Two Essays on Rotational Supervision

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Dedication

To Stephan,

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Lizzie Bear

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF DISSERTATION

Prior to beginning graduate school, I worked in the restaurant industry as a host, eventually working my way up to salaried management. During my Ph.D. program, I became interested in the phenomenon of abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000). I read literature about how abusive supervision affects targets of abuse, their coworkers, and even the abusers themselves. One perspective I could not find was how abusive supervision influenced an abuser's co-supervisors, who, from my experience, are often left to deal with the aftermath of abuse. I decided this would be a topic I would like to pursue for my dissertation. However, as I searched the literature, I found very little research on co-supervisors at all—at least how I had experienced them. My search through the literature brought to light several conceptualizations of pluralistic leadership—from "shared leadership" (Pearce & Conger, 2003) to "co-leadership" (Heenan & Bennis, 1999). These conceptualizations are highly relevant to many organizations, yet, still did not quite match my experience in the restaurant industry nor those of my friends, family, and former co-workers.

In my experience, co-managers took turns supervising. As a subordinate, it was a given that you worked with multiple supervisors. That one day, you would work with Jim, and the next day you would work with Jill. Some days, you would work with both at the same time. Soon, I found my dissertation becoming less about abusive supervision, and more about the dynamics of this type of supervisor structure—a structure I call *rotational supervision.*

The overarching goal of my dissertation is to introduce the rotational supervision construct to the literature, sparking a stream of research causing acknowledgment of such structures to become mainstream. Briefly, rotational supervision is a pluralistic leadership structure in which a small team of co-supervisors rotates responsibility for supervising a shared group of subordinates on a day-to-day basis. This structure essentially turns the leadership function into shift work and has meaningful implications for both the supervisors and their subordinates.

One implication of rotational supervision is the potential for *performance crossover,* which occurs when the performance of one supervisor influences the performance of subsequent supervisors. In Essay 1, I introduce the construct of rotational supervision and the idea of between-supervisor performance crossover. Further, I distinguish between moderating and direct/indirect performance crossover. *Moderating performance crossover* occurs when the behaviors of one supervisor influence the behavior→outcome relationships of subsequent supervisors. *Indirect* performance crossover occurs when the behaviors of one supervisor directly (or indirectly through outcomes) influence the behaviors of a subsequent co-supervisor.

In Essay 2, I shift my focus from the impact of rotational supervision on supervisors to its impact on subordinates. More specifically, I aim to explore the outcomes of between-supervisor differences on subordinates. Using interview data from a sample of 24 front-line restaurant employees (subordinates), I uncover five primary types of between-supervisor differences noted by participants. I then induce ways that these differences can surface as job demands or job resources for employees.

Together, these two essays lay the foundation for future scholarship on rotational supervision.

CHAPTER 2, ESSAY 1: PASSING THE BATON: PERFORMANCE CROSSOVER IN ROTATIONAL SUPERVISION STRUCTURES

2.1 Introduction

"You get the wrong [manager] in here—it can really mess things up. [Managers] have to 'click' with the staff and with the other managers. Because, hell, if they don't do their job, I have to do it. If they don't deal with the staff the right way, I have to deal with that, too. If they're mean, I gotta' re-motivate [the staff]. If they're too nice, I have to become the hard-ass."–**Restaurant manager, describing experience working in a rotational supervision structure**[1]

Those were the words of a restaurant manager spoken during a personal conversation used to build understanding around *rotational supervision*, a form of pluralistic leadership in which a small group of first-line *co-supervisors* rotates supervisory responsibilities on a shift-to-shift basis. Within rotational supervision structures, the organization's operating hours are typically covered by different supervisors, who rotate "being in charge" and holding responsibility for performing the same general supervisory tasks. In the above-quoted manager's restaurant, a team of salaried and hourly managers share responsibility for supervising all servers, hosts, bussers, bartenders, and kitchen staff. The managers work varying shifts to oversee restaurant operations, and subordinates might work alongside any of them, depending on the shift or day of the week. For example, one manager may work a closing shift on a Tuesday evening, while a different manager works the same shift the following evening. Consequently, staff members scheduled to work on both Tuesday and Wednesday evenings would report to different immediate supervisors each shift. Furthermore,

subordinates working during a management shift change might begin their shift under one supervisor and finish it under another.

The managers work independently on a shift-to-shift basis to accomplish daily targets, like cleanliness and immediate customer satisfaction, yet, collectively to achieve longer-term objectives, such as employee retention and reduced operating costs. Certainly, the actions, outcomes, and attitudes of one supervisor will influence the performance of subsequent co-supervisors. Yet, to my knowledge, the plural leadership literature has yet to address rotational supervision or its unique implications for leader or organizational success.

Recent discussions of pluralistic leadership describe it as “an isolated phenomenon, evoked sparingly by researchers or practiced by marginal leaders” (Sergi, Denis, & Langley, 2017, p. 35). However, rotational supervision is more prevalent in unit-level management “below the strategic apex” (Gibeau, Reid, & Langley, 2017, p. 225), where first-line supervisors drive daily operations of organizational units (Kerr, Hill, & Broedling, 1986). Organizations operating well over 40-50 hours per week often need multiple first-line supervisors to oversee daily operations and avoid overworking unitary leaders (Peters, 2014). Rotational supervision is relevant to restaurant, retail, hotel, call center, entertainment, and health care environments, due to the lengthy operating hours typically found within these industries. Although I am unable to find specific statistics on the prevalence of rotational supervision, I speculate that potentially millions of employees operate within some form of rotational supervision structure. For instance, in 2017, U.S. restaurant and retail establishments alone employed over 1.4 million first-line supervisors (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). Considering these two

industries' notoriously extended operating hours, I postulate that many of these supervisors are rotational. However, existing management literature has surprisingly neglected to consider this arguably distinct, yet, characteristic structure and its implications. More specifically, rotational co-supervisors face unique challenges when they inherit the performance outcomes of their co-supervisors.

It is not my purpose to argue that rotational supervision is an entirely new or novel structure, but, instead, that this virtually ignored structure deserves attention due to its prominence, unique internal mechanisms, and potentially significant implications for extant management theories. Historically speaking, management theory addressing plural leadership is relatively new, and my goal for this work is to help further delineate the plural leadership space as our conceptualization of workplaces evolves. Early management scholars recommended the *unity of command* principle (Fayol, 1916), which suggests that organizations are most effective when employees report to only one superior. However, as the nature and our understanding of work and organizations shifted, so did our expectations regarding effective managerial structures. For instance, the *functional management* concept (Taylor, 1911) called for utilizing multiple managers who were specialized in unique functions of production to compensate for a shortage of "well-rounded" managers (Wren & Bedeian, 2009). As more scholars recognized the importance of both instrumental (i.e., task-related) and expressive (i.e., social) leadership functions (e.g., Bales & Slater, 1955), interest grew in the potential benefit of multiple people sharing a single leadership role (Denis, Langley, & Sergi, 2012). For example, one study of a leadership team in a psychiatric hospital in which members each performed "expressive" or "task" leadership functions (Denis et al., 2012) upheld the idea that

"executive role constellations" could be useful in organizations (Hodgson, Levison, & Zaleznik, 1965).

Over the next several decades, research and theory exploring the idea of shared leadership began to flourish, with the majority of studies taking place in the 1990s and 2000s (Denis et al., 2012). More specifically, scholars asserted that groups of individuals could formally share leadership responsibilities through "co-leadership" (Heenan & Bennis, 1999), the "co-manager concept" (Senger, 1971), "small numbers at the top" leadership (Alvarez & Svejenova, 2005), "collective leadership" (e.g., Denis, Lamothe, & Langley, 2001), "dual leadership" (e.g., Etzioni, 1965; Vidyarthi, Erdogan, Smriti, Liden, & Chaudhry, 2014), and "leadership couples" (Gronn, 1999), among others. These concepts are all forms of "pooling leadership at the top," in which individual leaders perform complementary functions to direct the activity of others (Denis et al., 2012).

By introducing the term *rotational supervision*, I focus on a unique attribute of these structures: the co-supervisors working within them interchange each shift to perform the same task and expressive managerial functions, while collaborating to execute the strategic role. Rotating daily supervisory responsibilities should evoke unique leader dynamics that affect leader and organizational success. This idea is based on the concept that "leaders do not exist in a vacuum and that leadership is not an individual phenomenon" (Oc, 2018, p. 220), and is highlighted in my theoretical model. My conception of rotational supervision construes the performance of co-supervisors as a critical contextual element driving supervisor performance. Thus, rotational supervisors' performance yields unique outcomes from those of more traditional unitary supervisors'

(i.e., a single supervisor supervises the performance of a consistent group of subordinates) performance.

The performance of a supervisor's co-supervisor: (1) shapes how subordinates perceive and react to subsequent co-supervisors, (2) influences the work context for subsequent co-supervisors, and (3) molds the performance of subsequent co-supervisors. Further, rotational co-supervisors perform highly similar tasks, meaning subordinates can compare their performance directly. The positive or negative remnants of one supervisor's performance will mold the work context and thus affect subsequent co-supervisors' performance. For instance, a well-performing co-supervisor might leave subordinates highly motivated and the workplace clean and well-organized, which will affect the conscious and subconscious behavior of the subsequent co-supervisor. I refer to this as *co-supervisor performance crossover*. I adapted the term from work-family literature, in which *crossover* refers to an "inter-individual dyadic process" where employees carry emotional states, such as stress or anger, home from the workplace and transfer it to a spouse (or, stress from a spouse at home transfers to an individual at work; Westman, 2001, p. 718). More recently, scholars recognize the potential for crossover to occur among co-workers who work closely together in a shared environment (e.g., Bakker, Westman, & Van Emmerik, 2009; Van Emmerick & Peeters, 2009), as is the case with rotational co-supervisors.

In this paper, I develop a richer understanding of supervisor performance by introducing co-supervisor performance crossover as a type of discrete organizational context within rotational supervision structures. My primary objectives are to start a conversation around rotational supervision and to develop a conceptual framework

describing the process of co-supervisor performance crossover. Integrating a contextual leadership perspective (e.g., Johns, 2006) with Campbell's (2012) job performance framework, I theorize that supervisors' performance behaviors and outcomes cross over to influence the performance behaviors and outcomes of their co-supervisors. Furthermore, I propose that co-supervisors' status, power, and temporal proximity of work schedules influence performance crossover.

In the following sections, I define and distinguish rotational supervision within the nomological net of related pluralistic leadership constructs, such as shared leadership and matrix leadership. In doing so, I highlight an important yet typically overlooked organizational context that may challenge us to think about first-line supervisor performance in a new way. I draw upon contextual and contingent leadership literature, as well as information gathered from first-hand conversations with practitioners from various industries to present my conceptual framework and five propositions. I conclude by discussing theoretical implications for the application and study of rotational supervision structures, along with potential directions for future research.

2.2.1 Conceptualizing Rotational Supervision as a Form of Pluralistic Leadership

I define *rotational supervision* as a type of pluralistic leadership in which several first-line co-supervisors formally rotate responsibility for supervising the work of a single group of subordinates. Relative to other pluralistic leadership constructs (see Sergi, Comeau-Valleé, Lusiani, Denis, & Langley, 2016; Sergi, Denis, & Langley, 2012; Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012, for a review), I classify rotational supervision as a form of pooled leadership occurring when a group of leaders shares a formal and coalitional leadership role (Gibeau et al., 2017; Sergi et al., 2016; see Figure

2-1). Rotational co-supervisors experience high levels of *vertical interdependence* (i.e., hierarchical equivalence), *horizontal interdependence* (i.e., responsibility for tasks that are interconnected or influence one another), and *reward interdependence* (i.e., incentivization for collective achievements; Hambrick, Humphrey, & Gupta, 2015).

Insert Figure 2-1 about here

Although rotational supervision shares many characteristics with pooled leadership, I classify it as a distinct subset of pooled leadership. Pooled leadership research focuses primarily on co-leaders, particularly executives such as CEO/COO pairs or entrepreneurial partners (e.g., Alvarez & Svejenova, 2005; Gronn, 1999; Harper, 2008). These leadership "constellations" (Hodgson et al., 1965) jointly share leadership positions in specialized, differentiated, and complementary roles (Sergi et al., 2016). Each constellation member fulfills particular functions with unique organizational goals or missions (Sergi et al., 2016). For example, information technology organizations may have leaders responsible for either the agency or its clients (Vidyarthi et al., 2014), and health care settings may have leaders responsible for clinical or managerial functions (Sergi et al., 2016). Under rotational supervision, however, leaders share many of the same responsibilities for the daily operations of a single organizational unit, such as a retail store that is part of a large chain. Consequently, I argue that rotational co-supervisors differ from traditional pooled leadership constellations in terms of specialization and differentiation and that the differences warrant a specialized focus. Table 2-1 compares rotational supervision and pooled leadership along six dimensions:

complementarity, specialization, differentiation, vertical interdependence, horizontal interdependence, and *reward interdependence*.

Insert Table 2-1 about here

Similar to pooled leadership constellations, rotational co-supervisors play coordinated and complementary roles in collectively performing some strategic (e.g., administrative) managerial duties. For instance, they might have unique responsibilities, such as ordering supplies or writing schedules. However, unlike pooled leadership constellations, rotational co-supervisors share broadly similar or identical daily supervisory responsibilities, instead of playing distinctive, non-substitutable roles. In performing their daily supervisory responsibilities—arguably the primary focus of their jobs—rotational supervisors generally perform in interchangeable, non-differentiated, overlapping, and duplicated roles from shift to shift. Thus, rotational supervision is primarily a "duplication" configuration, while pooled leadership is a "distribution" configuration (Gibeau et al., 2017, p. 230).

Differentiation, complementarity, and specialization also distinguish co-supervisors from matrix supervisors (e.g., Sy & Côté, 2004) and supervisors responsible for different departments or units (e.g., Denis et al., 2012). While I often view department or unit heads as members of a "management team" that interact with and influence one another, they typically supervise exclusive groups of subordinates who perform unique organizational functions. Similarly, although matrix supervisors share subordinates, they are higher in complementarity, specialization, and differentiation because they typically

perform unique functions and ask subordinates to perform tasks with distinct objectives (Ford & Randolph, 1992).

Thus, rotational supervision is a form of pooled leadership in that multiple co-supervisors are formally designated to perform the unit's management role collectively. Still, it departs from typical views of leadership constellations in that the roles overlap and are less specialized. The intricacies of rotational supervision structures may vary widely across organizations, but co-supervisors share in their interconnected outcomes. In pooled leadership, employees might perceive each supervisor's directives, norms, and influences to be relevant only to the functions performed under that supervisor; employees might also attribute cross-supervisor performance and outcome differences to supervisors' distinct tasks and departmental norms. However, subordinates in rotational supervision structures will observe that co-supervisors vary in performing the same role.

2.2.2 Supervisory Job Performance Behaviors and Outcomes

Job performance *behaviors* are job-related actions by workers that contribute to organizational goals (e.g., opening doors for customers or ringing up sales properly); job performance *outcomes* result from these behaviors. Performance behaviors are entirely within an employee's control, but exogenous factors like the economy or organizational climate might influence performance outcomes (Campbell, 2012; Campbell & Wiernik, 2015).

Rotational co-supervisors, like many unitary supervisors[2], often handle both managerial and leadership functions within the organization. That is, they engage in both the "interpersonal influence processes" of leadership, such as modeling ethical behavior and alleviating employee stress, and the "allocation of resources" management function,

like completing daily cash deposits and scheduling workers (Campbell, 2012; Campbell & Wiernik, 2015, p. 54). Consequently, I consider *supervisory performance behaviors* to include both leadership and management behaviors.

For theoretical parsimony in discussing my framework, I classify the *outcomes* of supervisor performance into three primary categories: supervisor-related, task and context-related, and subordinate-related. *Supervisor-related performance outcomes* include a supervisor's own behaviors, performance, states, cognitions, and attitudes—or those of a peer supervisor—that result from a supervisor's performance. In other words, they include any performance outcome for any supervisor. An example of this would be a supervisor's depletion after engaging in surface acting with angry customers (Yam, Fehr, Keng-Highberger, Klotz, & Reynolds, 2016) or motivation to improve when witnessing a co-supervisor's positive interactions with subordinates. Task- and context-related outcomes involve the state of job task completion or the context in which workers perform tasks. For instance, in retail settings, laissez-faire leadership behaviors (Bass, 1985) might result in a hostile work environment (context-related outcome; Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007), while transformational leader behaviors (Bass, 1985) lead to an increase in sales (task-related outcome; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001). Finally, *subordinate-related leadership outcomes* comprise subordinates' behaviors, performance, states, cognitions, and attitudes that result from supervisors' actions. For example, subordinates may perform fewer citizenship behaviors (Xu et al., 2012) and feel emotionally exhausted (Aryee et al., 2008; Wu & Hu, 2009) and less satisfied with their jobs (e.g., Bowing and Michel, 2011; Haggard et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2013) after experiencing abusive supervision. For simplicity, I focus primarily on

subordinate-related outcomes in my theorizing, due to their importance. In my discussion section, I address how the other types of performance outcomes (i.e., task and supervisor-related) would be relevant to the framework.

