

RESEARCH ARTICLE

# A moderated mediation model of perceived control, fairness, and leader–member exchange in the United States and South Korea

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## Abstract

Drawing on the two-factor model of organizational justice and social exchange theory, this study investigates the mediating roles of procedural and distributive justice in the relationship between work locus of control (WLOC) and leader–member exchange (LMX). Using data collected from two cultural contexts – the United States and South Korea – this research further examines whether culture moderates the indirect relationship between WLOC and LMX through perceived justice. The findings indicate that subordinates with an internal WLOC tend to report higher-quality LMX relationships, and that both procedural and distributive justice partially mediate this relationship. Moderated mediation analyses reveal that the indirect effects of WLOC on LMX via justice perceptions are significantly stronger in the U.S. sample than in the Korean sample. These results contribute to the literature by identifying perceived justice as a key psychological mechanism linking individual traits to relational outcomes at work, and by highlighting how cultural values shape this process.

**Keywords:** Procedural justice; distributive justice; work locus of control (WLOC); leader-member exchange (LMX); cross-cultural study

## Introduction

Over the past decades, leadership has been recognized as a critical determinant of organizational success (Kaiser, Hogan & Craig, 2008). Among the prevailing theories of leadership, leader-member exchange (LMX; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982) has garnered sustained scholarly attention for its emphasis on the dyadic relationship and the quality of exchanges between supervisors and subordinates (Blau, 1964; Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick, 2002). A central insight of LMX theory is that supervisors do not treat all subordinates uniformly; rather, the quality of leader–member interactions vary across dyads. However, despite LMX deals with dyadic exchange between subordinate and leader, relatively little attention has been made on the effect of subordinates’ characteristics on LMX.

Although limited, several studies have investigated subordinates’ locus of control (LOC) as an important trait influencing LMX. For instance, Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, and McNamara (2005) found that LMX mediates the relationship between subordinates’ LOC and work-related outcomes, with LOC positively predicting LMX. As a more domain-specific LOC, Xiabao, Horsey,

Song, and Guo (2022) explored WLOC in exploring social entrepreneurship orientation. Robert and Vandenberghe (2020) also examined work locus of control (WLOC) and demonstrated its positive effects on various dimensions of LMX. However, the pathways through which WLOC shapes subordinates' perceptions of LMX remain insufficiently examined, leaving key questions about the underlying mechanisms unanswered. Relatedly, Scott, Colquitt, and Zapata-Phelan (2007) proposed a framework in which justice perceptions function as mediators that link subordinate traits to workplace outcomes. This theoretical foundation suggests that perceived organizational justice may be a key cognitive lens through which subordinates' traits influence the quality of their relationship with supervisors.

Understanding how individual differences shape workplace relationships requires unpacking the cognitive mechanisms that connect personality traits to organizational outcomes. Research in organizational behavior has long emphasized that the effects of distal traits, such as locus of control, are typically indirect, exerting their influence through more proximal cognitive processes (Kanfer, 1990). Relatedly, Judge, Heller, and Mount (2002) identified a critical gap in leadership research – the need to clarify how broad personality traits translate into leadership outcomes. Cognitive learning theory (James & Jones, 1980) and related perspectives (Lazarus, 1984) further support the idea that individuals' attitudes and behaviors are shaped not simply by objective experiences, but by how they interpret and cognitively process those experiences.

Subordinates' perceptions of justice are shaped within leader–subordinate dyads and are best understood through the lens of social exchange theory (Korsgaard, Roberson, & Rymph, 1998). Prior research has demonstrated that justice perceptions significantly influence the quality of exchange relationships, with perceived justice positively associated with LMX (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Cropanzano, Prehar & Chen, 2002; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Given the theoretical emphasis on cognitive processes as intermediaries between personality traits and workplace outcomes (James & Jones, 1980), and considering that justice perceptions represent core evaluative cognitions relevant to relational dynamics at work, I propose that subordinates' perceptions of procedural and distributive justice function as key cognitive mechanisms through which trait-like characteristics, such as WLOC, influence the development of LMX. Specifically, individuals with an internal WLOC are more likely to believe that they can influence their work environment, which may lead them to perceive higher levels of fairness in organizational procedures and outcomes. These justice perceptions then inform how they evaluate their relationships with supervisors. Thus, justice serves as a key cognitive mediator that helps explain how trait-level control beliefs (i.e., WLOC) translate into interpersonal workplace dynamics (e.g., LMX).

Research has reported mixed results about the relationship between justice and LMX. For example, while some scholars contend that distributive justice is not strongly associated with LMX (Roch & Shanock, 2006; Wayne et al., 2002), others report a positive relationship (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). This brings a concern that contextual factors, particularly cultural influence, have been ignored to examine justice–LMX relationship considering cultural differences significantly shape how individuals' traits manifest in workplace relationships. Relatedly, Erdogan and Liden (2006) suggesting that this relationship holds primarily in low-collectivism cultures.

Although personality traits like locus of control have been shown to predict important work outcomes, scholars have long emphasized that individual dispositions are influenced by contextual factors (Johns, 2006). Yet, much of the prior research on LOC and LMX has been conducted in culturally homogenous settings, overlooking the moderating role of cultural context. Culture may fundamentally alter how employees interpret justice and how they relate to their leaders, thus influencing the extent to which WLOC translates into perceived organizational justice and, ultimately, into LMX. As such, exploring cross-cultural differences not only addresses a major limitation of trait-based frameworks but also responds to calls for a more context-sensitive understanding of leader–subordinate dynamics (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007).

Building on these research gaps, I developed a moderated mediation model that investigates perceived justice – both procedural and distributive justice – as the mediating mechanism, with culture

serving as the moderator, to deepen our understanding of the relationship between subordinates' traits (WLOC) and relational outcomes at work (LMX). Specifically, this study explores how cultural values, such as individualism in the United States and collectivism in South Korea, moderate the indirect effect of WLOC on LMX through justice perceptions.

