal) with preference between two candidates as the dependent variable. No effect of construal level was found on hiring decision, F(66) = 1.78, p = .18, indicating that construal level manipulation did not influence participants' preferences between two candidates. When the comparative effects of perceived characteristics (power, warmth, competency, action orientation, sufficient experience, overall quality of resume) were controlled by entering these variables in the analysis as covariates, the effect of construal level on preference was again insignificant, F(66) = .006, p = .94.

3.6. DISCUSSION

The result of hypothesis testing failed to support the construal fit hypothesis. Contrary to the expectations, managers did not prefer employee candidates with similar construal levels to that of theirs. Hence, according to the results, construal level fit between managers and employees failed to account for managers' decision to hire a new employee.

There might be several reasons for this insignificant result. The first reason might be relevant to engagement and involvement of students in the experiment. The sample in our experiment consisted of undergraduate students in Faculty of Business. Students were asked to imagine themselves as an HR manager and make a hiring decision. There are studies in literature that have recruited undergraduate students as managers in experimental design (Decoster et al., 2014; Henson and Beehr, 2018). However, contrary to these studies in the literature, the current experiment might have failed to promote engagement of students in the scenario study. For example, Henson and Beehr (2018) also recruited students as managers yet conducted the experiment in a lab setting and showed a previously recorded video as though they are other participants assigned to subordinate role. As indicated by authors "*this video was included in order to create a greater sense of realism about the exercise than would be obtained only with pencil and paper stimuli*" (Henson and Beehr, 2018: 157). Hence, the design of the experiment could be improved using a similar practice such as recording a video of other participants with subordinate role talking either abstractly or concretely and getting participants with manager role to watch the video. Moreover, instead of using a lab setting, the current study conducted the experiment in typical classroom setting just before the classes started, which might decrease engagement and involvement of participants. Because there were no incentives for participating in the study (e.g. course credit, monetary incentives, gifts etc.), participants might not have cared about devoting their complete attention to the task.

One other reason might relate to hypotheticality of the scenario study. CLT suggests that having a high-level construal facilitates hypothetical thinking such that in an abstract-mindset could construe a hypothetical event with less effort (Trope and Liberman, 2010). Hence, while participants induced high-level construal might have easily represent the hypothetical situation in scenario study and decided as if they were a manager, participants induced low-level construal might have difficulty representing imaginary situation because their minds were more attuned to present situations rather than imaginary situations. This might have caused participants in concrete condition to have less engagement in the scenario study.

Furthermore, as CLT suggests thinking about hypothetical examples and alternatives induces an abstract mindset (Trope and Liberman, 2010). The first pretest demonstrated that Gestalt and Wechsler picture completion was successful in altering construal of employees. However, in actual experiment, following construal level manipulation, participants were asked to imagine a hypothetical and unfamiliar situation. While thinking about a hypothetical situation was a consistent cognitive demand for those participants in abstract condition, it represents a conflicting demand for those participants in concrete condition. In other words, even though Wechsler picture completion induced a concrete construal at that given time, thinking about a hypothetical event right after it required a completely different cognition (i.e. abstract construal) and maybe forced those participants' cognition to transcend immediate situations and focus the attention to more general and abstract characteristics. This might suggest that in the presence of two conflicting cognitive demands (i.e. attending to the details (Wechsler task) vs. imagining a hypothetical situation (HR manager role)), the latest demand might override the previous demand and be more salient in subsequent cognitive tasks. Hence, instead of a hypothetical situation, an experimental study that asks preferences of participants in more real situations might be more appropriate to prevent such a potential problem. For example, for a group project that students are supposed to do in the semester, students might be assigned to team leader role and then allowed to choose their own team members among a group of other students either communicating abstractly or concretely. Taken together, the effect of construal level fit on the relationship between leader and subordinate could be more properly examined in a lab setting that promotes engagement of participants through convincing and authentic setting and incentives and also in real-like situations rather than hypothetical situations.

CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY TWO AND STUDY THREE: FIELD STUDIES

This chapter is composed of two parts. The first part, study two, includes a qualitative interview study conducted to adapt work-based construal level scale to be used in the subsequent survey study. The second part, study three, is a quantitative survey study explores whether construal level similarity matters for relationship quality of dyads in the field by collecting data using questionnaires.

4.1. STUDY TWO: ADAPTATION OF WORK CONSTRUAL LEVEL SCALE

In their study, Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) developed a work domain construal level scale in order to assess how people mentally construe their work roles. In their methodology, they drew on action identification theory (Vallacher and Wegner, 1987) and behavior identification form (BIF) developed to measure the level at which people mentally represent various actions. In the original BIF scale, there are 25 daily activities such as washing clothes and locking a door followed by two descriptions; one is an abstract description defining why the action is conducted and the other is a concrete description illustrating how the action is conducted. For each activity, people are asked to select one description that better describe the action. Following the same logic with BIF, Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) selected 30 common work activities performed by knowledge workers using the job description database of US Department of Labor. Then, they asked 40 incumbents to generate definitions for each action of the 30 work activities. The most frequently repeated definitions were used as abstract and concrete labels for each work activity in their construal level scale for knowledge workers.

Rather than directly translating their work-based construal level scale, we preferred to adapt their scale by following a similar methodology. Direct translation did not seem effective since definitions of some work activities sound linguistically meaningless or irrelevant when translated.

The work of Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) had chosen knowledge workers as the sample of the study and focused on tasks and work activities that were specific to jobs of knowledge workers. In this dissertation, people working in financial affairs offices were selected as the sample and hence the focus has been put on the work activities specific to their job were focused.

The adaptation of domain-specific construal level scale consists of three steps that are elaborated in following sections.

4.1.1 Identification of Work Activities

In order to adapt the domain-based scale to a particular work group, first a specific work group needs to be chosen. The workers in financial affairs department and the tasks and work activities performed in financial affairs department were selected for this study.

The first step is to determine common work activities conducted in financial affairs departments in general. Since there is no official database storing common work activities for different jobs in Turkey as in the case of Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015), another method was adopted. The website of Kariyer.net, which is Turkey's leading job posting and career platform with 25 million resumes and 94.000 partner companies, has been used as a database to decide on common work activities. More specifically, job postings in this website were used to understand which common tasks and responsibilities required from job holders.

The website has an advance search machine that allows one to filter specific features as needed. In Turkey, general structure of financial affairs department is composed of three divisions; finance, accounting and budget, although depending on the size of the company budget division might not exist or merge into other divisions. Hence, finance, accounting and budget were picked out as the keywords to search for. No restrictions were put on search criteria such as city, sector, position, education or experience. Search engine was commanded to search one of the three keywords only in the headlines. As a result of the search, nearly 1800 job postings were found. Job descriptions of these job postings were analyzed until repetition started and no new tasks and activities appeared. The job titles of job postings analyzed are presented in Table 4. Totally, 259 job postings were included in the analysis.

Table 4: Job Titles of Analyzed Job Postings

Division	Non-managerial positions	Managerial positions
Finance	Finance specialist	Finance manager
	Finance responsible	Finance executive
	Finance and accounting specialist	Finance director
	Financing specialist	Finance administrator
		Finance and accounting manager
Accounting	Accounting specialist	Accounting manager/vice manager
	Accounting personnel	General accounting manager
	Accounting responsible	Accounting executive
	Senior accounting specialist	Accounting administrator
	Senior general accounting specialist	Accounting supervisor
	General accounting responsible	Accounting and finance manager
	General accounting specialist	Cost accounting supervisor
	Accounting and finance specialist	Accounting and finance executive
	Accounting employee	Group accounting manager
	Accounting officer	
	Accounting and reporting specialist	
	General accounting and reporting specialist	
Budget	Budget and reporting specialist	Cost and budget controlling supervisor
	Budget and controlling specialist	Budget planning and financial analysis executive
	Budget and controlling analyzing specialist	Budget reporting and financial controlling manager
	Budget reporting and analyzing specialist	Budget reporting executive
	Budget reporting officer	Budget reporting and financing executive
	Budget and financial control specialist	Budget and reporting administrator
	Budget planning specialist	Budget and reporting manager
	Budget planning and controlling specialist	
	Reporting and budget specialist	
	Budget reporting responsible	
	Budget reporting senior specialist	
	Budget planning and analyzing responsible	

259 job descriptions were examined and the job tasks and work activities that were similar to each other were grouped under a common work activity. This procedure was repeated in each division and for jobs of both managerial and non-managerial positions.

In order to narrow down the grouped work activities into meaningful and separate work activities that do not overlap, we resorted to the opinion of an expert, a professor in finance and accounting department of the university. As a result, a total of 17 common work activities were identified for jobs performed in financial affairs departments. These work activities are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Common Work Activities for Jobs in Financial Affairs Department

1. Preparing cash budget (finance)	10. Keeping and controlling accounting records (accounting)
2. Managing daily cash flows (finance)	11. Making and controlling year-end accounting records (accounting)
3. Planning and managing daily payments and collections (finance)	12. Conducting tax treatment (accounting)
4. Managing and reporting receivables and collections (finance)	13. Preparing IFRS reports (budget)
5. Conducting daily banking operations (finance)	14. Preparing budget (budget)
6. Making financial risk analysis (finance and budget)	15. Making budget revisions within period (budget)
7. Making account reconciliation (finance and accounting)	16. Preparing financial reports (common for three division)
8. Making customer reconciliation (accounting)	17. Using a computer software (common for three division)
9. Tracking and recognition of long-term assets (accounting)	

4.1.2. Interviews

In order to generate abstract and concrete descriptions for 17 work activities identified in the previous step, structured interviews were conducted. Accordingly, 31 interviews with people working in financial affairs departments were performed. The sample size was based on the saturation point where no new inputs or responses came out (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Purposive sampling method was used since only people with specific work experience were pursued. The number and job titles of participants are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6: Number and Job Title of Interviewees

Non-managerial positions (17 interviewees)		Managerial positions (14 interviewees)	
Finance personnel (3)	Budget and accounting responsible (1)	Financial affairs manager (4)	Budget reporting manager (1)
Finance responsible (1)	Accounting specialist (1)	Finance manager (1)	Budget and accounting manager (1)
Finance analyst (1)	Accounting responsible (2)	Accounting manager (2)	Accounting team leader (1)
Finance and control specialist (1)	Accounting personnel (4)	Financial affairs supervisor (1)	Finance team leader (1)
Budget and reporting specialist (1)	Internal auditor (1)	Finance executive 1)	Independent accountant (1)
Budget planning analyzing specialist (1)			

Among 31 interviewees, 14 of them worked at managerial positions and 17 of them worked as employees. 15 of interviewees were women and 16 of them were men. Working experience of interviewees ranged from 6 months to 30 years, with a mean of 9.7 years.

All interviews except one were conducted personally and face-to-face. One of the interviewees was abroad during the study; hence, he was contacted through video-conferencing.

At beginning of all interviews, participants were asked for their permission for tape recording. Except three interviews all gave permission and their interviews were tape recorded. For three people who did not give permission, only simultaneous notes were taken during the interview.

The nature of the interviews was structured. At the beginning of each session, interviewees were delivered the list of 17 work activities. Participants were asked whether they had any experience and knowledge regarding each work activity. If they had, they were asked to explain each activity. During explanation of each work activity, participants were guided with two main question groups. The first question group was concerned with abstract representation of the work activity and included questions regarding why the work activity was conducted such as “What is the main aim of doing this work activity? Which purpose does this work activity serve to? What is the reason behind doing this specific work activity?”. The second group of questions was focused on concrete representation of the work activity and consisted of questions regarding how the work activity was conducted such as “How does one do this work activity? Can you explain the methods and tools used during performing this activity?”.

4.1.3. Analysis of Interview Data, Generation of Abstract and Concrete Definitions for Work Activities

Tape recorded interviews were transcribed for the analysis. The transcribed text with the notes from non-recorded interviews made 174 pages in total. Revisions on three work activities were performed. Third work activity (Planning and managing daily payments and collections) was assessed very similar to the second work activity and interviewees could add almost no new information for the third activity. Hence, the third activity was removed resulting a list of 16 work activities. Twelfth work activity of preparing IFRS reports were relabeled as preparing TFS/TFRS reports since IFRS was adapted in Turkey by the name of TFS/TFRS and incumbents of the task preferred to call it that way. Lastly, performers of budgeting explained that their company did not revise budgets; instead, they performed monthly tracking of the budget and took corrective action when necessary. Hence, fourteenth work activity of making budget revisions within period was restated as “making budget tracking and analysis” in the light of feedbacks of interviewees.