In the following section, I introduce my performance crossover framework (see Figure 2). This framework describes performance crossover as a process in which supervisors' performance behaviors and subordinate-related performance outcomes cross over to influence the performance behaviors, subordinate-related performance outcomes, and behavior/outcome relationships of subsequent co-supervisors. I further argue that co-supervisors' status and power, as well as the temporal distance of work shifts, moderate performance crossover strength.

Insert Figure 2 about Here

2.3 Theory and Proposition Development

2.3.1 Performance Crossover as Discrete Context

Leaders are interconnected with their surroundings, so their behaviors and outcomes depend significantly on the context in which they lead (Bennis, 2007; Oc, 2018). In rotational supervision structures, one supervisor's behaviors and outcomes contribute to the context for all subsequent co-supervisors. For example, imagine that on Sunday afternoon, a restaurant manager with a laissez-faire leadership style allows employees (against company policy) to take unlimited breaks to smoke or use their cell phone when they are less busy, instead of working on cleaning tasks. On Sunday evening, after a supervisor shift change (with the same employees working), the new supervisor

must overcome entrenched complacency formed during the morning shift to ensure potentially resentful staff do not use their cell phones or smoke during their shift. Supervisors are ultimately held accountable for what occurs during their own work shifts, but, in some ways are indirectly accountable for the performance of their peer supervisors.

In such situations, supervisor performance crossover influences the *discrete context*—"specific situational variables that influence behavior directly or moderate relationships between variables" (Johns, 2006, p. 393)—that subsequent co-supervisors must navigate. Discrete context is external to individuals and might include characteristics related to tasks (e.g., resource availability), social interactions (e.g., social influence), physical environment (e.g., office temperature), or time (e.g., time pressure; Johns, 2006; Oc, 2018: 219). Here, I conceptualize and include subordinate states, attitudes, and behaviors as a core part of a supervisor's work context, especially given that directing subordinates' activity is a central component of supervisor roles (e.g., see Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Thus, in my previous example, the laissez-faire supervisor influences the succeeding co-supervisor's work context by altering the states and behaviors of the subordinates they oversee.

I expect performance crossover to surface in two ways. First, supervisory behaviors (e.g., abusive supervision), through their subordinate-related outcomes (e.g., subordinate depletion), indirectly influence a subsequent co-supervisor's behaviors (e.g., being supportive or directive). This process occurs because the changes in subordinate-related outcomes alter the discrete context in which the co-supervisor works. Discrete context then drives behavior by influencing the requirements needed to meet organization

needs. For instance, the task, social, and physical dimensions of work contexts determine whether managers must focus on conceptual (e.g., strategic planning), interpersonal (e.g., influencing), or technical/administrative (e.g., accounting and paperwork) role requirements (Dierdorff, Rubin, & Morgeson, 2009). Therefore, these three dimensions of context work together to influence managerial behaviors. Similarly, I expect a supervisor's performance outcomes to determine the task, social, and physical contexts for the supervisor of the subsequent shift. For example, subsequent co-supervisors who must contend with incomplete work, depleted subordinates, or dirty facilities must adjust their behaviors to navigate the context.

Additionally, supervisors' reactions to context might shape their behavior. For example, a supervisor who arrives at work to find motivated and enthusiastic employees might be in a better mood, treating them kindlier. Combining these arguments, I establish Proposition 1.

Proposition 1: Indirect performance crossover occurs when one co-supervisor's performance behaviors evoke performance outcomes that then influence the performance behaviors and outcomes of the subsequent co-supervisor.

Second, I theorize that supervisor performance outcomes might cross over to moderate the performance-outcome relationships for subsequent co-supervisors by neutralizing, enhancing, substituting for, or supplementing (Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986) their performance behaviors. Performance crossover might neutralize subsequent supervisors' performance-outcome relationships by weakening the impact of their behaviors on relevant outcomes (Howell et al., 1986). For example, consider the depleted employees left by an abusive supervisor. Despite her best efforts, the subsequent

supervisor's supportive behavior will be less likely to increase subordinate motivation. In this case, the first supervisor's abusive behavior leads to depleted employees, which neutralizes the effects of the subsequent co-supervisor's behaviors.

In contrast, performance crossover might enhance, supplement, or substitute for subsequent co-supervisors' behaviors (Howell et al., 1986). For instance, imagine that a supervisor coaches staff during a shift, making them more competent and consistent in their roles. This coaching might enhance subsequent co-supervisors' behaviors by reinforcing performance standards or supplement them by providing additional problem-solving skills that permit workers to better respond to the co-supervisors' requests. Relatedly, the knowledge gained through coaching might serve to substitute for subsequent co-supervisors' lack of guidance or direction. Thus, co-supervisor performance crossover might moderate the performance-behavior relationship of successive supervisors by neutralizing, enhancing, supplementing, or substituting for the effects of their behaviors, as summarized in Proposition 2.

Proposition 2: Moderating performance crossover occurs when one co-supervisor's performance behaviors (through their resulting performance outcomes) moderate the performance behavior-performance outcome relationships for a subsequent co-supervisor.

2.3.2 The Influence of Co-Supervisors' Status, Power, and Temporal Distance of Work Shifts on Performance Crossover

Many contingency theorists have discussed leadership "in terms of how successful senior executives in organizations adapted to the needs of a situation" (Gordon, 2011, p. 196). Similarly, efficacious rotational supervisors must successfully

navigate the context they inherit from their peer supervisors. However, three forces, among others, should help facilitate this navigation by reducing the effects of performance crossover: supervisor status, supervisor power, and time. Supervisor status and power influence performance crossover by: (1) determining how supervisors respond to context and (2) affecting their ability to change or overcome it. Time serves to neutralize performance crossover by influencing the state of previous supervisor outcomes.

The moderating role of supervisor informal status. *Informal status* entails how respected one is by others (e.g., Magee & Galinsky, 2008). By *supervisor informal status*, I refer to the level of respect held for a supervisor by subordinates. Supervisor informal status should influence the effects of *moderating* performance crossover on subordinate-related performance outcomes. Moderating performance crossover influences supervisors' performance behavior/subordinate-related outcome relationships by changing how subordinates respond to the supervisors' behaviors. Supervisor informal status should increase a supervisor's ability to overcome contextual residue from co-supervisors because subordinates will be more responsive to higher-status supervisors. That is, the subordinates will have more motivation to perform well for and lend extra assistance to a supervisor they respect more (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999), regardless of the subordinates' states (e.g., depleted or engaged).

Returning to the example of the employees left in a demotivated and lazy state by their previous laissez-faire supervisor, the subordinates' respect for the should encourage staff members to react more strongly to the supervisor's leadership and to behave more in line with the supervisor's desired performance. Supervisor informal status should also

similarly diminish moderating performance crossover of positive subordinate outcomes. For example, consider an instance in which a highly supportive supervisor leaves subordinates motivated and in a positive mood. Because the subordinates already respect the subsequent high-status supervisor and are more likely to respond to the supervisor's requests, the positive mood and motivation created by the previous supervisor are less impactful.

Relatedly, supervisor informal status should affect *indirect* performance crossover strength by influencing the supervisor's need to respond differently to any performance crossover. Because employees typically perform better for more respected supervisors (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999), higher-status supervisors likely will not need to change their behaviors as much.

Taken together, I arrive at Proposition 3:

Proposition 3: Status influences the strength of (a) moderating performance crossover and (b) indirect performance crossover between co-supervisors. That is, as subsequent supervisor status increases, both moderating and indirect performance crossover become weaker.

The moderating role of formal power. *Formal power* refers to one's control over valued resources (e.g., Magee & Galinsky, 2008). In my aforementioned personal conversations with working professionals, participants discussed that supervisors could hold varying levels of formal power over subordinates or each other. Here, I refer to *supervisor formal power* as a supervisor's ability to control subordinate resources or working conditions and theorize that power over subordinates will influence moderating performance crossover.

When supervisors hold more formal power over subordinates, they should be more likely to overcome neutralizing contextual factors that diminish their leadership. In other words, supervisors' power over subordinates influences the strength of moderating performance crossover. That is, subordinates should be more motivated to please supervisors with greater authority to provide or remove valued resources. As a result, the employees would push through feelings of depletion or anger, for example, to adjust to the more powerful supervisor's behaviors. For instance, hourly employees in retail settings might work more diligently for and become more responsive to the supervisor who creates their weekly schedule, knowing that conflict might evoke undesirable work schedules. Therefore, the subordinates would work harder to follow this supervisor's directives and meet organizational goals, regardless of what happened with another supervisor. Relatedly, by holding more formal power, the subsequent supervisor should not need to adjust their own behaviors as strongly to achieve desired subordinate outcomes, reducing the impact of indirect performance crossover.

See Proposition 4.

Proposition 4: Supervisor formal power influences the strength of (a) moderating performance crossover and (b) indirect performance crossover between co-supervisors. That is, as subsequent supervisor power increases, both moderating and indirect performance crossover become weaker.

The moderating role of the temporal distance of co-supervisor work shifts. The temporal distance of two co-supervisors' work shifts could further influence the strength of performance crossover between them. Recall that organizations vary in both

the number of co-supervisors employed and the consistency of their schedules. For instance, annual reports from several large restaurant chains show wide variances in the number of managers employed in each unit, generally ranging from approximately 4 to 12 (e.g., Brinker International, 2017; Buffalo Wild Wings, 2017; Cheesecake Factory Incorporated, 2018; Texas Roadhouse, 2018). Further, supervisors' schedules might be generally consistent or may vary widely. Therefore, co-supervisors might work before, after, or concurrently with different supervisors at various times.

I expect that when co-supervisors' shifts are more temporally distant (i.e., further apart in time), performance crossover will decrease. For instance, after working with an abusive supervisor, depleted subordinates will have more time to recover before working with the subsequent supervisor if the two supervisors work days apart instead of hours. Thus, an evening supervisor inheriting a group of subordinates from an abusive daytime supervisor will experience more neutralizing performance crossover in comparison with a supervisor working the following evening. I also expect similar patterns regarding enhancing and supplemental performance crossover, such that a supervisor's positive or supporting behaviors will lose impact over time. Thus, I posit:

Proposition 5: The temporal distance of co-supervisor work shifts influences the strength of (a) indirect performance crossover and (b) moderating performance crossover between co-supervisors. Both forms of performance crossover will be weaker when supervisors work farther apart in time and stronger when they work closely together in time.

The Moderating Roles of Supervisor Performance Behaviors and Subsequent Supervisor's Awareness of Behaviors on Direct Performance Crossover. I further

propose that a supervisor's performance behaviors interact with the subsequent supervisor's awareness of those behaviors to influence *in what way* direct performance crossover manifests. In other words, I argue that the actual behaviors driving a supervisor's outcomes can influence how a subsequent supervisor responds behaviorally to those outcomes, given the subsequent supervisor knows about the behaviors.

Affective Events Theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) serves as one explanation for this effect. I conceptualize supervisor outcomes as events experienced by subsequent supervisors. That is, the trailing supervisor inherits the tidy workspace or demotivated employees left by the previous supervisor. Such events lead people to feel discrete emotional responses, and these emotions lead to changes in behaviors (Frijda, 1986; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Further, knowledge of the behavior leading to the event should also influence the reaction and resulting behavior. For example, at the beginning of a shift, a supervisor might feel frustrated or angry toward a group of demotivated staff members. Her reaction might involve becoming more directive with, or even abusive toward, the staff to relieve frustration and motivate the staff members to work harder. However, knowledge of the previous supervisor's abuse toward staff members, who are now demotivated due to depletion, might instead garner sympathy or compassion. This sympathy or compassion then increases helping behaviors (e.g., de Vignemont & Singer, 2006; Lamm, Batson, & Decety, 2007). As a result, the supervisor might behave more supportively to help encourage the workers to work harder, instead of lashing out at them.

In some cases, for example, a supervisor might admire or envy a co-supervisor's performance outcomes. Envy and admiration both can encourage the emulation of

behaviors to help achieve the desired outcome (e.g., van de Ven, 2017). Through social learning (Bandura, 1977), the supervisors will learn that the preceding supervisors' behavior leads to a particular outcome. This knowledge may lead them to act similarly or in opposition to the supervisor's behavior, to help attain or avoid an equivalent outcome, respectively. An example of this effect occurs when a supervisor links a previous supervisor's directive behaviors toward staff members to the employees working harder. As a result, the supervisor might begin engaging in similarly directive behaviors in order to achieve the same industriousness each shift. Here, the industriousness enjoyed by Supervisor A crosses over to influence the behavior of Supervisor B (i.e., direct performance crossover), and Supervisor A's behavior influences which behavior Supervisor B utilizes. For example, if Supervisor A achieved employee industriousness through different methods, such as abusive or supportive behaviors, Supervisor B might instead partake in those behaviors in response to Supervisor A's outcomes.

Proposition 6: Supervisor behaviors interact with subsequent supervisor's knowledge of those behaviors to influence which behaviors manifest from the subsequent supervisor as a result of direct performance crossover.

2.4 Discussion

2.4.1 Underlying Model Assumptions and Limitations

As previously mentioned, I expect to see differences in rotational supervision structures across organizations. As a result, my conceptual model requires numerous underlying assumptions and boundary conditions, which places limitations upon the model. I see value in discussing four of the most significant assumptions and constraints, along with their implications for my model.

First, my model implies that co-supervisors work one at a time and that performance crossover happens across shifts and time. Recall, however, that given business volume or other organization-specific dynamics, co-supervisors likely work simultaneously at times. The supervisors might work concurrently to manage distinct functions or workers (e.g., front-of-house vs. kitchen employees in a restaurant, or maintenance vs. customer service functions in a retail store). Or, they might work together to manage the same operations and staff (e.g., two front-of-house restaurant supervisors working together on a busy Saturday night). In both instances, ample potential exists for performance crossover among supervisors. In the former case, the co-supervisors operate more as pooled leaders—with specific and unique responsibilities. Still, the supervisors must face the "contextual residue" of the previous shift supervisor responsible for the same tasks or employees. I argue that the latter case, in which two or more supervisors simultaneously share a supervisory role, exemplifies the lowest possible temporal distance within rotational supervision. Hence, performance crossover should be the strongest in this case, since co-supervisors influence one another's *current* work context.

Second, my model holds subordinate co-worker schedules constant, as I do not account for the influence of co-worker changes on performance crossover. However, organizations that require rotational supervision likely also shuffle employees' work schedules to match the availability of workers with the needs of the organization. This arrangement means that subordinates might work with different colleagues on a shift-to-shift basis, as well, which would also influence supervisor performance outcomes. Which workers are scheduled each day alters the daily work climate or available human capital,

in turn affecting supervisor effectiveness. Further, variation in subordinate scheduling means that on a given shift, individual subordinates have worked with a variety of supervisors during their previous work shifts, and have varying levels of temporal distance from those work shifts. This discrepancy implies that co-supervisor performance crossover carried through subordinates is unique to each subordinate's previous experience. For parsimony, my model does not account for the inconsistency in subordinate scheduling, although I recognize its value for future work. However, although scheduling inconsistency means that each subordinate brings unique performance crossover influences (since they work with different supervisors on their previous shift), the underlying crossover process captured by my model is still relevant in each case.

Third, my model assumes within-supervisor performance consistency across shifts and considers only the impact of between-supervisor performance crossover. However, scholars might relax this constraint in future work for two reasons. One is that supervisory behaviors and outcomes indeed influence the same supervisor's future behaviors and outcomes (e.g., Bormann, 2017; Liao, Yam, Johnson, Liu, & Song, 2018; Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016). For example, after engaging in abusive behaviors, supervisors might partake in more consideration and initiating structure behaviors in the future to assuage guilt and restore moral credits (Liao et al., 2018). I recognize that within-supervisor performance carry-over further influences between-supervisor performance crossover. However, we argue that because scholars have already established the effects of within-supervisor performance on future performance (e.g.,

Matta, Scott, Colquitt, Koopman, & Passantino, 2017), this component is not central to my current model, which focuses on *between-supervisor* influences.