## Theoretical background and hypotheses

### *WLOC and LMX*

Unlike other leadership theories, LMX theory posits that the quality of relationships between supervisors and subordinates varies across individual subordinates. Accordingly, LMX research has highlighted the differential treatment that supervisors extend to in-group versus out-group members (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Scandura & Graen, 1984; Tangirala, Green & Ramanujam, 2007; Wayne & Green, 1993). In-group exchanges are characterized by high-quality relationships, while out-group exchanges reflect low-quality LMX. Subordinates in the in-group are typically favored by supervisors and receive greater access to resources, support, and developmental opportunities. In-group relationships are built on mutual trust, liking, and support (Martin et al., 2005). In contrast, out-group members tend to be disfavored, receiving fewer resources and limited interaction with their supervisors. Their relationships are often confined to formal employment contracts, lacking additional motivational efforts from supervisors.

While many studies have examined the antecedents of LMX, most have focused on the leader's perspective, with relatively fewer exploring how subordinates' characteristics influence LMX quality. However, because LMX is inherently a dyadic construct reflecting the relational exchange between leaders and subordinates. Thus, it is crucial to understand how subordinate traits shape their perceptions of LMX. Several studies explored how subordinates' big five personality trait (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles & Jack Walker, 2007; Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Graziano, Habashi, Sheese & Tobin, 2007; Hogan, 1986; Perugini, Gallucci, Presaghi & Ercolani, 2003; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994), positive affectivity (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994), and negative affectivity (Hochwarter, 2003; Hui, Law & Chen, 1999) influence LMX.

Drawing on social exchange theory (Korsgaard et al., 1998) that subordinates' internal cognitive processes are central to how they interpret and evaluate relationship quality with their leaders, this study specifically focuses on subordinates' WLOC as a key determinant of their perceived LMX. Locus of control (LOC) refers to an individual's general and stable perception regarding the degree to which life events are controllable. According to LOC theory, individuals with an internal locus of control believe that life events result from their own actions and are therefore within their control. In contrast, individuals with an external locus of control attribute outcomes to external forces such as luck or fate, perceiving events as beyond their personal control. As a result, externally oriented individuals are more likely to view events as unmanageable and outside of their influence.

While LOC has been viewed as an individuals' generalized trait, scholars have questioned whether individuals may exhibit distinct LOC tendencies in specific situations or contexts and explored context-specific LOC (Kalamas, Cleveland & Laroche, 2014; Wallston, 1992). Spector (1988) developed the concept of WLOC, which focuses on individuals' perceived control over work-related outcomes. A meta-analysis by Wang, Liao, Xia, and Chang (2010) demonstrated that WLOC is a stronger predictor of work-related outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and occupational burnout, than general LOC. Conversely, general LOC more effectively predicts broader psychological variables such as life satisfaction, affective commitment, and general burnout.

LOC is instrumental in explaining why employees with different personality traits may perceive the same organizational environment in divergent ways. For example, Judge, Erez, and Bono (1998) and Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) found that internals generally exhibit more positive perceptions of the work environment, while externals tend to view it more negatively. Nystrom (1983) also found that internals tend to earn higher starting salaries and experience greater salary growth over time. Internals typically refrain from blaming external factors when they face negative situations.

Instead, they take personal responsibility and actively seek to improve the situation. In contrast, externals encountering adverse organizational events, such as salary cuts or missed promotions, tend to attribute such outcomes to external sources, such as bad luck or unfair treatment by supervisors. Consequently, they are less likely to take proactive steps to improve their circumstances and are more prone to developing negative perceptions of the organizational climate.

Studies have found internals have positive relationship with or perception about leader. For example, O'Brien (1984) reported that internal individuals tend to hold more favorable views of their supervisors compared to externals. Internals are more responsive to supervisory direction and show stronger commitment to their supervisors (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994). Lefcourt, Martin, Fick, and Saleh (1985) also found that internals tend to demonstrate better social skills and are more engaged in dyadic interactions, including active listening and socially adept behavior. Spector (1982) and Hawk (1989) provide important evidence suggesting that LOC plays a role in shaping LMX. While most studies have examined LOC as a general personality trait, recent research such as Robert and Vandenberghe (2020) and Xiabao et al. (2022) have focused on domain-specific LOC, specifically examining WLOC within workplace settings.

Given that supervisors tailor their leadership styles to the characteristics of their subordinates, internals are more likely to receive supportive and effective leadership. Moreover, internals believe they can shape their work environment and interpersonal relationships, which enables them to develop stronger relationships with their supervisors (Martin et al., 2005). Kapoor, Ansari, and Shukla (1986) argued that internals are more likely to engage in upward influence tactics, actively shaping their relationships with supervisors in positive ways. Through adaptive coping strategies (Anderson, 1977), internals tend to build high-quality exchanges with their supervisors. They also demonstrate initiative-based behaviors, such as negotiating work assignments, seeking feedback, increasing communication, and using supervisors as role models (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer & Ferris, 2012; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994). These behaviors often make them more favored by supervisors. Consistent with these observations, individuals with high internal locus of control also benefit more from mentoring relationships (Noe, 1988; Turban & Dougherty, 1994; Wang et al., 2010).

Based on this, I propose that subordinates' perceived control over organizational events plays a critical role in shaping the quality of LMX.

*H1. Employees' internal WLOC is positively related to LMX.*

### *The mediating role of procedural and distributive justice*

Subordinates' perceptions of organizational justice are commonly categorized into two primary dimensions: distributive justice and procedural justice. *Procedural justice* concerns 'feelings of fairness regarding the procedures used in an organization, including the processes for determining promotions, incentives, and dismissals' (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Evaluations of procedural justice depend on whether organizational procedures are perceived as accurate, consistent, unbiased, and correctable (Leventhal, 1980).

On the other hand, *Distributive justice* refers to 'feelings of fairness surrounding the allocation of organizational resources, including pay, bonuses, terminations, or any other resource that an organization can provide to employees' (Adams, 1965; Roch & Shanock, 2006). This concept is rooted in Adams (1965) equity theory, which posits that individuals assess fairness by evaluating the ratio of rewards to their inputs, comparing it to others or to their own expectations. Influenced by earlier theories such as Homans (1961) on reward-cost balance and Blau (1964) on expected returns, Adams emphasized that individuals care less about the absolute value of outcomes and more about their subjective perception of fairness in those outcomes. While other forms of justice – such as interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986) and informational justice (Shapiro, Buttner & Barry, 1994) – have also been identified, the majority of the literature has focused on the two-factor model comprising procedural and distributive justice.