Responses for each work activity were analyzed in a separate excel work sheet. Interviewees’ explanations for each work activity were first classified based on abstractness (why) and concreteness (how), which could be called “themes” in a regular content analysis. Next, responses in abstract theme and concrete theme were grouped based on common categories for each work activity. In each work activity, the mostly cited category under abstract theme was chosen to represent the abstract definition of that work activity and mostly cited category under concrete theme was selected to represent the concrete definition of that work activity. The findings of content analysis of interview data and frequency of categories emerged are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Frequencies of Categories for Work Activities

Work activities	Frequencies	
	Abstract Categories (frequencies)	*Concrete Categories (frequencies)*
1. Preparing cash budget	Management of cash/money (13) Risk management (9) Management and sustainability of the company (8) Future condition of the company (8)	Planning company payments (22) Making cash planning (13) Selling/Sales (6) Annual plans and targets (6) Coordination and communication across the company (5)
2. Managing daily cash flows	Cash planning (10) Risk management (4)	Making company payments (25) Managing the cash operations in the bank (15) Planning inflows and outflows (10) Planning and making prioritization for cash outflows (14) Problem management (5)
3. Managing and reporting receivables and collections	Tracking overdue receivables (7) Managing cash inflows (6) Managing bad debts (6)	Preparing reports (7) Communicating with clients (5) Making controls of receivables (5) Regular checking of client limits (4)
4. Conducting daily banking operations	Making payments (13) Making good use of money (5) Conducting banking operations (5) Managing loans (4) Managing checks (4)	Preparing payment orders (15) Making accounting entries (13) Regular checking of bank account (6) Making money transfer (5)
5. Making financial risk analysis	Assessing risk regarding cash flow and liquidity (16) Forecasting risk factors (9) Preventing and taking precautions (7) Managing currency risk (6)	Tracking receivables (22) Making analysis on financial ratios (7) Checking credit limits (6) Making sales forecasting (3)
6. Making account reconciliation with banks	Ensuring commonality across balances (8) Finding out bank balance (7) Serving the needs of external auditing (5) Making year-end closure (3)	Generating and sending reconciliation statement (11) Checking bank accounts (10) Doing in cycles (7) Communicating with banks (5) Making accounting records (4)
7. Making customer reconciliation	Verifying accounts (12) Fulfilling legal obligations (8) Serving the requirements of external auditing (8) Making provision against potential problems (5)	Generating and exchanging reconciliation statement (17) Making cyclical performance (11) Communicating with companies (9) Making online reconciliation (5)

	Coming up with precise reports (4)	
8. Tracking and recognition of long-term assets	Analyzing investments and assets (12) Arriving at financial precise reports (9) Fulfilling legal obligations (4)	Making accounting entries (18) Conducting amortization processes (12) Making stock and inventory procedures (5)
9. Keeping and controlling accounting records	Producing data for financial reports (14) Fulfilling legal obligations (12) Determining the state of the company (12)	Making accounting entry (16) Registering invoices (13) Checking accounts (7)
10. Making and controlling year-end accounting records	Assessing the general situation of the company (8) Fulfilling legal obligations (8) Building financial reports (6) Identifying profit/loss situation (6) Producing precise reports (4) Building trial balance Presenting third parties (4)	Making closing entries (9) Inventorying and stocktaking (5) Making corrections in entries and balances (5)
11. Conducting tax treatment	Fulfilling legal obligations (13) Declaring tax (13) Paying tax (8)	Preparing and submitting declaration form (15) Making accounting entry (12) Calculating tax (11) Making payments (7) Checking invoices (4)
12. Preparing TMS/TFRS reports	Complying with international standards (8) Grasping an accurate understanding of the company’s situation (8) Building a common language (7) Fulfilling legal obligations (7) Making precise valuation (7) Enhancing reliability (5) Conveying information to third parties (5)	Making adjusting entries (12) Making accounting entries (5) Using templates (3) Handing over to external auditors (3)
13. Preparing budget	Managing resources (11) Planning (11) Setting goals (10) Forecasting (7) Making provision (4)	Calculating incomes and expenses (12) Planning cash flows (11) Preparing department budgets (10) Preparing sales budget and sales goals (10) Making tables (8) Checking data of previous years (6) Calculating expected inflation and currency rates (6) Contacting with top management (5) Calculating tax (4)

14. Making budget tracking and analysis	Recognizing budget variance (6) Assessing goals and goal progress (4)	Making comparisons with budget (8) Making new forecasting (6)
15. Preparing financial reports	Determining the current state of the company (18) Conducting tax-related legal matters (14) Making decisions about the future of the company (14) Presenting to top management (13) Finding solutions and making improvements (12) Assessing profitability (11) Managing future of the company (10) Conveying information to banks and investors (7)	Making accounting entries (15) Using accounting data (9) Applying templates (7) Making year-end entries (5) Checking and complying with legal rules (4) Making comparisons (4)
16. Using a computer software	Storing and creating data (13) Providing convenience (9) Providing with data (9) Reporting (8) Controlling (8) Detecting failure (7)	Viewing data by using screens (6) Viewing and following sales (6)

Following classification and categorization of the interview data, a single description was determined for abstract and concrete definitions of each work activity. A professor in finance and accounting department in university provided know-how during the selection of the most appropriate description based on categories. During this phase, theoretical principles of construal level theory were followed. A significant association has been theorized and found between construal level of individuals and the language they use (Reyt et al., 2016; Wakslak et al., 2014). More specifically, while abstract language entails broader or overall goals of the target, concrete language involves details and situational factors. Alongside the content, the language differs linguistically depending on the construal level. According to Linguistic Category Model (Semin and Fiedler, 1989), words could be classified hierarchically based on their degree of abstractness. Accordingly, descriptive verbs such as "walk, kick, kiss" are the least abstract group (i.e. most concrete) as they offer objective description for the action and depend on contextual information for comprehension. Next in the hierarchy are the interpretive action verbs such as "tease, cheat, help" which are more abstract. These verbs are less context-bounded and they provide interpretation for an action or event, for example helping someone by giving him money or by giving directions to find an address). The following categories are state action verbs such as surprise, excite, anger and state verbs such as like, hate, admire and with increasing abstractness. These verbs either evoke a state in the object of the event or describe an existing state or a conclusive state as a result of the event. Lastly, adjectives are called the most abstract group including adjectives such as honest, effective, reliable, and valuable. Following this difference in abstractness of linguistics, relatively abstract linguistic verbs were used during the generation of description representing the most cited abstract category of a work activity and relatively concrete linguistic verbs were preferred for describing the most cited concrete category of a work activity.

To be more precise, for the first work activity of preparing a cash budget, one response to why question was "*in order to make a plan of cash management*" which was articulated with a relatively concrete language; another response was "s*o that you could maintain a balanced cash cycle*" which was made of relatively abstract language. These two responses were evaluated under the category of management of cash/money, yet they differed in terms of their linguistic abstractness. Hence, when deciding on how to best represent the most cited category, responses with abstract verbs were particularly focused for abstract descriptions, and responses with concrete verbs were selected for concrete descriptions. The final list of abstract and concrete descriptions for work activities are displayed in Table 8.

Table 8: Abstract and Concrete Descriptions of Work Activities

Work activity	Abstract description	Concrete description
1. Preparing cash budget	Maintaining cash balance	Listing amount and days and amount
2. Managing daily cash flows	Planning daily cash outflows	Transferring money from bank for that day's payments
3. Managing and reporting receivables and collections	Ensuring collection of receivables when due	Preparing a report showing due dates of receivables
4. Conducting daily banking operations	Ensuring conduct of payments	Writing a bank order
5. Making financial risk analysis	Preserving cash balance	Checking due of payments and collections
6. Making account reconciliation with banks	Ensuring accuracy of balances of banks	Writing a reconciliation statement to the bank
7. Making customer reconciliation	Ensuring accuracy of debt and credit balance	Sending reconciliation statement through e-mail or fax
8. Tracking and recognition of long-term assets	Understanding on which items the company made investment	Making accounting entry for fixed assets
9. Keeping and controlling accounting records	Building data for reporting	Making accounting entry
10. Making and controlling year-end accounting records	Evaluating year-end performance	Making adjusting entries
11. Conducting tax treatment	Fulfilling tax-related obligations	Filling a tax declaration based on accounting records
12. Preparing TMS/TFRS reports	Complying with international standards	Making entries adjusting to TMS/TFRS
13. Preparing budget	Ensuring efficient use of resources	Calculating incomes and expenses
14. Making budget tracking and analysis	Discovering budget variance and the underlying reasons	Comparing numbers in budget and actual budget

15. Preparing financial reports	Displaying financial situation of the company	Making and revising accounting entries
16. Using a computer software	Building accounting data	Using invoice entry window

4.2. STUDY THREE: SURVEY STUDY

As described earlier, the aim of the third study is to examine the effect of construal level similarity between leader and follower on LMX relationship quality. This chapter addresses methodology, findings and discussions of findings of the third study.

4.3. METHODOLOGY

This section describes the methods used in data collection and analysis. Specifically, sampling, instruments used, data collection process and, data analysis strategy are addressed in this section.

4.3.1 Design of the Study

The third study is a quantitative field study which includes surveying supervisor and subordinate dyads. As mentioned earlier in Chapter V, organizational members working in financial affair departments in Turkey have been identified as population of the study. Overall, because the study relies on self-reports of participants at a given time, this study is could be considered as cross-sectional correlational study.

4.3.2. Sample and Data Collection Procedure

Convenience and snowball sampling were employed to reach dyads working in financial affairs departments of companies in various industries. In order to collect data, both paper-pencil and online questionnaires were employed. Paper-pencil questionnaires were applied during working hours by visiting the offices of participants. First, all participants were informed that the study had two aims, one to understand the way they defined the tasks they were conducting at financial affairs department and the second to understand the relationship of employees with their immediate supervisor. After receiving the consent of all participants (both supervisors and employees), questionnaires were distributed those who were voluntary. Following the completion of the questionnaires, participants were thanked for their contribution. For online questionnaire, firstly participants were contacted through phone calls. After explaining the aim of the study, they were invited to participate in the study. Those agreed were asked for their e-mail addresses. Then, links to the online questionnaire were e-mailed to the participants.

Totally, 245 subordinates and 90 supervisors participated in the study. The number of subordinates linked to a supervisor in the data ranges from 1 to 10 with an average of 3 subordinates for each supervisor.

Characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 9 and Table 10. While majority of subordinates were females (almost 59%), males dominated the supervisory roles (almost 66%). Majority of both subordinates and supervisors have undergraduate degree (73 % and 62%, respectively). Moreover, the mean age of subordinates is 32.8 (SD = 6.01) and mean age of supervisors is 39.4 (SD = 5.78). Total work experience of subordinates greatly varies from 10 months to 36 years; while the range is narrower for supervisors by ranging from 7 years to 31 years with a mean of 17 years. The mean dyadic tenure of dyads participated in the study was 3.81 years. Lastly, the span of control of supervisors in the sample was in the range between 1 subordinate to 35 subordinates.

Table 9: Characteristics of the Sample

Variable	**Subordinate**		**Supervisor**	
	Frequency	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*
Gender				
Female	144	58.8	79	32.2
Male	101	41.2	166	67.8
Education				

High-school	12	4.9	0	0
Associate degree/college	27	11	23	9.4
Undergraduate degree	181	73.9	156	63.7
Master degree	25	10.2	66	26.9

Table 10: Characteristics of the Sample

Variable	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Subordinate Age	32.99	6.17	22	57
Supervisor Age	39.21	5.94	28	57
Subordinate total work experience (in years)	10.59	6.69	0.83	36
Supervisor total work experience (in years)	16.78	6.16	7	35
Dyadic tenure with current supervisor (in years)	3.95	4.41	0.04	26
Supervisor current span of control	5.05	4.52	1	35

4.3.3. Data Collection Instruments

There were two questionnaire forms, one was subordinate questionnaire and the other was supervisor questionnaire. Online and printed versions of questionnaires were exactly the same. Subordinate questionnaire included an introductory information, work-based construal level scale, general construal level scale, LMX-7 scale, job satisfaction question, and demographic questions. Supervisor questionnaire was the same except that it did not have LMX-7 Scale.

