

Sucking-up in Context: Effects of Relativity and Congruence of Ingratiation on
Social Exchange Relationships with Supervisors and Teammates

by

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ABSTRACT

Research suggests that behaving in an ingratiation manner towards one's supervisor is a double-edged sword. On the one hand, ingratiation is a powerful tool through which employees develop positive social exchange relationships with target audiences (i.e., supervisors) and subsequently obtain desired outcomes at work. On the other hand, third party observers of ingratiation often view this behavior (and the people enacting it) in a negative manner, thereby hindering ingratiation employees' ability to develop high quality social exchange relationships with these individuals. However, this research primarily focuses on how organizational actors perceive of ingratiation employees while neglecting the social context in which this behavior occurs. This is an important limitation because there are compelling reasons to believe that the social context plays a crucial role in how individuals react to ingratiation. Specifically, the social context may influence the extent to which ingratiation is salient, valued, and/or perceived as normative behavior by organizational members both within and external to the ingratiation-target dyad, which in turn affects how this behavior relates to relationship quality with the target and observers. The objective of my dissertation is to address this limitation by integrating a social context perspective with social exchange theory to build a "frog-pond" model of ingratiation. To that end, I propose that employees' ingratiation *relative to their team members*, rather than absolute levels of ingratiation, drives positive exchange quality with supervisors. Furthermore, I hypothesize that *congruence between the focal employee's ingratiation and other team members' ingratiation* increases employees' social exchange quality with team members. I also shed light on the

asymmetrical nature of ingratiation (in)congruence by investigating how different types of congruence and incongruence impact social exchange quality with team members in different ways. In addition, I examine how relative ingratiation indirectly influences supervisors' citizenship behavior toward the focal employee via focal employee-supervisor social exchange quality, as well as how ingratiation congruence indirectly affects team members' citizenship behavior toward the focal employee through social exchange quality between the two parties. I test my hypotheses in a multi-wave multi-source field study of 222 employees and 64 teams/supervisors.

*To my family
Youyoen, Daniel, Mom, and Dad*

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The manner in which individuals present themselves to others plays an integral role in determining the quality of their experiences at work (Bolino, Long, & Turnley, 2016; Leary, 1995; Leary & Kowalski, 1990). People who project a positive image of themselves are not only more likely to gain entry into the organization (Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Proost, Schreurs, De Witte, & Derous, 2010; Stevens & Kristof, 1995), but are also more likely to receive organizational rewards and resources, opportunities for career advancement, positive evaluations of job performance, and higher pay as members of the organization (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008; Bolino et al., 2016). Furthermore, employees who project a positive social image tend to be liked by their coworkers, and are better equipped to cultivate positive relationships with important organizational actors (Gordon, 1996). In turn, high quality relationships positively contribute to employees' internal evaluations of their experiences at work, as well as their attitudes toward the organization such as overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to remain (e.g., Banks, Batchelor, Seers, O'Boyle, Pollack, & Gower, 2014; Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Dulebohn, Wu, & Liao, 2017).

Given the implications of projecting a positive image to other organizational members for employees' success at work, it comes as no surprise that impression management—defined as efforts taken by an organizational actor to “create, maintain, protect, or otherwise alter an image held by a target audience” (Bolino et al., 2008, p.

1080; see also Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Schlenker, 1980; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984)—has received considerable attention from management scholars. Research findings show that engaging in impression management leads to numerous benefits for the focal actor, especially when such efforts are directed toward one’s direct supervisor or leader (e.g., Bohra & Pandey, 1984; Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). These benefits include high social exchange quality with supervisors, higher compensation, and positive evaluations of likability, competence, performance, and promotability (e.g., Bolino et al., 2008; Gordon, 1996; Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997). In short, employees who effectively utilize impression management in their interactions with supervisors are more likely to establish a positive image, which in turn allows them to develop high quality relationships with their supervisors and “get ahead” in their respective organizations.

Although employees manage impressions by using a number of tactics—either separately or in conjunction with one another (Bolino & Turnley, 2003)—scholars have identified ingratiation, whereby the focal actor uses flattery and provides favors for the target to be perceived as likable (Bolino & Turnley, 1999; see also Jones, 1964; Jones & Pittman, 1982), as a particularly effective way of enhancing one’s image in the eyes of the supervisor (e.g., Bolino et al., 2016; Wayne et al., 1997). Given the dyadic nature of ingratiation (Bolino et al., 2008), wherein ingratiation episodes are comprised of an ingratiation attempt by the focal actor and a reciprocal response by the target audience, scholars have utilized social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976; Thibault &

Kelley, 1959; for review, see Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) to explain why ingratiation is a potent impression management tactic. For example, Kim, LePine, and Chun (2018) reported that managers who ingratiate themselves to their boss have higher levels of intrinsic and extrinsic success at work by virtue of enhanced leader-leader exchange (LLX) quality. Similarly, Westphal and Stern (2007) proposed that ingratiation benefits the focal actor via social exchange mechanisms (i.e., norms of reciprocity), while Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher (2007, p. 849) argued that ingratiation generates positive outcomes for the ingratiator “due to the need for the target to balance the goodwill generated by the behavior with reciprocal advantages and treatment”. In short, research indicates that ingratiation directed toward the supervisor (also referred to as upward ingratiation) is an effective impression management tactic that benefits the employee because it evokes norms of reciprocity in the employee-supervisor social exchange relationship and enhances relationship quality (Kim et al., 2018). In support of these arguments, meta-analytic reviews of the literature show that ingratiation increases interpersonal liking and social exchange quality between the focal actor and the target (e.g., Dulebohn et al., 2017; Gordon, 1996).

However, the advantages that accrue from the target (i.e., supervisor) of ingratiation may be offset by negative reactions from observers of this behavior, such as one’s team members. Individuals external to the ingratiation-target dyad are not only cognizant of ingratiation interactions (Fouk & Long, 2016), but also formulate opinions about the ingratiation actor based on their observations. For example, Vonk (2002) reported that observers evaluate ingratiation (and the people enacting it) in a negative

manner, while Kim et al. (2018) found that employees who witness their supervisor engaging in ingratiation towards his/her boss form negative social exchange relationships with that supervisor. These findings reflect the “dark side” of ingratiation wherein observers perceive of ingratiation as politically-driven and Machiavellian behavior (e.g., Fein, 1996; Jones, Gergen, & Jones, 1963; Pandey & Bohra, 1986; Parker & Parker, 2017), and thus avoid establishing positive relationships with ingratulatory people.

Taken together, scholars have proposed that upward ingratiation (hereafter simply referred to as “ingratiation”) may be a double-edged sword, especially as it pertains to reactions by different organizational audiences (e.g., Kim et al., 2018; Vonk, 1998). That is, ingratiation leads to positive relationships with supervisors, but negative relationships with observers. However, I contend that this conclusion is premature, and may hinder our ability to understand the full scope of how ingratiation functions in organizational settings. Specifically, the research outlined above primarily investigates how organizational members—either the target or observers of ingratiation—react to such behavior from a dyadic social exchange-based perspective without consideration of the larger social context in which ingratiation takes place. In turn, neglecting the role of the social context in which the ingratulatory actor, the target, and observers are embedded may lead to incomplete and/or incorrect conclusions regarding how ingratiation influences relationships with different organizational actors.

The limitations of a pure dyadic perspective come into focus when we consider how contextual cues influence the way individuals interpret social stimuli. According to Johns (2006), the social context shapes the salience, meaning, and value of social

interactions and behaviors such as ingratiation. These factors may influence how ingratiation is perceived by organizational audiences, which in turn affects the extent to which ingratiation helps (or harms) the focal employee. For instance, research on social attributions (e.g., Feldman, 1984; Jones & Davis, 1965) and social context (e.g., Dansereau & Yammarino, 2000; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994) suggest that behaviors take on different meanings based on whether they are enacted in an environment in which the behaviors are common vs. rare. As an illustration, consider the following two scenarios: (a) Emil displays high levels of ingratiation toward his supervisor, whereas his team members exhibit low levels of ingratiation; (b) Rosaline ingratiates herself to the supervisor, as do all other members of her team. Although the *absolute* levels of ingratiation may be the same for these two employees, their respective supervisors and team members may react to each in different ways. For instance, Emil's ingratiatory actions are more likely to be salient in comparison to Rosaline's behavior, and thus more likely to capture the attention of his supervisor. Furthermore, against the backdrop of non-ingratiatory team members, Emil's ingratiation may be more likely to be perceived as a valued social exchange resource (Foa & Foa, 1980; Thibault & Kelley, 1959; Wilson, Sin, & Conlon, 2010) by the supervisor, triggering positive reciprocity norms and increasing social exchange quality.

In contrast, in the eyes of observers (i.e., team members), Emil's ingratiatory behaviors toward the supervisor are more likely to be perceived in a negative manner. Observers generally look down upon ingratiatory individuals, as they tend to believe that ingratiation is politically-driven and self-serving behavior used to obtain individual

rewards (Vonk, 1998, 2002; Wayne et al., 1997), and these negative perceptions may be exacerbated in team contexts where ingratiation contradicts team norms. Individuals make attributions about others' actions based on the extent to which they conform to the social context (Feldman, 1984; Jones & Davis, 1965). As such, ingratiation employees embedded in non-ingratiatory teams may be particularly prone to negative reactions by team members. On the flip side, *refraining* from upward ingratiation may be perceived *negatively* by observers when the tendency among team members is to ingratiate the supervisor, as the lack of such behavior may be interpreted as a failure to adhere to team expectations. Interestingly, this contradicts the general consensus outlined above, which posits that observers are less inclined to form high quality social exchange relationships with ingratiation employees.

Furthermore, a dyadic exchange-based view is not conducive to studying how characteristics of the social context shape the effectiveness of ingratiation. The extant literature has primarily focused on how focal actor characteristics influence the relationships between ingratiation and its outcomes. For example, scholars have found that high self-monitors—due to their ability to accurately interpret social cues and adjust their attitudes and behaviors to fit different social situations (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986)—are more likely to reap the benefits of ingratiation (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Similarly, prior research has also identified political skill, defined as “the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and/or organizational objectives” (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004, p. 311), as an important boundary condition

that influences whether or not an ingratiation attempt is successful (e.g., Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Shaw, 2007; Treadway et al., 2007). Although these constructs are quite effective in explaining why *certain individuals* are better at ingratiation (and impression management in general) than others, examining characteristics of the social context can explain *under what circumstances* ingratiation is more or less likely to be successful. As such, incorporating a social context perspective to ingratiation research provides an avenue to investigate different types of boundary conditions across multiple levels of theory and analysis.

In short, consideration of the social context in conjunction with the traditional dyadic social exchange-based perspective may provide a richer understanding of how, why, and when ingratiation leads to beneficial or detrimental outcomes for the focal actor. As such, the objective of my dissertation is to investigate how the social context shapes target and observer reactions to upward ingratiation in the form of social exchange quality between the focal employee and the supervisor, as well as social exchange quality between the focal employee and his/her team members. Specifically, I propose that employee ingratiation relative to other team members (hereafter referred to as relative ingratiation), rather than absolute levels of ingratiation, drives social exchange quality with the supervisor. I also hypothesize that congruence between the focal employee's ingratiation and other team members' ingratiation positively influences exchange quality between the two parties. Furthermore, drawing upon research in cognitive and social psychology which posits that actions are more salient and thus have a stronger psychological impact in comparison to inaction (Fazio, Sherman, & Herr, 1982;

Newman, Wolff, & Hearst, 1980), I examine asymmetrical congruence and incongruence effects by proposing that social exchange quality with team members is higher when (a) congruence is at high levels of ingratiation in comparison to when it is at low levels of ingratiation and (b) the focal employee's ingratiation is lower than other team members' ingratiation in comparison to incongruent situations in which the employee's ingratiation is higher than other team members' ingratiation. I also investigate the downstream consequences of relative ingratiation and ingratiation congruence in the form of citizenship behavior received from supervisors and team members, respectively, as mediated by exchange quality with the corresponding actor(s).

My dissertation seeks to make the following contributions. By treating ingratiation as a social (rather than a dyadic) phenomenon which effects are shaped by characteristics of the social context, I challenge previously established notions regarding the benefits and drawbacks of this behavior. More specifically, I contend that depending on the prevalence of upward ingratiation among team members, this tactic may *enhance* ingratiation employees' social exchange quality with observers while refraining from this behavior may *diminish* exchange quality between the two parties. Similarly, I also propose that the utility of ingratiation as an impression management tactic that fosters high quality exchange relationships with supervisors is shaped by how widespread this behavior is within the team. Furthermore, by focusing on relative ingratiation and ingratiation congruence, I shift the focal level of theory and analysis from the individual/dyadic level to the individual-within-group level—also referred to the frog pond approach (Firebaugh, 1980, Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). Given the significance of

context in determining how individuals react to social behavior such as ingratiation (Johns, 2006), I believe this approach is not only more appropriate, but also provides opportunities to address research questions that reside at the intersection of dyadic and group-focused perspectives.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I first provide a review of the impression management literature, focusing on (a) the historical roots of impression management, (b) why individuals are motivated to manage impressions, (c) outcomes of impression management, and (d) how organizational actors manage impressions. Second, I review the extant literature on ingratiation, with an emphasis on (a) historical roots of the construct, (b) behavioral dimensions of ingratiation, (c) outcomes of ingratiation, and (d) how ingratiation affects targets and observers in different ways. Third, I provide a brief review of social exchange theory, as well as how this theoretical framework has guided ingratiation research. Fourth, I summarize the role of social context in organizational behavior research, and discuss the importance of specifying the appropriate level of theory when integrating the social context with a dyadic social exchange-based perspective.

Impression Management

Historical Roots of Impression Management. The notion that individuals act in certain ways to project a desired image has been prevalent in both social psychology (e.g., Baummeister, 1982; Schlenker, 1980; Tedeschi, 1981; Tetlock & Manstead, 1985) and organizational (e.g., Bolino et al., 2008; Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Gardner & Martinko, 1988) scholarship. The roots of impression management research date back to sociologist Erving Goffman's (1959) seminal book, *The presentation of self in everyday life*. Goffman—utilizing a dramaturgical lens—conceptualized impression management as a fundamental component of social interactions, whereby “actors” engage in

“performances” to project a desirable image to “audiences”. Specifically, Goffman proposed that individual characteristics of a social actor—such as Machiavellianism, need for social approval, social anxiety, and self-monitoring—act in conjunction with characteristics of the audience and environmental/contextual cues as social stimuli. Organizational actors interpret social situations based on these stimuli, and use these interpretations to behave in a manner that is expected to be received positively by others. The extent to which audiences respond positively to the focal actor’s impression management behavior is largely contingent on whether the two parties interpret the social situation in a similar way. When audiences react positively, actors perceive high levels of congruence between their own and audiences’ interpretations of the situation, which in turn reinforces the utility of enacted impression management behaviors. In contrast, when audiences react in a negative manner, actors go back to the drawing board and either redefine their interpretation of the situation, seek a different target audience, and/or alter their impression management behavior (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Goffman, 1959).

Although Goffman’s (1959) work is now credited as setting the groundwork for research on impression management (e.g., Baumeister, 1982; Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Jones, 1964; Leary and Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker, 1980), scholarly interest in this topic did not truly take off until two decades after the publication of his book. Prior to the 1980s, scholars primarily treated impression management in one of two ways—either as a nuisance that contaminates research findings (with the most famous example being the “Hawthorne effect”, Lansberger, 1958; Mayo, 1949), or a topic more suited for applied settings such as advertising and/or politics (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). However,

efforts by social psychologists and organizational scholars starting from the 1980s helped develop impression management as a theoretical construct central to interpersonal and social interactions, and thus worthy of scientific investigation (e.g., Baumeister, 1982; Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Jones & Pittman, 1982; Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker, 1980; Schlenker & Weigold, 1992; Tedeschi, 1981).