A second reason we might relax the between-supervisor constraint is to take into account familiarity (e.g., Harrison et al., 2003) or entrainment effects (McGrath & Kelly, 1986) that might occur when subordinates work with a particular co-supervisor more frequently, consistently, or continuously. With more exposure to a certain co-supervisor, subordinates should form more potent shared mental models (Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Converse, 1993) with that supervisor regarding job performance, leadership behavior, and their work roles. Over time, the supervisor and subordinates become "mutually synchronized to one another" (Harrison et al., 2003, p. 641), weakening the influence of other co-supervisors. For instance, consider a situation in which subordinates work with the same co-supervisor every day for one week. As the week progresses, the supervisor's own behaviors should become more likely to influence the next shift than those of a different supervisor. This circumstance would occur because the supervisor and subordinates become used to working with one another, and subordinates become more accustomed to the supervisor's behaviors. I acknowledge this is an essential consideration in some instances. Each day a supervisor works consistently with the same group of subordinates, the time since subordinates' last shift with a different supervisor grows (i.e., increased temporal distance of work shifts). This increased temporal distance of work shifts minimizes performance crossover strength.

Finally, as mentioned in the introduction, this paper focuses on my model in terms of subordinate-related outcomes. I choose to focus solely on subordinate-related outcomes here to make my theorizing more parsimonious. However, I see value in

applying this model to contextual- and supervisor-related supervisor performance outcomes, as well. For instance, a dirty restaurant (a contextual outcome) can crossover to influence how the next supervisor behaves (more directive; direct performance crossover) or how subordinates respond to the next supervisor (less responsive to the directiveness since they are angry; indirect performance crossover).

Further, another notable point about the relationships of these categories of outcomes is that the subordinate-related outcomes typically morph into contextual- and supervisor-related outcomes. For instance, in the dirty restaurant example, the mess unlikely occurred because a supervisor vandalized an otherwise clean facility or failed to complete manager-assigned cleaning tasks. Instead, the mess is most likely the result of a supervisor failing to make employees do their assigned tasks. That is, the manager likely demonstrated laissez-faire leadership behaviors that lead to subordinates putting in low amounts of effort (a subordinate-related outcome), in turn resulting in a dirty workspace. This argument drives my strategy to focus on subordinate-related outcomes in this paper over the other categories. Future work can test the effectiveness of my framework in capturing the effects of contextual- and supervisor-related outcome crossover.

2.4.2 Contributions

I contribute to the pluralistic leadership literature by introducing and defining rotational supervision as a unique subset of pooled leadership. Drawing on personal conversations with professionals, academic- and practitioner-oriented literature, and personal experiences, I delineate rotational supervision from previous conceptualizations of plural leadership in general and pooled leadership specifically. Researchers generally agree that pooled leadership involves groups of supervisors, but typically conceptualize it

in terms of leaders who have unique functions or competencies within organizations, such as CEO/COO pairs (Alvarez, Svejenova, & Vives, 2007; Gronn, 1999; Heenan & Bennis, 1999). In contrast, rotational supervision essentially transforms organizational unit leadership roles into shift work, creating redundancy in supervisory responsibilities and variation in scheduling and supervisor interaction dependent upon business needs. I argue that rotational supervision structures warrant a unique classification because they differ from traditional pooled leadership in *specialization* and *differentiation* dimensions, and in *horizontal* and *reward interdependence* to a lesser extent, with important implications for supervisor performance. That is, rotating co-supervisors take turns performing similar or identical tasks, permitting both the direct comparison of their performance by other supervisors and subordinates and a strong influence of performance on subsequent supervisors.

To the best of my knowledge, this work is the first to identify, outline, and describe the performance crossover process in which co-supervisors influence one another's job performance. I also directly address calls to explore crossover in the workplace (e.g., Bakker et al., 2009; Westman, 2001). My theoretical model indicates that supervisors' behaviors have the potential to indirectly influence (through performance outcomes) the behaviors, outcomes, and behavior-outcome relationships of co-supervisors. In this sense, I classify co-supervisor performance crossover as an important discrete contextual factor with meaningful implications for leadership performance. I agree that leaders "do not exist in a vacuum" (Bennis, 2007). But, rather than focus on how subordinates influence leadership, I focus on how peer co-supervisors

influence one another. I conceptualize co-supervisor performance as a situational factor (Fiedler, 1978) that interacts with leader behaviors to influence performance.

2.4.3 Future Research Directions

The main idea of my model is that rotational co-supervisors influence one another's effectiveness, in that the performance of one supervisor alters the work context of the next supervisor. That is, the central focus of this paper is the impact of working in rotational supervision structures on supervisors. Exploring rotational supervision's impact on subordinates is also valuable, and I suggest this stream of work as a future direction for rotational supervision scholarship. My discussion of rotational supervision structures and their unique interpersonal dynamics reveals the need for future research regarding numerous testable research questions.

First, future empirical work should test my theoretical model and propositions and capture various supervisory behaviors and outcomes that may cross over to have different influences on behaviors or behavior/outcome relationships. Supervisory behaviors can comprise a variety of activities from the managerial, leadership, and task performance domains, centering on initiating structure, task performance, and interpersonal treatment behaviors. The strength, outcomes, and boundary conditions of performance crossover likely vary across these various behaviors. Thus, empirical studies should test my model by exploring a wide array of task-related and extra-role behaviors directed toward multiple stakeholders, along with the behavioral outcomes for subordinates, organizations, and other stakeholders.

Multi-wave lab and field studies could explore co-supervisor performance crossover and examine the influence of relative power, relative status, and the temporal

proximity of work shifts. Lab studies could manipulate relative status, relative power, and temporal proximity to capture the pure effects of performance crossover without the additional noise introduced by differences in organizations, co-supervisor relationships, leader-member exchange, or other relevant factors. Once we identify these effects, a logical next step would be collecting field data to assess performance crossover effects in natural work environments that include exogenous factors controlled for in lab settings. For example, a field study might involve collecting data on particular performance behaviors and outcomes for several supervisors for several consecutive days to see how one supervisor's performance outcomes influence the behaviors of subsequent co-supervisors.

To better understand performance crossover, researchers could also examine and compare specific supervisory performance behaviors (e.g., abusive or supportive leader behaviors) and leadership styles (e.g., transformational leadership or laissez-faire leadership) to reveal if and how they cross over differently. Researchers should propose and test additional forces driving the interpersonal dynamics among co-supervisors and outcomes. For instance, organizational climate and culture, diversity composition, and social identity salience are all potentially powerful influences determining co-supervisor dynamics and may be valuable additions to my theoretical model.

Second, we need work to expand upon the boundary conditions and assumptions in my model. For instance, for parsimony, my model does not account for co-supervisors' relationship quality, amount of interaction with one another, nor awareness of one another's behaviors. These characteristics might influence indirect performance spillover, specifically, in determining how co-supervisors respond to the performance residue of

their peers. As an example, a supervisor aware of abusive behavior by a co-supervisor during a preceding shift might engage in more supportive behaviors toward depleted subordinates, while being unaware of the cause of depletion might result in further abuse by a frustrated supervisor mistaking depletion for laziness.

Finally, beyond a focus on performance crossover effects on co-supervisors, future work should also explore rotational supervision from the perspective of subordinates who continuously work under different immediate supervisors each shift. These workers potentially experience vastly different leadership styles, behaviors, and personalities daily while performing identical tasks. I argue this arrangement could impact subordinates through two primary mechanisms. First, subordinates can make cognitive contrasts of their supervisors' performance in identical tasks and roles. That is, the performance of one supervisor serves as a referent against which the next supervisor's performance is compared (Herr, 1986; Mussweiler, 2003). These contrasts likely influence how subordinates perceive and respond to their supervisors' behaviors, which could have important implications for both subordinate performance and performance crossover among co-supervisors.

Second, rotational supervision influences subordinates through adaptation. If co-supervisors behave inconsistently with one another, then subordinates must adapt to the different behaviors each time they work. Similar to related work highlighting the depleting effects of within-supervisor inconsistencies (e.g., Matta, Scott, Colquitt, Koopman, and Passantino, 2017), I expect that adapting to between-supervisor inconsistencies will cognitively drain subordinates. Between-supervisor differences might be less depleting for subordinates as they grow accustomed to the unique behaviors and

leadership styles of each supervisor, minimizing uncertainty. Contrarily, I expect between-supervisor inconsistency to be much greater than within-supervisor consistency, on average. Thus, regardless of the uncertainty behind behaviors, a wider inconsistency will likely require more adaptation (and more depletion) on behalf of subordinates. Further, we could better understand the potential buffering effects of co-supervisors and other unique subordinate outcomes. Thus, future researchers have many opportunities for theorizing about and empirically testing subordinate phenomena unique to rotational supervision structures.

2.4.4 Practical Implications

My paper commenced with a quote from a restaurant manager taken from one of many conversations held to help us better understand the rotational supervision phenomenon. I chose this quote because I believe it embodies the core idea of performance crossover: rotational supervisors must inevitably navigate the consequences of their co-supervisors' performance each time they work. Within this reality lies meaningful, practical implications for rotational supervisors, their subordinates, and the organizations that employ them. Here, I highlight implications for co-supervisor performance management.

Co-supervisors affect one another's ability to perform effectively in their roles. That is, even when they work alone or independently during a shift, individual supervisors are not exclusively responsible for their daily individual performance outcomes. Regardless of their behaviors, these supervisors may lack control over outcomes—particularly regarding subordinate performance—because the performance of previous supervisors interacts with current supervisory behaviors to determine daily

outcomes. Consequently, organization leaders who evaluate or coach rotational co-supervisors should particularly take care to differentiate between performance behaviors and their outcomes (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). For instance, I recognize the value in assessing performance results. However, the most effective performance appraisals for rotational supervisors would focus on how well they engage in general leadership behaviors (e.g., *initiating structure* and *consideration*; see Stodgill, 1950, 1963; transformational leadership behaviors, Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) or organization-specific practices, and develop professional competencies (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Additionally, 360-degree feedback from subordinates and co-supervisors can provide insight into perceptions of how co-supervisors influence one another. However, because 360-feedback is typically anonymous and supervisors would easily identify their co-supervisors' remarks, leaders might choose to keep co-supervisor feedback confidential and use the feedback to guide structure, scheduling, selection, or training.

Leaders should also consider inter-supervisor influences when coaching, training, and developing supervisors. Because the performance of co-supervisors affects the behaviors of subsequent co-supervisors, leaders might coach teams of co-supervisors on ways to handle interpersonal conflicts and to extinguish or even capitalize on performance crossover. This focus might include teaching supervisors to recognize one another's strengths and weaknesses and how to capitalize on strengths to supplement performance, for example. Leaders might also orient team-building exercises aimed toward developing consistency and alignment of supervision styles to minimize hindrances from one to another. While unitary supervisors may have relatively more

control over their performance behaviors and outcomes, co-supervisors may need to adjust their behaviors to compensate for or complement the behaviors of a peer.

Finally, when leaders hire and schedule supervisors, I advise them to consider supervisory styles, power, and status to ensure compatibility and potentially optimize individual and collective performance.

2.4.5 Conclusion

Over the past decade, scholars have made many meaningful contributions in advancing our understanding of and synthesizing work surrounding numerous conceptualizations of pluralistic leadership. However, this work generally neglects the rotational supervision structure, despite its necessity and ubiquity in several industries and potentially meaningful theoretical and organizational implications, particularly regarding supervisor performance. Here, I enhance understandings of both pluralistic leadership and leader performance by (1) calling attention to and describing rotational supervision structures, (2) proposing a theoretical model explaining performance crossover among rotational co-supervisors, and (3) describing how co-supervisor relative power, relative status, and temporal proximity of work shifts potentially moderate the strength of performance crossover. I acknowledge that other dynamics may be at work in rotational supervision structures, and future models may suggest additional boundary conditions that influence performance crossover strength, as I discussed in my future research directions section. However, I believe my work will spark meaningful and impactful research regarding work that involves potentially millions of workers.

2.5 Footnotes

[1] I obtained this quote from an unstructured interview during a qualitative study of current and former co-supervisors, used for theory-building. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at[retracted for review], study number: [retracted for review]. Because I did not do a formal qualitative analysis of this data, I refer to these as "personal conversations" throughout my manuscript.

[2]Although I acknowledge conceptual differences between these terms, for parsimony, we use the terms *supervisor*, *manager*, and *leader* interchangeably in this paper.

[3]My model omits the sources of power or respect. Thus, I focus on status and power holistically rather than distinguish between formal and informal power or between formal and informal status (see Magee & Galinsky, 2008, for a review).

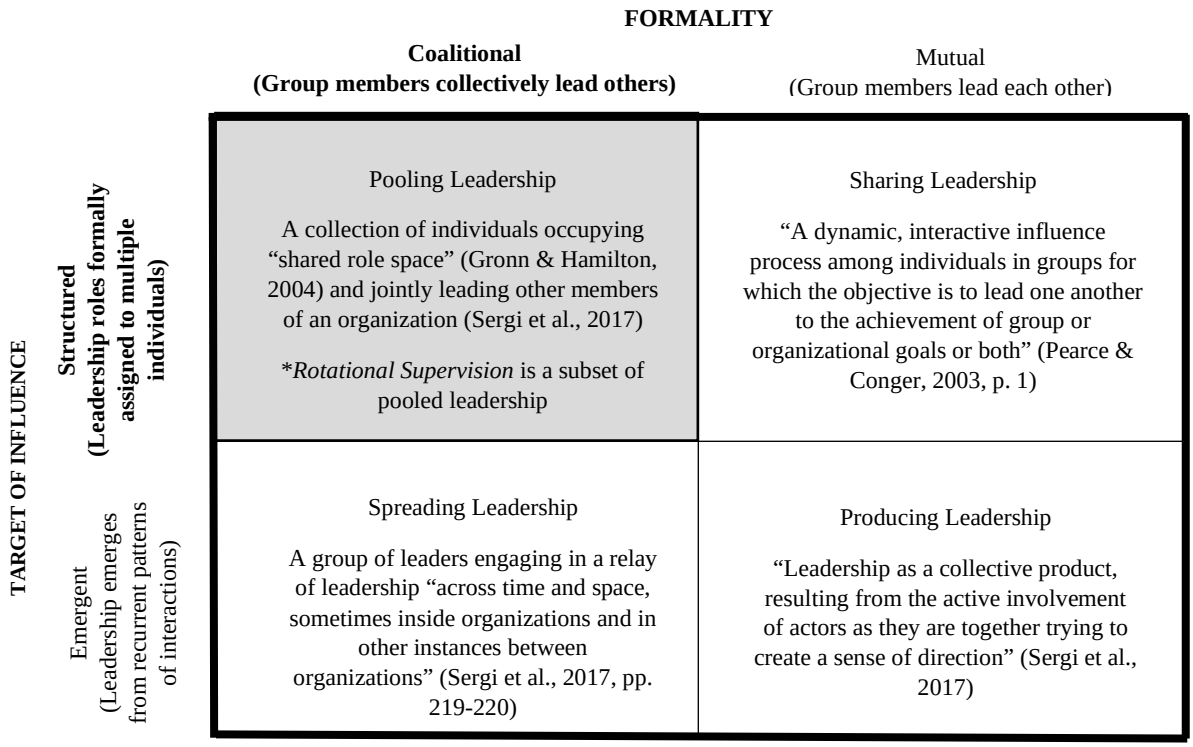
TABLE 2-1

Comparison of Pooled Leadership and Rotational Supervision on Six Dimensions of Pluralistic Leadership

Dimension	Definition	Pooled Leadership	Rotational Supervision
1. Complementarity	Two subcomponents: "the degree to which the roles occupied by the two individuals adequately cover the shared role space; and the degree to which the two individuals are able to coordinate their work within the space" (Gibeau et al., 2017: 230)	High	High
2. Specialization	"The degree to which roles taken by each individual are broad and all encompassing, occupying large areas of the shared role space, or narrow and specialized, focusing on more specific areas" (Gibeau et al., 2017: 230)	High	Low to Medium
3. Differentiation	"The degree to which roles overlap, creating (or not) zones of mutual substitution or or duplication within the shared role space" (Gibeau et al., 2017: 230)	High	Low
4. Vertical Interdependence	"The degree to which members are peers, as opposed to hierarchically disparate" (Hambrick et al., 2015: 451)	Medium to High	Medium to High
5. Horizontal Interdependence	"The degree to which roles are arranged such that the actions and effectiveness of peer affect each other" (Hambrick et al., 2015: 451)	Medium to High	High
6. Reward Interdependence	"The degree to which members receive payoffs for firm (or group) performance rather than subunit or individual performance" (Hambrick et al., 2015: 451)	Medium to High	High