4.3.3.1. General Construal Level (GCL)

As described above, general construal level of participants was measured to explore its correlation with work-based construal level. Behavior Identification Form (BIF) (Vallacher and Wegner, 1989) was used as measurement tool. This scale has originally been developed to distinguish chronic tendencies of people in thinking abstractly or concretely. The original scale includes 25 actions followed by two dichotomous options, one of which defines the relevant action abstractly by emphasizing the purpose of the action and other concretely by providing details on how the action is performed. Participants were asked to choose the option that best describes the relevant action. For example, for the action of washing the clothes participants chose either the abstract definition of removing odors from clothes or concrete definition of putting clothes into the machine. Then, concrete responses were coded as 1 and abstract responses were coded as 2, then all responses were summed up to come up with a general construal level score. Higher scores indicated more abstract thinking.

In the present study, an adapted version of BIF was utilized. Öğülmüş (1991) employed original 25-item BIF scale on a Turkish sample and found that some of the original items (specifically item 1, 2, 8, 13, 19, 21, and 22) did not have item-total correlations consistent with that of the original scale. Hence, aligned with the underpinnings of action identification theory, he developed new items with high content validity (ensured through review by experts) and used these new items in place of items with low item-total correlations. The test results found that items in the adapted version have better item-total correlations, adequate test-retest reliability scores ($r = 0.86$). This adapted scale was later used and successfully validated by other studies employing Turkish samples which provided construct and predictive validity of the scale (Akyaz, 2017; Güler, 2017). Since the adapted version has been tested and validated on a large Turkish sample, it was also employed for the current study, as well. Cronbach's alpha reliability of the adapted BIF scale was found to be satisfactory ($\alpha = 0.83$) (Nunnally, 1978)

4.3.3.2. Supervisor and Subordinate Work-Based Construal Level (WBCL)

As described in the study two, a work-based construal level scale was developed, similar to those of Reyt and Wisenfeld (2015), through a qualitative study. This scale includes 16 items representing tasks conducted in financial affairs department including finance, accounting and budgeting operations of the company. The scale presented each task with two bipolar descriptions (one abstract definition and one concrete definition) at two ends of a 6-point Likert scale. Accordingly, participants were asked to indicate how they preferred to define the relevant task by choosing a point between two descriptions located at two opposite ends. For some tasks (items), abstract definition appeared at left end and concrete definition at right ends; while for some other tasks the ordering was reverse. For calculation, items with concrete description at the right end were reversed so that higher scores indicated higher abstraction. Then all items were summed up and averaged to come up with an overall WBCL score. Cronbach alpha reliability of 335 responses (all subordinates and immediate supervisors) on 16 items was found to be satisfactory ($\alpha = 0.77$) (Nunnally, 1978). Moreover, when examined separately, reliability of employee WBCL scale (245 subordinates, $\alpha = 0.72$) and supervisor WBCL scale were also found satisfactory (90 supervisors, $\alpha = 0.81$).

Next, WBCL scale items were subjected to an exploratory analysis (EFA) using SPSS. The general aim of the exploratory factor analysis is to reveal intercorrelations between variables and uncover if any dimensionality exists within a construct. As described by Field (2000), exploratory factor analysis helps one figure out patterns which involve variables that correlate well with each other composing a factor together while sharing less correlation with other variables composing different factors. While adapting WBCL scale, it was formed as a unidimensional construct encompassing various tasks in financial affairs department. Yet, still it might incorporate various factors. An EFA using principal components factoring and promax rotation was conducted on all 16 items of WBCL for 335 responses. An oblique rotation method (i.e. promax) was preferred because factors were expected to be correlated with each under, if any existed. According to results, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was satisfactory KMO = .793 (Kaiser and Rice, 1974) suggesting that partial correlations compared to sum of correlations were low enough to reveal a factorial structure. Moreover, Barlett’s test of sphericity was significant, χ^2 (120) = 873.937, p = .000, indicating items in the correlation matrix were significantly correlated. These two measures suggested that the data was adequate for exploratory factor analysis. Results yielded a five-factor solution with

Kasier's criterion of eigenvalues greater than one (the lowest eigenvalue = 1.064) explaining 53.85% of all variance. The results of pattern matrix as a result of promax rotation is presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Pattern Matrix for Exploratory Factor Analysis on 16 Items of WBCL

Items of WBCL	**Factor**				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8. Tracking and recognition of long-term assets	**0.864**	0.063	-.179	-.072	-.015
5. Making financial risk analysis	**0.772**	-.110	0.113	0.011	-.069
7. Making customer reconciliation	**0.565**	0.198	0.005	-.009	-.330
6. Making account reconciliation with banks	**0.469**	-.195	0.321	-.131	0.211
3. Managing and reporting receivables and collections	**0.335**	0.131	0.282	0.014	0.204
15. Preparing financial reports	0.059	**0.716**	-.262	0.085	0.041
16. Using a computer software	0.094	**0.686**	0.193	-.197	-.019
13. Preparing budget	-.162	**0.652**	0.239	-.049	0.095
4. Conducting daily banking operations	-.017	0.053	**0.823**	-.111	-.164
14. Making budget tracking and analysis	0.071	-.040	**0.572**	0.241	-.049
9. Keeping and controlling accounting records	-.132	0.363	**0.437**	0.220	-.040
12. Preparing TMS/TFRS reports	-.233	-.013	0.097	**0.821**	0.020
11. Conducting tax treatment	0.111	-.028	-.075	**0.774**	-.226
10. Making and controlling year-end accounting records	0.194	-.184	0.041	**0.453**	0.321
2. Managing daily cash flows	0.184	0.060	0.108	0.217	**-.679**
1. Preparing cash budget	0.140	0.358	-.158	0.142	**0.628**

Notes. Extraction Method; Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

For EFA, it has been suggested that a factor loading of at least 0.35 is the minimum level criteria for a sample size between 250 and 350 respondents, while a loading of 0.30 is significant for a sample size above 350 respondents (Hair et al., 1998). Given that the sample size in this study was 335, then loadings between 0.30 and 0.35 were considered adequate to retain within a factor. Hence, the lowest score with loading of .335 (scale item

3) was retained. However, even though all items were expected to correlate with their respective factors positively, since the higher scores meant higher abstraction, one item had negative loading, which was the scale item 2 with a loading of -.679. Because this negative correlation was counterintuitive, this item was decided to be deleted. However, decision regarding deleting an item should be assessed carefully considering the content validity of these items, such that researchers are suggested not to delete item(s), if content validity is harmed by deletion of the item(s) (Netemeyer et al., 2003). During the identification of work activities in financial affairs departments, activities pertaining to all three divisions- finance, accounting and budget, were tried to be given equal representation. Because activities of finance division were represented adequately in the scale, and deleting the item 2 would not seriously undermine its representation and nor harm the content validity of the finance related tasks, item 2 was deleted.

Following deletion of "item 2", a second EFA was conducted using principal components factoring with promax rotation. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO = .793) and Barlett's test of sphericity (χ^2 (105) = 832.532, p = .000) were both adequate indicating appropriateness of data for EFA. Results yielded again a five-factor solution with eigenvalue greater than one, accounting for 56% of the variance. It is noteworthy that, compared to the previous EFA results, this one had increased variance. Rotated factor loadings are presented in Table 12.

Table 12: Pattern Matrix for Exploratory Factor Analysis On 15 Items of WBCL

Items of WBCL	Factor				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8. Tracking and recognition of long-term assets	**0.828**	0.069	-.182	-.011	0.089
5. Making financial risk analysis	**0.700**	-.082	0.115	0.007	0.117
7. Making customer reconciliation	**0.631**	0.239	0.002	0.153	-.279
6. Making account reconciliation with banks	**0.430**	-0.24	0.315	-.112	0.135
15. Preparing financial reports	0.025	**0.696**	-.256	0.029	0.249
16. Using a computer software	0.133	**0.662**	0.195	-.113	-0.06
13. Preparing budget	-.075	**0.603**	0.237	0.043	-.061

4. Conducting daily banking operations	-.018	0.084	**0.832**	-.092	-.166
14. Making budget tracking and analysis	0.034	-.011	**0.583**	0.172	0.09
9. Keeping and controlling accounting records	-.152	0.379	**0.450**	0.147	0.114
12. Preparing TMS/TFRS reports	0.214	0.011	-.078	**0.822**	-.084
11. Conducting tax treatment	-.167	-.018	0.096	**0.771**	0.133
1. Preparing cash budget	-0.01	0.237	-.158	-.075	**0.797**
10. Making and controlling year-end accounting records	0.051	-.207	0.048	0.221	**0.604**
3. Managing and reporting receivables and collections	0.207	0.116	0.292	-.123	**0.401**

Notes. Extraction Method; Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

In this matrix, all items loaded onto their respective factors positively, as expected. Also, scale item 3 now had an increased loading of .401. Hence, this suggests that the second EFA with 15 items yielded a better solution than the previous EFA with 16 items.

Next, all items were subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using SmartPLS, which relies on principal component analysis to account for the variation within variables in the model (Chin, 1998). SmartPLS was preferred for consistency across EFA and CFA, as the exploratory factor analysis in the previous stage was also based on principal component analysis. The aim was to understand whether the data fit well with the factor structure obtained in EFA. Accordingly, a second-order WBCL, that is treating WBCL as a higher order construct, with 15 items and five factors yielded a result where loadings of all items were above the critical threshold of .50 (Hair et al., 1998), as shown in Table 13. Even though, standardized factor loading has been suggested to be ideally 0.7 or higher, a factor loading of 0.5 has also deemed as acceptable (Hair et al., 1998). A bootstrapped factor analysis in SmartPLS showed that outer loadings of all items were statistically significant. Hence, all items were retained in the model.

Table 13: Measurement Properties

Factors	Items of WBCL	Factor loadings	CR	AVE
Factor 1	8. Tracking and recognition of long-term assets	0.777	0.785	0.482
	5. Making financial risk analysis	0.551		

	7. Making customer reconciliation	0.657		
	6. Making account reconciliation with banks	0.767		
Factor 2	15. Preparing financial reports	0.653	0.758	0.512
	16. Using a computer software	0.769		
	13. Preparing budget	0.720		
Factor 3	4. Conducting daily banking operations	0.690	0.775	0.535
	14. Making budget tracking and analysis	0.743		
	9. Keeping and controlling accounting records	0.760		
Factor 4	12. Preparing TMS/TFRS reports	0.813	0.823	0.700
	11. Conducting tax treatment	0.859		
Factor 5	1. Preparing cash budget	0.789	0.738	0.485
	10. Making and controlling year-end accounting records	0.648		
	3. Managing and reporting receivables and collections	0.764		

Moreover, in order to assess the convergent validity and quality of the scale, average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) scores were calculated. Composite reliability stands for the internal reliability of the construct but differs from Cronbach's alpha by assuming that all items are not equally reliable. The suggested minimum threshold for CR is 0.7. CR score of all factors were above 0.7. Because the construct was tested as a second-order construct, CR for overall construct was also calculated. It was found to be 0.829, which was also above 0.7. The second measure used to assess convergent validity of the construct was AVE. AVE accounts for the extent to which variance in the construct is explained by items vs. by measurement error. The lowest cutoff for AVE has been suggested as 0.5, which means that at least 50% of variance is explained by the construct. However, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that if composite reliability is higher than 0.6, then AVE scores less than 0.5 does not threat convergent validity. Hence, even though two of the factors had AVE below 0.5, because their CR scores were above 0.6, convergent validity of the scale was accepted as adequate. AVE of the second-order was found to be 0.247. However, because CR was above 0.6, following suggestion of Fornell and Larcker (1981), the overall convergent validity of the scale was accepted to be adequate.

In order to evaluate whether WBCL represented a higher-order construct, the direct effect of higher-order factor of WBCL on first-order factors was analyzed. In order to confirm that WBCL is a higher-order construct, then first-order factors should have significant loadings on the second-order construct (i.e. WBCL) and all these loadings should be in the expected direction, that is positive (Vandenberg et al., 1999; Wilson et al., 2004). As seen in Table 14, all five factors have positive and significant loadings onto the second-order WBCL construct. This suggested that second-order WBCL with 15 items had acceptable overall fit. Because second-order construct represents a more parsimonious structure compared to lower-order interrelationships (Brown, 2006), and no theoretical difference was expected across first-order factors, WBCL was treated as a unidimensional construct in hypothesis testing. Lastly, Cronbach alpha reliability of overall WBCL scale with 15 items was adequate ($\alpha = 0.77$). Similarly, the reliabilities for employee WBCL ($\alpha = 0.72$) and supervisor WBCL scale ($\alpha = 0.80$) were also satisfactory.

Table 14: Second-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Second-order factor	First-order factors	Loadings	*p*-value
Work-Based Construal Level	Factor 1	0.717	***
	Factor 2	0.662	***
	Factor 3	0.744	***
	Factor 4	0.584	***
	Factor 5	0.685	***

Note. All the loadings are significant at $p < .001$.