Building upon Goffman's work, these scholars examined why individuals are motivated to manage impressions in social settings (such as the workplace), how impression management influences various outcomes pertaining to the focal actor, and specific behaviors individuals utilize to manage impressions. Below, I provide a brief review of each of these streams of research.

Why Individuals Manage Impressions. Schlenker (1980) provided one of the earliest (and most influential) accounts of why individuals enact impression management behaviors. Specifically, he proposed that people manage impressions with the goal of creating and/or maintaining a desired social identity. Utilizing an expectancy-value framework, he suggested that the decision to project a particular image through specific impression management behaviors is a function of the focal actor's evaluations of potential benefits and costs that arise from such actions (see also Leary & Kowalski, 1990). According to Schlenker, social actors will actively attempt to claim a social identity (through impression management) when that identity provides the highest amount of utility and value. An important caveat to Schlenker's arguments is that the motives behind impression management are not necessarily Machiavellian or manipulative. That is, impression management may serve "a more private, personal

function. Convincing others that we possess some quality or attribute is a means of convincing ourselves” (Brown, 1998, p. 162).

Subsequent research has built upon Schlenker’s (1980) notion that identity construction is a key driver of impression management. For instance, Baumeister (1982, p. 21) proposed that “constructing one’s general public self” is a primary motive of impression management. Similarly, Leary and Kowalski (1990) stated that identity construction and self-esteem maintenance are two primary self-presentational motives, while Schlenker and Weigold (1992) proposed that self-glorification (i.e., enhancing self-esteem and presenting “ideal selves” in social situations), self-consistency (i.e., verifying existing self-conceptions), and self-authentication (i.e., seeking accurate information about the self) motives drive impression management. A common theme among these perspectives is that they adopt Schlenker’s (1980) proposal that impression management motives are determined by the focal actor’s intrinsic need to cultivate his/her social identity in a desirable manner, rather than the need to appease external audiences.

In contrast to the views outlined above, scholars have also proposed that social actors engage in impression management to satisfy instrumental or materialistic needs. For instance, Baumeister (1982) argued that although individuals do strive to present themselves in a positive light for identity construction reasons, an alternative motive may be to elicit a specific response from the target audience—such as being liked and/or being held in high esteem—which in turn provides access to desired resources that the target audience controls. Similarly, Leary & Kowalski (1990) proposed that individuals may be motivated to create and maintain a positive image to obtain valued and desired outcomes,

while Jones (1990) noted that individuals engage in “strategic” impression management as a means to gain power and influence over the target. Summarizing these views, Brown (1998, p. 162) stated that people may “strive to create impressions of themselves in the minds of others in order to gain material and social rewards”.

In addition to the specific motives behind actors’ attempts to control their social image, scholars have also examined the processes through which individuals decide to enact impression management. For instance, Leary and Kowalski (1990) presented a two-component model in which impression management is comprised of impression motivation (i.e., the extent to which individuals are motivated to control others’ perceptions of them) and impression construction. According to their framework, impression motivation is a function of three factors: (a) goal relevance of impressions (i.e., the extent to which a particular image contributes to the focal actor’s individual goals), (b) the value of said goals, and (c) the discrepancy between the focal actor’s desired and current images. These three factors increase the likelihood that an individual manages his/her impression, because “each affects the attainment of desired outcomes, the maintenance of self-esteem, and the development of desired identities” (Leary & Kowalski, 1990, p. 39). Once impression motivation has been established, individuals are faced with decisions regarding the specific impression they want to make, as well as how they will go about doing so. This process is called impression construction, and is determined by the following five factors: (a) the focal actor’s self-concept, (b) desired as well as undesired identity images, (c) constraints in the focal actor’s social roles, (d) the focal actor’s perceptions of the target audience’s values, and (e) how the focal actor

perceives that he/she is currently viewed, as well as how he/she will be viewed in the future by the target audience. Leary and Kowalski's (1990) model provided one of the first dynamic views of impression management, in which impression management is conceptualized as a *process* rather than a motive or behavior.

Building upon Leary and Kowalski's two-component framework, Bozeman and Kacmar (1997) proposed a cybernetic model of impression management, in which impression management motives and enacted impression management behaviors are influenced by *ongoing* (rather than episodic) interactions between the focal actor and organizational audiences. According to this model, individuals make comparisons between their current and desired social identities based on feedback received from the target. Actors then use this information to enact specific impression management behaviors geared toward achieving (or maintaining) their ideal image, and make alterations based on how the behaviors impact the target during subsequent interactions.

Taken together, the research outlined above has contributed to our understanding of what motivates individuals to manage impressions, as well as the internal and social processes that convert these motives to enacted behaviors. A common thread among these perspectives is that characteristics of the focal actor, the target audience(s), and the social context all have important effects on impression management. Unfortunately, however, the role of social context in determining impression management dynamics has been relegated to the background—especially when investigating the relationships between impression management behaviors, target reactions, and focal actor outcomes. I provide a brief summary of this research below, primarily focusing on individual-level

outcomes of impression management that have been identified by organizational scholars (for reviews, see Bolino et al., 2008; Bolino et al., 2016).

Outcomes of Impression Management. In the field of organizational behavior, impression management research has primarily been conducted in two specific topic areas—selection processes (e.g., job interviews) and performance appraisals (Bolino et al., 2016). Given that job offers and positive performance evaluations are valued and desired outcomes that motivate individuals to manage impressions (Leary & Kowalski, 1990), it comes as no surprise that impression management scholars have directed their attention to these two topics. First, a great deal of research shows that applicants who effectively use impression management during job interviews are more likely to be hired. For instance, Gilmore and Ferris (1989) reported that interviewees who enact impression management during the interview are more likely to receive positive assessments of interview performance, as well as actual job offers. Similarly, Stevens and Kristof (1995) found that on-campus recruits who managed impressions were more likely to receive positive ratings of perceived fit with the company, while Proost et al. (2010) found positive relationships between interviewee impression management and interviewers' (a) overall assessments of the applicant, (b) willingness to grant an invitation for a second interview, and (c) willingness to make an offer.

Second, research findings show that impression management—especially when directed toward the supervisor—is positively associated with supervisor evaluations of job performance as well as the focal employee's career success. For example, Wayne and colleagues (e.g. Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Wayne and Liden, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997)

found positive relationships between the use of impression management tactics and supervisor evaluations of the focal employee's (a) interpersonal skill, (b) perceived similarity, and (c) likability, which in turn led to positive assessments of performance and promotability (as well as recommendations for higher pay). Similarly, Bolino, Varela, Bande, and Turnley (2006) reported that employees who manage impressions receive higher ratings of organizational citizenship behavior—a component of overall job performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002)—while Judge and Bretz (1994) found positive associations between impression management and career success. Indeed, meta-analytic reviews of the literature (e.g., Gordon, 1996; Higgins et al., 2003) provide support for the notion that impression management is an effective way to obtain positive evaluations from supervisors and achieve success at work.

How Individuals Manage Impressions. As I outlined above, impression management is defined as individuals' efforts to create, maintain, or alter their social image (Bolino et al., 2008; Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997). Given the relatively broad definition of this construct, a wide array of behaviors have been defined as impression management in the literature. Bolino and colleagues (2008) conducted a narrative review—encompassing 30 years of impression management research—and identified 32 behaviors that have been described as impression management. These behaviors include “traditional” impression management tactics such as ingratiation and exemplification (Jones & Pittman, 1982), as well as actions not typically conceptualized as impression management (e.g., humor; Cooper, 2005).

As a result, scholars have proposed several frameworks and typologies to better

organize our understanding of how social/organizational actors manage impressions. Among the first of these efforts was conducted by Tedeschi and Melburg (1984), who proposed that different types of impression management behaviors can be categorized by examining their position along two dimensions: tactical vs. strategic (i.e., the extent to which impression management is enacted with short vs. long-term goals in mind), and assertive vs. defensive (i.e., whether impression management is proactively initiated by the focal actor, or as a reactive response to audiences' negative perceptions of the actor). Their 2 x 2 taxonomy proposes that all types of impression management belong in one of four buckets: tactical-assertive (e.g., ingratiation), tactical-defensive (e.g., making excuses or apologies after a mistake), strategic-assertive (e.g., establishing credibility and trust with the target audience), and strategic-defensive (e.g., cultivating a negative image through consistent bad behaviors such as drug use).

Taking an alternative approach, Wayne and Ferris (1990) proposed that different types of impression management behaviors should be organized based on the focus of impression management. Specifically, they suggested that impression management may focus on (a) the supervisor, (b) the self, or (c) the job. Supervisor-focused impression management consists of behaviors enacted during focal employee-supervisor interactions that are geared toward increasing the extent to which the supervisor views the employee in a positive manner. Self-focused impression management involves behaviors that highlight one's own positive attributes, such as past accomplishments, credentials, and experience. Job-focused impression management refers to behaviors that draw attention to the actor's performance-related activities.

The two approaches outlined above have aided scholars in their attempts to develop a coherent framework of how organizational actors manage impressions. However, Jones and Pittman's (1982) taxonomy is perhaps the most widely used framework that examines how individuals enact impression management (especially in organizational behavior research). Jones and Pittman proposed that individuals engage in impression management by utilizing the following behaviors: (a) ingratiation (using flattery and providing favors to be seen as likable), (b) self-promotion (emphasizing one's own accomplishments and qualities to be seen as competent), (c) exemplification (exceeding expectations and "going the extra mile" to be seen as dedicated), (d) intimidation (making threats and acting aggressively to be seen as powerful), and (e) supplication (highlighting one's own shortcomings and lack of ability to be seen as weak and needy). Among these five types of impression management behaviors, scholars have devoted most of their attention to investigating how ingratiation and self-promotion impact important work outcomes (Bolino et al., 2016).

I focus on ingratiation in my dissertation due to two unique properties of this construct. First, among the five impression management behaviors identified by Jones and Pittman (1982), ingratiation is the only one that influences target audience reactions through social exchange mechanisms (Kim et al., 2018). Second, ingratiation behavior not only generates reactions from the target, but also has a profound influence on how organizational actors external to the focal actor-target dyad perceive the focal actor (e.g., Foulk & Long, 2016; Kim et al., 2018; Vonk, 1998, 2002). As such, ingratiation is the most appropriate impression management behavior to address the objective of my

dissertation, which is to incorporate the social context with a dyadic social exchange-based view, and examine how the social context shapes the effects of impression management on multiple organizational audiences. I provide a more in-depth review of ingratiation research below.

Ingratiation

Historical Roots of Ingratiation. Ingratiation was first conceptualized as a theoretical construct by social psychologist Edward E. Jones (1964, p.2), who defined ingratiation as a form of impression management that reflects “episodes of social behavior that are designed to increase the attractiveness of the actor to the target”. Jones emphasized that ingratiation is comprised of two components—the *behavior* itself, and the *intent* behind the behavior. The intent or motive behind ingratiation behavior can be described as a two-part process. The immediate or short-term goal of ingratiation is to alter the target audience’s perceptions toward the focal actor in a favorable manner, inducing decisions that benefit the ingratiation actor. The long-term objective of ingratiation is to tip the balance of power toward the focal actor in his/her relationships with the target (Jones, 1964).

Given the two motives of ingratiation, both impression management (e.g., Bolino et al., 2008; Bolino et al., 2016; Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker, 1980) and social influence (e.g., Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Kipnis et al., 1980; Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971; Pandey, 1981; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) scholars have devoted their attention to this construct. Impression management research has largely focused on how ingratiation impacts (a) the target’s perceptions of the ingratiation actor, such as perceived

attractiveness and likability (e.g., Gordon, 1996; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), (b) relationship quality between the focal actor and the target (e.g., Kim et al., 2018; Koopman, Matta, Scott, & Conlon, 2015; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), and (c) benefits and evaluations that the target provides for the focal actor (e.g., Bolino et al., 2006; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). Social influence scholars have focused on the extent to which ingratiation increases the focal actor's power—defined as “an individual's relative capacity to modify others' states by providing or withholding resources or administering punishments” (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003, p. 265)—over the target audience (e.g., Pandey, 1981; Steiner, 1970). In particular, ingratiation—as a function of increasing the focal actor's attractiveness in the eyes of the target—increases the target's desire to identify and be associated with the focal actor, or what French and Raven (1959) refer to as referent power. A crucial point to make here is that these two perspectives are not opposed to each other, nor do they define ingratiation in a fundamental different manner. The key difference between these two streams of research as it pertains to ingratiation is the dependent variables of interest. That is, impression management scholars are interested in how ingratiation behavior alters the target's perceptions of the focal actor's attractiveness/likability, and how these perceptions drive subsequent interpersonal interactions as well as the focal actor's outcomes. Scholars who define ingratiation as an influence tactic (rather than an impression management tactic) focus on how ingratiation affects power dynamics between the ingratiation and the target.

Behavioral Dimensions of Ingratiation. Jones (1964) identified three behaviors that comprise ingratiation—other-enhancement, conformity in opinion, judgment, and

behavior, and self-presentation (see also Jones & Wortman, 1973). Other-enhancement (or flattery) refers to expressions of positive judgments regarding the target's strengths, qualities, and virtues. The effectiveness of flattery as an ingratiation tactic is based on the premise that individuals are attracted to others who think highly of them (Heider, 1958; Jones, 1964; Jones, Gergen, & Davis, 1962). That is, individuals generally view themselves in high esteem, and are cognitively dispositioned to perceive others who share that view in a positive light (Ditto & Lopez, 1992). Conformity in opinion, judgment, and behavior increases the focal actor's attractiveness in the eyes of the target based on principles of similarity-attraction (Byrne, 1971; Newcomb, 1961). That is, individuals "like those whose values and beliefs appear to be similar to their own" (Jones, 1964, p. 35). Self-presentation involves conveying one's own attributes and qualities to increase the likelihood of being judged as an attractive or likable person. According to Jones, there are two distinct (and somewhat contradictory) ways to enact self-presentation: (a) the focal actor may communicate his/her own strengths, virtues, and positive qualities, or (b) present him/herself in a way "as to enhance by implication the strengths and virtues of the *target* person" (Jones, 1964, p. 41, emphasis added). This manner of ingratiation is effective when self-presentational behaviors evoke the target's beliefs that the ingratiator brings value to their interpersonal relationship. However, subsequent research (including studies conducted by Jones himself) have argued that self-presentation should be categorized as a separate form of impression management (e.g., Godfrey, Jones, & Lord, 1986; Jones & Pittman, 1982).

In addition to the specific behavioral dimensions that Jones (1964) identified, scholars have suggested that ingratiation may take alternative forms. For example, providing favors has been identified as an effective ingratiation tactic by numerous impression management scholars (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Jones, & Pittman, 1982; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Cooper (2005) proposed that expressions of humor may increase the focal actor's attractiveness (and thus, serve the purpose of ingratiation) to the extent that (a) the target enjoys the focal actor's humor and (b) the target perceives humor as useful (rather than detracting from one's work). Furthermore, actions such as highlighting one's association with a third-party held in high esteem (i.e., "name dropping", Bohra & Pandey, 1984) and showing modesty in interpersonal interactions (Gordon, 1996) have been described as ingratiation behavior, as they may enhance the focal actor's attractiveness. For the purposes of my dissertation, I adopt Jones and Pittman's (1982) conceptualization, and define and operationalize ingratiation as the use of flattery (i.e., other-enhancement) and favor-rendering to increase one's attractiveness in the eyes of a target audience (see also, Bolino & Turnley, 1999). This conceptualization fits my theoretical framework (i.e., social exchange theory), as flattery and favor-rendering behaviors influence focal actor outcomes through social exchange mechanisms.

Outcomes of Ingratiation. As is the case with impression management research in general, most organizational scholars have examined the effects of ingratiation within the contexts of selection and performance appraisals. For instance, researchers have found that enacting ingratiation during job interviews enhances interviewer perceptions

of job and organizational fit (Chen, Yang, & Lin, 2010), as well as hiring recommendations (Higgins & Judge, 2004). Similarly, Westphal and colleagues (e.g., Stern & Westphal, 2010; Westphal & Shani, 2016; Westphal & Stern, 2006, 2007) reported that ingratiation top managers (such as CEOs) are more likely to receive recommendations for board appointments. Scholars have also found that employees who ingratiate themselves to their supervisors are more likely to receive positive performance evaluations (Higgins et al., 2003), higher compensation (Judge & Bretz, 1994), and positive assessments of promotability (Kim et al., 2018; Wayne et al., 1997).