Procedural and distributive justice are conceptually distinct. As Cook and Hegtvædt (1983) observed, even when outcomes are distributed fairly, the perception of injustice can still arise if the procedures used are perceived as illegitimate or biased. Conversely, fair procedures may not offset negative perceptions if the outcomes themselves are seen as unjust. Therefore, examining both dimensions provides a more comprehensive understanding of how subordinates perceive fairness within an organization.

Prior research has examined the relationship between LOC or WLOC and LMX, consistently finding that individuals with an internal LOC tend to report higher-quality LMX relationships (Martin et al., 2005). Robert and Vandenberghe (2020) further extended this line of inquiry by demonstrating a positive association between domain-specific LOC (WLOC) and different dimensions of LMX. However, while these studies provide evidence for a direct effect of (W)LOC on LMX, the underlying processes through which WLOC influences subordinates' perceptions of LMX have received limited attention, leaving the explanatory pathway largely unexplored. Given that the effects of distal traits are typically indirect, operating through more proximal cognitive processes (Kanfer, 1990), it is important to explore the mechanisms that link subordinates' traits to relational outcomes. Building on this idea, Scott et al. (2007) proposed a theoretical framework in which justice serves as a critical psychological mechanism that links subordinate traits to organizational outcomes by explaining the distal relationship.

Drawing from established findings on the relationship between LOC and justice (Miller & Nicols, 2008) as well as justice and LMX (Lind, 2001; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Van den Bos, 2001), this study advances a more nuanced perspective by proposing perceived organizational justice as a key mediating mechanism that can explain the relationship between WLOC and LMX. The underlying assumption is that subordinates' personalities (WLOC) influence the quality of their relationship with supervisors through their perceptions of fairness within the organization. More specifically, I argue that WLOC influences LMX not only directly, but also indirectly through its effect on perceived justice (both procedural and distributive).

Specifically, I argue that the positive relationship between WLOC and LMX is explained by higher perceptions of organizational justice among internals. Internally oriented subordinates are more likely to perceive organizational procedures and outcomes as fair because subordinates with an internal WLOC are more likely to feel that they can actively participate in or influence organizational procedures, which leads them to perceive these procedures as fair. High procedural justice enhances their engagement with the organization and their supervisor, resulting in better quality exchanges in the workplace. These interpretations are consistent with social exchange theory which proposes the quality of relationships in organizations is shaped by the fairness of interactions and resource distributions (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Similarly, subordinates with an internal WLOC tend to interpret outcomes as reflections of their own effort, reinforcing the belief that fairness is achieved through personal agency and thus, enhancing their perceived distributive justice. This inclination aligns with the just-world hypothesis (Lerner, 1980), which suggests that individuals believe the world is fundamentally fair and that outcomes are deserved. When employees perceive higher levels of distributive justice (i.e., fair allocation of resources or outcomes), they tend to feel more positively about the social exchange with their supervisor, leading to improved relationship quality (LMX).

Given that both distributive and procedural justice are grounded in the fairness of outcomes and procedures within the organization, I propose that these two forms of justice mediate the relationship between employees' internal WLOC and LMX. In other words, the impact of WLOC on LMX is channeled through the perceptions of fairness in how outcomes and procedures are handled within the organization.

*H2a. Perceived procedural justice mediates the relationship between employees' WLOC and LMX.*

*H2b. Perceived distributive justice mediates the relationship between employees' WLOC and LMX.*



### *The moderating role of cultural difference*

Culture refers to shared values and norms that distinguish members of one group from those of another and often reflect general preferences for certain ways of thinking or behaving (Hofstede, 2011). While various scholars have offered differing frameworks for classifying cultures (e.g., Douglas, 1973; Hall, 1976; Kluckhohn, 1962; Parsons et al., 1951), Hofstede (1984) model remains one of the most widely applied, identifying five dimensions of cultural variation: individualism vs. collectivism, power distance, masculinity vs. femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long- vs. short-term orientation. Among these, this study focuses on the individualism–collectivism (I–C) dimension, as it represents a foundational and widely validated distinction between the United States and South Korea. This dimension is particularly relevant for understanding interpersonal dynamics such as justice perceptions and LMX, as it captures how cultural values shape individuals' expectations for fairness, autonomy, and group belonging.

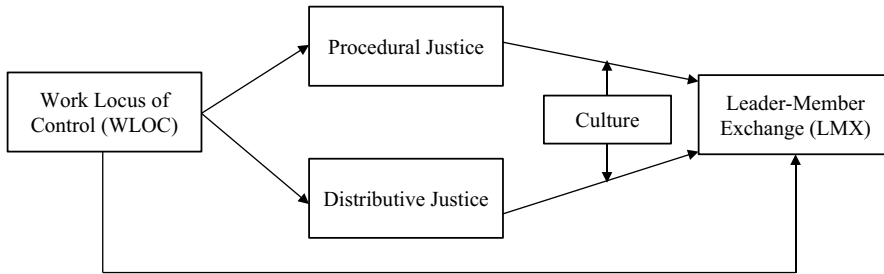
The I–C dimension reflects the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups and the nature of relationships within a society. In individualistic cultures, such as the United States, people are expected to look after themselves and prioritize personal autonomy, independence, and self-expression. Social ties tend to be loose, and individuals are encouraged to speak their minds and pursue personal goals. The self is typically defined in terms of 'I' rather than 'we', and one's identity is shaped more by individual traits and achievements than by group affiliations. In contrast, collectivistic cultures, such as South Korea, emphasize strong, cohesive in-groups, such as families, clans, or work units, which provide protection in exchange for loyalty. In these societies, individuals are socialized to value group harmony, conformity, and interdependence. The self is defined relationally, and people are more likely to make decisions that preserve group consensus and reflect shared obligations. As a result, behaviors such as self-restraint, maintaining face, and avoiding direct conflict are more common in collectivist contexts (Hofstede, 2011; Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk & Gelfand, 1995).