Moreover, convergent validity of a scale is also assessed by comparing its correlation with an alternative scale measuring the same or similar concept (Hair et al., 1998). For this reason, in order to test the convergent validity of overall work-based construal level scale; that is the extent to which the scale is significantly correlated with a theoretically similar construct, correlation of work-based construal level scale with general construal level scale. Even though people could have chronic and dispositional orientation to think abstractly or concretely in general, they might also have domain-based construal orientations that might deviate from their general construal level. For example, Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) suggested that role integration arising from the transition of one's roles from work to home, could bring about an abstract construal level with regard to work roles so that people could cope with simultaneous demands of overlapping roles. In the same vein, this dissertation expected people to have stable work-specific construal levels which is different from but slightly correlated with their general chronic construal levels. Accordingly, the correlation between work-domain construal level and general construal level was found to be positive but weak ($r(335) = .21$, $p = .00$). This result is consistent with the expectation that these two types of construal levels should operate differently, yet still it is reasonable that they are weakly and positively correlated. Using abstract thinking or concrete thinking in daily life might influence how one views his/her job and hence be correlated with how one thinks about his/her job. Yet, despite general construal level and work-based construal are still assumed to be different from each other and function differently, the weak correlation between them provides that work-based construal level scale presents a distinctive representation of one's work tasks but also correlated with general construal level.

4.3.3.3. Leader-Member Exchange Quality (LMX)

In LMX literature there are a number of scales developed to gauge leader-member relationship quality. Yet, two of these scales, LMX-7 and LMX-MDM have been the prevalent tools utilized in LMX research (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Accordingly, from 1999 to 2011 the majority of LMX studies, 85% to be precise, have used one of these two scales (Joseph et al., 2011). LMX-7 scale measures the relationship quality as a unidimensional construct, using 7 items with 5-point Likert scale. On the contrary, LMX-MDM considers the relationship quality as a multidimensional construct composed of four dimensions, loyalty, professional respect, affect, and contribution. Moreover, some argues that LMX-

MDM is a better tool, relative to LMX-7, because LMX-MDM was built up through meticulous scale development process, whereas LMX-7 lacks specific qualifications of scale developments (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). However, meta-analytic studies examining the moderating effect of the LMX scale on the relationship of LMX with LMX antecedents and LMX consequences did not found a significant difference depending on whether the scale was LMX-7 or LMX-MDM (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2016). More importantly, Joseph et al. (2011) found that two measures are very strongly correlated (corrected r = .90) and also demonstrated that 94% of the studies using LMX-7 or LMX-MDM treated the construct as a single unidimensional construct. Hence, they concluded that what LMX-7 and LMX-MDM measure is the same higher-order construct. Because, in this dissertation no theoretical differences were expected across relationship dimension and the relationship quality was considered as a single construct in theoretical arguments of hypothesis development, LMX-7 scale was employed in order to measure relationship quality.

Another concern with measuring LMX quality is the perspective of whom the relationship quality is assessed. The majority of studies in literature have adopted employee-perspective to measure LMX quality (Dulebohn et al, 2012). Moreover, it is suggested that supervisor perspective of LMX quality might provide an inflated assessment given that supervisors might perceive the assessment of LMX quality as a personal evaluation of leadership (Sin et al., 2009). Hence, in this dissertation employee-rated LMX was preferred to measure LMX quality. Accordingly, subordinates were asked to evaluate their relationship with their immediate supervisor using seven questions on 5-point Likert scale. Internal consistency of LMX-7 scale was found to be satisfactory (α = 0.87) (Nunnally, 1978).

4.3.3.4. Control Variables

LMX research has shown that demographic similarity between leaders and followers is an important predictor of the relationship quality. Accordingly, dyads with similarity in gender, age, education, race have been found to have better quality relationships (Tsui and O’Reilly, 1989; Williams and O’Reilly, 1998). Even though some studies suggested that demographic similarity is a kind of surface-level similarity and becomes less salient and diminishes in effect over time (Bauer and Green, 1996; Kacmar et al., 2009), in this study demographic similarity in age, gender and education level were measured in order to control their effect in hypothesis testing, consistent with previous studies on LMX (Sears and Hackett, 2011). For this purpose, age dissimilarity between leader and follower was calculated as the absolute difference between ages of parties, such that higher scores indicated higher differences. Also, gender dissimilarity was coded as 0 for similar gender, and 1 for different gender. Lastly, for education level difference, first education levels of both parties were scored from 1 to 4 (as shown in Table 9). Then, absolute differences were calculated by subtracting one score from the other, so that the higher the absolute difference, the higher the education level difference. Hence, the higher the difference scores, the higher age, gender and education dissimilarity. Moreover, dyadic tenure between leader and follower has been suggested to be predictive of relationship quality (Sin et al., 2009). Hence, employees were also asked to indicate for how long they and their immediate supervisor had been working together.

4.3.4. Analytic Strategy

Similarity research in organizational behavior field has adopted different methods to assess leader and follower similarity in various constructs and their effect on outcomes (Riordan and Wayne, 2008). One of these methods is called Euclidean distance (D-score) which measures similarity through an index calculated by taking the square root of sum of squared differences for an individuals’ response and each corresponding response of the other person for each item (Tsui et al, 1991). D-score has been commonly used to operationalize similarity between leaders and followers (Bernerth et al. 2008; Engle and Lord 1997; Hatfield and Huseman, 1982; Sears and Holmvall, 2010; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991). Following these studies, work-based construal level similarity was operationalized by calculating the Euclidean distance between employee WBCL and supervisor WBCL; that is, calculating the square root of sum of squared differences between each WBCL scale item rated by employee and each WBCL scale item rated by supervisor. This resulted in a difference index whereby higher scores indicated lower similarity in WBCL. Put it differently, the lower the difference score (D score), the higher leader-follower similarity in WBCL. There has been debate about the robustness and reliability of using difference scores for similarity calculation (Edwards, 1994). One problem with difference scores relates to the intercorrelation between two constructs reducing the reliability of difference scores if these two constructs are measured from the same source. In order to address this concern, using multi-source and multi-item data has been suggested (Tisak and Smith, 1994). In line with this solution, the present study collected data from two different sources by measuring WBCL of employees and supervisors directly from focal persons rather than measuring both constructs indirectly from the same person (e.g. employee's perception of supervisor WBCL). Moreover, WBCL scale incorporated relatively high number of items, namely 15 items, which could address the potential of low reliability due to few numbers of items in a scale. Moreover, another criticism is that reliability of difference scores greatly relies on reliability of constructs (Johns, 1981). When the constructs are highly correlated or have low internal consistency, as is the case in single-item measurements, then difference scores also suffer from low reliability. Addressing this concern is the fact that the correlation between employee WBCL and supervisor WBCL is reasonably weak (Table 15, $r = .16$, $p < .05$) and both scales have adequate internal consistency (employee $\alpha = 0.72$, supervisor $\alpha = 0.80$). Hence, low reliability in difference scores due to high correlation between constructs or low internal consistency of individual constructs does not pose a serious problem for the current study. Moreover, difference scores are suggested to be questionable in case a where two constructs are discrepant from each other (Edwards, 1994). However, in the current study, standard deviation of employee WBCL ($\sigma = .75$) and supervisor WBCL ($\sigma = .80$) suggests that these two constructs have comparable properties; hence discrepancy of constructs is not an issue for this study. Because the nature of the data collected in the current study minimizes the concerns mentioned above, Euclidian difference score was adopted to measure WBCL similarity between supervisors and employees.

In the current study, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) was applied for hypothesis testing. HLM is a regression analysis method based on ordinary least square (OLS) regression and is used to analyze “nested” or “clustered” data structures in which observations are situated in different hierarchical levels. In other words, when observations at a lower hierarchical level are nested or clustered within observations at a hierarchically higher level, then this data structure is qualified as multilevel and merits a data analysis based on hierarchical analysis. Typical example for a hierarchical data involves observations obtained from employees nested within different departments which are nested within different organizations. Accordingly, employee data obtained from different departments from different organizations represent a nested data structure with three hierarchical levels. Employees are clustered within departments and departments are clustered within organizations. Employees within the same department are prone to be alike as a result of being affected by the same factors such as same supervisor, similar tasks, and similar way of doing things etc. Further, employees tend to be more similar to employees from the same organization compared to other employees from other organizations, as employees from the same organization are subjected to common factors such company policies, organization structure, organization culture etc. Hence, observations from the same cluster are not independent from each other. This lack of independence of observations and thus residuals across clusters violates the assumption of OLS regression that error terms are uncorrelated. In order to address this problem, HLM allow for residuals at each level of the hierarchy. For example, the three-level nested structure in the above example would take into consideration random sampling at all levels and include random errors associated with grouping at all levels. If traditional OLS regression, which assumes independence of observations and error terms, was used for this three-level data, then it would estimate smaller and thus biased standard errors increasing probability of Type I error. This would in turn lead to biased estimates inaccurate inferences.

Given that HLM provides better predictive facility for clustered data and that the sample in the current study has nested structure, HLM, rather than traditional OLS regression, was chosen for hypothesis testing. The sample in the present study has two hierarchical levels whereby employees (level 1) are nested within supervisors (level 2). Lastly, work-based construal level similarity was grand-mean centered before analysis.

4.4. FINDINGS

4.4.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

In order to test distinctiveness of the constructs measured from the same source, which were work-based construal level of employee and LMX quality, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using AMOS. In other words, a two-factor model where employee WBCL and LMX quality were treated as distinctive factors was compared with an alternative one-factor model where employee WBCL and LMX quality were combined as one factor.

The result of confirmatory factors analysis where employee WBCL and LMX were treated as different constructs demonstrated an acceptable fit, χ^2 (203) = 332.55, χ^2/df = 1.63; p < .001, CFI = .89, GFI = .89, RMSEA = .05. When this measurement model is compared with the alternative one factor model where employee WBCL and LMX were combined as one factor, compared to hypothesized model, the alternative model demonstrated poorer fit, χ^2 (204) = 454.31, χ^2/df = 2.22, p < .001, CFI = .80, GFI = .85, RMSEA = .07. Also, the chi-square differences tests showed that the measurement model with two variables was significantly better than the alternative model with the one combined variable, $\Delta\chi^2$ = 121.76, Δdf = 1, p < .001. Hence, the model with two variables better fits the data than the alternative model. This comparison demonstrated that variables of employee WBCL and LMX quality obtained from the same source have discriminant validity and good fit.

4.4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive information including mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values, variance, and skewness and kurtosis statistics for variables measured in the study are presented in Table 15.

Table 15: Descriptive Statistics

Variables	M	SD	Min	Max	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender dissimilarity	.53	.50	0	1	.25	-.14	-1.99
Age dissimilarity	7.60	5.96	0	25	35.53	.85	-.02
Education dissimilarity	.50	.64	0	3	.40	1.12	1.02
Dyadic tenure	3.95	4.41	.04	26	19.46	2.38	6.32
EGCL	42.28	4.58	26	50	21.04	-.993	1.38
SGCL	43.05	4.83	27	50	23.34	-1.15	1.52
EWBCL	4.39	.75	1.67	6	.57	-.14	.19
SWBCL	4.90	.80	1.67	6	.64	-1.03	2.01
WBCL dissimilarity	8.31	2.68	.00	15.81	7.21	.05	.36
LMX	3.44	.74	1.14	4.86	.54	-.38	.01

Notes. *N* = 335 responses, 245 employees, 90 supervisors for all variables except age similarity. For age similarity N = 333 responses, 244 employees and 89 supervisors. Gender dissimilarity: 0 = similar gender, 1 = different gender. Education similarity: 0 = similar education level, 3 = highest difference in education level. EGCL = Employee general construal level, SGCL = Supervisor general construal level, EWBCL= Employee work-based construal level, SWBCL = Supervisor work-based construal level, WBCL dissimilarity = WBCL dissimilarity between employee and supervisor.

As seen in the above table, dyads have relatively less similarity to each other in terms of age, as mean of age dissimilarity is relatively high (*M* = 7.60, *SD* = 5.96). This is related to the fact that subordinates are younger (*M* = 32.99, *SD* = 6.17) than supervisors (*M* = 39.43, *SD* = 5.76). On the contrary, dyads are similar in terms of their education levels, given that education dissimilarity is low (*M* = .50, *SD* = 64). Considering that jobs in the financial affairs departments generally require at least university degree, it is reasonable that parties have similar education levels. Dyadic tenure indicates the time period over which parties work together. Even though the sample consists of dyads that have been formed very recently, as recent as only 15 days, it also consists dyads with an enduring dyadic history, such as 26-year of dyadic tenure, which explains high variance across dyads (σ^2 = 19.46). Yet, considering that average dyadic tenure is relatively long, almost four years (*M* = 3.95, *SD* = 4.41), and that relationship quality between leaders and followers is established at the very early times of the interaction history (Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell, 1993), dyads in this sample had fairly established relationships. This indicates that perceptions of LMX quality were based on established dyadic relationships and hence and could be regarded as robust and reliable source of relationship quality.