Given that the objective of ingratiation is to enhance interpersonal attraction (Jones, 1964), researchers have also investigated how the use of ingratiation influences target assessments of likability, as well as relationship quality between the ingratiation and the target. For example, research findings show that employees who ingratiate upward have high quality exchange relationships with their supervisors (e.g., Kim et al., 2018; Koopman et al., 2015; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; for meta-analytic reviews, see Dulebohn et al., 2012; Dulebohn et al., 2017). Furthermore, quantitative reviews of the literature indicate that ingratiation increases the target's evaluations of the focal actor's likability (e.g., Gordon, 1996). In summary, the extant literature shows that ingratiation is quite effective in achieving its goal of increasing the focal actor's attractiveness and likability in the eyes of the target.

Target-Observer Effects of Ingratiation. As I alluded to above, ingratiation is unique in that it is often perceived by targets and observers in vastly different ways. That is, ingratiation individuals tend to be perceived in a positive manner by the recipient (or

target) of ingratiation. However, *observers* of ingratiation often develop negative perceptions regarding the focal actor. For example, Vonk (1998, p. 849) reported that observers judged individuals who acted in an ingratiation manner toward their superiors as “extremely dislikable and slimy”, especially when they behaved in a different manner toward subordinates. Similarly, Kim and colleagues (2018) found that subordinates who observed their supervisor enacting ingratiation toward his/her boss were less likely to develop positive exchange relationships with that supervisor. Vonk (2002) proposed that the reason targets and observers of ingratiation perceive the ingratiation actor in contrasting ways is due to individuals’ self-enhancement motives. From targets’ perspectives, ingratiation actors are deemed attractive because they contribute to the target’s need for self-enhancement. From observers’ perspectives, however, ingratiation actors are perceived in a negative manner because “observers are not totally impartial and unbiased, and, in some way, their egos are at stake too. Being motivated to assume, as most people are, that they are better than others, observers may be reluctant to uncritically accept lavish praise about another [person]” (Vonk, 2002, p. 525).

Although the vast majority of research has focused on how the target reacts to ingratiation actors, the observer effect may better reflect how the general public views ingratiation individuals. Indeed, public contempt for people who “suck up” dates back to Renaissance age, when Dante Alighieri famously stated that “flatterers” belong in the 8th circle of hell—between murderers and traitors. Although more recent publications don’t go quite as far in condemning ingratiation actors, the general consensus is that ingratiation individuals are perceived in a negative manner by third party observers—a view that is

made apparent by various demeaning monikers used to describe these people (e.g., “suck up”, “brown-noser”, “sycophant”, Parker & Parker, 2017). To provide a more balanced view of the consequences of ingratiation, I examine both target and observer reactions to upward ingratiation in my dissertation.

Social Exchange Theory and Ingratiation

Social Exchange Theory. Social exchange theory is perhaps best described as an overarching ideology or framework that focuses on the reciprocal exchange of resources during social interactions, rather than as a singular theory (Emerson, 1976). Although different views of social exchange exist across varying disciplines, such as anthropology (Levi-Strauss, 1969), economics (Firth, 1967), social psychology (Foa & Foa, 1974, 1980; Thibault & Kelley, 1959), and sociology (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976; Homans, 1961), scholars generally agree that social exchange involves interactions between social actors that create mutual obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976). A core tenet of social exchange theory is that relationships develop into loyal, trusting, and mutually beneficial commitments over time when both actors adhere to rules of exchange (Mitchell, Cropanzano, & Quisenberry, 2012).

According to social exchange theory, exchange relationships may be governed by different types of rules or norms (for review, see Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). For example, individuals may provide their exchange partners with resources for altruistic reasons without expecting anything in return (Batson, 1995). In contrast, social exchange relationships may be governed by competition rules, whereby individuals act with the purpose of harming their counterpart, sometimes even at their own expense (Cropanzano

& Baron, 1991; Kahneman, Knetsch, & Thaler, 1986). Alternatively, exchange relationships may be based upon norms of status consistency or rank equilibrium (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), in which resources are allocated based on one's standing within their social group. Rules of exchange may also be explicitly negotiated by the actors participating in the exchange relationship (Cook & Emerson, 1978). Negotiated rules are most often observed in economic or quid pro quo (as opposed to close interpersonal) exchange relationships. However, the rule or norm of exchange most commonly associated with social exchange theory, especially in social psychology and organizational scholarship, is the norm of reciprocity (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960; Emerson, 1976). Simply put, the norm of reciprocity refers to individuals' need or felt obligation to "pay back" resources received from an exchange counterpart with resources of their own. That is, when an individual receives something of value from another person, he/she feels compelled to provide something in return. Although individuals' need to reciprocate differs to some extent based on individual differences and/or cultural values (e.g., Rousseau & Schalk, 2000; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003), the norm of reciprocity is generally considered a universal rule that governs the majority of social interactions (Gouldner, 1960). When exchange partners adhere to norms of reciprocity by giving and receiving resources over a period of time, their relationship tends to develop into a high quality social exchange relationship, characterized by mutual trust, commitment, and obligation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Mitchell et al., 2012).

In addition to the norms that drive social exchange between two actors, scholars

have also investigated what resources are exchanged during social interactions. According to Foa and Foa (1980, p. 78), an exchange resource is “anything transacted in an interpersonal situation. It encompasses, therefore, many different events, material objects...In short, [a] resource is any item, concrete or symbolic, which can become the object of exchange among people”. Foa and Foa (1974, 1980; see also Wilson et al., 2010) further proposed that exchange resources can be classified into six categories: *love* (the expression of affection, warmth, or comfort), *status* (providing evaluations that project prestige and esteem), *information* (giving advice, opinions, and instructions that aid the counterpart’s ability to carry out a task), *money* (currency that has an objective standard unit of exchange value), *goods* (tangible items and products), and *services* (providing labor for the counterpart). Scholars have drawn upon the concepts of both exchange *rules* (i.e., norms of reciprocity) and exchange *resources* to explain why ingratiation increases social exchange quality between the focal actor and the target audience. I provide a brief summary of this research below.

Ingratiation and Social Exchange Quality. Individuals enact ingratiation by enhancing the target’s perceptions of self-worth (through flattery), as well as by providing favors for the target actor (Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Jones & Pittman, 1982). In turn, these behaviors evoke the target’s need to reciprocate the focal actor in some fashion, and enhance social exchange quality between the two actors. Westphal and Stern (2007) proposed that flattery generates norms of reciprocity in a social exchange relationship because individuals who are ‘paid’ a compliment feel socially and psychologically obligated to return the favor. Similarly, Treadway and colleagues (2007)

argued that providing personal favors for the target generates positive affect and feelings of goodwill and mutual obligation toward the ingratiation actor, thereby inducing the target to reciprocate with valued resources and increasing social exchange quality.

In addition to drawing upon the concept of reciprocity norms to explain the relationship between ingratiation and social exchange quality, scholars have also examined how ingratiation functions as an exchange resource. For example, Kim and colleagues (2018) proposed that ingratiation encompasses love- and status-based exchange resources. Ingratiation behavior such as complimenting the target, praising the target's achievements, and providing favors for the target conveys the focal actor's affection, admiration, and loyalty toward the target actor, which are all key components of love- and status-based resources (Wilson et al., 2010). Furthermore, "ingratiation also has value as a status boosting resource because it signals to other organizational members that the boss is viewed in a positive light, which may contribute to his/her career advancement through positive word of mouth" (Kim et al., 2018, p. 5). Similarly, Koopman and colleagues (2015) stated that ingratiation provides an avenue for the focal actor to develop and maintain social capital in his/her relationship with the target, which in turn may be utilized to serve as the focal actor's contributions to the ongoing exchange relationship.

Indeed, both narrative (e.g., Bolino et al., 2016) and quantitative (Dulebohn et al., 2017; Gordon, 1996) reviews of the literature indicate that ingratiation is positively associated with social exchange quality between the ingratiation actor and the target audience. However, the research outlined above primarily focuses on interpersonal

dynamics between the focal actor and the target, without considering how the social context impacts (or is impacted by) ingratiation episodes. In the following section, I provide an overview of research on social context, and explain how ingratiation research may benefit from incorporating a social context perspective with the dyadic exchange-based view.

Social Context and Levels of Theory and Analysis

The Role of Social Context. The importance of context in organizational behavior research is based on the premise that people “do not think, feel, or behave in isolation” (Mowday & Sutton, 1993, p. 205; see also Pfeffer, 1991). That is, characteristics of an employee’s external environment—such as the team, the organization at large, the external labor market, or even the country the employee and organization are embedded in—have a profound impact on individual cognitions, emotions, attitudes, and behaviors (Cappelli & Sherer, 1991). Although the social context influences organizational behavior in numerous ways (Johns, 2006; Mowday & Sutton, 1993), I focus on one feature that is especially relevant to how ingratiation influences social exchange quality with the target (i.e., supervisors) and observers (i.e., team members).

Specifically, the social context reflects base rates of important organizational variables, which in turn determines “the imputed importance of these variables, their meaning to actors and observers, and the inferred significance of their correlates” (Johns, 2006, p. 396). That is, the social context determines the extent to which certain behaviors (such as ingratiation) are prevalent, and thus perceived as normative. For example,

research on frog pond effects (Firebaugh, 1980; Klein et al., 1994; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000) indicate that the meanings organizational members attribute to enacted behaviors are dictated by the pervasiveness (or rarity) of those behaviors within the organizational context (Johns, 2006). Similarly, Jones and Davis (1965) proposed that social actors make attributions about others' actions based on the extent to which those actions adhere to social expectations. Indeed, research from various topic areas such as strategic management (e.g., Porter, 1985), leadership (e.g., Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008), and social influence (e.g., Rafaeli & Sutton, 1991) all support the notion that one's social context has a large impact on how actors interpret social phenomena.

Moreover, by affecting base rates, the social context determines the value of specific behaviors and/or outcomes. For instance, Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) reported that supervisors classify each of their subordinates as either an in-group or out-group member based on subordinates' performance relative to their peers. That is, an employee's value to his/her supervisor (and subsequent categorization as an in-group vs. out-group member) is determined by the employee's performance in comparison to others embedded in the same social context. Research on star performers (e.g., Aguinis & O'Boyle, 2014) also indicates that an employee's value to the organization is contingent on his/her ability to outperform peers. In short, the social context provides a referent of comparison that organizational actors utilize to judge the value of individuals and their contributions. I expound upon the role of social context—primarily focusing on (a) how it determines the value of ingratiation as an exchange resource from the supervisor's

perspective and (b) how it determines team member assessments of ingratiation as normative vs. counter-normative behavior—in the following chapter.

The Social Context and Levels of Theory and Analysis. Incorporating the social/team context to individual or dyadic perspectives is inextricably linked to the specification of a level of theory (Dansereau, Yammarino, & Kohles, 1999; Klein et al., 1994; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). Klein and colleagues (1994) outlined three alternative assumptions that underlie the specification of levels of theory as it pertains to how individuals relate to higher level units such as their work teams. First, scholars may specify the level of theory at the team-level. This specification is accompanied by the assumption that individuals within teams are homogenous in relation to the construct(s) of interest. That is, scholars who utilize this level of theory are (either implicitly or explicitly) assuming that the behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions of individual team members are isomorphic to the team/unit level. Second, the level of theory may reside at the individual-level. In these instances, the higher level unit such as the team, work group, and/or organization is assumed to have no influence on individual outcomes. In other words, the behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions of individual employees are treated as being independent from unit level influences.

Third, and of particular importance to integrating the social context to dyadic or individual level phenomena, is the specification of the level of theory at the “individual-within-the-group” level. This level of theory, also referred to as the frog pond approach (Firebaugh, 1980), within-group effects (Glick & Roberts, 1984), or parts effects (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984), focuses on “individual attributes relative to the

group average for this attribute” (Klein et al., 1994, p. 201). Frog pond models carry two distinctive characteristics. First, the effects of an independent variable (X) on a dependent variable (Y) are context dependent. That is, variance in Y is not only explained by X, but also on the size of X in comparison to others embedded in the same group context (Bamberger, 2008; Klein et al., 1994; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Dansereau et al., 1984). Second, theories utilizing this level of analysis predict that individuals within the same unit are compared in some manner (Klein et al., 1994). As such, scholars often utilize frog pond models when their theoretical focus is on comparison processes within groups (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975; Henderson et al., 2008; Herman, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2012). Given the comparative nature of my theoretical model (see Figure 1), in which I examine how *relative* ingratiation and ingratiation *congruence* influence social exchange quality with supervisors and team members, respectively, I specify the level of theory at the individual-within-group level. In the following section, I provide some theoretical and empirical examples of how comparative processes have been integrated with dyadic exchange-based perspectives.

Integrating the Social Context with Social Exchange Theory. Although ingratiation research has primarily utilized a dyadic view of social exchange theory, both recent and classical work on social exchange have taken the social context into consideration. A prime example of recent scholarship that has integrated the social context with an exchange-based framework is research on relative leader-member exchange (i.e., RLMX). Whereas leader-member exchange (LMX) is often treated as a dyadic construct that represents relationship quality between a leader and one of his/her

followers (e.g., Colquitt, Baer, Long, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2014; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Wayne & Green, 1993), RLMX research examines individuals' *relative* LMX quality in comparison to other members within the team (Henderson et al., 2008; Vidyanthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, 2010). This research integrates social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) with social exchange theory, and proposes that LMX quality relative to others in the team, rather than absolute levels of LMX quality, promotes positive reciprocal behaviors (e.g., Henderson et al., 2008; Li, Feng, Liu, & Cheng, 2014; Vidyanthi et al., 2010).

Thibault and Kelley's (1959) seminal conceptualization of social exchange also accounts for the influence of the social context in determining dyadic social exchange quality. Specifically, the authors proposed that individuals embedded in one's social environment (but external to the focal dyad) act as referents for social comparisons. Moreover, social actors utilize social comparisons as an evaluation tool to judge the value they are able to derive from a specific dyadic relationship. As an illustration, consider the following scenario: Supervisor A is in dyadic exchange relationships with Subordinate X and Subordinate Y. If X provides certain exchange resources—such as high performance, loyalty, and admiration—that Y is unable to provide, A will perceive his relationship with X as valuable and non-replaceable. However, if A receives similar resources from Y as well as X, neither of these relationships (nor the resources that stem from them) are of particular value to A, as they are easily replaceable.

In summary, as a function of determining base rates of social behavior, the social context plays an important role in determining whether certain exchange resources (and

dyadic relationships in general) are valued by the exchange partner. Furthermore, as I outline above, the social context also influences the extent to which behaviors are considered normative in a team context (Johns, 2006). I draw upon these notions to integrate the social context with a social exchange-based view of ingratiation, and develop hypotheses investigating the relationships between relative ingratiation, ingratiation congruence, and social exchange quality with supervisors and team members in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Clarification of Focal Units of Theory and Analysis

For the purposes of my dissertation, I define the boundary of the social context as the team. ‘Supervisors’ refer to supervisors of the team, while ‘team members’ refer to the focal employee’s peers who are nested within the same team and supervisor.

According to Kozlowski, Gully, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers (1996), teams are defined as groups of (a) two or more individuals who (b) collectively perform task-related activities, (c) mutually interact with each other, and (d) exhibit task interdependence to (e) achieve a common goal. Specifying the team as the focal unit that comprises employees’ social context is appropriate to investigate my research questions for two reasons. First, team members—as a function of mutually interacting with each other on a regular basis—are more likely to observe each other’s ingratiation behavior directed toward a common supervisor in comparison to individuals nested within groups that do not require regular interaction. Second, team members work interdependently to achieve a common objective, and thus may be more likely to develop and enforce group norms in comparison to groups of individuals who work independently and/or do not share a common goal. I expound upon the importance of these features in the following sections.

