

LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX) BASED RELATIVE DEPRIVATION
AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

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AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

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Dissertation Abstract

Gaye Karaçay Aydın, “Leader-Member Exchange Based Relative Deprivation and Employee Outcomes”

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, based on the premise that a leader forms differentiated social exchange relationships with each follower, holds an important place in research for almost 40 years. The main aim of this research is exploring an under-researched topic of the effect of LMX on discrete employee emotions, and understanding the influence of this mediated effect on employee work attitudes, behaviors and performance. By collecting data from 320 employees and their 80 immediate team leaders, the effect of LMX evaluations on employee’s feeling of relative deprivation is obtained directly by employee’s own cognitive and affective state while the effect of this negative feeling on employee’s work performance and behavior is validated by getting the leader’s observation of employee performance and behavior.

In contrast to ongoing approach of evaluating LMX as a separate dyadic relationship between a leader and a follower, by utilizing social comparison theory this study points to the importance of investigating LMX relationships being embedded in a broader context of work group. In this respect, the comparative effects of absolute and relative LMX evaluations on employee’s attitudes, behaviors and performance through a cognitive and affective process of relative deprivation is tested by two separate structural equation models.

The results show that employees’ evaluations of relative LMX have more negative influence on their attitudes, behaviors and performance compared to absolute LMX through an affective mediating process. Individual’s self-construal shapes the level of emotional reactions to LMX evaluations. The findings exhibit the importance of perceived organizational support and peer support, as well as positive future job expectations in mitigating the negative effects of LMX based relative deprivation feeling on work outcomes.

For future research, this study provides the empirical evidence for the significance of investigating the effects of LMX on different employee emotions, as well as, the urgency in exploring solutions to mitigate the destructive effects of dark side of LMX, which has been overlooked up to date.

Tez Özeti

Gaye Karaçay Aydın, “Lider-Takipçi Etkileşimi ve Göreceli Yoksunluk Duygusu: Çalışan Tutum ve Davranışlarına Etkisi”

Araştırmanın temel amacı, 40 yılı aşkın bir süredir literatürde geniş yer alan ve liderin her bir çalışanı ile farklı seviyelerdeki karşılıklı iş ilişkisini kapsayan lider-takipçi etkileşim teorisinin henüz literatürde çok az incelenen çalışan duyguları üzerindeki etkisini ve bu etki aracılığı ile çalışan tutum, davranış ve performansını ne ölçüde şekillendirdiğini araştırmaktır. Çalışmada, lider-takipçi etkileşimine bağlı olarak çalışanın hissettiği göreceli yoksunluk duygusu kendi algısı üzerinden ele alınırken, bu duygunun çalışanın iş davranışlarını ve performansını nasıl etkilediği lideri tarafından gözlemlenen davranışları ile ortaya konulmaktadır. Bu amaçla, 320 çalışan ile doğrudan bağlı oldukları 80 takım liderinden veri toplanarak araştırmanın önermeleri test edilmiştir.

Bu araştırma, her bir lider-takipçi etkileşimini diğer ilişkilerden ayrı olarak inceleyen literatürdeki önceki yaklaşımın aksine, çalışan tutum ve davranışları üzerindeki etkilerin tam olarak anlaşılabilmesi için, sosyal mukayese teorisi çerçevesinde grup içindeki karşılıklı etkilerini incelemenin önemini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu amaçla, lider-takipçi ilişkisinin net ve nispi değerlerinin göreceli yoksunluk duygusu aracılığı ile çalışan iş tutum, davranış ve performansına etkileri iki ayrı yapısal eşitlik modeli ile test edilmiştir.

Çalışmanın bulguları çalışanların lider-takipçi etkileşimini nispi olarak değerlendirmelerinin net olarak değerlendirmelerine kıyasla duygulanımsal süreç aracılığında çalışan tutum, davranış ve performanslarını çok daha olumsuz yönde etkilediğini ortaya koymaktadır. Kişinin benlik tanımı bu değerlendirmelere karşı geliştirilen duygusal tepkilerin seviyesini belirlemektedir. Bulgular, algılanan örgütsel destek, akran desteği ve geleceğe dair olumlu iş beklentilerinin lider-takipçi etkileşimine bağlı gelişen göreceli yoksunluk duygusunun çalışan tutum, davranış ve performansı üzerindeki olumsuz etkilerini azaltmaktaki önemini göstermektedir.

Bu çalışma, ilerideki akademik çalışmalar için, lider-takipçi etkileşiminin farklı çalışan duyguları üzerindeki etkilerinin incelenmesinin ve bugüne kadar gözden kaçan karanlık yönünün yarattığı bozucu etkileri dengeleyebilecek çözümlerin araştırılmasının önemini ortaya koyan ampirik kanıtlar sunmaktadır.