Moreover, general construal level of supervisors (*M* = 43.05, *SD* = 4.83) was found to be higher than general construal level of employees (*M* = 42.28, *SD* = 4.58). Yet, this difference was not statistically significant, $F(1, 333) = 1.801$, $p = 0.18$. A similar pattern was observed also for work-based construal level with supervisors (*M* = 4.90, *SD* = .80) having higher scores than that of employees (*M* = 4.39, *SD* = .75). This difference was statistically significant, $F(1, 333) = 29.14$, $p = 0.00$. This is consistent with the previous studies in construal level suggesting that those placed in higher levels of hierarchy relative to those in lower levels of the hierarchy (Berson and Halevy, 2014) and also those possessing more power relative to those less power have higher construal levels (Smith and Trope 2006). Leader-follower work-based construal dissimilarity demonstrated high variance across dyads (σ^2 = 7.21). The minimum score was found to be .00 indicating the dyads who represent the tasks at exactly the same abstraction level. The hypothetical highest point a dyad could score on the work-based construal level dissimilarity is 19.36, whereby parties mark the opposite ends for each task item. In this data, the maximum score was found to be 15.81, which is a fairly high difference score, indicating the dyads who represent the tasks at very different abstraction levels. The average work-based construal level dissimilarity was found to be below the hypothetical average of difference score ($M_{hypothetical}$ = 9.68, M_{actual} = 8.31, *SD* = 2.68), indicating that dyads on average had relatively similar perspectives on the representation of work tasks. Moreover, average LMX quality across dyads was found to be slightly above the midpoint (*M* = 3.44, *SD* = .74).

Lastly, skewness and kurtosis scores ranging between -2 and 2 indicate that the distribution of the data is normal for all variables, except dyadic tenure (George and Mallery, 2003).

Furthermore, intercorrelations across variables are shown in Table 16. Accordingly, employee WBCL is positively correlated with employee GCL (r = .18, p < .01). Similarly, supervisor WBCL is positively related to supervisor GCL (r = .23, p < .01). Positive weak correlation between WBCL and CL for both employees and supervisors suggests that even though these two should constructs might be share common theoretical underpinnings, they are still two different constructs.

Table 16: Zero-Order Intercorrelations

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender dissimilarity	-								
2. Age dissimilarity	-15*								
3. Education dissimilarity	-.02	-.14*							
4. Dyadic tenure	.14*	-.11	.12						
5. EGCL	.07	-.07	.04	.02					
6. SGCL	.01	-.10	.09	-.03	.04				
7. EWBCL	.04	-.12	-.04	-.10	.18**	-.04			
8. SWBCL	-.10	-.03	.15*	-.20*	-.04	.23**	.16*		
9. WBCL dissimilarity	-.05	.13*	.06	-.04	-.13*	-.07	-.56**	-.13*	
10. LMX	-.05	-.09	-.00	.04	.05	-.05	.06	-.04	-.13*

Notes. N = 335 responses, 245 employees, 90 supervisors, for all variables except age similarity. For age similarity N = 333 responses, 244 employees and 89 supervisors. Gender dissimilarity: 0 = similar gender, 1 = different gender. Education similarity: 0 = similar education level, 3 = highest difference in education level. EGCL = Employee general construal level, SGCL = Supervisor general construal level, EWBCL= Employee work-based construal level, SWBCL = Supervisor work-based construal level, WBCL dissimilarity = WBCL dissimilarity between employee and supervisor. * p < .05, ** p < .01.

Work-based construal level dissimilarity has weak, yet significant negative association with LMX quality (r = -.13, p < .01). Accordingly, as work-based construal level similarity between dyadic members increases (i.e. dissimilarity score diminishes), LMX quality increases, as well. This is an initial support for the hypothesis that similarity in work-based construal level contributes to LMX quality.

Moreover, LMX was not found to be significantly associated with any of the demographic similarity factors, nor with dyadic tenure. Even though no correlation might seem contrary to the previous findings suggesting a positive effect of demographic similarity on LMX quality (Pelled and Xin, 2000), this finding is not really counterintuitive. Research on the role of leader-follower similarity in LMX quality has also shown that similarities in surface-level characteristics, such as demographic similarity, is most salient at the early stages of the interaction, when parties do not have enough deep-level knowledge about other member. Yet, as parties get to know each other and uncover other important similarities that of greater significance to their interaction, demographic similarities decrease in importance (Bauer and Green, 1996; Kacmar et al., 2009). Given that majority of the dyads in the sample of this study have fairly long dyadic tenures, it is not surprising that demographic similarities between parties are not correlated with their perceptions of LMX quality.

4.4.3. Hypothesis Testing

In order to test the hypothesis that employees with higher similarity (i.e. lower dissimilarity) to supervisors in terms of construal level experience better LMX quality, an HLM regression analysis was conducted where employees are grouped by supervisors. The analyses were conducted employing mixed linear model with restricted maximum likelihood in SPSS. Also, construal level dissimilarity (D-score) has been considered as a level-1 predictor as it changes across employees at level-1.

Because the data is collected from groups with several employees working for the same supervisor, it might lead to a clustering effect where the variance in dependent variable could be explained by the group that the employees are nested in. If there is clustering effect, it requires using multilevel modeling that considers clustering effect with regard to dependent variable. That is why firstly a null model with no predictors was built in order to test whether there is variance LMX quality across level-2 groups, that is the variation across groups due to being under the same supervisors. Put it differently, the aim of null model is to observe clustering effect in the data.

In order to understand whether there exists a clustering effect in data, two statistics need to be addressed. The first one is the test of level-2 variance component and the other one is intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC). Hence, a null model with no predictors were built. This model can be represented as follows:

Level 1 (employee level) equation: $LMX_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}$

Level 2 (supervisor level) equation: $\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}$

Combined model: $LMX_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j} + r_{ij}$

LMX_{ij} = LMX score for employee "i" in supervisor "j"

β_{0j} = intercept for supervisor "j". It is the mean LMX score for supervisor "j", and the expected LMX quality score for employee "i" within that supervisor.

r_{ij} = Level-1 residual; it is the difference between employee "i" in supervisor "j"'s LMX score and supervisor "j"'s LMX score mean. In other words, it shows variance in LMX scores within groups (within-group variance).

γ_{00} = the expectation for supervisor level intercepts/means. It is the grand mean of LMX score.

u_{0j} = Level-2 residual; it is the difference between supervisor j's intercept/mean and the grand mean (γ_{00}) of the intercepts/means. In other words, it shows variance in LMX scores between groups (between-group variance).

Accordingly, as the first step, a null model with no predictors was tested to obtain variance components. The aim in this first step was to test whether the variability in LMX scores at supervisor level (at level-2) was significantly different than zero. If there exists significant differences at level-2 in LMX scores, then conducting HLM analysis is necessary. The results yielded an intercept value statistically significant from zero, $\sigma u_{0j}^2 = .107$, Wald Z = 2.393, $p < .05$. Significant variance of intercept at level-2 provided the evidence that there is significant clustering effect on LMX scores or significant variances across supervisors (between group variance), hence it is necessary to use HLM rather than traditional OLS which might lead to inaccurate results in this case. Similarly, residual parameter for within group variance was also found significant, $\sigma r_{ij}^2 = .443$, Wald Z = 9.102, $p < .01$; indicating that variance in LMX scores also was accounted for by differences among employees within the same group (i.e. supervisor).

As to other method to test clustering effect, ICC score was calculated using the below equation.

$$\mathrm{ICC} = \frac{\sigma uoj^2}{\sigma rij^2 + \sigma uoj^2} = \frac{.106668}{.443260 + .106668} = 0.193967$$

ICC is used as another indicator to in order to test whether there is clustering effect on dependent variable. According to Heck et al. (2014), ICC levels higher than 0.05 indicates clustered observations. Hence, ICC level of 0.19 provided the support that there is considerable clustering effect across supervisors due to nested data structure. ICC level of 0.19 suggests that 19% of variance in LMX quality occurs between groups (i.e. supervisors) and 19% of variance in LMX quality could be accounted for by between-group variance. Also, the remaining 81% of variance is at the employee level. Hence, this finding also provided statistical justification to go on with HLM regression rather than traditional regression.

Following the null model with no predictors, the next step is to build a random intercept-only model that includes fixed effects of level-1 predictors and random variance in supervisor (level-2) intercepts. This model is represented as follows:

Level 1 equation (employee level): $LMX_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}gendersimilarity_{ij} + \beta_{2j}agesimilarity_{ij} + \beta_{3j}educationsimilarity_{ij} + \beta_{4j}dyadictenure_{ij} + \beta_{5j}EmployeeWBCL_{ij} + \beta_{5j}SupervisorWBCL_{ij} + \beta_{5j}WBCLsimilarity_{ij} + r_{ij}$

Level 2 (supervisor level) equation: $\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}$

Level 2 (supervisor level) equation: $\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10}$

Combined model: $LMX_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}gendersimilarity_{ij} + \gamma_{20}agesimilarity_{ij} + \gamma_{30}educationsimilarity_{ij} + \gamma_{40}dyadictenure_{ij} + \gamma_{50}WBCLsimilarity_{ij} + u_{0j} + u_{ij}$

The results of random intercepts model testing fixed effects of level-1 variables revealed that none of the control variables had significant effect on LMX quality, *p*'s > .05 (Table 17, Model 2). Even though no hypotheses were built for main effects of employee WBCL and supervisor WBCL, their effect on LMX quality were also tested. Accordingly, neither employee WBCL nor supervisor WBCL had significant impact on LMX quality, *p*'s > .05, (Table 17, Model 2). However, the effect of WBCL similarity on

LMX quality was significant (γ = -.048, t(228) = -2.178, p = .030). Recalling that operationalization of WBCL similarity was based on calculating difference scores which suggested increased similarity with lower scores and reduced similarity with higher scores, this negative fixed effect indicates that the higher the score of WBCL dissimilarity (i.e. lower similarity scores), the lower LMX quality. Put it differently, the lower the difference score and the lower WBCL difference between supervisor and employee, the higher LMX quality between them. This result supports hypothesis of the current study that leader-follower similarity in work-construal level positively related to LMX quality.

Table 17: Results of HLM Regression Analysis

Variables	**Null model with no predictors**		**Random intercept-only model**	
	γ	**SE$_\gamma$**	**γ**	**SE$_\gamma$**
Fixed effects				
Intercept	3.453	.057**	3.641	.484**
Control variables				
Gender dissimilarity			.155	.095
Age dissimilarity			-.007	.008
Education dissimilarity			-.035	.076
Dyadic tenure			.002	.011
Independent variable				
Employee WBCL			-.054	.078
Supervisor WBCL			-.061	.074
WBCL similarity			-.048	.022*
Random effects				
Level-1 variance (r_{ij})	.443	.048**	.427	.048**
Level-2 variance (u_{0j})	.106	.044*	.128	.050*
R^2			.035	

Notes. N = 244 at Level-1, N = 89 at Level-2. SE = standard error. * $p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

R^2 provides a value for the variance explained in LMX quality by level-1 predictors. R^2 was calculated by using the below equation. Accordingly, level-1 model with control variables as predictors explained nearly 3.5% of variance in LMX quality.

$$R^2_{\text{random intercept model}} = \frac{\sigma^2_{null} - \sigma^2_{random}}{\sigma^2_{null}} = \frac{.443260 - .427725}{.443260} = 0.035047$$

CONCLUSION

Different than the traditional average leadership approaches which focuses on the one-way effect from leaders to followers, LMX theory takes on a dyadic perspective toward leadership phenomena and highlights two-way exchanges whereby both parties contribute to the development of the relationship. Consistent with this dyadic perspective of LMX theory is the theoretical assumption that characteristics of both parties are important for relationship quality (Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Empirical evidence has also corroborated this theoretical assumption such that leader and follower similarity was found to be important predictors of LMX quality (Erdogan and Bauer, 2014). This dissertation attempted to extend this line of research by investigating similarity in construal levels of dyadic parties. Specifically, the aim of this dissertation was to investigate the role of construal level similarity between leader and follower in relation to their mutual interactions at the workplace, namely LMX quality. It was hypothesized that the more similar a leader and a follower to each other in terms of construal level, the better the LMX quality between them. In other words, dyadic parties who hold compatible mental representation of the work- who both construe the work at high construal level or low construal level, would experience high quality LMX relationships.