Overview of the Study Model

In the following section, I develop hypotheses designed to investigate how the team context of ingratiation shapes the relationships between the focal employee’s upward ingratiation and his/her social exchange quality with multiple organizational

audiences. First, drawing upon research on social attributions and behavioral salience (e.g., Downar, Crawley, Mikulis, & Davis, 2002; Feldman, 1981; Jones & Davis, 1965), as well as Thibault and Kelley's (1959) notion of comparison levels of alternatives in social exchange relationships, I propose that the focal employee's relative ingratiation—defined as the extent to which the employee engages in ingratiation toward his/her supervisor in comparison to other team members who report to the same supervisor—is positively related to focal employee-supervisor social exchange quality.

Second, I draw upon research on group norm conformity (e.g., Bales, 1958; Feldman, 1984; Hackman, 1976), and propose that congruence between the focal actor's ingratiation and team members' ingratiation is positively associated with social exchange quality between the two parties. Furthermore, based on research in cognitive and social psychology which posits that actions are more salient—and thus have a stronger psychological impact—than inaction (e.g., Fazio et al., 1982; Gilovich & Medvec, 1995; Kahneman & Miller, 1986; Newman et al., 1980), I hypothesize asymmetrical effects of focal employee-team members ingratiation congruence and incongruence. Specifically, I predict that (a) social exchange quality with team members quality is higher when congruence is at high levels of ingratiation in comparison to when it is at low levels of ingratiation, and (b) social exchange quality with team members is higher when the focal employee's ingratiation is lower than team members' ingratiation in comparison to incongruent situations in which the employee's ingratiation is higher than his/her team members' ingratiation.

Third, I examine how relative ingratiation and ingratiation congruence influence supervisors and team members' reciprocal behaviors by virtue of enhanced social exchange quality with the corresponding actor(s). Specifically, I hypothesize that relative ingratiation has a positive indirect effect on citizenship behavior received from the supervisor via social exchange quality with the supervisor, and that ingratiation congruence has a positive indirect effect on citizenship received from team members through focal employee-team members social exchange quality. I provide an overview of my study model in Figure 1, and a summary of my hypotheses in Table 1.

Relative Ingratiation and Social Exchange Quality with Supervisors

As I outlined in the previous chapter, upward ingratiation enhances social exchange quality between the ingratiatory employee and his/her supervisor. Ingratiation provides the supervisor with love- and status-based exchange resources (Kim et al., 2018), which in turn evokes norms of reciprocity in the employee-supervisor social exchange relationship and promotes positive exchange quality (e.g., Koopman et al., 2015; Treadway et al., 2007; Westphal & Stern, 2007). Building on the notion that the team context determines base rates of social behavior such as ingratiation (Johns, 2006)—which in turn affects the extent to which ingratiation is salient to and valued by the supervisor—I propose that the extent to which ingratiation serves its purpose as a valued exchange resource is contingent on the average levels of ingratiation enacted by other employees within the team. More specifically, I hypothesize that *relative ingratiation*, defined as the focal employee's level of upward ingratiation relative to other members of the team (wherein high values of relative ingratiation indicate that the focal

employee exhibits higher levels of ingratiation behaviors in comparison to other team members), is positively associated with social quality with the supervisor.

First, ingratiation behavior is more likely to be salient, and thus more likely to be utilized as social information that the supervisor uses to assess his/her social exchange quality with the focal employee, when the average level of ingratiation among other team members is low (i.e., when relative ingratiation is high). This argument is supported by research on social attributions. For example, Feldman (1981) proposed that when employees behave in a manner that is consistent with the social context and/or others' expectations, these behaviors are cognitively processed in an automatic manner by the supervisor, without much cognitive attention devoted to interpreting these behaviors. However, when behavior deviates from social norms or expectations, "conscious attention and recognition processes are engaged", in which more cognitive resources are devoted to making sense of that behavior (Feldman, 1981, p. 129). Similarly, Downar and colleagues (2002, see also Knight, 1996) found that environmental stimuli, such as observed behavior in social interactions, are more likely to be salient when they are novel and infrequent. This phenomenon is referred to as the "oddball paradigm", in which novel and infrequent stimuli—embedded within a series of non-novel or standard stimuli—are more likely to be detected by individuals (Downar et al., 2002).

Second, ingratiation behavior enacted within a team context low in ingratiation is more likely to be attributed to the focal employee's internal attitudes toward the supervisor. According to correspondent inference theory (Jones & Davis, 1965), individuals make internal (as opposed to external) attributions regarding others'

behaviors when they do not conform to social expectations. As such, when an employee contradicts team norms and ingratiate him/herself toward the supervisor, the supervisor is more likely to believe that the behavior is driven by authentic feelings of respect and admiration, thus enhancing the value of such behavior as a love- and status-based exchange resource. In contrast, when an employee embedded in an ingratiation team does not “suck up” to the supervisor, the absence of ingratiation may also be attributed to internal factors, such the employee’s lack of respect and admiration toward the supervisor, thereby decreasing exchange quality between the two actors.

Third, when the average ingratiation level is low among team members, the behavior may carry more value as an exchange resource—and thus increase focal employee-supervisor social exchange quality to a greater extent—in comparison to ingratiation enacted within a high ingratiation team context. According to Thibault and Kelley (1959), individuals make two types of comparisons when assessing others as exchange partners. First, individuals compare their current relationship to a certain standard or benchmark that represents what they feel they should be receiving in the form of exchange resources from that relationship. Second, and more importantly, individuals also make comparisons *across* multiple exchange relationships. For example, a supervisor may compare the resources he/she is receiving from subordinate A with the resources that subordinate B provides. Individuals are more likely to value a certain social exchange relationship when that relationship partner supplies resources and benefits that other relationships do not (or cannot) provide. On the flip side, when an employee is unable or unwilling to provide exchange resources that his/her team

members provide for the supervisor, that employee's relationship quality with the supervisor is likely to suffer. Taken together, Thibault and Kelley's (1959) concept of comparisons across exchange relationships—which they refer to as the 'comparison level for alternatives'—suggests that relative ingratiation should increase the focal employee's exchange quality with the supervisor. That is, while ingratiation evokes norms of reciprocity in the employee-supervisor dyadic relationship and enhances social exchange quality by transmitting love- and status-based resources (Kim et al., 2018), these exchange resources may not be valued by the supervisor if he/she receives the same type of behavior (and thus, the same type of resources) from other employees within the team. Taken together, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Relative ingratiation is positively associated with social exchange quality with the supervisor.

Ingratiation Congruence and Social Exchange Quality with Team Members

As I described in Chapter 3, employees who ingratiate themselves to the supervisor are typically perceived in a negative manner by observers (Vonk, 1998, 2002), which in turn decreases social exchange quality between the ingratiation actor and observers (Kim et al., 2018). I challenge this view and propose that upward ingratiation may be *positively* received by observing actors (such as team members of the ingratiation employee), depending on the team context of ingratiation. Specifically, I predict that employees will have higher exchange quality with team members when their level of ingratiation matches team members' ingratiation levels in comparison to incongruent

situations in which an employee either displays higher or lower levels of ingratiation relative to other members of the team.

To understand why ingratiation congruence (incongruence) has a positive (negative) effect on social exchange quality between the focal employee and his/her team members, it is important to understand the fundamental nature of teams, especially as it pertains to the development and enforcement of team norms. Teams are defined as “small groups of interdependent individuals who share responsibility for outcomes” (Hollenbeck, Beersma, & Schouten, 2012, p. 82). Individuals embedded within the same team not only work together to achieve common goals, but also share responsibility (and rewards) for collective outcomes (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008; Pearsall, Christian, Ellis, 2010). To ensure that all members of the team are on the same page and contribute to the achievement of collective goals, teams develop and enforce team norms—defined as “informal rules that groups adopt to regulate and regularize group members’ behavior” (Feldman, 1984, p. 47; see also Hackman, 1976).

Employees who adhere to team norms are perceived in a positive manner by their team members because they contribute to team functioning as well as collective survival and success. Specifically, following norms (a) facilitates team survival, (b) develops consensus among team members about what behaviors are expected, thus enhancing behavioral predictability within the group, (c) allows team members to avoid awkward or embarrassing interpersonal situations, and (d) promotes the development of a distinct collective identity (Feldman, 1984). In contrast, employees who violate team norms detract from the achievement of collective goals, and thus are evaluated as unlikeable,

and their behavior as unacceptable (Trevino & Victor, 1992). In turn, these negative evaluations compel team members to enforce norms by reprimanding the violator through sanctions such as ostracism and/or expulsion from the team (Bales, 1958; Feldman, 1984). Moreover, these individuals tend to be treated within the group as a “black sheep” (Feldman, 1984), which hinders their ability to develop positive lateral relationships based on mutual trust, obligation, and loyalty.

Accordingly, employees who conform to team norms by exhibiting ingratiation congruence are more likely to develop high quality exchange relationships with fellow team members, whereas employees who violate team norms by displaying ingratiation incongruence will be unable to cultivate positive exchange relationships with team members. Teams may develop norms of ingratiation for multiple reasons. For example, team members may ingratiate themselves to the supervisor to gain access to limited organizational resources (Leary & Kowalski, 1990), which in turn contribute to team survival as well as the achievement of collective goals. Alternatively, team members may display ingratiatory behavior due to genuine respect and admiration for the supervisor (Long, 2013), or due to collective beliefs that suggest people in higher positions ought to be praised (Fu et al., 2004; Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007). Teams may also engage in ingratiation to cultivate a collective social identity that conveys friendliness and/or likability (Schlenker, 1980). In contrast, teams may develop norms *against* ingratiating the supervisor. For instance, team members may decide that ingratiation is distasteful and political behavior (Wayne et al., 1997; Vonk, 2002) that has no place within the team. Team members may also believe that the supervisor is not worthy of receiving flattery

and personal favors. Alternatively, teams may refrain from ingratiating themselves to the supervisor to cultivate an identity of genuineness or authenticity (Harter, 2002).

Whatever the reason may be, employees who follow team norms of ingratiation—whether they facilitate or impede upward ingratiation—are more likely to be viewed as contributing to (a) increasing the chances of team survival, (b) developing behavioral predictability with the group, (c) decreasing undesirable interpersonal interactions, and (d) developing a unique team identity (Feldman, 1984; Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Accordingly, these employees are more likely to be credited as making a positive contribution to the group, thereby increasing the extent to which they are able to formulate positive exchange relationships with members of the team (Seers, Petty, & Cashman, 1995). However, when employees contradict team norms by either enacting ingratiation when team members refrain from doing so, or abstaining from ingratiation when other members of the team exhibit ingratiatory behaviors toward the supervisor, they will be perceived as detracting from team functioning and success, thereby diminishing their ability to develop positive relationships with other team members.

Hypothesis 2: The higher the congruence between the focal employee's ingratiation and the average of other team members' ingratiation, the higher the social exchange quality between the focal employee and team members.

Although the above hypothesis does not differentiate between different types of congruence and incongruence, there are reasons to believe that these effects may be asymmetrical. Ingratiation congruence between a focal employee and his/her team members may occur at either high or low levels of ingratiation. That is, all team members

(including the focal employee) may enact ingratiation toward the supervisor, or they may all refrain from ingratiation behavior. Similarly, an employee's ingratiation may be incongruent with average ingratiation levels of team members in two contrasting ways. The focal employee may display high levels of ingratiation behavior toward the supervisor while his/her team members generally do not engage in ingratiation. In contrast, the focal employee may not engage in upward ingratiation, while other members of the team display high levels of ingratiation.

Drawing upon research in cognitive and social psychology on the feature positive effect (e.g., Fazio et al., 1982; Newman et al., 1980), I predict that social exchange quality with team members is higher when (a) ingratiation congruence occurs at high (rather than low) levels of ingratiation and (b) the focal employee's ingratiation is lower than the average of other team members in comparison to incongruent situations in which the employee exhibits higher levels of ingratiation relative to team members. The feature positive effect proposes that action is more salient than inaction, and thus has a more profound psychological impact on how individuals process social information (Gilovich & Medvec, 1995). That is, an *enacted* social behavior—such as ingratiation—is more likely to influence people in comparison to the *absence* of behavior. This concept has been utilized by scholars to explain various phenomena including counterfactual thinking (Kahneman & Tversky, 1982), information processing (Fazio et al., 1982), and human learning (Newman et al., 1980). For example, Kahneman and Tversky (1982) found that individuals express more regret when an action taken leads to a negative outcome in comparison to when an action foregone leads to an equally negative outcome. In addition,

Fazio and colleagues (1982, p. 404) found that individuals “infer less extreme attitudes from the nonoccurrence of a behavior than from the occurrence of a behavior”. In short, the feature positive effect posits that the occurrence of a behavior or event has a bigger influence on individual perceptions and attitudes in comparison to the nonoccurrence of a behavior or event.

This concept suggests that the effects of ingratiation congruence and incongruence on social exchange quality with team members will be stronger when it is conveyed through an action (i.e., ingratiation) rather than inaction (i.e., lack of ingratiation). Specifically, employees who adhere to team norms of ingratiation by partaking in ingratiation behavior are more likely to be perceived as contributing to team functioning and success—thereby increasing exchange quality—in comparison to employees who follow ingratiation norms by abstaining from such behavior. Furthermore, employees who violate team norms of ingratiation by displaying incongruent behavior (i.e., enacting ingratiation when other members do not) are more likely to be evaluated as harming team functioning and the achievement of collective goals—which in turn hinders their ability to develop high quality social exchange relationships with team members—in comparison to employees who contradict team norms by exhibiting non-behavior (i.e., refraining from ingratiation when other members do so). Accordingly, I propose the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Social exchange quality between the focal employee and team members is higher when focal employee-team members' ingratiation congruence

is at high levels of ingratiation in comparison to when focal employee-team members' ingratiation congruence is at low levels of ingratiation.

Hypothesis 4: Social exchange quality between the focal employee and team members is higher when the focal employee's ingratiation is lower than the average of other team members' ingratiation in comparison to when the focal employee's ingratiation is higher than the average of other team members' ingratiation.

Consequences of Social Exchange Quality

As I outlined above, relative ingratiation enhances social exchange quality with supervisors, whereas ingratiation congruence increases social exchange quality with team members. According to social exchange theory, individuals actively strive to maintain positive workplace relationships by adhering to norms of reciprocity, as these relationships provide access to valued socioemotional exchange resources that positively contribute to their quality of life at work (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Wilson et al., 2010). As such, employees who exhibit high levels of relative ingratiation and ingratiation congruence are likely to reap the benefits of high quality social exchange relationships with supervisors and team members in the form of positive reciprocal behaviors received from each of these actors.

Positive reciprocation among organizational members often takes the form of interpersonal citizenship behavior, such as providing assistance with the employee's duties, helping the employee with work and non-work issues, providing information that contributes to the employee's ability to do his/her work in a more efficient manner, and

recognizing the employee's contributions to the team (Organ, 1988, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Seers et al., 1995; Williams & Anderson, 1991). According to Settoon and Mossholder (2002), high quality social exchange relationships lead to interpersonal citizenship behaviors for several reasons. First, citizenship behavior is a method of reciprocation that fulfills one's obligation toward his/her exchange partner and reinforces the intrinsic value of the interpersonal relationship. That is, individuals in high quality social exchange relationships are inclined to provide interpersonal citizenship behaviors because they want to "pay back" the positive feelings and behaviors directed toward them and sustain the positive relationship. Second, individuals are more likely to direct interpersonal citizenship behaviors toward their counterparts when they trust them—a hallmark of high quality social exchange relationships. Trust plays a critical role in an individual's decision to help others because it "encourages a sense of congruence and comfort during interactions, making it easier for individuals to help others because they perceive less risk that help will not be extended when needed in the future" (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002, p. 257; see also McAllister, 1995). Third, high quality social exchange relationships create shared knowledge structures that promote perspective taking. That is, when interpersonal relationships are driven by mutual respect, obligation, and commitment, exchange partners are more likely to be aware of and fully understand each others' concerns and needs, and thus more likely to engage in citizenship behaviors that contribute to fulfilling these needs (Davis, 1994).