The cultural differences shape how individuals develop interpersonal relationships (Gudykunst, 1989). Collectivists tend to define their expectations of the organization through a relational lens (Erdogan & Liden, 2006) and are more likely to tolerate unfairness when it serves group cohesion. They are often attuned to how decisions affect the collective and interpret fairness in terms of relational harmony and social obligations. Erdogan and Liden (2006) found that collectivists are less influenced by justice perceptions when evaluating their managers. For collectivists, maintaining harmony and fulfilling role-based duties take precedence over asserting fairness concerns (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Wasti, 2003). As a result, procedural and distributive justice may have a weaker influence on LMX development in collectivist contexts. In contrast, individualists place greater emphasis on fairness and are more sensitive to injustice, particularly when it directly impacts them. They are less tolerant of unfair procedures or outcome distributions and more likely to evaluate leader relationships based on personal benefit and equity (Ohbuchi, Fukushima & Tedeschi, 1999).

Justice perceptions vary depending on individuals' cultural values (Pillai, Scandura & Williams, 1999). Mueller and Wynn (2000) found that the importance placed on justice was highest in the United States, with South Korea ranking lower. Individualists are especially sensitive to procedural and distributive justice, as fairness reflects their personal rights and how they are treated (Earley & Gibson, 1998). For them, justice is closely tied to individual freedoms. In contrast, collectivists are less likely to form justice perceptions based on quid pro quo reasoning and place less emphasis on individual entitlements (Doney, Cannon & Mullen, 1998).

Based on this, I expect cultural context to moderate the indirect relationship between WLOC and LMX via justice perceptions, such that the mediating role of justice is stronger in the U.S. context. Figure 1 presents the conceptual model of this study.

*H3a. Cultural differences moderate the strength of the indirect relationship between WLOC and LMX via procedural justice, such that the relationship between procedural justice and LMX is stronger in the U.S. than in South Korea.*



**Figure 1.** Conceptual model of WLOC, justice, LMX, and culture.

*H3b. Cultural differences moderate the strength of the indirect relationship between WLOC and LMX via distributive justice, such that the relationship between procedural justice and LMX is stronger in the U.S. than in South Korea.*

## Method

### Sample and procedure

The data for this study were collected from both the United States and South Korea. The U.S. data were gathered from undergraduate and graduate students at large public universities in the northeastern United States. Participants were asked to answer questions regarding their current or most recent job. Participation in the survey was voluntary, and undergraduate students received extra course credit for their involvement. Prior to completing the survey, participants were informed about the study's purpose, as well as confidentiality procedures. They were also advised that their participation was voluntary, and they could withdraw from the survey at any time.

A total of 316 participants completed the U.S. survey. Since sufficient time is required to develop justice perceptions and a meaningful relationship with supervisors, 56 respondents with limited work experience were excluded. This resulted in a final sample of 260 participants, of which 125 (48.08%) were female and 134 (51.54%) were male. The average age of participants was 24 years ( $SD = 4.41$ ). In terms of race, 177 participants (68.08%) were identified as Caucasian, 14 (5.38%) as African American, 21 (8.08%) as Hispanic, 38 (14.62%) as Asian, and 10 (3.85%) identified as 'Other'.

The South Korean data were collected from 205 MBA students at a large public university in Korea. The participants were primarily working professionals with significant work experience. Of the 205 respondents, 37 (18%) were female and 168 (82%) were male. The average age of the participants was 32 years ( $SD = 2.28$ ). In terms of race, 202 participants (98.5%) identified as Asian, 2 (1%) as Caucasian, and 1 (0.5%) selected 'Other'.

The Korean survey was distributed following a careful translation process. The author initially translated the survey into Korean, which was then back-translated into English by a Korean Ph.D. student majoring in English in the United States. To ensure the accuracy of the translation, two graduate students who are native English speakers and two graduate students who are native Korean speakers met to discuss whether the meaning of the questions had been effectively conveyed in the Korean version of the survey. All questions were presented using a 5-point Likert scale.

### Measures

**Organizational justice.** As recommended by Colquitt (2001), procedural justice was measured using the scales developed by Thibaut and Walker (1975) and Leventhal (1980). Specifically, I included 7 questions to measure procedural justice: 2 items from Thibaut and Walker (1975) and 5 items from

Leventhal (1980). Distributive justice was measured using the scale developed by Leventhal (1976), which consists of 4 items to assess this dimension. Cronbach's alphas were 0.83 for procedural justice and 0.76 for distributive justice.

*Leader-member exchange (LMX).* The LMX-MDM scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998), consisting of 12 items, was used to measure LMX. Sample items include, 'My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend' and 'I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description'. Cronbach's alpha was 0.92.

*Work locus of control (WLOC).* The scale for measuring an individual's locus of control was originally developed by Rotter (1966) and it has traditionally been the dominant instrument for measuring LOC. However, Phares (1976) criticized the Rotter Scale for its lack of precision and argued for the development of domain-specific measures of LOC. In response to this, Spector (1988) introduced the LOC scale to be more relevant to individuals' experiences in the organizational context. The WLOC scale measures both internal and external locus of control in the workplace. Cronbach's alpha was 0.80.

*Control variables.* To minimize the disadvantage of including undergraduate students as subjects and to account for alternative explanations as well as a variety of different factors that may influence the outcomes due to different cultural background of samples from different countries in this study, I added 12 variables as control variables. Control variables are gender, age, experience in full time job, working hour, position duration, job duration in lifetime, longest duration of working in lifetime, and perceived power distance. Education, race, job type, and position type are controlled as dummy variables.

## Analysis

I tested the proposed hypotheses using hierarchical regression analyses. In line with Baron and Kenny (1986) approach to mediation, I first regressed the mediators and outcome variable on the predictor variable (WLOC), followed by models that included the proposed mediators. Control variables were entered in the initial step of each regression to isolate the unique effects of the predictor and mediators.

This approach allows for the inclusion of multiple control variables and is well-suited for our study given the adequate reliability of our measures. As Jaccard and Wan (1996) noted, multiple regression is preferable to structural equation modeling (SEM) when measurement error is not a significant concern. Given our study's focus on testing mediation effects with several control variables and acceptable reliabilities, Baron and Kenny's framework was deemed appropriate.