In order to test this hypothesis, three studies were conducted. The first study had a 2 x 1 between-subjects experimental design which assigned a leadership role to participants and after manipulating participants' construal level examined whether they preferred a follower with construal level similar to their own using a scenario study. Based on the theoretical assumption of role theory that leaders initiate and dominate role-processes and thus determine which subordinate to include in in-group (Graen and Scandura, 1987; Graen and Ulh-Bien, 1995), leaders' preference between two subordinate candidates was considered as a proxy as for LMX quality. Accordingly, it was expected that leaders' preference for a follower would be the function of similarity between leaders' and follower's construal levels in that abstract-minded leaders would prefer an abstract-minded follower more than a concrete-minded follower and concrete-minded leaders would prefer a concrete-minded follower more than an abstract-minded follower. Between-subjects ANOVA for 74 participants found no difference between participants induced with abstract construal and those induced with concrete construal. In other words, leaders did not show a tendency to prefer a follower with construal level similar to their own.

Next, two related studies were conducted. The first study was a qualitative study with an aim of adapting the work-based construal level scale developed by Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015). For this purpose, a three-stage study was adopted. At the first stage, common work activities of incumbents working in financial affairs department of organizations were identified. Accordingly, 259 job postings with various positions and job titles advertised in Turkey's largest job search platform were analyzed for the job responsibilities they included. Then, work activities and tasks that overlap the most across positions and job titles for jobs in financial affairs department were selected. Accordingly, 17 common work activities were identified. At the second stage, structured interviews were conducted with 31 workers of financial affairs department in various organizations. Participants were asked to define why and how they performed each of 17 work activities that had been identified in the first stage. At the third stage, interview data was analyzed and for each activity the most frequently used expressions to identify each work activity were selected. Accordingly, for each work activity, two descriptions one representing abstract (why) definition and the other representing concrete (how) definition of the work activity were formed. The last version of the scale consisted 16 work activities each with two descriptions.

Next, a quantitative survey study was conducted for hypothesis testing. Accordingly, leader and follower dyads working in financial affairs departments of various organizations were surveyed through online and paper-pencil questionnaires. Participants were asked to rate their own construal level and subordinates were asked to rate their dyadic relationship quality with their immediate supervisor. Totally, 245 matched dyads with 90 supervisors participated in the study. It was expected that the greater the work-based construal level similarity between members, the better quality their dyadic relationship. In line with the expectation, the results of HLM analysis revealed that subordinates who were higher similarity with the supervisor in terms of work-based construal level reported greater LMX quality.

Theoretical Implications

The current research makes important contributions to both LMX literature and CLT literature. Firstly, this dissertation responds to the appeals for further research to uncover more leader-related antecedents of LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Even though leaders have more decisive role in determining the relationship quality, as a result of power differential in favor of the leader (Snodgrass et al., 1998), leader-related antecedents compared to follower or interpersonal antecedents are limited and need more attention. The current research attempts to address this need by investigating and revealing how congruence between leader and follower with respect to the mental representation of work helps dyadic parties to build better relationships. Given that LMX quality subsequently influences a considerable collection of organizational and work-related outcomes ranging from subordinate performance and organizational citizenship behavior to turnover intention, job satisfaction and justice perceptions (Dulebohn et al., 2012, Gerstner and Day, 1997; Illies et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2016), revealing factors affecting LMX quality is also of considerable importance in explaining these outcomes along with leadership phenomena.

Furthermore, this dissertation also contributes to person-supervisor fit literature. Person-supervisor fit literature considers fit between subordinate and supervisor experience fit in terms of personality, goals and values as a special type of person-environment fit. In other words, supervisor's characteristics are respected as an explicit environmental factor and the congruence between subordinate's and supervisor's characteristics are examined as it is a particular case of person-environment fit. However, the findings of the current research, together with other dyadic similarity research in cognitive factors (Coyle and Foti, 2015; Engle and Lord, 1997; Jackson and Johnson, 2012; Lord and Maher, 1991; Sy, 2013; Tsai et al., 2017), necessitates extending the person-supervisor fit literature to include cognitive characteristics of parties, which may not be observed as explicitly as the personality characteristics and goals and values that dyadic parties have, in fit research. Even though cognitive factors might render an implicit characteristic, their correspondence might still be affecting LMX processes. For example, even though self-identities might appear an implicit characteristic, dyadic congruence of self-identities between leaders and followers has been demonstrated as an important antecedent shaping LMX quality perceptions of both leaders and followers (Jackson and Johnson, 2012). In the same vein, the findings of our study provide the empirical evidence that dyadic fit in cognitive factors, which is in this study depicted as the congruence in how work activities are mentally represented, do influence LMX processes and hence be taken into consideration in explaining the person-supervisor fit.

Moreover, this research also enhances the recent research interest in dyadic cognitive similarity to explain LMX quality. Prior research on dyadic cognitive similarity in relation to quality of dyadic interactions between leader and follower has focused mostly on factors that mainly influence relational or exchange processes of the relationship; such as congruence in relational schema, (Tsai et al., 2017), congruence in relational and collective self-identity (Jackson and Johnson, 2012), and congruence in implicit followership and/or leadership schemas (Coyle and Foti, 2015; Engle and Lord, 1997; Lord and Maher, 1991; Sy, 2013). However, as explained in the first chapter of the literature review, LMX processes are explained not only by social exchanges but also with role theory driven processes (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Hence, dyadic factors that affect role-processes should also influence relationship quality. Given this importance of role-processes in LMX development, the current research took on a different perspective compared to previous studies on dyadic cognitive similarity by explaining the effect of cognitive similarity on LMX quality through role-based processes. Extending previous research on the significance of cognitive similarity for LMX quality, this dissertation demonstrated that dyadic similarity in the way parties mentally represent their work should be also considered as a cognitive factor shaping dyadic interactions at work.

Additionally, this research contributes to CLT literature. Consistent with the recent interest in leveraging CLT in organizational research, the current research acknowledges the importance of construal level at workplace (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Implementation of CLT in organizational studies has brought a novel and sophisticated perspective which furthers the current understanding of concepts such as organizational change and innovation, ethics and justice perceptions, communication and leadership. By the same token, the present research showed that applying CLT in leadership studies proves useful for explicating and advancing the leadership phenomena. Consistent with the study of Reyt and Wiesenfeld (2015) which demonstrated that the people have unique mental representations of work and these unique representations are reflected in daily work communication, the present research showed not only that people differ in how they construe the same work activities but also that these differences in work-domain construal levels translate influence dyadic interactions. More importantly, even though work-based construal level and general construal level have positive weak correlation, the way they operate at workplace is not the same. To put it more precisely, while the composition of construal levels that dyadic parties bring into the workplace (i.e. WBCL) does affect mutual interactions and are relevant for relational processes, composition of general construal levels of parties does not have any influence on LMX quality. This finding indicates that people have unique ways of construing the work and the compatibility of representation of the work matters for how dyadic parties interact at workplace.

Moreover, consistent with the previous research suggesting that hierarchy and power induce abstract construal (Magee et al., 2010; Magee and Smith, 2013; Reyt and Wiesenfeld, 2015; Smith and Trope, 2006), the present research found that supervisors had significantly higher construals than subordinates. However, more importantly, the findings of the current research also demonstrate that despite this difference, as a result of the differences in hierarchical power, effective dyadic work relationships and improved workplace communication require the dyadic similarity or closeness in the levels of construal of work as much as possible. Even though supervisors' having higher work construals on average relative to subordinates might seem a natural outcome of power and hierarchy, this assumption needs to be implemented cautiously since not all leaders represent the work at the same high level of construal nor do all subordinates represent the work at low level of construal.

Furthermore, prior research implementing CLT on leadership phenomena introduced the concept of construal fit which refers to the idea that leadership outcomes are a function of construal level of leaders' communication/behaviors and hierarchical power possessed by leaders such that more effective outcomes are attained when leaders at higher hierarchical levels (thus holding greater power) act upon abstract construals (e.g. communicating abstract visions) and when leaders at lower hierarchical levels (thus holding relatively less power than former leader) employ concrete construal (e.g. providing with specific feedbacks and mentoring) (Berson and Halevy, 2014). However, along with this type of construal fit between leaders' hierarchical distance from followers and construal of leaders' behaviors, social fit between construal of interacting parties, that is compatibility or similarity in construal levels of parties, might be more relevant for relational processes, as suggested by Wiesenfeld et al. (2017). Supporting this assertion, findings of the current research provided evidence that correspondence between construal levels of dyadic parties at workplace, namely social construal fit, might possibly be as important as construal fit from a relational perspective of leadership phenomena.

Lastly, even though no hypotheses were formed for main effects of leader construal level and follower construal level in this research, in a previous study we found positive main effect of leader construal level on LMX quality (Emirza and Katrinli, 2019). Specifically, that study emphasized the importance of abstract leader behavior in motivating employees and improving relationship quality. Different than the current research, that study measured leader's construal level subjectively by asking followers to rate how they perceived construal level of their leader. Although findings of these two studies might seem opposite, it arguably is related to the way how leaders' construal level is measured. This difference indicates that leader construal level subjectively perceived by followers and leader construal level objectively measured from leaders are two different constructs and leaders' construal level might not always translate into behaviors that are easily discerned by followers. This assumption is consistent with arguments of the present research which suggests that leader's and follower's construal levels jointly influence work-related communication pertaining to role-processes.

Practical Implications

The first managerial implication of the current research relates to presence of differences in representation of work. Accordingly, people performing the same tasks differ in how they define and mentally represent these tasks. While some people focus on concrete details and feasibility concerns of the work activities, others care less about these details and concern more about broad purpose and desirability aspects of the same work activities. Firstly, leaders are recommended to recognize the presence of these differences that their subordinates might have and appreciate the opportunities that these differences might offer. For example, a concrete-minded follower might bring circumstantial issues that might hinder the success of an attempt to the attention of abstract-minded leader. Hence, these differences should be acknowledged and embraced as a diversity brought in the workplace by unique mental representations of employees.

The second implication relates to the positive effect that construal level congruence has on LMX quality. As evidenced by the current research, followers reported that they experienced higher quality dyadic relationships when they and their leader both have similar construal levels. This finding indicates that leader's and follower's construal levels do not function separately, which points to not only the importance of recognizing the differences that dyadic parties might bring in but also the need to act upon these differences. Even though work-based construal level was considered as a rather stable domain-specific representation in the current research, basic underpinning of construal level theory is that construal level of targets might be altered with accurate manipulations (Trope and Liberman, 2010). If leaders recognize any differences between their own representation of the work and their subordinates' representation of the work, they might lessen the possible problems that these differences might cause for the quality of communication and, thus, relationship. For instance, an abstract-minded supervisor recognizing a subordinate laying too much stress on secondary features of a task and missing the bigger picture might draw subordinate's attention to the global scale by consecutively asking the overarching purpose of performing the task until the subordinate arrives at the broadest representation of the task (Fujita et al., 2006b). By that way, the leader could improve the effectiveness of the message received by the follower and contribute to a smoother dyadic communication.

Limitations and Future Research

Several limitations of the current research should be noted. One limitation relates to cross-sectional design of the survey study (i.e. study three). Even though majority of dyadic similarity studies employed cross-sectional designs, longitudinal designs might reveal more insight into the development of LMX processes. LMX theory suggests that relationship quality is established at the very early stages of the interaction history (Nahrgang et al., 2009). Yet, dyadic similarity research has found that surface-level similarities might be more salient at the early stages but lose their effect as the relationship evolves into higher levels of interdependence (Harrison et al., 1998). Hence, examining the effect of congruence in construal levels of dyadic parties over the course of different role stages throughout the interaction history might provide a deeper understanding for its effect. Moreover, because findings of the experimental first study did not support the hypothesis and the third study employed a cross-sectional design with correlational nature, no causal inferences could be drawn for the relationship between construal level similarity and LMX quality. Although the theoretical reasonings of LMX and person-supervisor fit allow building the hypothesis that dyadic similarity should influence LMX quality, this association might work in the opposite way given that CLT's suggestion that people's construal level could be induced by situational inducement. In other words, the design and findings of the current study do not exclude the possibility that those dyadic parties with high quality relationship influences each other cognition such that they start to resemble each other in the way they construe things (Rentsch et al., 2008). Hence, a longitudinal study measuring relationship quality and objective construal level similarity of dyadic parties at different time points could observe the change in both variables over time and thus provide a sound methodological evidence for the direction of the proposed relationship.