In short, providing support to the focal employee by enacting interpersonal citizenship is a form of reciprocation that transmits socioemotional exchange resources

and reflects supervisors and team members' appreciation of their positive social exchange relationships with employee, as well as their willingness to adhere to norms of reciprocity to sustain and/or grow these relationships (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2012). As such, employees who foster positive social exchange quality with supervisors by displaying high levels of relative ingratiation are more likely receive higher levels of interpersonal citizenship from supervisors, while employees who display high levels of ingratiation congruence with other team members should benefit from higher levels of citizenship behavior received from team members by virtue of enhanced social exchange quality between the two parties.

Hypothesis 5: Relative ingratiation has a positive indirect effect on citizenship received from the supervisor via social exchange quality with the supervisor.

Hypothesis 6: Congruence between the focal employee's ingratiation and the average of other team members' ingratiation has a positive indirect effect on citizenship received from team members via social exchange quality with team members.

CHAPTER 4

METHODS

Sample and Procedure

To test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 3, I conducted a multi-wave multi-source field study. The sample consists of 222 employees nested within 64 teams/supervisors. Study participants occupied a variety of jobs (e.g., marketing, customer services, human resource management, and IT support) in two South Korean organizations—a financial services firm and a consumer goods company. Employees' average age was 28 years ($SD = 2.06$), with an average organizational tenure of 2 years ($SD = 1.03$). The average age of supervisors was 38 years ($SD = 2.73$), with an average organizational tenure of 9 years ($SD = 2.57$). 39% of employees and 21% of supervisors were female. Furthermore, employees reported that they had been working with their current team supervisor for an average of 1.5 years ($SD = .93$).

I collected data across three waves, each separated by approximately one week. All surveys were administered in-person, with help from HR managers and administrators in each respective organization. Employees' time 1 surveys included questions regarding their ingratiation toward the supervisor, political skill, their supervisor's power distance orientation (control variables described in the measures section below), and demographics. Employees' time 2 surveys asked participants to rate their social exchange quality with the supervisor and team members, as well as perceptions of politics within the team and team interdependence (control variables described in the measures section). At time 3, employees' were asked to answer questions

regarding citizenship behaviors received from team members, while supervisors' time 3 surveys included questions about their own citizenship behavior toward each employee, as well as demographic variables. This study design, in which all relationships are separated by time and/or source, decreases the possibility of common method variance contaminating study results (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

At time 1, I distributed surveys to 402 employees nested within 92 teams/supervisors and obtained responses from 304 employees across 73 teams for a response rate of 76%. Among the 304 employees who responded to their surveys at time 1, 264 responded at time 2 (87% retention rate from time 1). At time 3, I received 234 completed employee surveys (89% retention rate from time 2). Furthermore, I distributed surveys to 73 supervisors and received 64 completed responses for a response rate of 88%. Overall, the final sample consists of complete responses from 222 employees and 64 supervisors, where a complete response indicates a case in which employees completed surveys at times 1, 2, and 3, and the supervisor completed his/her survey at time 3. Analyses revealed no systematic differences in means and standard deviations of key study variables between those who did and did not have complete data.

Measures

I utilized the translation-back translation method (Brislin, 1970) to translate the items into Korean. Unless noted otherwise, all employee and supervisor responses were measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Complete surveys items are provided in Appendix A.

Relative Ingratiation and Ingratiation Congruence. Constructs that depict relativity and/or congruence are often operationalized using algebraic difference scores (e.g., focal employee's ingratiation – average of team members' ingratiation). However, due to problems associated with this method (Edwards, 2001), I operationalized relative ingratiation and ingratiation congruence using polynomial analysis (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993; see also Hu & Liden, 2013; Vidyarathi et al., 2010). I first measured each employee's ingratiation towards his/her supervisor using Bolino and Turnley's (1999) four-item scale. Sample items include "I do personal favors for my supervisor to show that I am friendly" and "I compliment my supervisor so he/she will see me as likable". Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). Upon obtaining each team member's individual ingratiation score, I calculated relative ingratiation and ingratiation congruence as a combination of the focal employee's ingratiation score and the average of his/her team members' ingratiation scores using polynomial analysis (Edwards, 1994, 2002; Edwards & Parry, 1993). I explain the operationalization of these two constructs in further detail in the analysis section.

Social Exchange Quality. Employees rated their social exchange quality with their team supervisor and team members, respectively, using a four-item measure developed by Colquitt et al. (2014). Prefaced by the phrase "my relationship with my supervisor/team members is characterized by..." items include "mutual obligation," "mutual trust," "mutual commitment," and "mutual significance".

Citizenship Received from Supervisor. Supervisors rated the extent to which they engage in citizenship behaviors toward each of their employees using seven items from Lee and Allen's (2002) eight-item scale. On average, supervisors rated 3.5 employees (range of 3 to 5 employees per supervisor). I removed one item—"I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group"—as it was judged a priori as non-relevant to the study context. Sample items include "I give up time to help this employee when he/she has work or nonwork problems" and "I share personal property with this employee to help him/her work".

Citizenship Received from Team Members. Employees rated citizenship behaviors received from team members using the same seven-item scale described above. Prefaced by the phrase "members of my team..." sample items include "willingly give their time to help me when I have work-related problems" and "adjust their work schedule to accommodate my requests for time off".

Control Variables. In order to account for potential alternative explanations that may confound relationships of interest, I controlled for the following variables. First, I controlled for employees' relational tenure with the supervisor as this may influence how supervisors perceive of ingratiation behavior (Bolino, Klotz, and Daniels, 2014) as well as individuals' perceptions of their supervisor and subsequent assessments of social exchange quality. Second, I controlled for employees' political skill as this construct may affect how target and observing actors perceive of ingratiation individuals (Kim et al., 2018; Treadway et al., 2007). Employees rated their political skill using an eighteen-item scale developed by Ferris, Treadway, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, Kacmar, Douglas, and

Frink (2005). Third, I controlled for supervisors' power distance values, as prior research suggests that this cultural orientation may influence how organizational actors evaluate ingratiation behavior (Fu et al., 2004; Gelfand et al., 2007). Employees rated their supervisors' power distance using Yoo, Donthu, and Lenartowicz's (2011) five-item measure. Fourth, I controlled for employees' perceptions of politics within the team using Kacmar and Carlson's (1997) seven-item measure, as the political climate within teams may determine the frequency of upward ingratiation, as well as the extent to which ingratiation is perceived as acceptable or expected behavior. Finally, I controlled for team interdependence—the degree to which team members interact and rely on each other to perform tasks, achieve goals, and obtain rewards (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003)—as the level of interdependence may impact how others react to (in)congruence with team norms of ingratiation. Employees assessed team interdependence using Campion et al.'s (1993) nine-item scale.

Given their collective nature, I aggregated supervisor power distance, perceptions of politics within the team, and team interdependence to the team/supervisor level. I calculated ICC(1) scores for each variable to examine whether team members displayed sufficient levels of agreement. All three constructs had significant between-group variance and ICC(1) scores ($\tau^2 = .34$, $p < .05$, $ICC(1) = .27$ for supervisor power distance; $\tau^2 = .20$, $p < .05$, $ICC(1) = .19$ for perceptions of politics; $\tau^2 = .53$, $p < .05$, $ICC(1) = .44$ for team interdependence), providing justification for aggregation.

Data Analysis

Given the multilevel nature of the data (employees nested within teams/supervisors), I utilized multilevel modeling (using MPLUS 7.4, Muthen & Muthen, 2015) to conduct my analyses, as this method accounts for potential biases caused by non-independence (Raudenbush and Bryk, 2002). I used polynomial regression and response surface methodology (Edwards, 1994, 2002; Edwards & Parry, 1993) to test my hypotheses examining the effects of relative ingratiation and ingratiation congruence on social exchange quality with the supervisor and team members, respectively.

To test the effects of relative ingratiation (Hypothesis 1), I followed Vidyarthi and colleagues' (2010) procedures for testing relative effects using polynomial analysis (see also Hu & Liden, 2013). As I outlined above, operationalizing relative ingratiation using an algebraic difference score poses several problems. As an illustration, consider the formula below that predicts social exchange quality with the supervisor (Z) as a function of relative ingratiation beyond the effects of absolute levels of ingratiation, wherein relative ingratiation is operationalized as the difference between employees' individual ingratiation score (X) and the average ingratiation score of team members (Y):

$$(1) Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2(X-Y) + e.$$

In the above equation, a significant value of b_2 would be interpreted as a significant relationship between relative ingratiation and exchange quality with the supervisor. However, rearranging the above equation leads to the following:

$$(2) Z = b_0 + (b_1 + b_2)X - b_2Y + e.$$

This equation indicates that b_2 is not the effect of $X-Y$, but is in fact the negative effect of Y (i.e., the average of team members' ingratiation), controlling for the effects of X (i.e.,

the focal employee's ingratiation). As such, X and Y are constrained, and the effects of these two variables are confounded (Edwards, 1994; Vidyarthi et al., 2010). The polynomial approach removes these constraints by specifying separate coefficients for X and Y, such that the equation above becomes:

$$(3) Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + e.$$

The relationship between X, Y, and Z can then be depicted on a three-dimensional plane, in which X and Y comprise the two horizontal axes and Z comprises the vertical axis. Relative ingratiation is treated as incongruence between X and Y, and the parameter estimate of relative ingratiation on social exchange quality with the supervisor is computed by subtracting the coefficient of Y from the coefficient of X (i.e., $b_1 - b_2$ in equation 3). That is, the effect of relative ingratiation on social exchange quality with the supervisor is depicted by the incongruence line (i.e., the line in which $X = -Y$), wherein a positive value of $b_1 - b_2$ at the point of $X = 0$ and $Y = 0$ indicates that the surface is increasing along the incongruence line (i.e., exchange quality increases as relative ingratiation increases, Hu & Liden, 2013). I calculated 95% confidence intervals from 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrapped samples to test the statistical significance of this parameter (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2005; Vidyarthi et al., 2010).

In order to test the effects of focal employee-team member ingratiation congruence on social exchange quality with team members (Hypothesis 2), as well as asymmetrical congruence/incongruence effects (Hypotheses 3 and 4), I utilized polynomial regression and response surface methodology (Edwards, 2002; Edwards &

Cable, 2009; Edwards & Parry, 1993). For Hypothesis 2, I estimated the following equation (control variables have been omitted from simplicity):

$$(4) M = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4(XY) + b_5Y^2 + e.$$

in which M represents focal employee-team members social exchange quality, X represents the focal employee's ingratiation, and Y depicts the average ingratiation score of the focal employee's team members. I grand-mean centered the two predictor variables prior to calculating the higher order polynomial terms to reduce nonessential multicollinearity and enhance interpretability of my results (Zhang, Wang, & Shi, 2012). Although group-mean centering is often beneficial in that it produces within-level coefficient estimates that are not conflated with between-level effects (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Peng, Schaubroeck, Chong, & Li, in press), it creates conceptual and methodological redundancy between X and Y in this model since the latter closely resembles the group-mean of ingratiation. Using these coefficients, I then plotted the response surface with X and Y depicted on the two perpendicular horizontal axes, and M on the vertical axis (Edwards & Parry, 1993; for similar, see Cole, Carter, & Zhang, 2013; Lam, Lee, Taylor, & Zhao, 2018; Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015).

To test Hypothesis 2, which proposed a positive relationship between ingratiation congruence and social exchange quality with team members, I examined three features of the response surface plot (Edwards, 2002; Edwards & Cable, 2009; see also Cole et al., 2013). First, I investigated the curvature of the incongruence line (i.e., the line which depicts $X = -Y$ on the response surface). A negative curvature (calculated as $b_3 - b_4 + b_5$) provides support for a positive congruence effect, as this indicates that the value of social

exchange quality with team members decreases as the values of the focal employee's ingratiation (X) and the average of other team members' ingratiation (Y) diverge from each other in either direction. Second, I examined the ridge of the surface plot. If the ridge or peak of the response surface runs along the congruence line (i.e., the line which depicts $X = Y$), the value of social exchange quality with team members is maximized when the focal employee's ingratiation is equal to the average of other team members' ingratiation. To test this feature, I inspected the slope (p_{11}) and intercept (p_{10}) of the first principal axis of the response surface. Specifically, this feature of the response surface provides support for the proposed congruence effect if p_{11} does not differ significantly from 1, and p_{10} does not differ significantly from 0 (Edwards & Cable, 2009). As testing this feature involves non-linear combinations of regression coefficients, I conducted 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstraps to obtain 95% confidence intervals for p_{11} and p_{10} .

The first two features outlined above indicate whether the positive congruence effect (Hypothesis 2) receives support. The third feature involves investigating the slope of the congruence line (calculated as $b_1 + b_2$). A positive and significant slope of the congruence line indicates the surface along the congruence line fluctuates, and the level of social exchange quality with team members is higher for congruence at high levels of ingratiation in comparison to low levels of ingratiation (providing support for Hypothesis 3). In contrast, a non-significant slope of the congruence line indicates that the surface along the congruence line is flat, and values of social exchange quality with team members are similar irrespective of whether congruence occurs at high or low levels of ingratiation.

To test the asymmetrical incongruence effect (Hypothesis 4), I investigated two additional features of the response surface plot. First, I tested whether the slope of the incongruence line is negative and significant. A negative slope for the incongruence line suggests that the value of social exchange quality with team members increases as the incongruence line moves from high values of X (focal employee's ingratiation) and low values of Y (average of other team members' ingratiation) to low values of X and high values of Y, providing support for Hypothesis 4. Second, I calculated the lateral shift quantity ($[(b_2 - b_1) / (2 * (b_3 - b_4 + b_5))]$), which represents the magnitude and direction of a lateral shift in the response surface along the incongruence line (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998; Cole et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2012), and tested its significance using 95% confidence intervals from 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrapped samples. A negative and significant lateral shift quantity provides further support for this hypothesis.

To test Hypothesis 5, which proposed a positive indirect effect from relative ingratiation to citizenship received from the supervisor via social exchange quality with the supervisor, I followed procedures for testing mediation recommended by MacKinnon and colleagues (MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007; MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). As indirect effects are the product of multiple path coefficients, and thus are not normally distributed, resampling techniques such as bootstrapping and/or Monte Carlo simulations are recommended. I conducted 20,000 Monte Carlo simulations using the estimated coefficients obtained from my analyses, and calculated bias-corrected

95% confidence intervals to test the significance of the indirect effect (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010).

To test the indirect effect of ingratiation congruence on citizenship received from team members via social exchange quality with team members (Hypothesis 6), I utilized the block variable approach (Edwards & Cable, 2009). Specifically, I created a “block” variable—a weighted linear composite calculated by multiplying each polynomial term with its respective estimated polynomial regression coefficient—and regressed the mediator (social exchange quality with team members) on the block variable to obtain the “ α ” path in the mediation chain. I then estimated the “ β ” path by regressing the dependent variable (citizenship received from team members) on the mediator while controlling for the effects of the block variable and controls. I assessed significance for the full mediation path by calculating 95% bias corrected confidence intervals using 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrapped samples.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliability coefficients of study variables are shown in Table 2.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

I conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA) to assess the validity of my measurement model. Specifically, I modeled ingratiation, social exchange quality with the supervisor, social exchange quality with team members, citizenship received from the supervisor, and citizenship received from team members using item-level indicators (Kline, 2011). Results of the MCFA indicate the measurement model fit the data well: $\chi^2(289) = 445.48, p < .05$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .04 (for within); SRMR = .00 (for between). All items loaded significantly on their corresponding factors. To provide further support for my hypothesized factor structure, I also tested several alternative models in which relationships between latent factors were constrained to unity. I tested these alternative models using the Wald chi-square test wherein a significant chi-square value indicates that the hypothesized measurement model fits the data better in comparison to the alternative model (Kline, 2011). All alternative models had significantly worse fit than the hypothesized measurement model (Wald χ^2 values ranged from 31.54 to 177.79, $p < .05$ for all χ^2 values), providing evidence that the five latent factors and their corresponding items were modeled appropriately.

Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1, which predicted a positive relationship between relative ingratiation and social exchange quality with the supervisor, was supported. As shown in Model 2 in Table 3, relative ingratiation was positively related to social exchange quality with the supervisor ($b_1 - b_2 = .84$, 95% Monte Carlo CI = .65, 1.02). Furthermore, the response surface depicted in Figure 2 indicates that social exchange quality with the supervisor increases along the incongruence line such that its value is maximized when the focal employee's ingratiation is highest and the average of other team members' ingratiation is lowest (i.e., when relative ingratiation is highest). In contrast, the value of social exchange quality with the supervisor is minimized when the focal employee's ingratiation is lowest and the average of other team members' ingratiation is highest (i.e., when relative ingratiation is lowest). Overall, these results provide support for my prediction that employee-supervisor social exchange quality is driven by the *relativity* of upward ingratiation.

I also found support for Hypothesis 2, which predicted a positive relationship between ingratiation congruence and social exchange quality with team members. First, as outlined in Table 4 (Model 2), the curvature of the incongruence line was negative and significant (curvature [$b_3 - b_4 + b_5$] = $-.70$, $p < .05$), indicating that social exchange quality with team members decreases as the two polynomial predictors—focal employee ingratiation and the average of other team members' ingratiation—diverge in their respective values. Second, the slope (p_{11}) of the first principal axis did not differ significantly from 1, as the 95% Monte Carlo bootstrapped confidence intervals included 1 (.44, 4.64), nor did the intercept (p_{10}) of the first principal axis significantly differ from

0 (-1.16, 2.24). Non-significant values of p_{11} and p_{10} provide additional support for a positive congruence effect. The response surface (Figure 3) depicts an inverted U-shaped curve along the incongruence line, which indicates that social exchange quality with team members is maximized when the values of focal employee ingratiation and the average of team members' ingratiation converge, while dropping off when the two values diverge in either direction.

Hypothesis 3, which predicted that social exchange quality with team members will be higher when ingratiation congruence occurs at high levels of ingratiation (i.e., when focal employee ingratiation and the average of other team members' ingratiation are both high) in comparison to when congruence occurs at low levels of ingratiation, was not supported. As shown in Model 2 in Table 4, the slope of the congruence line ($b_1 + b_2 = .00, p > .05$) was not significant, which indicates that the value of social exchange quality does not differ between "high-high" and "low-low" congruence conditions. In contrast, I did find support for the proposed asymmetrical incongruence effect (Hypothesis 4). Specifically, the slope of the incongruence line ($b_1 - b_2 = -.24, p < .05$) and the lateral shift quantity ($(b_2 - b_1)/[2 \times (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)] = -.17, 95\% \text{ Monte Carlo CI} = -.50, -.01$) were both negative and statistically significant, providing support for my hypothesis that social exchange quality with team members is higher when focal employee ingratiation is low and team members' ingratiation is high in comparison to incongruent situations in which focal employee ingratiation is high and team members' ingratiation is low.

I also found support for the two mediation hypotheses. As shown in Table 5, relative ingratiation had a positive indirect effect on citizenship received from the supervisor via social exchange quality with the supervisor (indirect effect = .18, 95% Monte Carlo CI = .04, .35), providing support for Hypothesis 5. In support of Hypothesis 6, I found a positive indirect effect from ingratiation congruence to citizenship received from team members through social exchange quality with team members (indirect effect = .40, 95% Monte Carlo CI = .22, .63, see Table 6) using the block variable approach (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

Supplemental Analyses

To provide further evidence for the robustness of the results outlined above, I conducted several supplemental analyses. First, following recommendations for the use of control variables (e.g., Atinc, Simmering, & Kroll, 2012; Becker, 2005; Carlson & Wu, 2012; Spector & Brannick, 2011), I conducted supplemental analysis in which I removed non-significant control variables when running the models depicted in Tables 3 and 4. This process did not alter the results of my hypotheses in any significant manner.

Second, I estimated a model with all three higher order polynomial terms (i.e., X^2 , XY , and Y^2 , X = focal employee ingratiation; Y = average of team members' ingratiation) when investigating the effect of relative ingratiation on social exchange quality with the supervisor (Hypothesis 1) to rule out the possibility of a nonlinear relationship between these two constructs (Hu & Liden, 2013; Vidyarthi et al., 2010). More specifically, I first ran a model with the two linear polynomial terms predicting social exchange quality with the supervisor (i.e., $Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y$, Z = social exchange

quality with the supervisor. Control variables have been omitted from the above equation). Second, I included the three higher order polynomial terms and estimated the following equation: $Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2$. The curvature of the incongruence line in the surface plot for the second model was not significant, providing support for the absence of a nonlinear relationship (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993). Furthermore, none of the higher order terms were significantly related to social exchange quality with the supervisor, nor did they explain additional variance above the two linear polynomial terms. In summary, these results provide additional support for a linear relationship between relative ingratiation and exchange quality with the supervisor as well as justification for the decision to exclude the higher order polynomial terms from my analysis.

In addition, I also tested three alternative methodological approaches that have been used to investigate the effects of relativity (i.e., Hypothesis 1. Due to the issues associated with the algebraic difference score method, which I outlined in Chapter 4, I excluded it from this analysis). The objective of this analysis was to investigate whether one or more of the alternative methods explain incremental variance in the criterion variable (i.e., social exchange quality with the supervisor) above and beyond focal employee ingratiation and the average of other team members' ingratiation.

First, I utilized a referent-shift approach (Chan, 1998; Edwards, 2001; Johns, 1981), whereby I operationalized relative ingratiation as participants' perceptions regarding how often they engage in upward ingratiation *in comparison to other team members* using an adapted version of Bolino and Turnley's (1999) four-item scale.

Prefaced by the phrase “In comparison to other members of my team...” sample items include “I compliment my supervisor so he/she will see me as likable” and “I do personal favors for my supervisor to show that I am friendly” ($\alpha = .96$). I then regressed social exchange quality with the supervisor on relative ingratiation while controlling for the two predictors (i.e., focal employee ingratiation and the average of other team members’ ingratiation) and all control variables. The results of this analysis, which are depicted in Table 7, show that relative ingratiation operationalized using the referent-shift method is not significantly associated with exchange quality with the supervisor above and beyond the two linear polynomial predictors ($\gamma = .07, p > .05$).

Second, I assessed the extent to which the average of other team members’ ingratiation acts as a contextual boundary condition in the relationship between the focal employee’s ingratiation and his/her social exchange quality with the supervisor. That is, I specified the average of other team members’ ingratiation as a moderator, and regressed exchange quality with the supervisor on the two predictors as well as the interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991). The results of this analysis did not yield similar results to the linear polynomial method as the average of other team members’ ingratiation did not significantly moderate the relationship between the focal employee’s ingratiation and focal employee-supervisor exchange quality (interaction term = $.11, p > .05$; see Table 8).

Third, I tested Hypothesis 1 using the ‘residual gain’ or ‘residual delta’ method (for similar, see Hom, Griffeth, Palich, & Bracker, 1998). Specifically, I first regressed the focal employee’s ingratiation on the average of other team members’ ingratiation, and obtained residuals from this analysis. A positive residual indicates that the focal

employee's ingratiation score is larger than would be expected based on team members' average ingratiation scores, and thus depicts high levels of relative ingratiation. In contrast, a negative residual represents low levels of relative ingratiation, as the focal employee's ingratiation is lower than predicted by team members' average ingratiation scores. I then specified the residuals as the independent variable (i.e., relative ingratiation) in predicting social exchange quality with the supervisor. As shown in Table 9, results of this analysis indicate that relative ingratiation operationalized as a residual score is not significantly related to social exchange quality with the supervisor above and beyond the two linear polynomial predictors ($\gamma = -.01, p > .05$).

In summary, these results suggest that alternative methods of testing relativity effects may not explain incremental variance above and beyond what is captured by the two linear polynomial predictors (i.e., the focal employee's ingratiation and the average of other team members' ingratiation). In addition, the three alternative approaches have various limitations that may hinder their ability to accurately capture these effects.

Although the referent-shift method has been used to great effect in the literature, especially in studies that focus on capturing individuals' perceptions regarding contextual characteristics (e.g., Arthur, Bell, & Edwards, 2007; Glisson & James, 2002), it may be inappropriate for my dissertation due to the misalignment between measurement and theory. More specifically, relative ingratiation should be assessed from the *supervisor's* perspective (rather than the focal employee's perspective), since his/her interpretations of upward ingratiation—through the lens of the team's ingratiatory tendencies—shape social exchange quality with ingratiatory employees. Unfortunately, I was unable to

obtain supervisor perceptions of relative ingratiation. Future research that employs this method when testing effects of relativity and/or congruence should consider the alignment between measurement and theory.

The interaction or moderation approach also suffers from several limitations. The biggest issue with this method is that interaction or product terms do not capture the same type of conditional relationships that are indicative of frog-pond effects such as relativity and/or congruence (Edwards, 2001). Furthermore, interaction terms tend to be less reliable, which in turn decreases statistical power and increases the probability of Type II error (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). According to Edwards (2009), if X and Y are uncorrelated and have coefficient alphas of .70, the reliability of the product term XY is .49. Even when the two variables are correlated highly—say at .50—the reliability of XY is only .59. The lack of reliability and statistical power is reflected in the results of this supplemental analysis (Table 9), as I was not able to find a significant relationship between the interaction term (i.e., focal employee's ingratiation x other team members' ingratiation) and social exchange quality with the supervisor.

The third alternative approach, the residual method, also suffers from several problems. Perhaps most importantly, residuals contain systematic (which in my analyses capture relative ingratiation) as well as random error. Unfortunately, however, this method cannot parse out the effects of systematic vs. random error. As such, it is impossible to delineate the extent to which how much of the relationship between the residual and social exchange quality with the supervisor is due to relative ingratiation, and how much of it is due to random error. Given the limitation of this approach, as well

as the limitations of the first three alternative approaches outlined above, I believe the linear polynomial method is the best way to test my hypothesis.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

In the previous chapters, I integrated a social context perspective with social exchange theory to build a “frog-pond” model of ingratiation. In contrast to previous research that focuses on how target and observing actors react to upward ingratiation from a dyadic perspective, I propose that characteristics of the social context—particularly the prevalence of ingratiation among individuals embedded within that context—shape ingratiation employees’ ability to form positive social exchange relationships with different organizational audiences. In doing so, I show that the effects of ingratiation on relationship quality with targets and observers are not solely driven by the behavior itself, but also by the extent to which ingratiation is widespread among individuals who exist within the social context.

Specifically, I find that relative ingratiation promotes high quality social exchange relationships with supervisors, which in turn lead to positive reciprocal behaviors in the form of citizenship received from supervisors. This suggests that the prevalence of ingratiation among individuals within the team acts as a social information processing lens through which the supervisor interprets employees’ ingratiation behavior, determining the utility of this behavior as a relationship-enhancing impression management tactic. Furthermore, I find that ingratiation congruence is positively related to social exchange quality with team members, which in turn leads to citizenship behavior received from team members. This finding is particularly interesting, as it suggests that third-party observers do not always react negatively to ingratiation

behavior. In fact, observers may view ingratiation individuals in a positive manner, and develop positive social exchange relationships with them, when such behavior is congruent with how other team members act toward the supervisor. Study results also indicate that the negative impact of exhibiting ingratiation *incongruence* is asymmetrical in nature. That is, ingratiation incongruence has a stronger negative effect on social exchange quality with team members when an employee displays higher levels of ingratiation than other team members in comparison to when he/she engages in lower levels of ingratiation than other team members. I discuss the theoretical and practical contributions of my dissertation as well as study limitations and suggestions for future research below.

Theoretical Contributions

The results of my dissertation provide several theoretical insights. First and foremost, I provide evidence that ingratiation is a social, as opposed to a dyadic, phenomenon. Although prior research has shown that ingratiation to the supervisor has repercussions that extend beyond the ingratiation-target dyad (e.g., Foulk & Long, 2016; Kim et al., 2018; Vonk, 2002), I explore the social nature of ingratiation from another perspective by investigating how *its effects are shaped by* the social context. In doing so, I shift the focal level of theory and analysis from the individual/dyadic level to the individual-within-group level (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000) and challenge previously established notions regarding the contrasting target-observer effects of ingratiation (Vonk, 1998, 2002). At first glance, ingratiation poses quite the dilemma for employees who want to get along well with both their supervisors and their team members. Despite

its effectiveness as an impression management tactic that fosters positive social exchange relationships with supervisors, third-party observers such as team members tend to attribute ingratiation behavior to self-serving and/or political motives and look down upon ingratiation individuals (Fein, 1996; Vonk, 1998). However, the results of my dissertation indicate that the effects of ingratiation behavior on relationship quality with target and observing actors may be more nuanced than previously suggested in the literature. That is, the relational benefits that accrue from the target of ingratiation, as well as the relational drawbacks that stem from observers of ingratiation, are both contingent on “base rates” of this behavior within the social context. This suggests that the manner in which targets and observers process ingratiation behavior is driven by social comparisons made within the boundaries of one’s social context.

Second, I contribute to ingratiation research by focusing on the role of the social context in determining *when* and *for whom* ingratiation is most effective. Scholars have primarily focused on individual and relational characteristics as boundary conditions when investigating relationships between ingratiation and desired outcomes at work. For example, research indicates that individuals high in political skill and self-monitoring are more likely to use ingratiation effectively to develop high quality relationships with the target and obtain subsequent benefits (e.g., Bolino et al., 2016; Harris et al., 2007; Treadway et al., 2007). In addition, Bolino and colleagues (2014) reported that the effectiveness of ingratiation depends on relationship length between the focal actor and the target. I find that in addition to individual characteristics of the ingratiation actor and ingratiation-target relationship dynamics, the extent to which other individuals (who are

embedded within the same social context) ingratiate themselves to the target actor is an important factor that shapes the effectiveness of ingratiation.

Third, my findings may provide additional insights regarding other contexts in which ingratiation occurs frequently and leads to important outcomes for the focal actor. For example, ingratiation is a widely used impression management tactic during job interviews, as roughly 50% of candidates attempt to ingratiate themselves to interviewers in some form or another (Stevens & Kristof, 1995). Furthermore, ingratiation job candidates are more likely to receive higher ratings of interview performance (Higgins et al., 2003), and thus more likely to obtain job offers from potential employers (Zhao & Liden, 2011). However, in light of my findings, the effectiveness of ingratiation during job interviews may be impacted by the prevalence of this behavior among all job candidates. That is, when the majority of interviewees ingratiate themselves to interviewers, this behavior may be less salient (Johns, 2006), less valuable (Thibault & Kelley, 1959), and less likely to be attributed to the interviewees' internal attitudes toward the interviewer and/or the organization (Jones & Davis, 1965), thereby diminishing the effectiveness of this tactic. Given the primacy of upward ingratiation across numerous contexts (Bolino et al., 2016), recognizing the social nature of this behavior may provide important insights regarding its influence on multiple aspects of individuals' organizational experiences.

Practical Contributions

My findings also provide a number of practical implications. First, supervisors should be more cognizant of the ramifications of reacting positively to ingratiation

employees, especially when the majority of team members avoid this type of behavior. Although individuals are pre-dispositioned to react positively to others who view them in a positive way (Byrne, 1971; Ditto & Lopez, 1992), doing so may have negative repercussions for team functioning. That is, rewarding employees who violate team norms by displaying higher levels of ingratiation in comparison to other team members may promote negative interpersonal relationships among team members, which in turn diminishes team performance (Duffy & Lee, 2012). Given that negative team performance reflects poorly on the supervisor, the short-term boon of forming a positive relationship with an employee high in relative ingratiation may be offset (or even engulfed) by potential long-term disadvantages.