FIGURE 2-1

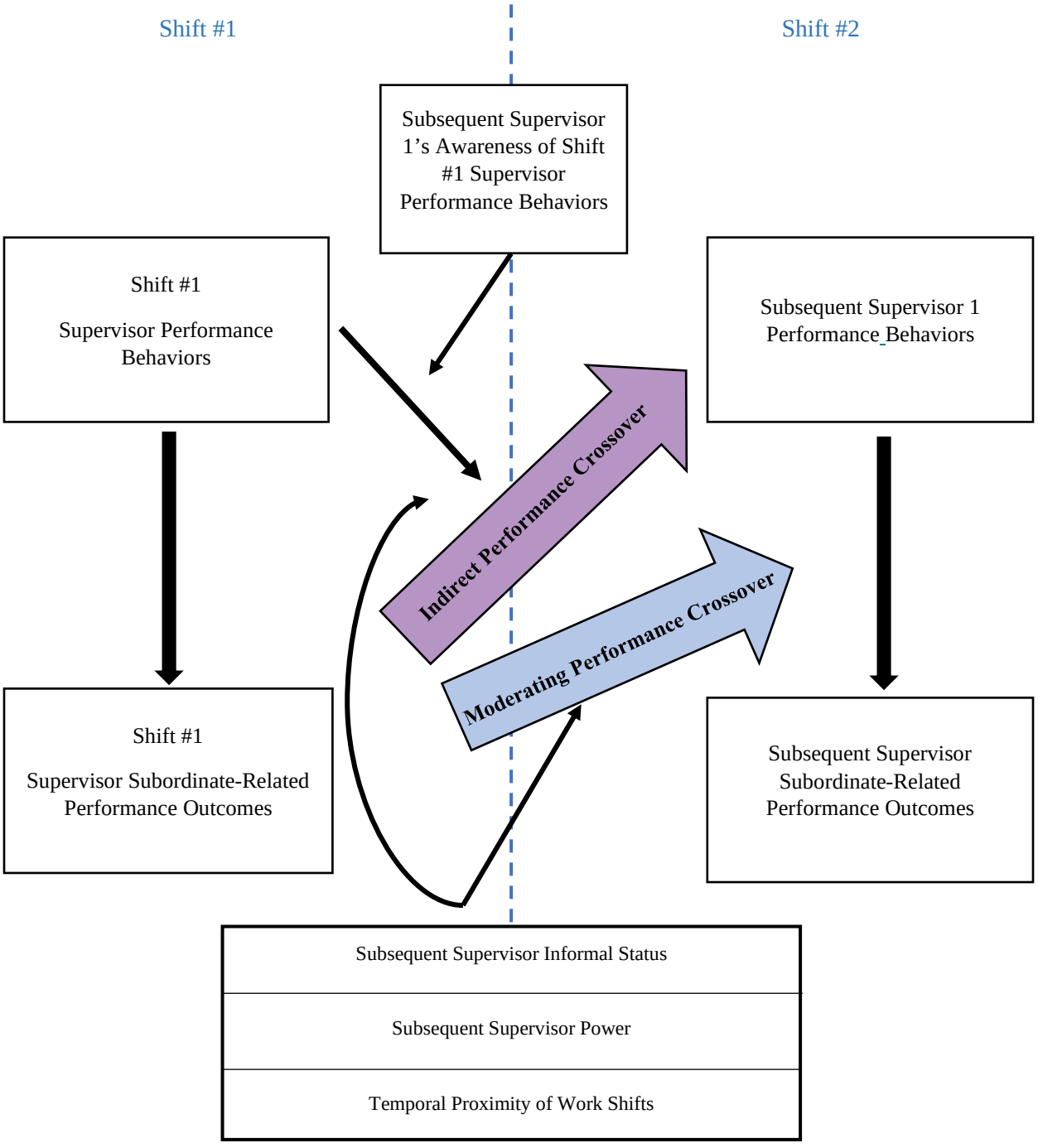
Classifications of Pluralistic Leadership Types Based on Formality and Target of Influence



Source: Adapted from Sergi et al., 2016.

FIGURE 2-2

Conceptual Model Co-Supervisor Performance Crossover



CHAPTER 3, ESSAY 2: DEMAND OR RESOURCE? A LOOK AT BETWEEN-SUPERVISOR DIFFERENCES AS RESOURCES IN ROTATIONAL SUPERVISION STRUCTURES

3.1 Introduction

During my time working as a restaurant host, among the most frequent phone calls I received came from co-workers inquiring: "*Which manager is working today?"* Front-line workers in the foodservice, retail, and other industries have likely asked or heard this question at some point because the industries' lengthy operating hours require multiple first-line shift supervisors to ensure managerial coverage whenever workers are present (Adair, 2017). Hourly employees might report to any supervisor during a given shift, depending on the scheduling norms of their organizations. My inquisitive co-workers had varying reasons for wanting to know which supervisor was on duty; most commonly, they wanted to know what to expect when they arrived to work that day. Could they get away with being 10 minutes late, in a wrinkly uniform? After a stressful day at school, will they get to work with a supportive and helpful supervisor? Or will they be stuck with the "mean" supervisor who yells the entire shift?

Within organizations like the one described above, supervisors partake in *rotational supervision*, in which a small team of peer *co-supervisors* rotates responsibility for supervising a shared group of subordinates (Adair, 2017). The supervisors take turns working either alone or simultaneously to manage daily operations and employee performance. The specific structure surrounding rotational supervision varies among organizations but ultimately transforms the managerial role into shift work—with supervisors working varying shifts to oversee operations. Although a subset of pooled

leadership, rotational supervision is distinct in that the co-supervisors take turns to perform similar or identical tasks and organizational functions, instead of consistently performing different but complementary tasks (Adair, 2017; Gibeau, Reid, & Langley, 2017; Sergi, Comeau-Valleé, Lusiani, & Langley, 2016).

Despite this task similarity, a variety of factors create variance among supervisors both personally and professionally. How do these between-supervisor differences affect subordinates? Extant work on within-supervisor inconsistency suggests that navigating supervisors who are different would lead to negative outcomes (e.g., Duffy et al., 2002; Lian et al., 2012; Matta et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2015). For instance, Duffy et al. (2002) found that employees engaged in more counterproductive work behavior and reported more somatic health complaints when their supervisor engaged in high levels of both undermining and support behaviors. More recent work reveals that inconsistently fair treatment by a supervisor increases workplace stress, job dissatisfaction, and emotional exhaustion—at a higher level than even consistently unfair behavior (Matta et al., 2017).

This work suggests that within-supervisor differences and inconsistencies wreak havoc on organizations and the employees within them. Yet, we do not know what outcomes exist for *between-supervisor* differences in rotational supervision structures, which should also have important implications for employee well-being and organizational performance. Scholars may trend toward classifying any between-supervisor differences in rotational supervision structures as *job demands*—negatively valued "physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (e.g., exhaustion)" (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). However, two

problems lie in the application of work on within-supervisor inconsistency to between-supervisor differences. First, the papers mentioned above predominately explain their findings with uncertainty management theory, which is less relevant to between-supervisor inconsistency in rotational supervision. The reason is that employees can learn the idiosyncratic performance behaviors of each supervisor over time, reducing the uncertainty surrounding them. Second, the uncertainty management framework used by these authors shifts the focus solely toward the negative effects of supervisor inconsistency. However, between-supervisor differences likely have both negative and positive effects. For example, while inconsistency might be frustrating or confusing, it might also help employees to gain a broader perspective of their work or to learn new skills from various managers.

Considering these possibilities, is it better to staff rotational supervisor teams with leaders that are more similar to or different from one another? And on which dimensions? As we do with within-supervisor inconsistency, we should also find demands that arise from the negative aspects of between-supervisor inconsistency. However, unlike what the within-supervisor inconsistency literature has demonstrated, I expect to find positive outcomes stemming from between-supervisor inconsistency. In this case, between-supervisor inconsistency also has a potential to become a *job resource*—positively valued "physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) may be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development," (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501).

We need work to help delineate the job demands and resources subordinates experience and access while working in rotational supervision structures. This work will help us better understand the impact of rotational supervision on subordinates—undoubtedly, the drivers of organizational success in many service organizations. In this paper, I take a preliminary step in this direction by conducting an exploratory, descriptive qualitative study analyzing interview data from a sample of nonsupervisory employees in the restaurant and foodservice industry. My analysis supports the notion that between-supervisor differences can drive both positive and negative outcomes for subordinates. Further, my study provides rich information regarding the ways that co-supervisors can vary and subordinates' perceptions of and outcomes from this variation.

Using the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) as a framework, the primary focus of this paper is to explore how rotational supervisors' differences contribute to unique job demands and job resources for subordinates. My work contributes to the literature in two primary ways. First, to my knowledge, it is the first work to explore the impact of between-supervisor differences on employees who report to rotational supervisors. My work is related to research exploring dual leader-member exchange (LMX; e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975), where subordinates experience unique exchange relationships with two different managers (e.g., Vidyarthi, Erdogan, Ananad, Liden, & Chaudry, 2014; Yousaf, Torka, & Ardts, 2011). This dual LMX work finds that while both LMX relationships independently influence subordinate outcomes, the alignment of the two relationships predicts behaviors above and beyond the individual relationships (Vidyarthi et al., 2014). However, in Vidyarthi et al.'s study, the supervisors were not rotational as they held specific and unique roles

within the organization to perform distinct functions. But, in such a circumstance, subordinates can compartmentalize supervisor differences and attribute them to the unique functions and tasks required by each supervisor's function. For instance, in Vidyarthi et al.'s (2014) sample, subordinates' relationships with a pay and administration supervisor were more influential than those with a customer service supervisor. Yet, in rotational supervision structures, subordinates report to different managers who often perform similar or identical roles, which should create unique demands and resources.

Second, I expand upon work on the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) by introducing new perspectives on resources and demands. For instance, one commonly studied job resource is task variety, which involves a necessity for various types of tasks to be performed. I expand upon this conceptualization to include variety in how workers perform routine tasks—a job resource likely rarely available to subordinates who report to a unitary supervisor. Additionally, to the best of my knowledge, this paper is among the first to examine an individual work factor as both a demand and a resource simultaneously.

These insights help create a better understanding of rotational supervision structures by providing the first, rich description of subordinates' experiences inside of these structures. This essay proceeds as follows. I begin by briefly outlining the Job Demands-Resources Model (Demerouti et al., 2001) and its relevance to my study. Next, I describe my qualitative study and my findings. Then, I discuss the implications of my findings, along with limitations and future directions.

3.2 THEORY AND BACKGROUND

3.2.1 Job Resources and Demands

The Job Demands-Resources model (JDR) builds upon previous job design models that were more occupation-specific (e.g., Job Demand-Control model, Karasek, 1979; Effort-Reward Imbalance model, Siegrist, 1996), to create a comprehensive model that could apply to any job (Van den Broeck et al., 2013). The JDR model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001) proposes that all jobs offer both demands and resources, which differentially impact positive and negative employee outcomes. Job demands and job resources influence workers' engagement and burnout, in turn driving secondary outcomes like well-being (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to the JDR, optimal employee engagement and well-being occur when job demands and resources are balanced in strength or quantity or lean in favor of the resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). Job demands can also interact with job resources to enhance the positive effects of job resources (e.g., Bakker et al., 2007; Hakanen et al., 2005). Further, job resources can mitigate the negative effects of job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Van den Broeck et al., 2013).

As defined earlier, job resources help employees achieve goals, growth, or development (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501; Shaufeli & Taris, 2014, p. 56). They positively predict employee engagement and negatively predict burnout. Job resources include things like job control, task variety, and support from colleagues or supervisors (Demerouti et al., 2001). Contrarily, job demands require "sustained physical or mental effort" and directly contribute to physical or psychological costs (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Examples of job demands include intense work pressure, physically uncomfortable working spaces, or emotionally draining interactions

with co-workers or customers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands positively predict burnout and negatively predict engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Crawford and colleagues (2010) further divided job demands into two categories: hindrance stressors and challenge stressors. *Hindrance stressors* are "stressful demands that have the potential to thwart personal growth, learning, and goal attainment" (Crawford et al., 2010, p. 836). They positively predict burnout and negatively predict engagement. *Challenge stressors* are "stressful demands that have the potential to promote mastery, personal growth, or future gains" (Crawford et al., 2010, p. 836). These stressors similarly relate to burnout positively, yet also positively predict engagement. Schaufeli and Taris (2014) explain that job demands and resources load onto separate factors because demands are negatively valued and resources positively valued, as noted in the previously offered definitions. The authors argue that because employees negatively value hindrance stressors and positively value challenge stressors, we should consider hindrance stressors to be demands and challenge stressors to be resources.

Based on these conceptualizations of job demands and job resources, I speculate that between-supervisor differences might surface as both. That is, because navigating supervisor differences is challenging, it should be depleting to employees, making it a stressor. In some circumstances, these differences might function as hindrance stressors when they disrupt employees' work goals, reduce engagement, or contribute to other adverse outcomes. However, these differences might also serve as challenge stressors in that, while they might be stressful and depleting, they might still promote learning, growth, or other future benefits (Crawford et al., 2010). I expect this to be the case when employees capitalize on differences for their benefit.

I speculate based on within-supervisor consistency literature, my personal experiences, and the potential benefits of exposure to multiple skills and leadership styles, that there may be both negative and positive effects of supervisor differences on subordinates. A finding of positive effects of between-supervisor differences would be a novel contribution because this would contradict the purely negative findings we would expect based on the closest related literature (i.e., within-supervisor inconsistency or dual LMX). To help decipher what supervisor differences look like and how they may function to help or hinder employees at work, I conducted a qualitative study in which I discussed supervisor differences with employees working in rotational supervision structures. Now, I look to my qualitative study, from which I induce several unique ways that supervisor differences can surface as both demands and resources.

3.3 METHODS

3.3.1 Sample and Sampling Process

To explore how between-supervisor differences manifest and affect employees, I interviewed front-line workers in the restaurant and foodservice industry. I recruited participants using a multi-faceted approach. First, I shared a recruitment flyer with my personal network asking people I know who work in the industry to participate or to share my flyer with their own networks to help gain interest. Second, I advertised my study on eight Facebook groups exclusively for restaurant employees across the U.S., asking interested participants to click a link to begin the study. Third, I reached out to five presidents of local restaurant and foodservice unions across the United States and asked them to distribute my recruitment materials. One person agreed, although I am

unsure if this took place as I was unaware of participants' recruitment sources. (See Appendix A for the recruiting flyer.)

To select in to the study, participants went directly to a Qualtrics website to read an overview of the research study and consent to participate (see Appendix B for the consent form). As part of the consent process, participants opted into the study and agreed that they were 18 years old or older, spoke English fluently, were employed for an average of 30 hours per week in the restaurant or retail industries over the past three months, and reported to multiple shift supervisors. After consenting, participants created an anonymous ID code, completed a survey about their demographics, work attitudes, and supervisors, and then signed up for a time to be interviewed. The interview took place via the Zoom™ platform. With participant consent, I recorded the audio using a small, external digital voice recorder. I paid participants $50 via a cash app or a digital gift card of their choice.

My sampling strategy resulted in 31 completed interviews. Of those, 30 participants worked in the restaurant and foodservice industry and one in the retail sector, including 24 front-line workers and seven supervisors. For this study, I used data from the subordinates only, resulting in 24 useable interviews—all from the restaurant industry. The ethnicity of the subordinate sample was 16 White or Caucasian (66.7%), two Black or African-American (8.3%), two Hispanic (8.3%), two "Other" (8.3%), one Asian (4.2%), and one Biracial (4.2%). My final sample comprised 18 females (75%) and six males (25%). The participants' ages ranged from 19-57 years, with a mean of 36.8 years (SD=9.86). The mean tenure in subordinates' current role was 3.8 years.

Participants rated an average of 3.3 supervisors, with the ability to evaluate between two and five. See Table 3-1 for an overview of participants.

3.3.2 Background Survey

I used a Qualtrics survey to collect information about my participants before their interviews. As part of the survey, I asked participants to input pseudonyms for each of their supervisors and then rate each on abusive supervision and supervisor support. After they rated the supervisors, the participants completed questions about their own job attitudes (e.g., supervisor satisfaction for each supervisor, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, etc.) and their demographic information (age, ethnicity, gender, etc.). I draw upon only three of these measures in this paper: abusive supervision, supervisor support, and satisfaction with supervisor. I describe the three measures in the following section.

Measures Included in this Paper

Abusive Supervision. I measured abusive supervision using Tepper's (2000) 16-item Abusive Supervision Scale. Participants were given the following stem: "Rate how frequently [supervisor name] engages in each of the following behaviors *with you*, on average." Sample items include, "[Supervisor name] puts me down in front of others," and "[Supervisor name] is rude to me." The items were rated on a 1-5 Likert-type scale, where 1 = *Never* and 5 = *Very Often*. The average Cronbach's α across supervisors was .93.

Supervisor Support. I captured supervisor support using Abbey et al.'s 6-item Supervisor Support scale. Participants were given the following stem: "Rate how frequently [supervisor name] engages in each of the following behaviors *with you*, on

average.” Sample items include, “[Supervisor name] helps out when too many things need to get done” and “[Supervisor name] gives me useful information and advice when I want it.” The items were rated on a 1-5 Likert-type scale, where 1 = *Never* and 5 = *Very Often*. The average Cronbach’s α across supervisors was .93.