Before conducting the mediation analyses, I assessed multicollinearity among the predictors and mediators to ensure that inflated standard errors would not compromise the interpretation of regression coefficients. The minimum, maximum, and mean VIF values are 1.25, 2.13, and 1.87, respectively.

## Results

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations, which includes both countries. The Korean sample has higher averages for age, education level, full-time work experience, job tenure, and working hours compared to the U.S. sample. This difference likely reflects the fact that the Korean data were collected from MBA students, whereas the U.S. data were primarily drawn from undergraduate students.

Table 2 shows the results of hierarchical regression for testing H1–H2.

Models 3 in Table 2 presents the results for control variables only, using LMX as a dependent variable. As shown in Model 1 of Table 3, both position duration and power distance have a positive effect on LMX, indicating that employees who have been in their position longer and who perceive higher power distance tend to report higher quality LMX.



**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics and correlations ( $N = 465$ )

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Gender	1.00													
2	Age	<b>0.35</b>	1.00												
3	Full-time job	<b>0.25</b>	<b>0.53</b>	1.00											
4	Work hour	<b>0.26</b>	<b>0.53</b>	<b>0.45</b>	1.00										
5	Job duration	<b>0.14</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>0.24</b>	<b>0.26</b>	1.00									
6	Position duration	<b>0.16</b>	<b>0.37</b>	<b>0.22</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>0.60</b>	1.00								
7	Job duration in lifetime	0.09	<b>0.38</b>	<b>0.30</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.50</b>	<b>0.35</b>	1.00							
8	Longest work experience	<b>0.20</b>	<b>0.54</b>	<b>0.35</b>	<b>0.31</b>	<b>0.68</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.69</b>	1.00						
9	Power distance	<b>0.10</b>	0.02	−0.01	0.03	−0.01	−0.01	−0.05	0.04	1.00					
10	Culture	<b>−0.35</b>	<b>−0.74</b>	<b>−0.4</b>	<b>−0.47</b>	<b>−0.31</b>	<b>−0.33</b>	<b>−0.16</b>	<b>−0.33</b>	<b>−0.14</b>	1.00				
11	LMX	<b>−0.10</b>	<b>−0.24</b>	<b>−0.17</b>	<b>−0.14</b>	−0.07	−0.01	−0.01	−0.06	<b>0.12</b>	<b>0.28</b>	1.00			
12	WLOC	<b>−0.14</b>	<b>−0.23</b>	−0.08	<b>−0.15</b>	<b>−0.15</b>	<b>−0.14</b>	−0.01	<b>−0.13</b>	<b>−0.13</b>	<b>0.32</b>	<b>0.31</b>	1.00		
13	Procedure justice	0.08	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.07	<b>0.14</b>	<b>0.09</b>	0.10	−0.01	<b>0.42</b>	<b>0.34</b>	1.00	
14	Distributive justice	−0.03	<b>−0.16</b>	−0.02	<b>−0.10</b>	−0.08	−0.03	0.01	−0.01	−0.01	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.42</b>	<b>0.46</b>	<b>0.65</b>	1.00
	Mean	0.63	2.87	0.78	3.29	3.43	3.61	4.38	3.89	2.76	0.56	3.48	3.37	3.30	3.53
	S.D.	0.48	1.13	0.42	1.02	0.80	0.76	1.09	1.32	0.56	0.50	0.77	0.49	0.71	0.86

Correlations significant at  $P = 0.05$  are in bold.

**Table 2.** Results of hierarchical regression for WLOC, justice, and LMX (*N* = 465)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
	PJ	DJ	LMX			
Gender	0.140* (0.070) [0.045]	0.042 (0.080) [0.600]	−0.045 (0.079) [0.568]	−0.018 (0.076) [0.810]	−0.075 (0.071) [0.290]	−0.031 (0.073) [0.675]
Age	−0.124* (0.057) [0.030]	−0.122 + (0.066) [0.066]	−0.082 (0.065) [0.213]	−0.079 (0.063) [0.206]	−0.029 (0.059) [0.625]	−0.044 (0.060) [0.462]
Full-time	−0.035 (0.091) [0.700]	0.165 (0.105) [0.116]	−0.103 (0.104) [0.321]	−0.133 (0.100) [0.183]	−0.119 (0.093) [0.201]	−0.181 + (0.095) [0.059]
Work-hour	−0.000 (0.037) [0.999]	−0.040 (0.043) [0.353]	0.012 (0.043) [0.771]	0.013 (0.041) [0.759]	0.013 (0.038) [0.741]	0.024 (0.039) [0.538]
Job duration	−0.098 (0.060) [0.101]	−0.090 (0.069) [0.193]	−0.081 (0.068) [0.235]	−0.064 (0.066) [0.328]	−0.024 (0.061) [0.694]	−0.038 (0.063) [0.542]
Position duration	0.092 + (0.051) [0.073]	0.075 (0.059) [0.205]	0.115 + (0.059) [0.052]	0.125* (0.056) [0.027]	0.087 + (0.053) [0.098]	0.103 + (0.054) [0.056]
Job duration in lifetime	0.077 + (0.041) [0.060]	−0.015 (0.047) [0.752]	0.040 (0.046) [0.386]	0.021 (0.045) [0.633]	−0.010 (0.042) [0.811]	0.026 (0.043) [0.547]
Longest work experience	0.057 (0.042) [0.167]	0.089 + (0.048) [0.063]	0.028 (0.047) [0.556]	0.040 (0.045) [0.380]	0.017 (0.042) [0.695]	0.014 (0.044) [0.744]
Power distance	0.104 + (0.057) [0.067]	0.202** (0.066) [0.002]	0.198** (0.064) [0.002]	0.258*** (0.062) [0.000]	0.216*** (0.058) [0.000]	0.200*** (0.060) [0.001]
WLOC	0.584*** (0.066) [0.000]	0.841*** (0.077) [0.000]		0.462*** (0.073) [0.000]	0.224** (0.073) [0.002]	0.220** (0.078) [0.005]
Procedural justice					0.408*** (0.049) [0.000]	
Distributive justice						0.288*** (0.043) [0.000]
Constant	0.501 (0.377) [0.185]	0.156 (0.436) [0.721]	2.958*** (0.307) [0.000]	1.112** (0.413) [0.007]	0.907* (0.385) [0.019]	1.067** (0.394) [0.007]
R-squared	0.204	0.267	0.112	0.186	0.299	0.261
Adjusted R-squared	0.161	0.227	0.065	0.142	0.259	0.219
Δ R-squared				0.074***	0.113***	0.075***
F	4.71***	6.68***	2.41***	4.20***	7.48***	6.21***

\*\*\**P* < 0.001, \*\**P* < 0.01, \**P* < 0.05, + *P* < 0; standard errors in parentheses; *P*-values are present in brackets and italicized; control dummies are included.