Second, results show that employees who refuse to ingratiate themselves to their supervisors may be disadvantaged in more ways than one. Prior research suggests that individuals who refrain from upward ingratiation may have a harder time developing high quality social exchange relationships with supervisors (Dulebohn et al., 2012). However, when behaving in an ingratiatory manner toward the supervisor is the norm within the team, non-ingratiatory employee may also find it difficult to establish high quality social exchange relationships with *team members*. As such, I recommend that employees who are either part of an ingratiatory team, or whose primary concern is to get along with their peers, accurately assess the manner in which their team members act toward the supervisor and “go with the flow” by adhering to behavioral norms.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

My dissertation has several limitations that should be built upon in future research. First, as outlined in Chapter 3, I set the boundary of the social context as one's team, in which the target of ingratiation is the team supervisor and observers of ingratiation are team members. Although a team context is appropriate to investigate my research questions, broadening the social context to one's organization (or beyond) may also reveal interesting dynamics regarding the effects of ingratiation. For example, the political climate of the organization may influence how target and observing actors perceive of impression management tactics such as ingratiation (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). Similarly, in organizations characterized by high levels of intra-organizational and inter-group competition—in which two or more subunits fight for the same resources—ingratiatory employees may be preferred by team members as they are more likely to gain influence over power-holders and obtain desired organizational resources (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993). Although broader organizational contexts are beyond the scope of my dissertation, we may benefit from future research that investigates how characteristics of these contexts shape organizational audiences' reactions to ingratiatory individuals.

Second, I did not measure the specific “micro-mechanisms” that link relative ingratiation and ingratiation congruence to social exchange quality with supervisors and team members, respectively. My theorizing relies on an intricate combination of the social context perspective and social exchange theory, wherein relative ingratiation positively influences exchange quality with the supervisor by virtue of (a) enhanced salience of ingratiation, (b) supervisors attributing ingratiation to internal attitudes of the focal employee, and (c) increased value of ingratiation as an exchange resource, whereas

ingratiation congruence positively affects exchange quality with team members by virtue of norm conformity. A more nuanced empirical investigation of my theoretical model that directly measures these mechanisms may provide a more fine-grained view of how the social context shapes relationships between ingratiation and social exchange quality with targets and observers.

Third, my findings may be context-specific to Eastern cultures, as all participants were working for organizations in South Korea. Research suggest that cultural values such as power distance influence the extent to which ingratiation behaviors are accepted (or even expected) by organizational members (Gelfand et al., 2007)—although I alleviate this concern to some extent by controlling for supervisors' individual power distance values in my analysis. Furthermore, as South Korea is characterized as a high-collectivism culture that emphasizes collective outcomes over individual gain, (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), violations of group norms (i.e., ingratiation incongruence) may be perceived more negatively in comparison to high-individualism contexts. As such, future research conducted in other cultural contexts that examines the effects of the social context on ingratiation employees' relationships with supervisors and team members can help establish external validity of my findings.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

I find that ingratiation is not necessarily a double-edged sword in terms of developing positive social exchange relationships with target (supervisors) and observing (team members) actors. Indeed, results show that the contrasting target-observer effects of ingratiation—wherein the target reacts positively to ingratiation behavior whereas observers react negatively (Vonk, 1998, 2002)—only comes into play when other employees who are embedded in the same social context avoid ingratiating themselves to the target actor. In social contexts in which upward ingratiation is prevalent and normative behavior, employees who refrain from ingratiating themselves to the supervisor face a potential “double whammy” in the form of negative relationships with both the target and observers. Given the popularity of ingratiation as an impression management tactic among organizational members, as well as its impact on important organizational outcomes (Bolino et al., 2008), the importance of the social context in shaping the effects of ingratiation behavior should be considered in future efforts to increase our understanding of this phenomenon.

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Table 1

Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1	Relative ingratiation is positively associated with social exchange quality with the supervisor.	Supported
Hypothesis 2	The higher the congruence between the focal employee's ingratiation and the average of other team members' ingratiation, the higher the social exchange quality between the focal employee and team members.	Supported
Hypothesis 3	Social exchange quality between the focal employee and team members is higher when focal employee-team members' ingratiation congruence is at high levels of ingratiation in comparison to when focal employee-team members' ingratiation congruence is at low levels of ingratiation.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 4	Social exchange quality between the focal employee and team members is higher when the focal employee's ingratiation is lower than the average of other team members' ingratiation in comparison to when the focal employee's ingratiation is higher than the average of other team members' ingratiation.	Supported
Hypothesis 5	Relative ingratiation has a positive indirect effect on citizenship received from the supervisor via social exchange quality with the supervisor.	Supported
Hypothesis 6	Congruence between the focal employee's ingratiation and the average of other team members' ingratiation has a positive indirect effect on citizenship received from team members via social exchange quality with team members.	Supported

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variables	Mean	s.d	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Level-1: Individual Level										
1. Focal Employee Ingratiation	3.05	1.09	(.95)							
2. Average of Other Team Members' Ingratiation	2.98	.69	.17*	-						
3. Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor	3.80	.86	.43*	-.29*	(.89)					
4. Social Exchange Quality with Team Members	3.97	.90	-.02	-.02	.25*	(.91)				
5. Citizenship Received from Supervisor	3.64	.93	.31*	-.14*	.45*	.08	(.93)			
6. Citizenship Received from Team Members	3.52	1.02	-.02	.08	.10	.45*	.13*	(.96)		
7. Tenure with Supervisor	1.54	.93	-.00	.01	-.01	.05	-.02	.03	-	
8. Political Skill	3.67	1.00	.11	-.10	.21*	.22*	.26*	.20*	-.12	(.98)
Level-2: Supervisor/Team Level										
1. Supervisor Power Distance	3.12	.78	(.97)							
2. Team Perceptions of Politics	2.30	.65	.05	(.97)						
3. Team Interdependence	3.27	.87	.26*	-.30*	(.97)					

Note: n = 222 at level 1 and n = 64 at level 2. Scale reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. Tenure with supervisor is reported in years.

* $p < .05$

Table 3

Linear Polynomial Regression of Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor on Relative Ingratiation and Regression of Citizenship Received from Supervisor on Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor

Variables	Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor				Interpersonal Citizenship Received from Supervisor					
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
Constant	3.40*	(.40)	3.56*	(.36)	2.41*	(.49)	2.72*	(.48)	1.75*	(.52)
<i>Controls</i>										
Tenure with Supervisor	-.00	(.06)	.02	(.05)	-.01	(.06)	-.02	(.05)	-.02	(.05)
Political Skill	.12*	(.06)	.09*	(.04)	.17*	(.07)	.11	(.06)	.09	(.06)
Supervisor Power Distance	.11	(.06)	.11	(.06)	.10	(.11)	.08	(.10)	.06	(.10)
Team Perceptions of Politics	-.22*	(.09)	-.24*	(.09)	-.13	(.12)	-.14	(.12)	-.08	(.12)
Team Interdependence	.04	(.06)	.03	(.06)	.19*	(.08)	.19*	(.08)	.19*	(.07)
<i>Polynomial terms</i>										
b ₁ Focal Employee Ingratiation (X)			.38*	(.05)			.29*	(.05)	.19*	(.05)
b ₂ Average of Other Team Members' Ingratiation (Y)			-.45*	(.07)			-.24*	(.10)	-.12	(.11)
<i>Relative Ingratiation</i>										
b ₁ – b ₂			.84*	(.09)			.53*	(.11)	.31*	(.10)
<i>Mediator</i>										
Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor									.26*	(.08)
Pseudo R ²	.08		.41		.03		.24		.28	
Δ Pseudo R ²			.33*				.21*		.04*	

Note n = 222 at level 1 and n = 64 at level 2. Significance tests of Relative Ingratiation (b₁ – b₂) are based on 95% confidence intervals calculated using 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrap samples (see Hu & Liden, 2013; Vidarthi et al., 2010). I followed Snijders & Bosker's (2012) procedures to calculate Pseudo R² values, and tested significance levels of Δ Pseudo R² using model comparison (χ² difference) tests.

* p < .05

Table 4

Polynomial Regression of Social Exchange Quality with Team Members on Ingratiation Congruence and Regression of Citizenship Received from Team Members on Social Exchange Quality with Team Members

Variables	Social Exchange Quality with Team Members				Interpersonal Citizenship Received from Team Members					
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	Model 4	Model 5			
Constant	3.57*	(.46)	3.70*	(.35)	3.05*	(.46)	3.12*	(.49)	2.58*	(.61)
<i>Controls</i>										
Political Skill	.15*	(.07)	.18*	(.06)	.10	(.10)	.15	(.08)	.04	(.06)
Supervisor Power Distance Values	.13	(.07)	.09	(.06)	.07	(.06)	.06	(.06)	.04	(.06)
Team Perceptions of Politics	-.28*	(.09)	-.22*	(.08)	-.29*	(.10)	-.27*	(.13)	-.23	(.12)
Team Interdependence	.04	(.06)	.05	(.06)	.18	(.10)	.18	(.10)	.18	(.10)
<i>Polynomial terms</i>										
b ₁ Focal Employee Ingratiation (X)			-.12*	(.05)			-.11	(.07)	-.08	(.07)
b ₂ Average of Other Team Members' Ingratiation (Y)			.12	(.07)			.22*	(.08)	.18*	(.08)
b ₃ X ²			-.27*	(.04)			-.19*	(.06)	-.14*	(.06)
b ₄ X*Y			.35*	(.09)			.19*	(.09)	.13	(.08)
b ₅ Y ²			-.08	(.11)			-.10	(.12)	-.11	(.11)
<i>Mediator</i>										
Social Exchange Quality with Team Members									.21	(.11)
Pseudo R ²	.07		.28		.10		.18		.24	
Δ Pseudo R ²			.21*				.08*		.06*	
<i>Congruence line (X = Y)</i>										
Slope (b ₁ + b ₂)			.00	(.05)			.10	(.08)		
Curvature (b ₃ + b ₄ + b ₅)			.00	(.05)			-.10	(.08)		
<i>Incongruence line (X = -Y)</i>										
Slope (b ₁ - b ₂)			-.24*	(.11)			-.33*	(.13)		
Curvature (b ₃ - b ₄ + b ₅)			-.70*	(.09)			-.48*	(.11)		
Lateral shift quantity (b ₂ - b ₁)/[2 x (b ₃ - b ₄ + b ₅)]			-.17*	(.10)						

Note: n = 222 at level 1 and n = 64 at level 2. Significance test of the lateral shift quantity $(b_2 - b_1)/[2 \times (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)]$ is based on 95% confidence intervals calculated using 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrap samples. I followed Snijders & Bosker's (2012) procedures to calculate Pseudo R² values, and tested significance levels of Δ Pseudo R² using model comparison (χ^2 difference) tests.

* $p < .05$

Table 5

Indirect Effect of Relative Ingratiation on Citizenship Received from Supervisor via Focal Employee-Supervisor Social Exchange Quality

Variable	Relative Ingratiation ($b_1 - b_2$) to Focal Employee-Supervisor Social Exchange Quality	Focal Employee-Supervisor Social Exchange Quality to Citizenship Received from Supervisor	Indirect Effect of Relative Ingratiation on Citizenship Received from Supervisor
	“ α ”	“ β ”	“ $\alpha\beta$ ”
Coefficient (unstandardized)	.84*	.21*	.18*
95% bias-corrected confidence intervals			(.04, .35)

Note: $n = 222$ at level 1 and $n = 64$ at level 2. 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for testing the indirect effect were calculated using 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrap samples (Selig & Preacher, 2008).

* $p < .05$

Table 6

Indirect Effect of Ingratiation Congruence on Citizenship Received from Team Members via Focal Employee-Team Members Social Exchange Quality

Variable	Ingratiation Congruence (Block Variable) to Focal Employee-Team Members Social Exchange Quality	Focal Employee-Team Members Social Exchange Quality to Citizenship Received from Team Members	Indirect Effect of Ingratiation Congruence on Citizenship Received from Team Members
	“ α ”	“ β ”	“ $\alpha\beta$ ”
Coefficient (unstandardized)	1.00*	.40*	.40*
95% bias-corrected confidence intervals			(.22, .63)
Coefficient (standardized)	.48*	.35*	.17*

Note: n = 222 at level 1 and n = 64 at level 2. 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for testing the indirect effect were calculated using 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrap samples (Selig & Preacher, 2008).

* $p < .05$

Table 7

Alternative Test of Hypothesis 1 using Referent Shift Method

Variables	Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor			
	<i>Model 1</i>		<i>Model 2</i>	
Constant	3.40*	(.40)	3.60*	(.49)
<i>Controls</i>				
Tenure with Supervisor	-.00	(.06)	.02	(.05)
Political Skill	.12*	(.06)	.08	(.04)
Supervisor Power Distance	.11	(.06)	.11*	(.06)
Team Perceptions of Politics	-.22*	(.09)	-.24*	(.09)
Team Interdependence	.04	(.06)	.04	(.06)
Focal Employee Ingratiation (X)			.35*	(.06)
Average of Other Team Members' Ingratiation (Y)			-.43*	(.07)
Relative Ingratiation (Referent Shift)			.07	(.06)
<i>Pseudo R²</i>	.08		.42	
Δ <i>Pseudo R²</i>			.34*	

Note: I followed Snijders & Bosker's (2012) procedures to calculate Pseudo R² values, and tested significance levels of Δ Pseudo R² using model comparison (χ^2 difference) tests.

* $p < .05$

Table 8

Alternative Test of Hypothesis 1 using Moderation Method

Variables	Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor			
	<i>Model 1</i>		<i>Model 2</i>	
Constant	3.40*	(.40)	3.53*	(.35)
<i>Controls</i>				
Tenure with Supervisor	-.00	(.06)	.02	(.05)
Political Skill	.12*	(.06)	.09*	(.04)
Supervisor Power Distance	.11	(.06)	.09	(.06)
Team Perceptions of Politics	-.22*	(.09)	-.22*	(.10)
Team Interdependence	.04	(.06)	.04	(.06)
Focal Employee Ingratiation (X)			.38*	(.05)
Average of Other Team Members' Ingratiation (Y)			-.43*	(.06)
X*Y			.11	(.06)
<i>Pseudo R²</i>	.08		.41	
Δ <i>Pseudo R²</i>			.33*	

Note: I followed Snijders & Bosker's (2012) procedures to calculate Pseudo R² values, and tested significance levels of Δ Pseudo R² using model comparison (χ^2 difference) tests.