Supervisor Satisfaction. Satisfaction with the supervisor was measured using a modified version of the supervision satisfaction facet of Spector’s (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey. Participants were asked to rate how strongly they agreed with each statement on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 7 = *Strongly Agree.* Two items from the Spector scale were used. A sample item is, “I like [supervisor name].” I then added a third item, “I am satisfied with [supervisor name] as a supervisor.” The average Cronbach’s α across supervisors was .96.

3.3.3 Interviews

The interviews were semi-structured and ranged from 30-50 minutes in length, with an average of approximately 40 minutes. I chose semi-structured interviews because while still permitting rigorous data collection, they permit researchers to generate spontaneous follow-up questions to probe deeper into new information that arises during the interview (e.g., Rubin & Rubin, 2005). This permits the interviews to feel more conversational and provides the interviewer with flexibility when generating theory (Galletta, 2012). The process went smoothly, although several of the interviews contained small issues with a poor internet connection leading to “cutting out.”

Prior to data collection, I developed a protocol (see Appendix C for the original protocol). However, as I moved further into interviewing, I adjusted the protocol along the way to add or remove questions as theoretically relevant. The questions centered

primarily on the types of supervisor differences and their outcomes. The protocol contained mostly open-ended questions but also included a few closed-ended questions. I had the completed interviews transcribed by a professional transcription company.

3.3.4 Researcher Role and Bias

Without a doubt, my approach to this qualitative study has been influenced by my past experiences working in the restaurant industry. Over eight years, I worked as a hostess in a restaurant, then as a server, bartender, supervisor, and, ultimately, a salaried manager. My experiences not only drove my approach and line of questioning but, admittedly, my interest in rotational supervision in general. My mother always worked in retail as I grew up and regularly shared complaints about her—particularly about her supervisors, co-workers, and customers. I grew up with an understanding that my mom worked with different bosses and that each boss behaved differently. This was also my experience in the restaurant industry—from both a subordinate and a supervisor perspective.

As a subordinate, I recall what it was like to work with five different supervisors. Some I liked a great deal—others, not so much. Regardless, the work shifts flowed very differently depending on which supervisor or supervisors worked that day. Some were lazy; some worked so hard they were sweating by the end of their work shift. Some treated employees very kindly; others were quite harsh. Some were very strict; others were lassiez-faire. As a supervisor, I also noted that the performance of my peer co-supervisors influenced how I needed to perform in my role.

As a researcher, my role is to explore my questions of interest, without letting my past experiences create a mental block or force my data into a particular schema or

interpretation. During my analysis, I expected to find predominately negative responses to rotational supervision from subordinates, but that delving into the responses more deeply would reveal positive insights. Although my past experiences have shaped my research questions and my interview questions, I allowed my participants' responses to shape future interview questions as well as my coding of data.

3.4 Analysis

After finishing all interviews, I completed the first cycle of data coding using ATLAS.ti 8 for Windows. I first coded the subordinate interviews using holistic coding—a method in which the researcher applies a short code (e.g., one word or a few words) to a large passage of data, "to capture a sense of the overall contents and the possible categories that may develop" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 77). I then sub-coded the relevant holistic codes using descriptive (i.e., assigning a word or short phrase to a section of data) and emotion coding (i.e., identifying emotions and assigning labels to them; Miles et al., 2014). Examples of codes used include: "advantages of working with co-supervisors" (holistic), "inconsistencies waste time" (descriptive), and "frustrated" (emotion). Finally, as themes began to arise, I coded my data using descriptive coding two additional times.

3.5 Results

3.5.1 How Different are the Supervisors?

To begin, I explored my interview and survey data to learn how different the supervisors in my sample were perceived to be by subordinates. During the interviews, I asked directly about differences in interpersonal treatment, supportiveness, and rule enforcement. The overwhelming majority of participants described their supervisors as

notably different from one another on one or more of these dimensions, as we will see. Some even used metaphors to encapsulate these differences. Jerry, a server in his current role for about four months, described working with rotational co-supervisors as "like a three-headed monster personality situation." Alex, a server in her position for two years, stated that once a new manager started, "somebody had to play 'the bad guy,'" so one manager "kind of took over that role of […] being less favorable." Two participants compared co-supervisors to contradicting parents: "It's like your mom tells you to do one thing; your dad tells you to do another." (Sam)

> [If a person knows] about the dynamics of a divorced couple that's raising children, you can think of it that way. I don't know. Just cliché things, like, if you ask Mom and she says no, so you ask Dad kind of thing. (Marcus)

Additionally, upon reflecting on his previous experience as a restaurant manager, Jacob, a cook in his role for seven months, recalled:

> One thing I do appreciate about having a co-supervisor is the ability to do "good cop, bad cop." As much as that's a TV trope, that is something that is very helpful in communicating, where somebody can come in and use a soft tone and nice words, and the other person wouldn't be mean, but they'd be more direct and the enforcer.

To provide additional support for the presence of supervisor differences, I examined the standard deviation (SD) of the abusive supervision, supervisor support, and supervisor satisfaction ratings by each participant. I found that the between-supervisor standard deviation of abusive supervision ranged from 0 to 2.26, with a mean SD of .57. For supervisor support, the mean SD was .77, with a range in SD from 0 to 2.83. Finally,

the SD of supervisor satisfaction ranged from 0 to 4.24, with a mean SD of 1.09. T-tests comparing these values to zero were all significant (abusive supervision: $t=5.23$, $p < 0.000$; supervisor support: $t = 6.51$, $p < 0.000$; supervisor satisfaction: $t= 5.39$, $p < 0.000$). This result indicates that these standard deviations are significantly different from zero, which provides evidence of between-supervisor differences.

More specifically, in my interview data, I found evidence of between-supervisor differences and inconsistencies in six categories: 1) interpersonal treatment, 2) support, 3) expectations, 4) communication, 5) skills, and 6) personal traits. Below, I discuss each of these differences. See Table 3-2 for quotations exemplifying each type of difference.

Differences in supervisor interpersonal treatment. *Supervisor interpersonal treatment* refers to how a supervisor treats someone "outside of organizational procedures and policies" (Donovan et al., 1998, p. 683) and essentially involves how politely and kindly a supervisor behaves toward someone. Most participants described at least one manager who engaged in poor interpersonal treatment with staff members. However, no participants described all their managers as engaging in these behaviors. A total of 15 out of 24 participants (62.5%) described differences in interpersonal treatment among their supervisors. Five out of 24 (20.8%) clearly stated that they did not see meaningful differences among their supervisors along this dimension. The remainder (16.7%) asserted that there were differences among their supervisors, but, the descriptions did not seem meaningful enough to classify the supervisors as "different" (e.g., "I would say Eric and Todd might joke around with us a little bit more," [Dee]).

Differences in supervisor instrumental support. Next, I similarly examined the differences in supervisor instrumental support described by subordinates. *Supervisor*

instrumental support is reactive and describes how helpful a supervisor is in responding to an employee's work needs (Hammer et al., 2009). Approximately 63% of participants (15/24) described between-supervisor differences in support, while only three (12.5%) clearly stated there were no differences in support. Analysis of the responses revealed four primary categories of ways that subordinates viewed their supervisors as different in terms of supportiveness: 1) proactivity, 2) attitude toward helping, 3) dependability of support, and 4) types of support or help offered. Most participants described more than one category.

A total of 60% (9/15) of employees who attested to supervisor support inconsistency described differences in 1) how proactive their supervisors are in offering support or assistance, without being asked. Participants also described differences in: 2a) how willing supervisors are to help when they are asked (n=5), 2b) how supervisors respond to being asked for help (n=4; e.g., responding with hostility when asked for help, versus responding neutrally), 3) how dependable supervisors are in offering support (n= 6; e.g., described inconsistency in supervisor availability and presence where some supervisors are available for help when subordinates need it, while others might be found "playing Candy Crush in the office while the restaurant is just getting pummeled" (Adriana)), and 4) the types of support offered (n=2; e.g., described how one supervisor is willing to help servers take food to their tables but is less willing to talk to tables when a customer is upset).

Taken together, I find evidence that there are clear between-supervisor differences in support are not only present but can take many forms.

Differences in Supervisor Expectations. Next, I explore between-supervisor differences in supervisor expectations. By *supervisor expectations,* I refer to a supervisor's performance standards and policy enforcement for subordinates. Similar to interpersonal treatment and support, the interviews revealed variation across supervisors in terms of policy enforcement. All participants who were asked about the differences in supervisor expectations (20/20) described some form of differences in this domain. These inconsistencies fall into four categories: 1) how strictly and consistently rules and policies are enforced (n=10/20), 2) inconsistency in *which* rules are enforced (n=15; e.g., some supervisors focus on enforcing employee uniform or customer service policies while others may not), 3) differences in holding employees accountable for expectations (n = 6; e.g., differences in whether supervisors check behind employees to ensure they completed cleaning tasks adequately), and 4) differences in how supervisors expect employees to perform tasks (n=4; e.g., Lindy described how her supervisors varied in how they requested employees to process coupons in the payment system).

This evidence reveals that between-supervisor differences in supervisor expectations are the most prominent form of inconsistency and surface in multiple ways.

Inconsistent Communication. Here, *communication* refers to how thoroughly and consistently supervisors share information among one another and with employees. Most participants noted that their supervisors communicate inconsistently. This inconsistency might include managers sharing information with certain managers and not others, providing conflicting information to subordinates, or giving contradictory instruction. Communication inconsistency was mentioned most frequently as the biggest

disadvantage of working with multiple supervisors, with 12 out of 19 participants (63%) sharing this sentiment.

Differences in Skills and Experience. My data further revealed that subordinates notice differences in supervisor skills and experiences. This might include role tenure, career tenure, or specialized knowledge surrounding the supervisors' or subordinates' jobs.

Personal Differences between Supervisors. Finally, some participants discussed personal differences between supervisors. This category includes individual differences like personality or communication styles (e.g., "They all have different philosophies and work ethic" (Jackie)).

One can imagine that these supervisor differences bring a unique set of challenges to subordinates. In the next section, I discuss these differences as job demands.

3.6 Supervisor Differences as Job Demands

I began my next phase of data exploration by looking for themes surrounding supervisor differences as job demands. Recall that job demands are negatively valued aspects of one's job that result in stress or reduced well-being (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). In my coding and analysis, I found two primary ways that supervisor differences could surface as job demands. The first and most prominent category centers on frustration and stress created by subordinates' requirement to navigate between-supervisor differences and inconsistencies. The second category centers on the additional layer of conflict added to subordinates' jobs by between-supervisor inconsistencies.

3.6.1 Stress and Frustration in Navigating Supervisor Differences and Inconsistencies

Among the most notable consequences of between-supervisor differences is the idea that employees must consistently adapt to them. Each of these inconsistencies and differences can create an additional layer of subordinate stress, as subordinates must decide to what extent to adapt their performance each day to meet the requests and needs of a particular supervisor. In my sample, approximately 75% of subordinates (18/24) stated or implied that they or their coworkers adapt to their supervisors each shift in some capacity, while the remaining stated they did not. To compound this, approximately 43% of the adaptive subordinates that were asked (6/14) stated they did not know which supervisor would be on duty until they arrived to work each day. This means the employees would not even be aware of any required adjustments until they begin work.

Even for those who profess not to adapt their performance, between-supervisor differences are often a source of stress and negative emotion. Indeed, 10 out of 24 of the participants directly mentioned that they felt some form of frustration, stress, or annoyance related to between-supervisor differences. Bea, a driver and to-go specialist for 1.5 years, described being treated differently by each of her supervisors. When I asked her what it was like to be treated differently each time she worked, she responded, "It's just…annoying."

For example, Lindy, a bartender working in her organization for over 12 years, discusses her frustration regarding supervisors enforcing rules differently from one another:

> It's frustrating because the rules are always blurred. For example, it's frustrating for some of the server staff who do follow the rules and do things the way that it's supposed to [be done].

Jamie, a second bartender with a 6.5-year tenure, explained the deep frustration that can occur when inconsistent supervisor communication and perceptions lead to tasks not being completed in a timely manner:

> So, getting some of the finer things done sometimes is a little more challenging because A thinks its B's job who was talking to C about it and it falls on D two weeks later, and it's really frustrating in the long term […] Those sorts of things are just wildly frustrating to me. So, I think that nails that like deep in my soul.

These three quotes highlight how three different forms of between-supervisor differences (i.e., differences in interpersonal treatment, expectations, and communication) can lead to frustration for employees. Across all interviews, the words "frustrated" or "frustrating" were used 47 times, and 11 of those instances centered on navigating supervisor differences. In more closely examining these responses, I was able to induce two primary themes regarding the source of this frustration. First, the differences might have been viewed as a hindrance to participants in meeting their work-related goals. Three participants directly described the need to navigate supervisor inconsistency as creating extra work for them or otherwise hindering their performance. Three different participants described the inconsistency as a hindrance because it creates role ambiguity.

The second theme surrounding why differences are frustrating is related to morality or how things "should be." Nine participants responded in a way consistent with

this theme. For four employees, there seemed to be a violation of a sense of justice in that they witnessed their co-workers' inconsistent performance with different supervisors, but, did not see any penalty for this. This was viewed as unfair by employees who attested to always working consistently for each supervisor. For five other employees, the differences were frustrating because they violated internalized norms regarding how things "should be" handled. That is, the supervisors should communicate better, should not contradict one another, and should be more consistent and uniform in how they approach their goals. Two of these participants noted that this frustration about what "should" happen was exacerbated by between-supervisor comparison. These employees use the co-supervisors as comparison units (e.g., Mussweiler, 2003) against which to compare the other supervisors, and the discrepancies violated the employees' internalized rules about supervisor consistency.

Because feelings of frustration at work can lead to negative outcomes such as psychological strain (e.g., Keenan & Newton, 1984) and counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Fox & Spector, 1999; Harold et al., 2016; Penney & Spector, 2005), we should think of supervisor differences as job demands when they lead employees to feel frustrated.

3.6.2 An Extra Layer of Conflict

Between-subordinate conflict. Based on my interviews, supervisor differences can also become job demands for subordinates when they contribute to subordinate relational conflict. Relational conflict is a dysfunctional form of conflict which involves personal incompatibilities between two people and "typically involves distrust, fear, anger, frustration, and other negative emotions" (Lehmann-Willenbrock et al., 2011).

Examples include “conflicts about personal taste, political preferences, values, and interpersonal style” (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003, p. 741). Within my sample, it appears that subordinate relational conflict sprouts from supervisor differences through subordinates’ reactions to the differences. Namely, employees change their behaviors based on which supervisor is working, which has consequences for their co-workers and their relationships with them. This seems to operate in a manner similar to employee frustration. That is, when employees perform differently for various supervisors, they violate their co-workers’ internalized norms regarding how they should perform. For example, Jordan explained that employees become angry with their co-workers when they fail to do their closing work properly when a lenient manager is working. Interestingly, when asked, she noted specifically that the employees become upset with the co-workers instead of the managers. She described a situation in which a lenient manager did not check behind servers who worked the night before and left the restaurant messy. She recalled:

> Their initial reaction was, “Who closed last night?” So they’re thinking about who were the servers and stuff that were supposed to make sure that it was all done, too. So they’re mad at the other servers or bartenders and stuff, not the manages.

Maria, who has been a server at her company for nine months, described how her co-workers’ changes in performance based on supervisor differences in expectations made her mistrust her them, which can lead to conflict. She said,

> Well, I think [supervisor differences] separates people. I think it makes people sneaky. From my opinion, I’m like, “When this manager is here, you’re sneaky. When this manager is here, you’re not sneaky.” It makes me not trust. If

they’re not being held accountable for doing things that are technically wrong, then it fosters mistrust amongst the staff, and amongst the team.

From these quotes, it appears that the subordinates accept that the supervisors are different in their expectations, but, hold their co-workers accountable for maintaining the same standard of performance regardless of which supervisor is working. Violations of these internalized standards can lead to employee conflict and mistrust. In turn, relational conflict hinders job performance and reduces job satisfaction (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1995). As such, supervisor differences can also become a job demand for subordinates when they lead to subordinate conflict.

Between-supervisor conflict. A second way that subordinates experience an additional layer of conflict due to between-supervisor differences is through between-supervisor conflict. The most common way this surfaced for my participants is through between-supervisor social undermining. Workplace *social undermining* describes “behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation” (Duffy et al., 2002). Ten of the participants discussed social undermining among their supervisors, namely in the form of one supervisor speaking negatively about another supervisor in front of staff members.

Kendra described undermining that took place outside of the presence of the undermined target. She said of her supervisors, “When you see them, they're fine. But sometimes they talk behind [one another’s back]. But when it comes [to] face-to-face, they're all fine.” LaShelle’s example of undermining takes place in front of the undermined target. She said, “And then when Steve and Kevin work together, Steve will

literally call [Kevin] an idiot to the rest of the staff, and say that he doesn't know what he's doing and he shouldn't have the position that he has."