Other limitation relates to the sample of studies. The sample of the first experimental study is composed of students of Faculty of Business. Yet, despite prior leadership studies assigning students leadership roles (Decoster et al., 2014; Henson and Beehr, 2018), this practice is still questionable given that not all students could feel engaged and involved in the task of hiring a subordinate. Hence, future studies might repeat design of the first experimental study on a sample of actual leaders or on employees with at least some experience of managerial responsibilities in order to sustain actuality. For the second and third studies, a specific sample was chosen in order to adapt and employ work-based construal level scale. However, this limited sample confines the scope of findings to dyads working in financial services. Hence, generatability of the current work should be further examined by future research including dyads from different field of working.

Moreover, consistent with the majority of LMX work (Hiller et al., 2011), this research preferred to measure follower-rated LMX rather than leader-rated LMX. Yet, prior studies have demonstrated that perspectives of followers and leaders towards LMX quality might be different from each other. Accordingly, while employees focus on relational and social aspects of the dyadic relationship, leaders, on the contrary, evaluate task and performance related aspects of the dyadic relationship when evaluating quality of dyadic relationship (Zhou and Schriesheim, 2010). Hence, future studies are encouraged to replicate the present study by measuring both follower-rated and leader-rated LMX. My expectation is that, future studies, provided that they could overcome problems with measuring LMX from leader perspective (e.g. self-evaluation bias, (Sin et al., 2009), might found the effect of construal level similarity to be stronger for leader-rated LMX than it is for follower-rated LMX. Because construal level similarity was theorized to function through task-related communication over the course role stages and also because leaders focus on performance and task-related components within the work relationship, leaders should experience the positive effect of dyadic construal level similarity more than followers do.

Moreover, this research paid attention to the direct association between construal level similarity and LMX quality and yet it did not specifically address the possible mediation mechanisms nor addressed the probable outcomes of this association. Future studies that examine mediators and outcomes this association are warranted. One mediator of the hypothesized relationship could be the perceived similarity between parties. Given that abstract construal level helps people capture similarities between entities and targets (McCrea et al., 2012; Trope and Liberman, 2010), dyadic parties with abstract construals might be better at recognizing the construal level similarity compared to dyads with concrete mindsets. Moreover, one study argues that although both actual and perceived similarity increase liking between dyadic parties, actual similarity works better for relationships with shorter tenure while perceived similarity predicts liking for relationships with short and long tenure (Montoya et al., 2008). Hence, it could be argued that to the extent that construal level similarity increases perceived similarity between dyadic parties it influences LMX quality. Additionally, given that LMX has been analyzed as the precursor of numerous organizational and attitudinal and behavioral employee outcomes (Dulebohn et al., 2012), as elaborated in the first chapter, future work is recommended to investigate the indirect effect of construal level similarity on these outcomes through LMX quality. For instance, employees who has construal levels congruent with their supervisors might experience role stressors, such as role ambiguity, to a lower extent, because they have clearer understanding of the tasks to be done and improved communication as a result of compatible construal level similarity and also of higher quality LMX relationship.

In conclusion, drawing on LMX and CLT theories, this dissertation showed that construal level dyadic similarity, as a form of cognitive similarity, is important for dyadic workplace interactions between leaders and followers. Specifically, it was found that dyads experienced better quality LMX relationships, as their similarity in construal level increases. The findings of this dissertation support the arguments of Wiesenfeld et al. (2017) that CLT offers promising avenues for organizational studies and the current research indicates that CLT is highly relevant for leadership phenomena.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: HR Scenario Used in the Experimental Study

Bir şirketin İnsan Kaynakları Departmanında yönetici olarak çalıştığınızı hayal edin.

Departmanınıza size bağlı çalışmak üzere yeni bir insan kaynakları sorumlusu alınacaktır. Alınacak kişi ile ilgili son kararı siz vereceksiniz.

Görüşme yapılan adaylardan geriye iki kişi kalmıştır. Bu iki kişi arasında bir karar vermeniz gerekmektedir.

Aşağıda her iki adayın kendisi hakkında verdiği bilgiler yer almaktadır. Bu bilgileri okuyunuz ve sonrasında bu kişiler ile ilgili sorulan soruları cevaplayınız.

Soru:

Özgeçmişinize baktığımda şu anda bir şirkette insan kaynakları sorumlusu olarak çalıştığınızı görüyorum. Şu anda yapmakta olduğunuz işinizden bahseder misiniz?

BİRİNCİ ADAY

Cevap:

Öncelikle, işe alım ve yerleştirme kapsamında yeni açılan pozisyonların ilan edilmesi işini yürütüyorum. Bunun için ilanın yayınlanacağı kurumlara telefon açıyor ve/veya mail gönderiyorum; ilanın ne kadar süre yayında kalacağı ve kimlere açık olacağı ile ilgili bilgi veriyorum.

İşimdeki görevlerimden bir diğeri işe alım mülakatları gerçekleştirmektir. Bunun için yeni açılan bir pozisyona başvuran adayların her birinin özgeçmişlerini bilgisayarda tek tek görüntülüyorum. Adayın yabancı dil bilgisine, toplam iş tecrübesine, hangi programları bildiğine bakıyorum. Ayrıca mülakat sırasında adayın bu işi neden istediğini ve kurum hakkında neler bildiğini soruyorum.

Personel eğitimi ve geliştirilmesi bir diğer görev alanımdır. Her yıl bir kere, personelin eğitim ihtiyacını anket ve yüz yüze görüşme yöntemi ile tespit ediyorum. Eğitimi verecek kişi ve kurumlarla telefon/veya mail yoluyla iletişime geçiyorum. Hangi tarihte hangi eğitimin verileceğini belirliyorum. Eğitim tamamlandıktan sonra verilen eğitimin verimliliğini ölçmek için eğitim alan çalışanlara test uyguluyorum.

Son olarak performans değerlendirme sürecindeki görevimden bahsedebilirim. Yöneticilerin kendilerine bağlı çalışanların performanslarını değerlendirirken kullanacakları formları hazırlıyorum. Bu formları çoğaltıp yöneticilere elden teslim ediyorum. Bu sırada son değerlendirme tarihini de yöneticiye bildiriyorum. Yöneticiden formları yine elden alıyor ve her bir çalışanın performans skorunu hesaplıyorum. Daha sonra bu skoru yöneticiye mail yoluyla bildiriyorum.

İKİNCİ ADAY

Cevap:

Öncelikle, işe alım ve yerleştirme kapsamında yeni açılan pozisyonların ilan edilmesinden sorumluyum. Yeni açılan pozisyonların ilanını vererek aday kişilere ulaşmak istememizin nedeni kuruma ve işe en uygun kişileri çekebilmek ve kaliteli bir aday havuzu oluşturmaktır.

İşimdeki görevlerimden bir diğeri işe alım mülakatları gerçekleştirmektir. Açılan pozisyona başvuran adayların kurum değerlerine uyum sağlayacağından emin olmak için mülakatlar gerçekleştiriyorum. İş mülakatlarındaki amacım kurumun gelişmesine katkı sağlayacak doğru kişiyi bulmaktır.

Personel eğitimi ve geliştirilmesi bir diğer görev alanımdır. Bu kapsamda oryantasyon eğitimleri ile işe yeni başlayan personelin işe ve kuruma alışmasını ve uyum sağlamasını amaçlıyorum. Ayrıca periyodik eğitimler ile kurumun beceri ve yetkinliği tam olan bir personel kadrosu ile donatılmasını amaçlıyorum.

Son olarak performans değerlendirme sürecindeki görevimden bahsedebilirim. Bu süreçte tüm personelin kuruma yaptığı katkıyı görmek istiyorum. Bu kapsamda çalışanların en üst potansiyellerini ortaya çıkarmalarını sağlamayı ve olabilecek en iyi performansı göstermelerini sağlamayı amaçlıyorum.

Lütfen iki adayın yukarıdaki anlatımlarını göz önüne alarak arka sayfadaki soruları cevaplayınız.

Bu iki adaydan daha çok hangisinin yöneticisi olduğunuz departmanda size bağlı olarak çalışmasını istersiniz?

(Sol tarafa doğru gittikçe ADAY 1'i tercih edersiniz, sağ tarafa gittikçe ADAY 2'yi tercih edersiniz)

KESİNLİKLE ADAY 1							**KESİNLİKLE ADAY 2**

ADAY 1'in aşağıdaki özellikleri ne derecede gösterdiğini düşündüğünüzü belirtiniz.

	Hiç değil						Çok fazla
Bilgili	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Yetkin (işin ehli)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Zeki	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Güçlü	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Güvenilir	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cana yakın	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pratik	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Görev odaklı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ADAY 1'in önceki deneyimi başarılı olması için sizce yeterli midir?

Çok yetersiz	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Oldukça yeterli

ADAY 1'in özgeçmişi hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

Oldukça kötü	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Oldukça iyi

ADAY 1'in yukarıdaki anlatımı sizce nasıldır?

Somut	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Soyut

Çok fazla detay veriyor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Genel resmi anlatıyor

İşin tekniğini ve nasıl yapıldığını anlatıyor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	İşin amacını ve neden yapıldığını anlatıyor

Yan ve ikincil noktalara değiniyor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ana ve tanımlayıcı noktalara değiniyor

ADAY 2'nin aşağıdaki özellikleri ne derecede gösterdiğini düşündüğünüzü belirtiniz.

	Hiç değil						Çok fazla
Bilgili	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Yetkin (işin ehli)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Zeki	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Güçlü	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Güvenilir	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cana yakın	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pratik	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Görev odaklı							

ADAY 2'nin önceki deneyimi başarılı olması için sizce yeterli midir?

Çok yetersiz	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Oldukça yeterli

ADAY 2'nin özgeçmişi hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

Oldukça kötü	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Oldukça iyi

ADAY 2'nin yukarıdaki anlatımı sizce nasıldır?

Somut	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Soyut

Çok fazla detay veriyor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Genel resmi anlatıyor

İşin tekniğini ve nasıl yapıldığını anlatıyor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	İşin amacını ve neden yapıldığını anlatıyor

Yan ve ikincil noktalara değiniyor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ana ve tanımlayıcı noktalara değiniyor

APPENDIX 2: Questionnaire Form of Used in Survey Study

DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ DOKTORA TEZ ÇALIŞMASI

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü Araştırma Görevlisi Sevgi Emirza tarafından doktora tez çalışması kapsamında yürütülmektedir.

Çalışmanın Amacı

Bu çalışmanın amacı mali işler departmanında çalışan kişilerin işleri ile ilgili bakış açılarını ve işlerini nasıl anlamlandırdıklarını incelemektir.

Takip eden sayfalarda size dört bölümden oluşacak bir anket sunulacaktır. Anketin tamamlanması en fazla 10 dakika sürecektir.

Bu ankette yer alan soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevapları yoktur. Çalışma sonuçlarının gerçeğe uygun olması için sorulara samimi ve gerçekçi cevaplar vermeniz önemlidir.

Gizlilik

Bu çalışmadan elde edilecek **tüm veriler kesinlikle gizli kalacaktır ve 3. kişilerle asla paylaşılmayacaktır.** Elde edilen tüm veriler yalnızca toplu halde anonim olarak değerlendirilecektir ve bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacaktır. Bireysel yanıtlar tek başına değerlendirilmeyecektir.

Araştırmacının Kimliği

Bu araştırma ile ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz veya endişeniz varsa, lütfen iletişime geçiniz:

Tez Araştırmacısı: Araş. Gör. Sevgi Emirza – sevgi.bakar@deu.edu.tr – 0 232 301 8299
Tez Danışmanı: Prof. Dr. Alev Katrinli- alev.katrinli@deu.edu.tr

Değerli katkılarınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla,

Sevgi Emirza
Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi
İşletme Bölümü Yönetim ve Organizasyon Anabilim Dalı

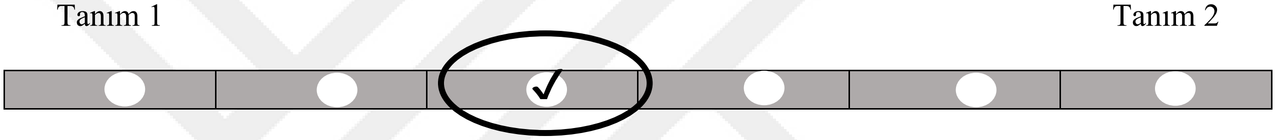
BİRİNCİ BÖLÜM

Aşağıda mali işler kapsamında yürütülen 16 iş verilmiştir. Her bir işin altında bu işleri tanımlayan iki ifade yer almaktadır.