**Table 3.** Regression results for the moderated mediation model ( $N = 465$ )

	Model 7	Model 8
Gender	-0.033 (0.071) [0.638]	0.013 (0.073) [0.859]
Age	-0.007 (0.058) [0.902]	-0.020 (0.060) [0.733]
Full-time	-0.128 (0.091) [0.161]	-0.193* (0.094) [0.041]
Work-hour	0.016 (0.037) [0.672]	0.026 (0.038) [0.502]
Job duration	-0.017 (0.060) [0.772]	-0.033 (0.062) [0.591]
Position duration	0.099 + (0.052) [0.057]	0.115* (0.053) [0.031]
Job duration in lifetime	-0.014 (0.041) [0.730]	0.023 (0.042) [0.580]
Longest work experience	0.013 (0.042) [0.757]	0.006 (0.043) [0.883]
Power distance	0.240*** (0.058) [0.000]	0.221*** (0.060) [0.000]
WLOC	0.220*** (0.072) [0.003]	0.216*** (0.077) [0.005]
Culture	0.400 (0.475) [0.400]	0.423 (0.548) [0.441]
Procedural Justice (PJ)	0.290*** (0.058) [0.000]	
PJ × Culture	0.163*** (0.045) [0.000]	
Distributive Justice (DJ)		0.186*** (0.052) [0.000]
DJ × Culture		0.148*** (0.043) [0.001]

(Continued)

Table 3. (Continued.)

	Model 7	Model 8
Constant	0.593 (0.389) <i>[0.129]</i>	0.745 + (0.401) <i>[0.064]</i>
R-squared	0.320	0.281
F	7.91***	6.58***

\*\*\* $P < 0.001$ , \* $P < 0.05$ , +  $P < 0$ ; standard errors are in parentheses;  $P$ -values are in brackets and italicized; control dummies are included.

Hypothesis 1 proposed WLOC has a positive effect on LMX. Model 4 in Table 2 supports Hypothesis 1, showing that WLOC positively predicts LMX ( $\beta = 0.462$ ,  $P = 0.000$ ) after controlling for control variables.

Model 3 in Table 2, which includes only control variables, significantly predicts LMX ( $R^2 = 0.112$ ,  $F(23, 441) = 2.41$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ). When WLOC is added in Model 4, the model fit improves significantly ( $R^2 = 0.186$ ,  $F(24, 440) = 4.20$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ), with an increase in explained variance of  $\Delta R^2 = 0.074$ . This change is statistically significant ( $F(1, 440) = 40.36$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ), indicating that WLOC adds meaningful explanatory power to the model in predicting LMX.

H2a and H2b examined whether perceived procedural and distributive justice mediate the relationship between WLOC and LMX. Following the mediation criteria outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986), four conditions must be satisfied to establish a mediation effect. First, the independent variable must significantly predict the mediators. Second, the independent variable must significantly predict the dependent variable. Third, the mediators must significantly predict the dependent variable. Finally, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable should become non-significant or significantly reduced when the mediators are included in the model.

Model 1 and Model 2 in Table 2 show that WLOC is positively associated with procedural justice (Model 1 in Table 3:  $\beta = 0.584$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ) and with distributive justice (Model 2 in Table 3:  $\beta = 0.841$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ). Thus, the first condition is supported. The second condition is supported in H1 that WLOC has a positive effect on LMX ( $\beta = 0.462$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ). Model 5 and Model 6 in Table 2 provide show that both procedural justice (Model 5 in Table 2,  $\beta = 0.408$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ) and distributive justice (Model 6 in Table 2,  $\beta = 0.288$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ) are positively associated with LMX, and thus, the third condition for mediation is supported. Furthermore, Model 5 in Table 2 shows that the effect of WLOC on LMX becomes weaker ( $\beta = 0.224$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ) after accounting for procedural justice, indicating partial mediation. Similarly, Model 6 in Table 2 shows that the effect of WLOC on LMX weakens ( $\beta = .220$ ,  $P = 0.005$ ) when distributive justice is included, also suggesting partial mediation.

When both procedural and WLOC are added in Model 5, the model's explanatory power increases substantially ( $R^2 = 0.299$ ,  $F(25, 439) = 7.48$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ), with a significant increase in explained variance ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.113$ ) compared to Model 4 that includes control variables and WLOC. This change is statistically significant ( $F(1, 439) = 44.62$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ), indicating that procedural and WLOC together significantly improved the model. In Model 6, when both distributive justice and WLOC are added, the model improves with a significant increase in explained variance ( $R^2 = 0.261$ ,  $F(25, 439) = 6.21$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = 0.075$ ). The  $R^2$  change is statistically significant ( $F(1, 439) = 44.62$ ,  $P < 0.000$ ).

To further examine the mediating roles of procedural and distributive justice, I conducted Spector's (1982) test to assess the significance of the indirect effects. The results indicated that procedural justice ( $P < 0.000$ ) and distributive justice ( $P = 0.049$ ) significantly mediated the relationship between WLOC and LMX.

Given that mediation analysis typically requires a large sample size for reliable inference, a bootstrapping procedure was also employed to enhance the robustness of the findings. Using 1000 bootstrap samples with a 95% confidence interval, the results further confirm the statistical significance of the mediation effect of procedural justice ( $P = 0.013$ ) and distributive justice ( $P = 0.015$ ).