According to the participants who described co-supervisor undermining, the most frequently discussed topic when undermining was another supervisor's poor performance, followed by personality conflicts. This demonstrates how supervisor differences contribute to between-supervisor undermining. That is, the differences frustrate the supervisors, who react by undermining one another.

Because supervisor social undermining can aggregate to create a hostile work climate and culture (e.g., Schneider, 1987), we should expect supervisor undermining and conflict to cross over to influence subordinates. Jackie, a bartender and server, attested to this process by explaining that conflict among her supervisors sparks conflict among subordinates:

> In a situation like this where you have five managers not working together, it affects the rest of the staff so that you have to work harder collectively in order to pull our management staff up instead of […] support[ing] the staff to be a successful restaurant. We have five people who have completely different personalities unwilling to work together, and it winds up creeping into the staff because people start pitting against each other the same way that [the managers] are against each other.

These quotes demonstrate how supervisor differences lead to between-supervisor conflict in the form of undermining, which in turn creates additional conflict that the subordinates must navigate. It is important to note that that this form of undermining—supervisors speaking poorly about one another—while the most frequently discussed

undermining behavior in my sample, is not necessarily the most common undermining behavior. That is, it is logically the behavior that subordinates would be most likely to observe. Future work could explore different types of undermining among co-supervisors and their impact on subordinates.

3.7 Supervisor Differences as Resources

Despite the seemingly insurmountable demands revealed by my analysis, I also found several instances in which between-supervisor differences can serve as resources for subordinates by enriching the work experience. I find that supervisor differences can surface as job resources when they help subordinates' learning and development, serve as a buffer for poor supervisor treatment, and increase supervisor support, job control, and task variety. Below, I discuss these categories and their frequency in depth.

3.7.1 Learning and development

Learning new skills and new ways of doing things. A total of seven out of 24 participants (29.2%) specifically discussed learning from various supervisors as a benefit of rotational supervision. This learning might involve task-centered knowledge, acquired by subordinates observing supervisors performing the same role in different ways or with different strengths. Also, learning to navigate differences more broadly by working with multiple supervisors might also contribute to personal development. In terms of the former, Jacob, a cook in his organization for seven months, discussed the benefits of being able to draw from the diverse skillsets and experiences of supervisors to further his own knowledge. He said,

> I see a lot of benefit in having it as a wealth of knowledge. Nora came from New York pizza places, Ashton came from working in small restaurants in

> [a small town], and Sam came from working at beach bars [...] There are so many different perspectives, and if I want to learn something, all I have to do is ask, and somebody is happy to teach me because they know that by teaching me, I'm stronger in my position, which means it's easier for them to do other things.

Regarding more general personal development by learning to navigate supervisor differences, Maria explained, "It's always a learning experience to be adaptable to people's personalities." Alex echoed this sentiment by describing how communicating with two supervisors of different nationalities, age groups, and work-related perspectives helped her development:

> It just helps me know how to communicate with different people on a wide range. Jeff is from [New England] and Sandy is from [the Caribbean], so just having that diversity and then their ages as well are completely, just like having that is the best part about having two managers and seeing their perspectives in how they handle guests and the way they handle like food service.

These two quotes exemplify one way in which supervisor differences can surface as job resources: by enhancing the knowledge and skill set of subordinates. This is an opportunity that should be unique to rotational supervision structures. That is, in single-supervisor contexts, subordinates only learn from one supervisor; thus, both the knowledge strengths and limitations of that supervisor will be shared by subordinates. In other dual leadership contexts, like matrix leadership (e.g., Knight, 1978), subordinates would witness their supervisors performing in unique roles. In rotational supervision, however, subordinates receive an opportunity to witness multiple supervisors performing the same tasks—often in different ways.

Increased Awareness. A second way that subordinates can capitalize on supervisor differences for learning and development is through increased awareness. That is, as individual supervisors focus on specific aspects of the job, those aspects become more salient for subordinates. Three participants described an increased awareness of their job tasks as a benefit of working with multiple supervisors. That is, supervisors' different focuses and skills make various aspects of the job of the more salient, increasing awareness. Deb, a server in her role for almost three years, explained that working with certain managers brings certain parts of the job into hyper-focus on those days:

> It kind of makes you aware of—it's one of the things I have kind of learned to appreciate a little bit because it tends to make you aware of different aspects of the job on different days. You kind of get this hyper-focus when a certain manager is working versus other managers. I've found that to be very helpful because it's things that don't always necessarily come to the forefront of my mind.

Jamie provided a similar explanation about how working with certain supervisors leads to increased awareness of particular aspects of the job. She said,

> When Nancy's working, for instance, when I know for a fact when she's through those doors that she's going to be hypervigilant on table maintenance and that then makes me really conscious of that for the entire shift. So, you take that, and then you kind of morph that into the habits and the lasering focus of other managers, and you kind of have the exact same concept with what you learned that they look for in any given shift as well.

This salience makes it easier for subordinates to draw upon these focuses in the future, even when the associated supervisor is not working. Jackie explained that her focus during one shift carries over to impact her during future shifts. She explained, “I pay attention to things based on my previous experience with other supervisors.”

These quotes demonstrate that similar to the benefits received when subordinates learn from observing supervisors perform differently in their roles, subordinates also benefit from emphasizing unique areas of their jobs when certain supervisors are working. That is, the short-term focus on tasks experienced when subordinates work with particular supervisors allows for a variety of shorter-term task specialization. This is a form of development for the employees, as more experience with a particular task leads to higher productivity when performing that task (Narayanan et al., 2009).

Taken together, we see that learning is one benefit that can arise from supervisor differences, and this knowledge is a job resource. Exposure to the various ways supervisors perform in similar roles can help subordinates better understand the schemas relevant to the tasks, providing a deeper knowledge about them (e.g., Narayanan et al., 2009). This improved understanding of the tasks also helps workers “better delineate knowledge that is relevant to the task at hand from knowledge that is less relevant” (Narayanan et al., 2009, p. 1863). That is, employees can witness what “works” and what does not when performing in their roles, making them more knowledgeable about the best way to approach their work.

3.7.2 Respite from Abuse, Favoritism, and Poor LMX

Several comments from participants highlighted the idea that working with multiple supervisors allows a respite from a supervisor with whom they have

negative experiences, such as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), supervisor favoritism, or a poor LMX relationship (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975). Four participants (16.7%) highlighted the fact that working with multiple supervisors diminishes the effects of favoritism. For instance, Maria explained that one thing she enjoys about working with numerous supervisors is that it prevents individual supervisors from continuously favoring their preferred employees. That is, one supervisor's favorite employee is unlikely to be the favorite of all supervisors, giving other employees a chance to shine. Maria explained, "I think it gives you a little variety. You can't cherry-pick your favorite people all the time."

Two participants (8.3%) described how breaks from hostile supervisors made work more enjoyable. Sam, a server of three years, stated she would be miserable if forced to work with her abusive supervisor each day and welcomed her shifts with other supervisors. She explained about her abusive supervisor,

> It really bothers me, so I'm so thankful I don't work with him five days a week. […] Yeah, it definitely changes, and if I had to work with him every day, it would really make that job miserable.

Similarly, four participants shared that the "breaks" they and their co-workers get from abusive supervisors while working with other supervisors reduce turnover. For instance, Veronica, a server in her role for 4.5 years, explained of her abusive supervisor, Stan, "If Stan supervised every day? Some people would quit!" Alex discussed her own propensity to quit if her abusive supervisor, Jeff, were the only supervisor: "If it was just Jeff, I would have left a very long time ago."

Research links abusive supervision (e.g., Tepper, 2000) and poor LMX (e.g., Ballinger et al., 2010) with employee turnover. Further, scholars theorize that leader favoritism leads to subordinate negative emotion, in turn, affecting organizational cynicism toward the leader (Dashborough et al., 2009). From a resource perspective, we should expect the non-abusive supervisors to help buffer against the loss of resources that occurs after exposure to such supervisory mistreatment (e.g., Tepper et al., 2018; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). These respites help buffer against negative supervisor behavior just as other job resources can buffer against other workplace demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Van den Broeck et al., 2013), demonstrating a second way that supervisor differences can become job resources.

3.7.3 Increased Control Over Work through Supervisor Choice

The third way supervisor differences can serve as a job resource is by allowing subordinates to have more control over their work. This increased control can surface in two ways: 1) employees increase decision latitude (e.g., Karasek, 1979) by choosing particular supervisors to help them with problems or, more broadly, (2) employees control their work and work environment by selecting a schedule around the presence of specific supervisors.

All participants stated that multiple supervisors work simultaneously either occasionally or frequently, namely during busier times. Further, slightly over half of the participants (13/24, 54.2%) discussed strategically choosing supervisors to ask for help based on the supervisors' differences. In digging deeper, I found two primary themes behind these choices. First, 11 of the 13 participants (85%) discussed choosing a supervisor who will most likely get them the result they are seeking. However, the

reasons they believe they will have success by approaching a specific manager can vary. For instance, six participants (46.2%) stated that they choose the supervisor who will be most helpful, which reflects differences in supervisors' willingness to offer support. For example, Lindy, a bartender who has been working in her current job for 12.5 years, explained that when she has a customer issue, she chooses the supervisor who would be most willing to talk to the upset guest. She said,

> We have some managers who I've gone to and said, "This guest needs to talk to a manager. They want to speak to you right now." There's some managers in there that won't even go. They say no.

Looking beyond a willingness to offer support, four participants (36.3%) described choosing supervisors to help them based on the supervisors' differences in strengths or skills. For instance, if these participants needed help with a bar issue, they would first seek assistance from the manager who has more bar knowledge.

Three participants attested to choosing a supervisor based on differences in lenience. That is, they choose a supervisor who will most likely allow them to do as they wish. LaShelle, a server in her role for two years, explained that her co-workers often seek out the "weaker" supervisor in order to get the outcomes they desire. She said,

> And so they will hunt down the weakest manager to get their way. And you can smell them as soon as you walk in the door, it is very, very animalistic. You see your weakest manager walk in the door and you want to accomplish a goal, you're going to go straight for the weakest manager.

Jordan, a server and bartender at her organization for one year, acknowledged that sometimes employees go to multiple supervisors until they get the response they are

seeking. She explained, “If there’s a problem that if you don’t get the solution that you need or want, I guess, with one [manager], then you can have another one to go to.” Deb explained that when dealing with a challenging customer issue, she sometimes chooses to ask for help from the supervisor she believes will handle the situation in a particular way. She stated,

> I think it gives me a little bit more flexibility with how I'm able to handle things with my guests. If I want it to go a certain way, I can go [to] a certain [manager], and if I wanted to go a different way, I could go [to] a different [manager].

Further, two participants capitalize on supervisor differences in interpersonal treatment to ensure they are treated the way they prefer. For instance, Reggie, a bartender in his role for ten months, described choosing which manager to ask for help based on the manager’s approachability: “I think there are some things that are—some people may be more approachable with some things. Easier to speak to.”

Even in instances in which only one supervisor is working, employees sometimes control their environment and work by choosing schedules that coincide with or avoid specific supervisors. For instance, three participants discussed their own and their co-workers’ avoidance of hostile supervisors through scheduling. Veronica described this happening with her own abusive supervisor, Stan. She explained, “A lot of people avoid working when Stan is working. They try to work days he's not working or the opposite shift that he's working…” Jackie similarly shared that sometimes she will switch a shift to avoid working with certain supervisors:

> We're very flexible about what shifts we work, and we do have a set schedule. But, as far as [switching shifts], if there were certain supervisors on the floor, I would probably try and switch a shift to not work with them 'cause they're not as pleasant as others.

Such examples demonstrate how supervisor choice, either in choosing a supervisor immediately for assistance or preemptively through scheduling—can increase job control, in turn helping to fill subordinates' need for autonomy (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2012; Gagné & Deci, 2005). Because a key function of job resources is need fulfillment (Van den Broeck, 2013), we can think of supervisor differences as a resource when subordinates are able to navigate them to gain control over work. Similar to the learning component, the potential job control afforded by supervisor choice is also unique to rotational supervision.

3.7.4 Increased Support by Enhancing Perspectives and Skills

Supervisor support is a core job resource linked to decreased exhaustion and stress (e.g., Babin & Boles, 1996; Marín & García-Ramirez, 2005; Thompson et al., 2005), and increased job satisfaction and well-being (e.g., Babin & Boles, 1996; Cummins, 1990; Schirmer & Lopez, 2001). The data revealed that some participants (6/24; 25%) felt working with differing rotational supervisors can enhance instrumental supervisor support by increasing the diversity and availability of useful skills to which employees have access; and, this is particularly true when multiple supervisors work simultaneously. Mary, a server in her role for 12 years, explained, "Different [supervisors] bring different things to the plate."

My discussions with participants brought to light the idea that a large part of their supervisors' roles is to assist staff members with their tasks when they get busy. For example, in one night, a supervisor might have to help cook, make drinks at the bar, and carry food out to tables when staff members get overwhelmed, in addition to the typical managerial duties. Whereas one supervisor likely is not an expert in all of these aspects of the job, a group of supervisors should hold more collective skills. Two participants provided examples comparing supervisors who have more strength in the kitchen versus behind the bar:

> Some of the benefits are, maybe some of them are more skilled at other things. Bradley, for instance, if they need help behind the bar, he can go bartend because he knows how to do that. Steve doesn't. But, Steve is also really good at cooking, so if we need help there. I think it's good because they all have their different skills, so that they can do that. (Adriana)

> I think the benefits are they all bring something different to the table. Alita's very knowledgeable about wine and wine service, and I feel like that brings something different to the guest service experience. And I would say having Johnny who also works in the kitchen is great too because he's great to field questions or ask about special orders. He's always got the answer: ingredients and food. That's something that the other two wouldn't be as quick to come up with, or they'd have to ask somebody else down the chain. And Will really brings in a lot of guests. He's very personable. He really likes talking to the guests, so he brings a lot of that in. So they all something very different to offer. (Dee)

Maria spoke about drawing from a variety of perspectives to help herself make more informed decisions:

> It‘s nice to know that there’s multiple people you could fall back on or multiple people to bounce ideas off of, rather than just one person. People are afraid to speak up at their jobs a lot when they just have one big boss. One person calling the shots. One person making the decisions. That one person’s opinion or attitude, everything like that. It can make people nervous. But when you have a few managers around to bounce an idea off of, like, ‘This is how I’m feeling about this.’ It’s not formal. ‘What do you think?’ Then you can get multiple opinions, and think about it, and then come to your conclusion from there. Or figure out what you’re going to do moving forward from there. That’s kind of why I like it.

These quotes highlight the ways skill diversity among supervisors serves to benefit employees by making them feel more supported in their roles. As support is a job resource, we can see this as another way that supervisor differences can manifest as a job resource for subordinates.

3.7.5 Increased variety

Finally, some participants discussed how working with multiple supervisors provides variety and makes work more interesting. I induced two forms of variety as described by participants: interaction variety and task variety.

Interaction variety. Five out of 24 participants (20.8%) discussed interaction variety as an advantage of rotational supervision. These participants described finding

their workplace more interesting due to getting "to see a different face" (Mary) each time they work. For instance, Maria explained,

> From a business standpoint, it allows for different ways to make business better—when you pick and choose people who, personality-wise, might be different. [It will help you to] be creative for business and marketing and making a successful restaurant. Because if you have a bunch of people that are all the same person, you end up with a really boring workplace.

Sam also enjoyed the fact that working with multiple supervisors can help break up any monotony. She said, "…you don't burn out on the same person. Like, if you worked with the same person day in and day out, maybe it would get boring."

Reggie echoed these two quotes, appreciating his interaction variety: "Well, I think it's nice to have—well, I think the change is nice. […] I mean, I like to see different faces and interact in different ways."

Increased task performance variety. Task variety is "the extent to which an individual performs different tasks at his or her job" and correlates positively with job satisfaction (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007, p. 1335). Research links task variety with decreased alienation (Chiaburu, Thunkiyil, and Wang, 2014) and counterproductive work behaviors (Morf, Feierabend, & Staffelbach, 2017). We typically conceptualize task variety as a variation in the *types of* tasks performed. I argue that rotational supervisors also bring a unique form of task variety to subordinates by changing the *way* the tasks are performed.

Two participants (8.3%) discussed this task performance variety in a positive way. When asked about the benefits of working with multiple supervisors, Danita shared,

"I think that it's helpful because they both do things a little bit differently, but in the same procedure, if that makes sense. It's all the same way of doing it, but it's just in a different order." Reggie also shared that he enjoyed the task variety brought by working with different supervisors. He said, "I suppose I kind of like doing things different all the time. It mixes things up and adds variety."