Bu işleri yaptığınızı hayal ediniz. Bu **iki tanımdan size göre hangisinin bu işi en iyi tanımladığını** belirtiniz. İki uçta bulunan tanımlar arasındaki **hat boyunca istediğiniz noktada** işaretleme yaparak hangi tanımın size göre daha uygun olduğunu belirtiniz.

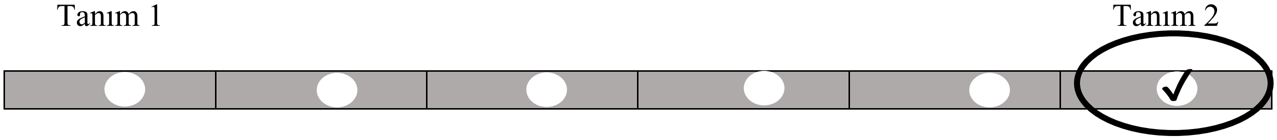
Aşağıdaki örnekteki gibi eğer ölçeğin sol ucunda yer alan Tanım 1'in Tanım 2'ye kıyasla **biraz daha iyi bir tanım** olduğunu düşünüyorsanız, o zaman ölçek üzerinde biraz sola yani Tanım 1'e doğru bir seçim yapınız.

Tanım 1 Tanım 2



Eğer ölçeğin sağ ucunda yer alan "Tanım 2"'nin Tanım 1'den **çok daha iyi bir tanım** olduğunu düşünüyorsanız ve Tanım 1'i hiç tercih etmiyorsanız, o zaman ölçek üzerinde Tanım 2'nin en yakınına doğru işaretleme yapınız.

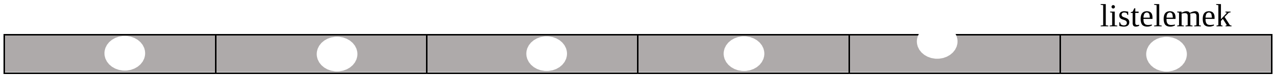
Tanım 1 Tanım 2



1. Nakit akış bütçesini yapmak

Nakit Dengesini Sağlamak

Hangi gün ne kadar para ödeneceğini listelemek



2. Günlük nakit akışını yönetmek

O günkü ödemeler için bankadan transfer yapmak	Günlük nakit çıkışlarını planlamak

3. Finansal raporları hazırlamak

Şirketin finansal durumunu göstermek	Muhasebe kayıtlarını yapmak ve düzenlemek

4. TMS/ TFRS raporlarını hazırlamak

TMS/TFRS’ye dönüştüren kayıtları atmak	Uluslararası standartlara uymak

5. Cari mutabakat yapmak

Borç ve alacak bakiyelerinin doğruluğunu sağlamak	Faks veya mail yolu ile mutabakat formu göndermek

6. Alacak ve tahsilat takibi yapmak

Alacakların vadesinde tahsil edilmesini sağlamak	Alacakların vadesini gösteren rapor hazırlamak

7. Günlük banka işlemlerini yürütmek

Banka talimatı yazmak	Ödemelerin yapılmasını sağlamak

8. Banka mutabakatlarını yapmak

Banka bakiyelerinin doğruluğunu sağlamak	Bankaya mutabakat mektubu yazmak

9. Duran varlıkları takip etmek

Sabit kıymetlerin muhasebe kayıtlarını atmak	Şirketin hangi kalemlere yatırım yaptığını görmek

10. Finansal risk analizi yapmak

Nakit akışında dengeyi korumak

Ödeme ve tahsilatların vadelerini kontrol etmek

11. Dönem içi muhasebe kayıtlarını yapmak ve kontrol etmek

Raporlama için veri oluşturmak

Muhasebe kaydı atmak

12. Dönem sonu kapanışı yapmak

Dönem sonu performansını değerlendirmek

Kapanış kayıtlarını atmak

13. Vergi işlemlerini yapmak

Muhasebe kayıtlarına göre beyanname düzenlemek

Vergisel yükümlülükleri yerine getirmek

14. Bütçe hazırlamak

Kaynakların etkin şekilde kullanılmasını sağlamak	Gelir ve giderleri hesaplamak

15. Bütçe takibi ve analizi yapmak

Bütçe ile gerçekleşen rakamları karşılaştırmak	Bütçeden sapmaları ve nedenlerini tespit etmek

16. Bilgisayar yazılımı kullanmak

Fatura işleme ekranını kullanmak	Muhasebe verisi oluşturmak

İKİNCİ BÖLÜM

Herhangi bir davranış, birbirinden farklı pek çok ifade ile tarif edilebilir. Örneğin bir kişinin "makale yazma" dediği bir davranışı bir başkası "klavyedeki tuşlara bakma" olarak tanımlayabilir. Yine, başka bir kişi aynı davranışı "düşünceleri ifade etme" olarak tanımlayabilir.

Bu çalışmada sizin farklı davranışları nasıl tanımladığınızı anlamak amaçlanmaktadır. Aşağıda çeşitli davranışlar verilmiştir. Her bir davranıştan sonra bu davranışı tanımlayan iki farklı ifade verilmiştir.

Örneğin, Sınıfta bulunma

a. Sandalyede oturma b. Tahtaya bakma

Sizden istenen, verilen davranışı iki seçenekten hangisinin daha iyi tanımladığını (ifade ettiğini) belirtmenizdir. **Size göre, davranışı "a" ve "b" seçeneklerinden hangisi daha iyi tanımlıyorsa o seçeneği işaretleyiniz.**

Her bir davranış için lütfen yalnızca bir tane seçenek işaretleyiniz. Bu tanımların doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Önemli olan sizin kişisel tercihinize göre bu iki seçenekten hangisinin verilen davranışı daha iyi ifade ettiğidir.

1. Bir kişiye iyilik etme	
a. Bir kişinin mutlu olması için çalışma	**b.** Bir kimsenin yapacağı işlere yardım etme
2. Alışveriş yapma	
a. Mal alıp karşılığında para verme	**b.** İhtiyaçları karşılama
3. Orduya katılma	
a. Milli savunmaya yardım etme	**b.** Askere gitme
4. Çamaşır yıkama	
a. Çamaşırların kir ve kokularını giderme	**b.** Çamaşırları çamaşır makinesine atma
5. Elma toplama	
a. Yiyecek bir şeyler edinme	**b.** Elmayı dalından koparma
6. Ağaç kesme	
a. Balta veya testere kullanma	**b.** Odun elde etme
7. Halı döşetmek için odanın ölçüsünü alma	
a. Odanın görünümünü değiştirme	**b.** Metre veya başka bir ölçme aracı kullanma
8. Bir kitap veya defteri ciltleme	
a. Bir kitap veya defteri ciltle kaplama	**b.** Kitap veya defteri koruma
9. Odayı boyama	

a. Fırçayla duvarlara ve tavana boya sürme	**b.** Odaya yeni bir görünüm verme
10. Kira ödeme	
a. Ev sahiplerine para verme	**b.** Aynı evde oturmaya devam etme
11. Evde çiçek yetiştirme	
a. Saksıda çiçek büyütme	**b.** Odayı güzelleştirme
12. Kapıyı kilitleme	
a. Anahtarı kilidine sokup çevirme	**b.** Evi emniyete alma
13. Evlenme	
a. Aile kurma	**b.** Bir kadınla veya erkekle nikahlanma
14. Ağaca tırmanma	
a. Yükseklere çıkma	**b.** Dallara tutunma
15. Kişilik testi doldurma	
a. Testteki soruları cevaplama	**b.** Nasıl bir kişi olduğunu gösterme
16. Diş fırçalama	
a. Diş çürümelerini önleme	**b.** Diş fırçası ile dişleri temizleme
17. Sınava girme	
a. Sınav sorularını cevaplama	**b.** Bilgi düzeyini gösterme
18. Birisiyle selamlaşma	
a. Merhaba deme	**b.** Arkadaşlığını gösterme
19. Sobayı yakma	
a. Sobaya odun-kömür koyarak tutuşturma	**b.** Odayı veya evi ısıtma
20. Yemek yeme	
a. Beslenme	**b.** Ağzındaki lokmayı çiğneme ve yutma
21. Odanın ışığını yakma	
a. Işığın düğmesine basma	**b.** Odayı aydınlatma
22. Zengin olma	
a. Daha rahat (iyi) yaşama	**b.** Çok para sahibi olma
23. Diş dolgusu yaptırma	
a. Dişi koruma	**b.** Tedavi olma
24. Çocukla konuşma	
a. Çocuğa bir şeyler öğretme	**b.** Çocuğa, anlayabileceği basit kelimelerle hitap etme
25. Kapının zilini çalma	
a. Parmakla kapı ziline dokunma	**b.** Evde birisinin olup olmadığına bakma

ÜÇÜNCÜ BÖLÜM

Bu bölümde size şu andaki yöneticiniz ile ilişkiniz hakkında sorular sorulacaktır.

"Yönetici" kelimesi şu anki işinizde sizden sorumlu olan ve doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz ilk yöneticinizi (amirinizi) ifade etmektedir. Bu bölümdeki soruları cevaplarken bu kişiyi ve bu kişi ile ilişkinizi düşününüz.

Lütfen aşağıda her bir sorunun altında yer alan 1 ila 5 arasındaki ölçeği kullanarak soruları cevaplayınız.

1. Yöneticinizin, yaptığınız işten ne kadar memnun olduğunu genellikle bilir misiniz?

Çok nadir **1**	**Nadiren** **2**	**Ara sıra** **3**	**Oldukça sık** **4**	**Çok sık** **5**
○	○	○	○	○

2. Yöneticiniz, sizin işte yaşadığınız problemlerinizi ve ihtiyaçlarınızı ne kadar iyi anlar?

Hiç **1**	**Biraz** **2**	**Orta düzeyde** **3**	**Oldukça** **4**	**Çok büyük ölçüde** **5**
○	○	○	○	○

3. Yöneticiniz sizin potansiyelinizin ne kadar farkındadır?

Hiç **1**	**Biraz** **2**	**Orta düzeyde** **3**	**Büyük ölçüde** **4**	**Tamamen** **5**
○	○	○	○	○

4. Yöneticinizin elindeki imkanları/gücü, işteki sorunlarınızı çözmenize yardım etmek için kullanma olasılığı ne kadardır?

Hiç **1**	**Düşük** **2**	**Orta** **3**	**Yüksek** **4**	**Çok yüksek** **5**
○	○	○	○	○

5. İşte zor bir durumda kalacak olsanız, yöneticinizin zarar görmeyi göze alıp sizi bu durumdan kurtarma olasılığı ne kadardır?

Hiç **1**	**Düşük** **2**	**Orta** **3**	**Yüksek** **4**	**Çok yüksek** **5**
○	○	○	○	○

6. Yöneticime, onun olmadığı bir ortamda onun fikirlerini onun adına savunacak ve doğrulayacak kadar güvenim vardır. Bu ifadeye....

Hiç katılmıyorum 1	Katılmıyorum 2	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum 3	Katılıyorum 4	Tamamen katılıyorum 5
○	○	○	○	○

7. Yöneticiniz ile iş ilişkinizi nasıl tanımlarsınız?

Çok verimsiz 1	Ortalamanın altında 2	Ortalama 3	Ortalamanın üstünde 4	Çok verimli 5
○	○	○	○	○

DÖRDÜNCÜ BÖLÜM

Bu bölümde, demografik özelliklerinizi anlayabilmek için birkaç soru sorulmuştur.

1. Cinsiyetiniz?

a. Kadın b. Erkek

2. Yaşınız?

3. En son aldığınız derece/mezuniyet?

a. Lise b. Önlisans/yüksekokul c. Üniversite d. Yüksek lisans e. Doktora

4. Kaç yıldır şu anki yöneticinize bağlı olarak çalışıyorsunuz?
Örneğin; 2 yıl 3 ay, 5 yıl 7 ay şeklinde yazınız.

5. Toplam iş tecrübeniz kaç yıldır?

6. İşinizden genel olarak ne kadar memnunsunuz?

Hiç 1	Biraz 2	Orta düzeyde 3	Oldukça 4	Çok 5
○	○	○	○	○

7. Bu çalışma ile ilgili belirtmek istediğiniz yorum, öneri ya da eleştiriniz var ise aşağıdaki alana ekleyebilirsiniz.