**Table 4.** Moderated mediated results for procedural and distributive justice across cultures

Mediator		United States	Korea
Procedural Justice	Conditional indirect effect	0.100	0.064
	SE	0.030	0.021
	z	3.27	3.05
	P	0.001	0.002
Distributive Justice	Conditional indirect effect	0.072	0.040
	SE	0.023	0.015
	z	3.11	2.76
	P	0.002	0.006

To address concerns about potential common method variance, a post-hoc Harman's single-factor test (Harman, 1967) was conducted, as recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003). An unrotated principal component factor analysis revealed four distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Together, these factors accounted for only 26.53% of the total variance, indicating that no single factor accounted for the majority of variance in the data. This suggests that common method bias is unlikely to have significantly influenced the results.

To assess moderated mediation, I examined four conditions following Preacher et al. (2007): (1) a significant effect of WLOC on LMX, (2) a significant interaction between perceived justice and culture, (3) a significant effect of perceived justice on LMX, and (4) a significant difference in the conditional indirect effect of WLOC on LMX via perceived justice across the two cultures. The results for testing moderated mediation are reported in Table 3.

The results for H1, which demonstrate a significant effect of WLOC on LMX, support the first condition for moderated mediation. To assess the second condition, I examined whether the interaction terms between culture and each type of justice significantly predict LMX. As shown in Models 7 and 8 in Table 3, the interaction between procedural justice and culture ( $\beta = 0.163$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), as well as the interaction between distributive justice and culture ( $\beta = 0.148$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ), were both significant, supporting the second condition. Both procedural and distributive justice were positively related to LMX (Model 5 and Model 6 in Table 2), and thus, the third condition was supported.

To validate the findings of the moderated mediation relationships, I followed Preacher et al.'s (2007) approach and examined the final condition, which requires that the magnitude of the conditional indirect effect of WLOC on LMX via perceived justice differs across cultures. Table 4 shows the conditional indirect effects for procedural and distributive justice across the two cultures. The results show that the conditional indirect effect of procedural justice on LMX significantly differed by culture (United States:  $\beta = 0.100$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ; Korea:  $\beta = 0.064$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ). The difference was significant ( $\beta = 0.036$ ,  $P = 0.018$ ) indicating that the effect was significantly stronger in the United States than in South Korea, supporting H3a.

Similarly, for distributive justice, the conditional indirect effect on LMX also differed significantly across cultures (United States:  $\beta = 0.072$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ; South Korea:  $\beta = 0.040$ ,  $P = 0.006$ ). The difference between the two effects were significant ( $\beta = 0.032$ ,  $P = 0.029$ ), indicates a stronger effect in the United States, providing additional support for H3b.

To further validate the conditional indirect effect of WLOC on LMX through procedural justice at different cultures, I conducted a bootstrapping analysis with 1000 replications. The results confirm H3a that the indirect effect was statistically significant in both the United States ( $\beta = 1.36$ ,  $SE = 0.55$ ,  $z = 2.49$ ,  $P = 0.013$ ) and South Korea ( $\beta = 0.87$ ,  $SE = 0.38$ ,  $z = 2.31$ ,  $P = 0.021$ ). Additionally, the index of moderated mediation was significant ( $\beta = 0.49$ ,  $SE = 0.22$ ,  $z = 2.21$ ,  $P = 0.027$ ),

indicating that the strength of the indirect effect differed significantly between the two cultural contexts. This supports H3a that culture moderates the indirect relationship between WLOC and LMX via procedural justice, with a stronger effect in the United States than in South Korea.

The bootstrapping results also confirmed H3b that the indirect effect of WLOC on LMX through distributive justice is stronger in the United States than in South Korea. The difference between the two effects was statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.444$ ,  $SE = 0.203$ ,  $z = 2.21$ ,  $P = 0.029$ ). Moreover, the indirect effects were significant in both countries (United States:  $\beta = 1.003$ ,  $SE = 0.409$ ,  $z = 2.45$ ,  $P = 0.014$ ; South Korea:  $\beta = 0.559$ ,  $SE = 0.263$ ,  $z = 2.12$ ,  $P = 0.034$ ).

## Conclusion and discussion

This study investigates how subordinates' personality traits, specifically WLOC, influence their perceptions of LMX quality. It further examines whether this relationship is mediated by perceptions of organizational justice, including both procedural and distributive fairness. Given that most prior research on these constructs has been conducted within the U.S. context, this study compares data from the United States and South Korea to explore whether these relationships vary across individualistic and collectivistic cultural settings. By doing so, the study aims to offer cross-cultural insights into the theoretical mechanisms that shape workplace relationships.

The empirical results reveal that subordinates' WLOC significantly predicts both distributive and procedural justice perceptions. Furthermore, the analysis indicates that procedural and distributive justice partially mediate the relationship between WLOC and LMX. The findings demonstrate that subordinates' personality traits – particularly WLOC – shape their perceptions of LMX through their fairness perceptions related to both outcomes and procedures. Finally, I find that culture significantly moderates the indirect relationship between WLOC and LMX via justice perceptions, such that the effects of both procedural and distributive justice on LMX are stronger in the United States than in South Korea.

The positive effect of WLOC on justice perceptions suggests that employees' sense of fairness regarding organizational procedures and outcome distributions is influenced by the extent to which they believe they have control over workplace situations. Moreover, by incorporating both economic (distributive justice) and social (procedural justice) dimensions of exchange, the positive influence of justice on LMX supports the idea that subordinates' perceptions of their relationships with supervisors are shaped by their justice experiences. This aligns with prior research highlighting the dual importance of economic and social exchanges in building high-quality supervisor–subordinate relationships, consistent with social exchange theory.

The direct effect of WLOC on LMX also indicates that perceptions of leader–member relationship quality vary depending on subordinates' personal control beliefs. Importantly, the mediating role of justice supports the theoretical model proposed by Scott et al. (2007), which suggests that individual characteristics shape workplace attitudes and behaviors through fairness perceptions. The partial mediation suggests that fairness perceptions alone do not fully account for how personal control beliefs influence perceptions of supervisor–subordinate relationship quality. Future research could explore additional mechanisms that explain the relationship between WLOC and LMX.