When task performance variety makes work more interesting for employees, they should become more engaged in their work. In this case, these differences, while likely depleting to the employees, also improves engagement. These traits—increased depletion and engagement—are characteristic of challenge stressors (Crawford et al., 2010). As mentioned previously, challenge stressors operate as job resources (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Taken together, we can see how the interaction and task performance variety offered by supervisor differences become a resource for subordinates.

3.6 Discussion

In this paper, I used qualitative data to show how one job factor in rotational supervision structures—between-supervisor differences—can manifest as both a demand and a resource for subordinates. My findings show that the participants in my sample noticed supervisor differences in interpersonal treatment, support, expectations, communication, skills and experience, and personal traits. Sometimes these differences lead to employee frustration or conflict, making the differences a job demand. However, surprisingly, other times, subordinates capitalize on these differences to enhance learning, perceptions of support, job control, and variety in their work, as well as to enjoy a reprise from a negative supervisor. In these instances, we can see supervisor differences as job demands. It is also interesting to note that all participants except one described both positive and

negative outcomes of supervisor differences, indicating that employees can typically recognize both.

To the best of my knowledge, this work is among the first to examine specific job factors as both demands and resources, demonstrating that the same factors can have both positive and negative impacts on workers. However, the current work is closely related to research exploring the curvilinear effects of particular job characteristics on employee outcomes. For instance, Kubiceck et al. (2014) found a curvilinear relationship between job control and well-being. Job control was helpful up to a certain point but then became detrimental. A key point here is that rotational supervisors' differences can morph into both demands and resources—such as employee conflict and job control, respectively—which in turn influences employee outcomes. A limitation to this theorizing is that the current work does not consider potential curvilinear relationships of job demands and resources with employee outcomes (e.g., Warr, 1994), as this is beyond the scope of this exploratory work. Here, I treat job demands and resources in line with the JDR model's traditional view (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), classifying job characteristics like job control and supervisor support as resources, and frustration and interpersonal conflict as demands.

A second key point of discussion is the value in considering the findings for specific types of differences and their implications for employees. That is, *are specific types of differences more or less likely to become demands or resources?* It appears the most favorable kind of difference is in supervisor skills and experiences. Differences in skills and experience contributed to increased support and enhanced learning, yet they were not particularly impactful in driving employee frustration or conflict.

I would rate supervisor differences in expectations and personal traits as the next most positive types of differences. Differences in expectations also contributed to employee learning and development by increasing awareness of the job requirements and by allowing employees to observe supervisors performing similar tasks differently. They also contributed to task performance variety and increased job control when subordinates had the option of choosing between multiple managers with different expectations. Further, for some participants, supervisors with less rigid expectations served as a reprise from more strict supervisors. However, differences in expectations were also related to subordinate frustration due to creating role ambiguity and sparking subordinate conflict after coworkers changed behaviors based on which supervisor was working. Similarly, personal differences in supervisors contributed to interaction variety and permitted "breaks" from supervisors with negative traits. Yet, personal differences in supervisors were related to frustration in subordinates and subordinate conflict stemming from between-supervisor conflict.

Finally, between-supervisor differences in interpersonal treatment, support, and communication appear to be most likely to become job demands. Differences in interpersonal treatment and support may offer employees a break from less supportive or more hostile supervisors. Yet, along with expectation differences, both of these appear to be the strongest contributors to employee frustration. Communication differences were also strongly tied to employee frustration, yet, were not strongly tied to any instances of becoming a job resource.

These classifications of specific differences have particular relevance for practical implications. For instance, when staffing or scheduling supervisors, it appears to be most

beneficial to combine supervisors with complementary skillsets and experiences, while the benefits of the other types of differences vary depending on the context. Below, I further discuss this and other practical implications of my findings.

3.6.1 Practical implications

Although there is much work left to do on this topic, my preliminary findings have meaningful implications for practitioners. Primarily, we find that employees can indeed capitalize on between-supervisor differences, which we would not have expected based on research exploring within-supervisor inconsistency (e.g., Duffy et al., 2002; Matta et al., 2017). This revelation can impact the way leaders in organizations that use rotational supervision might think about staffing and scheduling staff members and supervisors. For example, I specifically asked two subordinates which types of between-supervisor differences they found most frustrating, and both responded that differences in support were most frustrating. Further, among the instances in which subordinates viewed supervisor differences as resources, differences in supervisors' skills and their emphasis on job areas were among the most relevant. Taking these findings together, I argue that leadership within rotational structures might want to carefully consider potential differences and inconsistencies when hiring or promoting new supervisors to join an existing supervisor team. That is, it might be helpful to hire supervisors who will be similar to the existing supervisors in terms of supportiveness, but who will complement the supervisors in terms of skill sets and experiences.

These findings have similar implications for scheduling supervisors. During busier shifts, when multiple supervisors work simultaneously, it might be helpful for employee morale and performance to schedule supervisors with complementary skills.

This provides subordinates with a broader spectrum of knowledge to draw upon for support as needed for various issues throughout the shift. As work continues on this topic, we will be sure to uncover more practical implications. In the following section, I discuss some of the limitations of my current work and some of the directions researchers might take in the future.

3.6.2 Limitations and future directions

The primary limitation of this study is that it took place during the COVID-19 pandemic, which brought a unique set of challenges. One limitation would be that all but three of my participants were furloughed from the restaurant industry, and most had not worked in approximately two months. This means that most participants were relying upon memories from two months ago or even longer. Additionally, the rushed timeline for completion of this project due to COVID-19 prevented me from procuring a larger sample and from partaking in significantly revamped, theory-based reiterations of my interview protocol, which limited my ability to generate new theory.

Despite the limited scope of this project, it lays important groundwork for meaningful future work, of which I aim to complete over time while encouraging others to join. First, I plan to empirically test the comparative strength of the job demands and resources I delineated in this paper as predictors of employee job outcomes, as well as their interactions. The JDR model posits that demands and resources can interact to predict outcomes in two ways: resources can buffer the negative effects of job demands, and job demands can boost the positive effects of job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). How do various supervisor differences as job demands and resources interact to predict outcomes? This is important to understand as many of these demands and

resources likely co-exist. For instance, working with co-supervisors might both bring someone a satisfying feeling of variety in the workplace, but also lead to frustration and stress when supervisors behave inconsistently. Similarly, it would be helpful for us to gain a better understanding of which demands and resources are most impactful on subordinates. For instance, does interpersonal treatment inconsistency cause more harm than inconsistent supervisor support?

Second, it would be useful to study the role of time in determining when between-supervisor differences become demands versus resources. During the interviews, three participants (12.5%) mentioned that navigating supervisor differences was challenging when they first started in their role, but they now find it much easier to navigate those differences. Lupita, a server in her current role for two months, explained, "…Once you learn [the supervisors'] management styles and you learn what they expect, it definitely makes things easier." Would we find this pattern across all of the various differences that manifest as job demands? For example, would dealing with frustrating interpersonal treatment differences become easier in the long term? Or, does it become more challenging as employees gradually become more depleted? Would we find similar trends for differences that manifest as job resources? For instance, once employees have worked with a certain group of supervisors for a certain amount of time, does the novelty of interactional variety fade? Or, further yet, could a demand morph into a resource over time, or vice versa? One participant's comment suggests that supervisor differences can indeed morph from demands to resources over time. Jamie explains,

> [Supervisor differences are] something that I think at the beginning of my career in this industry, I would have found to be a really big challenge, but over

> the years because it's going to be like that with everyone you work with to a degree, I had to kind of turn into a more advantageous feature of work.

My preliminary evidence suggests that the nature of supervisor differences as demands or resources change over time. However, we need more work in this area to draw more substantive conclusions.

Next, relatedly, future work should examine the role of onboarding processes during newcomer socialization in helping influence whether and when supervisor differences surface as demands or resources. Although not a prominent theme in this study, one server, Erin, did discuss how her co-workers attempted to make her onboarding easier by teaching her about relevant supervisor differences. She explains,

> When I first started, that's kind of how I learned how the managers were before I figured it out on my own. When I was going through training, they'd be like, when Melissa is here, make sure you do this. Or they'd be like, "It's just Vincent, so you don't have to worry about it." The other employees definitely know the managers' ins and outs and everything.

Extant newcomer socialization literature demonstrates that adequate socialization is critical for job satisfaction and other desirable outcomes for new employees (Haueter et al., 2003) and that support from co-workers helps reduce newcomers' intentions to turnover and role conflict (e.g., Settoon & Adkins, 1997). Learning the characteristics of each supervisor falls under the acquisition of group knowledge in socialization (see Haueter et al., 2003) and is likely an important part of socialization for new employees within rotational supervision structures.

Finally, future research could examine the individual and contextual factors that help influence whether particular types of between-supervisor differences morph into job demands or job resources. Consider the situation in which supervisors request the same tasks to be performed differently from one another. For some subordinates, this might be frustrating, as we saw from our interviews. However, others may see this as a learning experience or an opportunity for more variety to keep things interesting. What influences this difference? One factor might be individual differences, such as whether the employee has a fixed versus a growth mindset (see Dweck, 2000) or is higher on the openness to experience personality trait (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1985). A second driver might be contextual factors such as work climate, between-supervisor social undermining (Duffy et al., 2002), or the strength of organizational norms. Do individual or contextual factors influence this more strongly? How do they interact to predict whether differences become demands or resources? Which factors are most influential for which types of differences? There is an abundance of opportunities for future research exploring these questions.

3.6.3 Conclusion

Rotational supervision is a necessary characteristic of many organizations with extensive operating hours. Along with rotational supervision, come unique challenges faced by workers, such as navigating supervisor differences. The goal of this essay was to bring to light employees' perspectives on what it is like to work in such a structure. I found that one aspect of rotational supervision—supervisor differences—can surface as helpful or hindering to staff. Our next step is to dig deeper and consider whether there is evidence that such findings are generalizable to other populations utilizing rotational supervision. My focus on restaurant and foodservice workers may

seem narrow, but millions of employees work within this industry (BLS, 2019), and restaurant management epitomizes the idea of rotational supervision. The additional industries where we might find rotational supervision (e.g., retail) employ millions of additional workers (BLS, 2019). Every restaurant and retail outlet we pass on our way to work each day is also a workplace—with employees and leaders. My findings in this paper demonstrate one way that we might think about these workplaces a little differently. My hope is to continue to expand theorizing and to adapt our extant management and leadership theories as needed to better fit the needs of such organizations and to help make work a little better for the employees.

Figure 3-1

Overview of Supervisor Differences as Demands and Resources

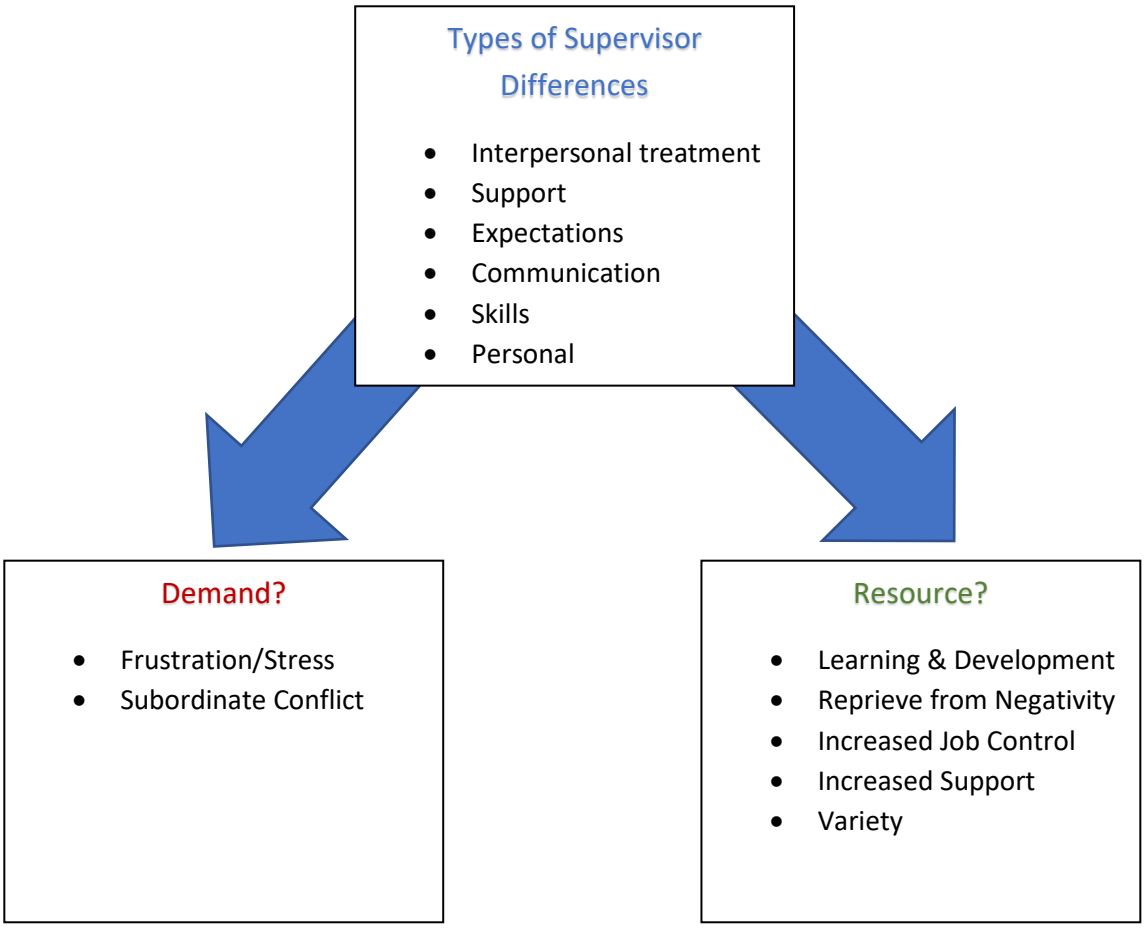


Table 3-1

Overview of Participants

Participant	Age	Role	Tenure in Role	Identified Gender	Number of Supervisors Rated (5 Maximum)
Adriana	28	Server	48 mos.	Female	4
Alex	23	Server	24 mos.	Female	2
Bea	31	Driver/To-Go Specialist	18 mos.	Female	3
Danita	19	Cook & Register Clerk	4 mos.	Female	2
Deb	32	Server	30 mos.	Female	5
Dee	39	Server	84 mos.	Female	2
Erin	35	Server	Not Provided	Female	2
Jackie	28	Server & Bartender	Not Provided	Female	4
Jacob	34	Cook	7 mos.	Male	3
Jamie	38	Bartender	78 mos.	Male	5
Jerry	38	Server	4 mos.	Male	3
Jordan	26	Server & Bartender	12 mos.	Female	2
Kendra	45	Server	72 mos.	Female	4
LaShelle	44	Server	26 mos.	Female	5
Lindy	45	Bartender	150 mos.	Female	2
Lupita	51	Bartender	36 mos.	Female	2
Marcus	26	Cook	18 mos.	Male	2
Maria	48	Server	9 mos.	Female	5
Mary	55	Server	144 mos.	Female	5
Reggie	47	Bartender	10 mos.	Male	3
Sam	57	Server	36 mos.	Female	2
Stacey	39	Server	Not Provided	Female	2
Steve	31	Cook	36 mos.	Male	5
Veronica	55	Server	54 mos.	Female	5

Table 3-2

Sample Quotes Exemplifying Between-Supervisor Differences

Type of Difference	Sample Quote
Differences in Interpersonal Treatment	You can see [differences]. For example, Lashonda, she's nice. She's kind. She don't talk to nobody, like, in a rude way. Charles, he is a little bit tougher than her. But he was okay too. Jude, I don't think he knows even how to talk. Yeah, he was a little rough. But he tries his best, but he's not. Catherine, she's smart. She knows how to talk to you. But when—if she doesn't like you or if you—if she knows you don't like her, she know how to get you. In a professional way, not—she didn't show you right there. But she'll get you how she gets you. (Kendra)
Differences in Support	If my manager is able to get off our cut table, he will go and answer a phone and he'll call our cook over to answer phones so it's not all backed up. The other manager will not budge. Unless she is sitting right there next to a phone when it rings, she's not going to go out of her way." (Bea)
Differences in Expectations	Like, nobody is pulling out their phones when certain people are there. If Landon is working and you know that he's going to say something about having your phone out, you're not going to have your phone out. But then if Sherry is there and she doesn't really worry about the phones, then you're thinking, "Okay. I can be on my phone." (Adriana)
Inconsistent Between-Supervisor Communication	The fact that there are five supervisors means that there are five people having a say in what happens and sometimes there is a little bit of a communication breakdown and things slip through the cracks consequently […] So, getting some of the finer things done sometimes is a little more challenging because A thinks its B's job who was talking to C about it and it falls on D two weeks later and it's really frustrating in the long term. So, things like that especially when I have to kind of consciously make myself mentally and emotionally step back from them because it's not my job, I'm not management. (Jamie)
Differences in Skills and Experience	I see Sara will always be on the line. I think she used to work in a kitchen, so I think that's sort of her thing. Nate is all over the board, but he's usually, because he was bar manager, focused on that area with Marcia and those guys. Marcia bartends, too, with certain shifts. She's really helpful if you need her to do stuff. She runs around and picks up glassware and helps you bus. We don't have wait assistants or bussers where I'm at. She can be super helpful. Kati, because she's a server most of the time, she focuses on the servers and what their needs are more than the host stand or whatever. Doug would usually just stand on the host stand and mess everything up. I don't know. He's a little older. He's not super familiar with the technology, like open tables. They do go to where they're comfortable. (Maria)
Personal Differences between Supervisors	I feel like you can sense some lack of respect [by] Richard for Eddie (Jordan)

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APPENDIX A

Daily Leadership Experiences Research Study

Hi! My name is **Liz Adair**, and I am a Ph.D. candidate at the **University of Minnesota**. I am seeking volunteers from the restaurant and retail industries to participate in a paid research study about daily experiences with leaders in the workplace. The study needs both frontline employees and supervisors.