* $p < .05$

Table 9

Alternative Test of Hypothesis 1 using Residual Method

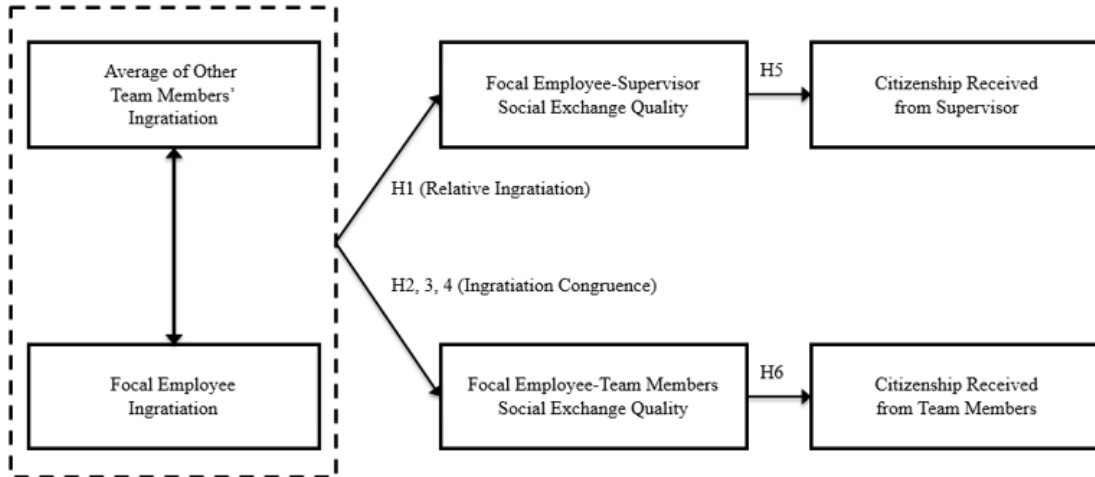
Variables	Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor			
	<i>Model 1</i>		<i>Model 2</i>	
Constant	3.40*	(.40)	3.71*	(.54)
<i>Controls</i>				
Tenure with Supervisor	-.00	(.06)	.02	(.05)
Political Skill	.12*	(.06)	.09*	(.04)
Supervisor Power Distance	.11	(.06)	.11	(.06)
Team Perceptions of Politics	-.22*	(.09)	-.24*	(.09)
Team Interdependence	.04	(.06)	.03	(.06)
Focal Employee Ingratiation (X)			.40*	(.10)
Average of Other Team Members' Ingratiation (Y)			-.46*	(.07)
Relative Ingratiation (Residual)			-.01	(.09)
<i>Pseudo R²</i>	.08		.41	
Δ <i>Pseudo R²</i>			.33*	

Note: I followed Snijders & Bosker's (2012) procedures to calculate Pseudo R² values, and tested significance levels of Δ Pseudo R² using model comparison (χ^2 difference) tests.

* p < .05

Figure 1

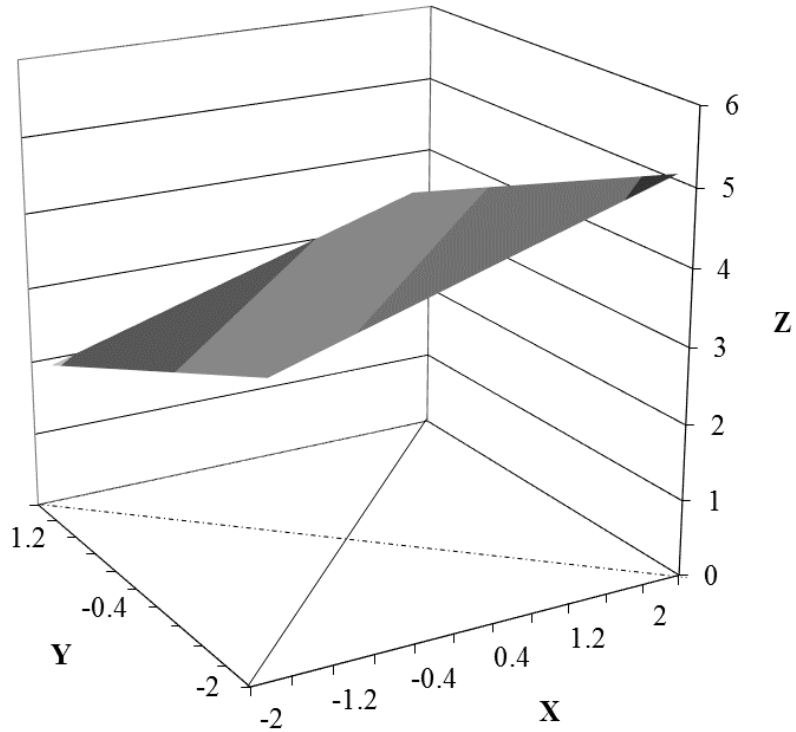
Study Model



Note. H3 and H4 predict asymmetrical congruence and incongruence effects, respectively. H5 and H6 predict indirect effects.

Figure 2

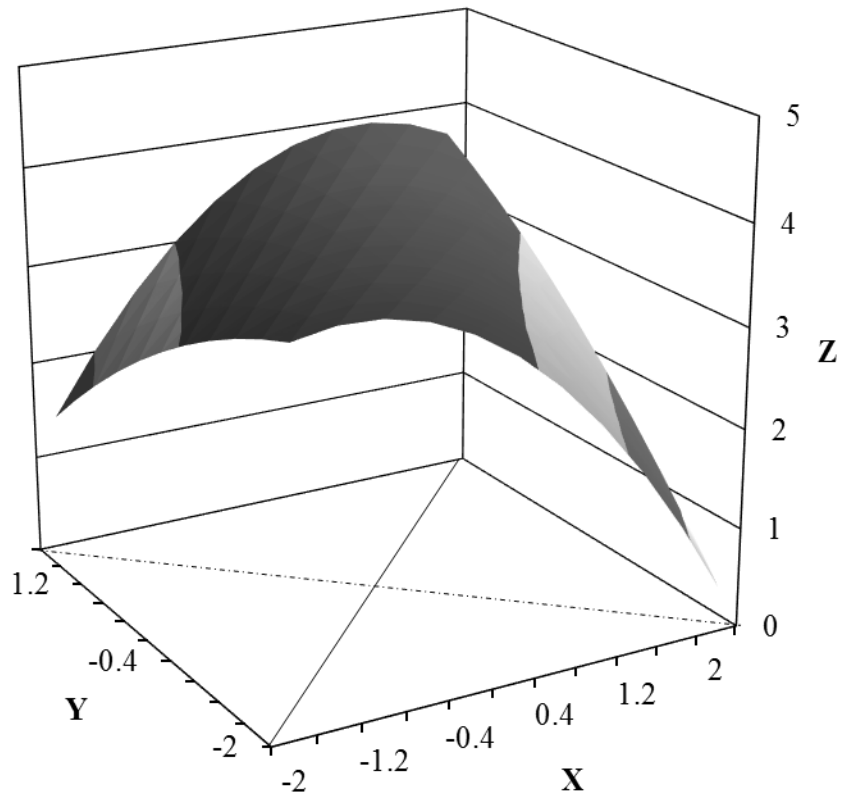
Relationship between Relative Ingratiation and Social Exchange Quality with Supervisor



Note. X-axis is the focal employee's ingratiation; Y-axis is the average of other team members' ingratiation; Z-axis is social exchange quality with supervisor. Solid line on the floor of the surface plot depicts the congruence line; dotted line on the floor of the surface plot depicts the incongruence line.

Figure 3

Congruence and Incongruence Effects of Ingratiation on Social Exchange Quality with Team Members



Note. X-axis is the focal employee's ingratiation; Y-axis is the average of other team members' ingratiation; Z-axis is social exchange quality with team members. Solid line on the floor of the surface plot depicts the congruence line; dotted line on the floor of the surface plot depicts the incongruence line.

APPENDIX A
FIELD STUDY SURVEY ITEMS

EMPLOYEE TIME 1 SURVEY

INGRATIATION.

Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviors **WHEN INTERACTING WITH YOUR LEADER/DIRECT SUPERVISOR.**

1 Never	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very often
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5

RELATIVE INGRATIATION.

Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviors when interacting with your leader, **COMPARED TO OTHER MEMBERS OF YOUR TEAM.**

In comparison to other members of my team...

1 Never	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very often
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5

INGRATIATION CLIMATE.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding **YOUR TEAM.**

IN GENERAL, members of my team are expected to...

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

Do personal favors for our leader to show that we are friendly. 1 2 3 4 5

SELF PROMOTION.

Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviors **WHEN INTERACTING WITH YOUR LEADER/DIRECT SUPERVISOR.**

1 Never	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very often
I talk proudly about my experience or education.				
I make my leader aware of my talents or qualifications.				
I let my leader know that I am valuable to the organization.				
I make my leader aware of my accomplishments.				

EXEMPLIFICATION.

Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviors at work.

1 Never	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very often
I stay at work late so my leader will know I am hard working.				
I try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower.				
I arrive at work early to look dedicated.				
I come to the office at night or on weekends to show that I am dedicated.				

INTIMIDATION.

Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviors **WHEN INTERACTING WITH YOUR LEADER/DIRECT SUPERVISOR.**

1 Never	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very often
I am intimidating with my leader when it will help me get my job done.				
I let my leader know that I can make things difficult if he/she pushes me too far.				
I deal forcefully with my leader when he/she hampers my ability to get my job done.				
I deal strongly or aggressively with my leader when he/she interferes in my business.				
I use intimidation to get my leader to behave appropriately.				

I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others.	1	2	3	4	5
I am good at getting people to like me.	1	2	3	4	5

PA/NA.

Below are a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and indicate to what extent you feel this way **IN GENERAL.**

1 Not at All	2 A Little	3 Somewhat	4 A Lot	5 Extremely							
Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	Scared	1	2	3	4	5
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	Afraid	1	2	3	4	5
Determined	1	2	3	4	5	Upset	1	2	3	4	5
Excited	1	2	3	4	5	Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
Alert	1	2	3	4	5	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
Active	1	2	3	4	5	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
Strong	1	2	3	4	5	Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5

CULTURAL VALUES.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

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

Collectivism

Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group.	1	2	3	4	5
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	1	2	3	4	5
Group success is more important than individual success.	1	2	3	4	5
Individuals should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	1	2	3	4	5

Power Distance

People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.	1	2	3	4	5
People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.	1	2	3	4	5

People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.	1	2	3	4	5
People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions.					
People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.	1	2	3	4	5

DEMOGRAPHICS.

Please also provide the following demographic information:

Your Age: _____
Gender: 1) Male 0) Female
How long have you worked for your organization? Years _____ Months _____
Job Title: _____
Education a. High School Graduate or below. b. University Graduate. c. Master's Degree d. PhD.
How long have you been working with your supervisor? Years _____ Months _____
How many hours per day (on average) do you interact with your supervisor? _____

EMPLOYEE TIME 2 SURVEY

TEAM-MEMBER EXCHANGE (TMX).

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about **YOUR TEAM**.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree	
I often make suggestions about better work methods to other team members.	1	2	3	4	5
Other members of my team usually let me know when I do something that makes their job easier or harder.	1	2	3	4	5
I often let other team members know when they have done something that makes my job easier (or harder).	1	2	3	4	5
Other members of my team recognize my potential.	1	2	3	4	5
Other members of my team understand my problems and needs.	1	2	3	4	5
I am flexible about switching job responsibilities to make things easier for other team members.	1	2	3	4	5
In busy situations, other team members often ask me to help out.	1	2	3	4	5
In busy situations, I often volunteer my efforts to help other team members.	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to help finish work that has been assigned to others.	1	2	3	4	5
Other members of my team are willing to help finish work that has been assigned to me.	1	2	3	4	5

SOCIAL EXCHANGE QUALITY WITH TEAM MEMBERS.

Below are several terms that can be used to describe a work relationship. For each, please indicate whether that term accurately describes your relationship with **YOUR TEAM MEMBERS**.

1 Not at All	2 A Little	3 Somewhat	4 A Lot	5 Extremely	
Mutual obligation.	1	2	3	4	5
Mutual trust.	1	2	3	4	5
Mutual commitment.	1	2	3	4	5
Mutual significance.	1	2	3	4	5

LEADER MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX).

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about **YOUR LEADER/DIRECT SUPERVISOR.**

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

SOCIAL EXCHANGE QUALITY WITH LEADER.

Below are several terms that can be used to describe a work relationship. For each, please indicate whether that term accurately describes your relationship with **YOUR LEADER.**

1 Not at All	2 A Little	3 Somewhat	4 A Lot	5 Extremely
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5
				1 2 3 4 5

PERCEPTIONS OF POLITICS.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about **YOUR TEAM.**

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

It is best not to rock the boat in this team.	1	2	3	4	5
Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system.	1	2	3	4	5
Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth.	1	2	3	4	5
It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind.	1	2	3	4	5

TEAM COHESION.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about YOUR TEAM.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree	
Team members are united in trying to reach our performance goals.	1	2	3	4	5
All team members take responsibility for mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
Everyone tries to help if members have problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Team members communicate freely about each other's responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
Team members rather go out on their own than as a team. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Team members rarely socialize together. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Team members like to spend time outside of work hours.	1	2	3	4	5
Team members stick together outside of the team.	1	2	3	4	5

TEAM INTERDEPENDENCE.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree	
I cannot accomplish my tasks without information or materials from other members of my team.	1	2	3	4	5
Other members of my team depend on me for information or materials needed to perform their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
Within my team, jobs performed by team members are related to one another.	1	2	3	4	5
My work goals come directly from the goals of my team.	1	2	3	4	5
My work activities on any given day are determined by my team's goals for that day.	1	2	3	4	5
I do very few activities on my job that are not related to the goals of my team.	1	2	3	4	5
Feedback about how well I am doing my job comes primarily from information about how well the entire team is doing.	1	2	3	4	5

My performance evaluation is strongly influenced by how well my team performs.	1	2	3	4	5
Many rewards from my job (e.g., pay, promotion, etc.) are determined in large part by my contributions as a team member.	1	2	3	4	5

LEADER TIME 3 SURVEY

JOB (TASK) PERFORMANCE.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about your subordinate [Employee Name].

[Employee Name]...

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

PROMOTABILITY.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about your subordinate [Employee Name].

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

PA/NA.

Below are a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and indicate to what extent you feel this way **IN GENERAL**.

1 Not at All	2 A Little	3 Somewhat	4 A Lot	5 Extremely
Enthusiastic	1 2 3 4 5	Scared	1 2 3 4 5	
Interested	1 2 3 4 5	Afraid	1 2 3 4 5	
Determined	1 2 3 4 5	Upset	1 2 3 4 5	
Excited	1 2 3 4 5	Distressed	1 2 3 4 5	

Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
Alert	1	2	3	4	5	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
Active	1	2	3	4	5	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
Strong	1	2	3	4	5	Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5

DEMOGRAPHICS.

Please also provide the following demographic information:

Your Age: _____
Gender: 1) Male 0) Female
How long have you worked for your organization? Years _____ Months _____
Job Title: _____
Education a. High School Graduate or below. b. University Graduate. c. Master's Degree d. PhD.
How many employee do you directly supervise? _____

EMPLOYEE TIME 3 SURVEY

CITIZENSHIP RECEIVED FROM TEAM MEMBERS.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about **YOUR TEAM**.

Members of my team...

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

DEVIANCE RECEIVED FROM TEAM MEMBERS.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about **YOUR TEAM**.

Members of my team...

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

TEAM VIABILITY.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about **YOUR TEAM.**

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

SATISFACTION WITH THE TEAM.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about **YOUR TEAM.**

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

TEAM COMMITMENT.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

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

PERCEPTIONS OF TEAM PERFORMANCE/EFFECTIVENESS.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about YOUR TEAM.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree	
The members of this team attain their assigned performance goals.	1	2	3	4	5
The members of this team produce quality work	1	2	3	4	5
This team is productive.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B
IRB APPROVAL

APPROVAL: EXPEDITED REVIEW

Jeffery LePine
 Management and Entrepreneurship
 480/965-8652
 Jeff.LePine@asu.edu

Dear Jeffery LePine:

On 6/29/2018 the ASU IRB reviewed the following protocol:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title:	Frog Pond Effects of Ingratiation
Investigator:	Jeffery LePine
IRB ID:	STUDY00008439
Category of review:	(7)(b) Social science methods, (5) Data, documents, records, or specimens, (7)(a) Behavioral research
Funding:	None
Grant Title:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recruitment.pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Consent Form_Subordinate_online.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Consent Form_Leader_inperson.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Survey Items.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Consent Form_Subordinate_inperson.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Consent Form_Leader_online.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Protocol.docx, Category: IRB Protocol;

The IRB approved the protocol from 6/29/2018 to 6/28/2019 inclusive. Three weeks before 6/28/2019 you are to submit a completed Continuing Review application and required attachments to request continuing approval or closure.

If continuing review approval is not granted before the expiration date of 6/28/2019 approval of this protocol expires on that date. When consent is appropriate, you must use final, watermarked versions available under the “Documents” tab in ERA-IRB.

In conducting this protocol you are required to follow the requirements listed in the INVESTIGATOR MANUAL (HRP-103).

Sincerely,

IRB Administrator

cc: Ji Koung Kim
Ji Koung Kim