The cultural difference may stem from distinct cultural value systems. As Erdogan and Liden (2006) note, the impact of perceived justice on LMX can vary depending on cultural context. In high collectivism cultures, such as South Korea, individuals often prioritize relational harmony and maintaining good interpersonal relationships. As a result, subordinates' organizational attitudes and perceptions are more strongly influenced by the quality of their personal relationships within the organization (Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Wasti, 2003). In contrast, subordinates in more individualistic cultures, such as the United States, tend to be more sensitive to how they are treated and compensated. Consequently, justice perceptions play a more prominent role in shaping their perceptions of LMX.



In summary, in individualistic contexts, subordinates with an internal WLOC are likely to perceive high-quality LMX only when they also perceive a high level of organizational justice. In collectivistic contexts, however, the quality of the interpersonal relationship may play a more substantial role, beyond justice perceptions, in shaping LMX evaluations.

This study makes several contributions to the literature on organizational justice, LMX, and personality-based individual differences. First, this research advances theoretical understanding by identifying perceived justice (procedural and distributive) as a key psychological mechanism that explains how a subordinate's WLOC influences the LMX. While prior studies have demonstrated a direct link between LOC/WLOC and LMX, few have explicated the cognitive pathway underlying this association. By doing so, this study provides empirical support for Scott et al. (2007)'s framework, which conceptualizes justice as a perceptual process shaped by individual traits and emphasizes its explanatory role in workplace outcomes.

Second, by simultaneously examining both procedural and distributive justice within a single model, this research contributes to the justice and LMX literatures by capturing both social- and economic-exchange dimensions of fairness. This dual-pathway perspective enriches social exchange theory by demonstrating how different facets of justice contribute uniquely to relationship quality with supervisors.

Third, this study adds to the relatively limited body of research on work-specific personality traits, particularly WLOC, by showing its predictive value in shaping justice perceptions and relational outcomes. By focusing on WLOC, the study captures more context-relevant psychological processes that occur in work settings.

Finally, by incorporating cultural values as a key boundary condition, this study not only highlights the contextual sensitivity of justice-based processes but also contributes to cross-cultural organizational behavior research by illustrating how individual traits and cognitive evaluations interact differently across cultural contexts. Also, this study offers greater generalizability and opens new avenues for future research on the interaction between personal control beliefs, fairness perceptions, and leader-subordinate dynamics across cultural settings.

The findings offer practical implications for managers. Managers should consider employees' personality traits and perceptions of justice when trying to build high-quality relationships with subordinates. Additionally, this study provides insight into how managers can better understand and support out-group members, enhancing inclusivity and fairness within teams.

Several limitations of this study should be acknowledged. First, the sample consisted of students, which may limit generalizability. While student samples are commonly used and considered valid for testing psychological theories (Kardes, 1996), differences in sample characteristics may influence the findings. Specifically, the U.S. data were collected from undergraduate students, whereas the Korean data came from MBA students, introducing potential variation in work experience, career stage, and organizational exposure that could affect the results. Future research should replicate these findings using working professionals to enhance generalizability. Second, prior research has argued for a more nuanced view of locus of control that distinguishes between 'locus' and 'controllability' (Martinko, Sikora & Harvey, 2012; Weiner, 1985). According to Weiner (1985), individuals evaluate causes of success and failure using three dimensions: locus, stability, and controllability. It is possible, for instance, that individuals with an internal locus may still feel they lack control, or vice versa. Thus, using a more detailed conceptualization of control could offer a deeper understanding of how personal characteristics affect justice and LMX perceptions. Third, consistent with much of the LMX literature, this study assessed LMX only from the subordinates' perspective. Since LMX is inherently a dyadic relationship, future research should collect data from both supervisors and subordinates. This would also allow researchers to investigate how supervisors' WLOC influences their perception of the relationship. Fourth, the study employed a cross-sectional design. However, relationships between variables such as WLOC, justice perception, and LMX may evolve over time. Longitudinal research is needed to capture how these dynamics develop as subordinates work longer with their supervisors.

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## Appendix

We are interested in your perceptions of your workplace. Please think of your current job. If you are not currently working, think of your last job. Please indicate how well the statements below describe your workplace by bubbling in the corresponding letter on the scantron (from A = to a very small extent, to E = to a very large extent).

\* 'Outcome' is such as the procedure used to determine your performance ratings, bonuses, promotions, or anything of value to you or your workplace.

**The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your (outcome). To what extent:**

A: To a very small extent; B: To a small extent; C: To some extent; D: To a large extent; E: To a very large extent

- PJ1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?
- PJ2. Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
- PJ3. Have those procedures been applied consistently?
- PJ4. Have those procedures been free of bias?
- PJ5. Have those procedures been based on accurate information?
- PJ6. Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
- PJ7. Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

**The following items refer to your (outcome). To what extent:**

- DJ1. Do your outcomes reflect the effort you have put into your work?
- DJ2. Are your outcomes appropriate for the work you have completed?
- DJ3. Do your outcomes reflect what you have contributed to the organization?
- DJ4. Are your outcomes justified, given your performance?

**The following questions concern your beliefs about jobs in general. They do not refer only to your present job. Please think your current/last job and indicate how you agree with the statements below describe your current/last workplace.**

A: Strongly disagree; B: Disagree; C: Neither agree nor disagree; D: Agree; E: Strongly agree

- LOC1. A job is what you make of it.
- LOC2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.
- LOC3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.
- LOC4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it.
- LOC5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.
- LOC6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.
- LOC7. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort.
- LOC8. In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places.
- LOC9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.
- LOC10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.
- LOC11. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.
- LOC12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people.
- LOC13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.
- LOC14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded.
- LOC15. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do.
- LOC16. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.

**Please think your leader/manager/supervisor in current/last job and indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements.**

A: Strongly disagree; B: Disagree; C: Neither agree nor disagree; D: Agree; E: Strongly agree

- LMX1. My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.
- LMX2. I like my supervisor very much as a person.
- LMX3. My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.
- LMX4. My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.
- LMX5. My supervisor would come to my defense if I were 'attacked' by others.
- LMX6. My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.
- LMX7. I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job descriptions.
- LMX8. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's work goals.
- LMX9. I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.
- LMX10. I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.
- LMX11. I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.
- LMX12. I admire my supervisor's professional skills.

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