The study consists of two parts:

1) an online survey about your experiences at work (up to 30 minutes)

2) an online video interview with the researcher (up to 45 minutes).

Participants who complete both parts of the study will receive a payment of $50 via Venmo, Paypal, or electronic gift card to Amazon or Target. The study will begin ASAP.

To qualify for the study, you must:

- Be 18 years old or older
- Speak English fluently
- Have worked in the restaurant or retail industry in the U.S. within the past 3 months
- Have worked an average of 30 hours per week or more in this job
- Have reported to (as an employee) or worked with (as a supervisor) multiple supervisors in this job

Interested? Great! Visit https://z.umn.edu/DailyLeadershipExperiencesStudy to get more information or to participate in the study.

Questions? Feel free to email Liz at adair044@umn.edu.

Thanks!

Liz Adair

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
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APPENDIX B

PLEASE PRINT THIS DOCUMENT FOR FUTURE REFERENCE OR CLICK THE LINK BELOW TO DOWNLOAD AND SAVE A PDF VERSION

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title of Research Study: Daily Experiences with Leadership Study

INVESTIGATOR TEAM CONTACT INFORMATION: DR. MICHELLE K. DUFFY, PRIMARY INVESTIGATOR

For questions about research appointments, the research study, research results, or other concerns, call the study team at:

Investigator Name: Dr. Michelle K. Duffy Investigator Departmental Affiliation: Carlson School of Management, University of Minnesota Phone Number: 612-624-6842 Email Address: duffy111@umn.edu	Student Investigator Name: Liz Adair Phone Number: 612-624-9781 Email Address: adair044@umn.edu

SUPPORTED BY: ***THIS RESEARCH IS SUPPORTED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA'S CARLSON SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT.***

KEY INFORMATION ABOUT THIS RESEARCH STUDY

The following is a short summary to help you decide whether or not to be a part of this research study. More detailed information is listed later on in this form.

WHAT IS RESEARCH?

- ***THE GOAL OF RESEARCH IS TO LEARN NEW THINGS IN ORDER TO HELP PEOPLE IN THE FUTURE. INVESTIGATORS LEARN THINGS BY FOLLOWING THE SAME PLAN WITH A NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS, SO THEY DO NOT USUALLY MAKE CHANGES TO THE PLAN FOR INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS. YOU, AS AN INDIVIDUAL, MAY OR MAY NOT BE HELPED BY VOLUNTEERING FOR A RESEARCH STUDY.***

WHO QUALIFIES TO TAKE PART IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY?

To take part in this research study, you must be at least 18 years old and a fluent English speaker. Additionally, you must have been employed in the restaurant or retail industries in the United States within the past three months. You must have worked an average of 30 hours per week in this role.

What should I know about a research study?

- Someone will explain this research study to you.
- Whether or not you take part is up to you.
- You can choose not to take part.
- You can agree to take part and later change your mind.
- Your decision will not be held against you by the researchers or your employer.
- You can ask all the questions you want before you decide.

WHY IS THIS RESEARCH BEING DONE?

This work is for a graduate student's dissertation. We are conducting this research to better understand how employees and their supervisors work together on a daily basis. We hope that scholars can use this information to gain more knowledge about work experiences and apply it in ways to make work better for all people.

HOW LONG WILL THE RESEARCH LAST?

The study consists of two parts: 1) an online study (up to 30 minutes); 2) an online interview with the researcher (up to 45 minutes)

WHAT WILL I NEED TO DO TO PARTICIPATE?

1. Complete this consent form
2. Complete the following survey
3. Sign up for an online interview slot
4. Attend an online interview with researcher

MORE DETAILED INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDY PROCEDURES CAN BE FOUND UNDER ***"WHAT HAPPENS IF I SAY YES, I WANT TO BE IN THIS RESEARCH?"***

IS THERE ANY WAY THAT BEING IN THIS STUDY COULD BE BAD FOR ME?

We foresee that participation in this study poses very little risk to participants. It is possible you may experience negative emotions when completing the survey, such as annoyance, frustration, or boredom.

Participation is completely voluntary. This means that neither your employment nor your relationship with the University of Minnesota will be affected in any way whether or not you choose to participate.

Please see the "What happens to the information collected for the research?" section below for a discussion on the confidentiality of your responses.

DETAILED INFORMATION ABOUT THIS RESEARCH STUDY

The following is more detailed information about this study in addition to the information listed above.

HOW MANY PEOPLE WILL BE STUDIED?

We expect to interview approximately 50 people

*WHAT HAPPENS IF I SAY "*YES, I WANT TO BE IN THIS RESEARCH*"?*

If you would like to participate in the study, you will simply need to complete this consent form after reading it carefully. Once you do, you will be asked to generate a user ID so that your responses remain anonymous. Then, you will be taken to an online survey. At the end of the survey, we will ask you to use Calendly to sign up for an online interview (via Zoom) with the research team. We will need your user ID and your email address. We will send you a Zoom link to participate in the survey at your scheduled time.

What are my responsibilities if I take part in this research?

If you take part in this research, you will be responsible for:

Carefully completing an online survey. The survey will contain "quality checks" along the way. Failure of our quality checks will result in your being removed from the study, without pay.
Using Calendly to sign up for an online Zoom interview
Ensuring that your device is prepared to use Zoom prior to your interview start time. This might involve downloading an application or software. If you are late for your interview, we cannot guarantee you will be able to participate. Please contact the researcher ASAP at adair044@umn.edu.

WHAT HAPPENS IF I SAY "YES", BUT I CHANGE MY MIND LATER?
You can leave the research study at any time and no one will be upset by your decision. Your decision will in no way affect your employment or your relationship with the University of Minnesota.

Participants must complete the entire study (both the survey and interview) to receive compensation (i.e., no partial payments).

If you decide to leave the research study, contact the investigator at adair044@umn.edu so that we can remove you from the mailing list.

If you decide to withdraw from the study, your partially-completed data will be used in preliminary analyses to explore the impact of participant withdrawals on study results. To completely remove your data from all analyses, please contact the researchers.

WHAT HAPPENS TO THE INFORMATION COLLECTED FOR THE RESEARCH?
Efforts will be made to limit the use and disclosure of your research study records to people who have a need to review this information (e.g., the transcription service). Your responses will be confidential within the research team and transcribers. Organizations that may inspect and copy your information include the Institutional Review Board (IRB; the committee that provides ethical and regulatory oversight of research at the University of Minnesota) and other representatives of the University of Minnesota, including those that have responsibilities for monitoring or ensuring compliance.
We may publish the results of this research. However, we will keep your name and any other identifying information confidential (i.e., we will use a nickname if a name is required).

What will be done with my data when this study is over?
Your data will not be used for any future research after this study is complete. We will send recordings of your interview to a transcription service. This will help us in analyzing your data. We may store a copy of the data in a secure, password-protected location in case we need to reanalyze our findings. We will not store any identifiers with your data.

If you leave the study, you can ask to have the data collected about you removed.

WHOM DO I CONTACT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS, CONCERNS OR FEEDBACK ABOUT MY EXPERIENCE?

This research has been reviewed and approved by an IRB within the Human Research Protections Program (HRPP). To share feedback privately with the HRPP about your research experience, call the Research Participants' Advocate Line at 612-625-1650 (Toll Free: 1-888-224-8636) or go to z.umn.edu/participants. You are encouraged to contact the HRPP if:

- Your questions, concerns, or complaints are not being answered by the research team.
- You cannot reach the research team.
- You want to talk to someone besides the research team.
- You have questions about your rights as a research participant.
- You want to get information or provide input about this research.

WILL I HAVE A CHANCE TO PROVIDE FEEDBACK AFTER THE STUDY IS OVER?

The HRPP may ask you to complete a survey that asks about your experience as a research participant. You do not have to complete the survey if you do not want to. If you do choose to complete the survey, your responses will be anonymous.

If you are not asked to complete a survey, but you would like to share feedback, please contact the study team or the HRPP. See the "Investigator Contact Information" of this form for study team contact information and "Whom do I contact if I have questions, concerns or feedback about my experience?" of this form for HRPP contact information.

This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Minnesota. Please reference study number: STUDY00009441

Will I be compensated for my participation?

If you agree to take part in our research study and successfully complete all steps, we will pay you $50 for your time and effort. You will have an option to receive payment via PayPal, Venmo, or a digital gift card (sent to your email) from Target or Amazon. Due to Coronavirus concerns, we are unable to pay in cash.

Now that you have read this document, you are able to consent to participating in our voluntary study, if you choose to do so. Please complete the following items. You must agree to all conditions to participate.

Can I be removed from the research?

The person in charge of the research study can remove you from the study without your approval. Possible reasons for removal include failure to complete a required step in the study OR failing a quality check.

Additionally, participants who fail to meet our participation requirements (i.e., 18 years old or older, fluent English speaker, worked in the restaurant or retail industries in the United States within the past three months, and employed for at least 30 hours per week on average in this role) or mislead the researchers about qualifications will be removed from the study—even if they have already started the study.

There is a possibility that you might complete the survey and then find that no more interview spots are available. In this case, please email the researchers at adair044@umn.edu to make alternative arrangements. We will remove access to the survey once we reach maximum capacity.

CONSENT

Consent to Record Interviews

____ I understand that the researcher will record the audio or video of my online interview to aid with data analysis. The researcher will not share these recordings with anyone outside of the immediate research team or the professional transcription service (High Fidelity Transcription).

Acknowledgement of Qualifications for Study:

Please check each box to indicate that you meet the qualification. If you do not meet all qualifications, you are not eligible for this study.

___ I am at least 18 years old.

___ I am a fluent English speaker.

___ I have worked in the restaurant or retail industries in the United States, within the past 3 months.

___ During my most recent employment in the restaurant or retail industry, I worked a minimum of 30 hours per week on average.

___ During my most recent employment in the restaurant or retail industry, I [worked with/reported to] multiple supervisors.

Consent to Participate in the Research Study:

___(click)___ I have read this document and I understand it. I confirm that I meet the eligibility requirements. I consent to participate in this study.

__(click)____ I have not read this document OR I have read this document and decline to participate in the study at this time OR I do not meet the qualifications for the study.

Appendix C

QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR HOURLY EMPLOYEES

Good afternoon. Thank you for joining me today. I'm Liz Adair, the lead researcher on this project. I'm a Ph.D. candidate and I study work and how we can make work better for people. I'm especially interested in work environments where employees have multiple supervisors and I'd like to discuss your experiences working in this type of context. I have a list of questions I'd like to ask you. As you talk, I might make a few notes if there is something interesting or important that I would like to circle back to later. I'll just ask you to think deeply about each question and respond as accurately, honestly, and thoroughly as you can. Nothing you say will be linked to your name or reported to your organization. Your honest answers will help us get a more accurate view of your experiences which will greatly impact our research. Does that sound okay to you?

VERBAL CONSENT HERE

Great! Also, as the consent form mentioned, I'll need to record the audio of our conversation, so that we can transcribe it and use it for our data analysis. We will not share these recordings with anyone outside of the research or transcription team, with a few exceptions like reporting of child or elder abuse, as noted in the consent form. However, to help assure your anonymity and help you feel more comfortable with this process, I'd like you to choose a pseudonym or fake name that I can call you on the recording. I'll also ask you to refer to your supervisors using the nicknames you created for them on the surveys you completed. You can refer to your company name if you'd like, or, you can choose a pseudonym for that, too. Does that sound okay?

VERBAL CONSENT FOR RECORDING HERE

Alright. What name would you like to be called during your interview?

NAME GIVEN HERE

Great, _____. Before we get started, do you have any questions for me?

ANSWER QUESTIONS or NO

Perfect. OK, I'll start the recording now and then move into our questions.

START RECORDING

"Hi, this is Liz Adair. It is (date and time) and I am speaking with [*pseudonym*], who is participant number _____. Hi, _____. Let's jump into our questions."

QUESTIONS

- So, how long have you worked in your current job? Over life, how long have you worked in places with multiple supervisors?

- OK. To start, could you give me a brief description of the managerial structure in your store? (For example, how many supervisors do you have? What do their schedules look like? Who reports to whom?, etc.)

- On your survey, you listed _____ as the supervisors you work with. How frequently do you work with each supervisor?

Let's talk about your supervisors broadly. First, I want to ask about three specific aspects of your supervisor's behaviors: how they treat people, how supportive they are, and how consistently they follow and enforce policies.

- How different would you say your supervisors are in how they treat staff members?
    - Can you give me examples?
- How different are your supervisors with regard to offering support to staff? This might include helping you perform your tasks, helping you with problems, offering advice when you want it, or simply demonstrating that they care about you as a person.
    - Can you give me examples?
- How different are your supervisors with regard to enforcing and following company policies? This might include their strictness, how consistently they enforce rules, if they enforce rules the same for everyone, if they enforce all rules, and if they follow rules themselves.
    - Can you give me examples?

So, now that we've talked about some of the differences between your supervisors, let's talk a little bit about how these differences affect you as an employee

- First, I'd like to hear your general thoughts about working with multiple supervisors. What's it like for you?
    - Advantages? Disadvantages?
    - What are your general thoughts on navigating their differences?
    - What are some of the effects of working with supervisors that behave and work differently from one another?
    - On you? On customers? On co-workers? On the store in general?
- When you're working, do you mentally compare your supervisors? For example, if a supervisor does something a certain way during your shift, do you think about how other supervisors do it?
    - Example?
    - What do you think are some of the effects, if any, of these comparisons?
- Are there ever conversations between the employees comparing the supervisors?
    - When do these conversations happen?
    - What kinds of things do people discuss?

    - What do you think are some of the effects of these conversations?
- Do you ever witness (or participate in) conversations where an employee and a manager discusses another manager?
    - What kinds of things do they talk about?
    - How often do you think this happens?
    - How do these conversations affect you?
- Do you ever overhear managers talking about one another to each other?
    - What kinds of things do they talk about?
    - How do these conversations affect you?
- Do you ever notice that these comparisons affect how you feel about and react to your supervisors? Why do you think that is?
- When you change supervisors either during or between shifts, do you find yourself adjusting how you behave or do your job?
    - Can you give some examples of this?
    - Do your coworkers do this, too?
    - What impact do you think this adjusting has on your job performance? On you, personally?
- How would you say these comparisons and adaptations differ over time? For example, are there differences between working during a supervisor shift change versus working with another supervisor the following day?
- Do you ever work with more than one supervisor at a time? What does that look like?
    - How do the supervisors split their work?
    - How do you decide which supervisor to go to for assistance?
    - What's it like working with multiple supervisors at the same time who are different?
    - Do you compare more or less?
    - Do you adjust more or less?
- Do your co-supervisors get along?
    - Why do you think this?
- Do you know which manager is working before you get to work?
    - If yes, does that make a difference in how you approach your shift?
    - If no, what affect does that have on you?

OK, a few more questions about specific supervisors. REMEMBER TO USE THE NICKNAMES YOU PROVIDED

- Of the supervisors you listed, who is your favorite as a person? Why?
    - Favorite to work with? Why?
- Least favorite as a person? Why?
    - Least favorite to work with? Why?
- What's it like working with ____(each supervisor)___ each day?

    - What is the environment like when this supervisor works?
    - How do you behave?
    - Deviance? OCB? Task performance? Customer service?
- How would each supervisor describe you as an employee?
- Suppose employees were going to do something bad, like drink on the job, steal, or take extra breaks… is there a particular manager this would be most likely to happen with?
    - Which one?
    - Why is this the case?
- Is there a particular supervisor who when they work, employees seem to be more helpful to each other?
    - Which one?
    - Why is this the case?
- How aware do you think supervisors are of things that happen on shifts that they are not working?
    - Where do they get this information?
- Can you tell me about a time the managers contradicted each other?

**Additional, related questions might arise organically during the interview.