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To my twins: Ela and Can

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ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of- Fit Index
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
ALS	Average Leadership Style
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
FTP	Future Time Perspective
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
GOF	Goodness of Fit
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
LMXSC	LMX Social Comparison
LMXRS	LMX Relational Separation
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
PNFI	Parsimony Normed Fit Index
PerRLMX	Perceived (Subjective) Relative LMX
RLMX	Relative LMX
RMR	Root Mean Square Residual
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
TLI	Tucker Lewis Index
VDL	Vertical Dyad Linkage

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is identified by its influence in shaping the behaviors of individuals through social interaction processes with an aim of achieving the set of goals that are crucial for the success and survival of organizations (Bass, 1990; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Although leadership is about influencing people, up until recently only rational reasoning and cognitive processes have been emphasized as a basis for this influence. As emotional beings, individuals interpret and react to their environments not only by their minds, but also by their hearts; thus, it is crucial to acknowledge also emotional side of leadership influence (e.g. Bass, 1985; Bono et al., 2007; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Yukl, 2002). Accordingly, Affective Events Theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) claims that work environments create affective events that trigger positive or negative emotional reactions of employees which lead to attitudinal and behavioral work related outcomes. Since the role of affective processes for leadership influence have recently gained recognition, the evolving theoretical and empirical advancements constituting the extant literature are still under-developed. One of the main motivations of this dissertation derives from such a need for future research for investigating the relationship between LMX and employee's emotional reactions that influence employee work attitudes and behaviors.

While a leader's average leadership style (ALS) reflects his/her common behavioral approach to all subordinates, apart from this general approach, a leader has also differentiated social exchange relationships with each of his/her subordinates defined in literature as Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) quality (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). According to the basic premises of LMX theory, due to limited resources leaders form differentiated relationships with each of their subordinates that may range from high quality socio-emotional exchanges to low-quality transactional relationships. According to both theory and practice, LMX differentiation is not easily avoidable; in fact it is proposed to have utility both for organizations and leaders (Dansereau et al., 1975; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Due to its effect on employee's work attitudes and behaviors, implications of LMX theory in organizational life serve as a crucial framework for leadership influence. However, the studies on LMX generally focus on its positive aspects, i.e. 'bright side of LMX', by investigating the reactions of employees who have higher level LMX qualities that are associated with better employee attitudes and behaviors; and mostly overlook the negative aspects of LMX, i.e., "dark side of LMX". However, leaders having differentiated relationships with employees in work groups have implications for the emergence of organizational justice considerations through social comparison processes fed by ongoing work related social interactions (Scandura, 1999; Sias 1996; Sias and Jablin, 1995). LMX based social comparisons in work groups possibly urge employees to evaluate the degree of the difference between their own LMX qualities and that of other coworkers, which is termed in literature as relative LMX of an employee (RLMX, Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008). Therefore, in a group context as a result of social comparison processes there can also employees who perceive that they

are exposed to lower quality LMX relationships, and such perceptions may be reflected in their attitudes and behaviors which constitute the negative aspects of LMX, i.e., “dark side of LMX”. With an aim to provide evidence on the existence of the dark side of LMX, this study investigates employee’s negative affective reactions, i.e., relative deprivation feeling, to LMX evaluations that influence work attitudes, behaviors and performance.

According to above line of reasoning, by integrating social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954; Greenberg, et al., 2007), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958) and affective events theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) within the context of leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships, this dissertation focuses on exploring *how* and *when* perceptions of ‘*absolute LMX*’ versus ‘*relative LMX*’ becomes more influential on employee’s work attitudes, behaviors and performance through an underlying cognitive and affective process of relative deprivation feeling.

Moreover, as an individual level boundary condition, this research investigates the role of individual’s dominant self construal, i.e., interdependent-self vs. independent-self, in shaping his/her cognitions and emotions for LMX preferences and ensuing reactions. Rooted in multiple needs model of justice (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2001; Holmvall & Bobocel, 2008), this study argues that depending on the needs of individuals which is expected to be contingent upon their dominant self-construal, either social acceptance needs, or achievement needs may have more influence on individual’s cognitions and affective reactions to injustice considerations regarding their exchange relationships with the leader. The investigation of self-construal as an individual level boundary condition is consistent with the recent research that has focused on explaining why employees with different personality characteristics respond differently to

perceptions of their LMX relationships within workgroups (e.g., Hochwarter & Byrne, 2005; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007).

Additionally, the current research aims for exploring possible solutions for mitigating the negative effects of LMX based relative deprivation on employee outcomes. Accordingly, the interaction effects of POS, peer-support and future job expectations on employee work attitudes, behaviors and performance are investigated.

The findings of this dissertation have significant outcomes which are valid both for theory and practice. The outstanding contributions of this dissertation include the comprehensive theoretical background as well as empirical evidence regarding dark side of LMX, which is a construct that has been investigated by research nearly for 40 years with a focus mostly on its positive aspects. Additionally, this dissertation reveals the significant role of LMX on triggering employee emotions, which is still an under-research topic that needs further attention. Therefore, the results of this dissertation can be inspirational for further research to investigate the effects of LMX on different employee emotions, including positive ones.

The following sections of the dissertation are organized as follows. In Chapter 2 the literature on LMX theory, effects of social exchange relations on affective outcomes as well as the role of affect in organizations are reviewed. This chapter is concluded by presenting a comprehensive literature review on relative deprivation theory. Following the literature review, Chapter 3 starts with a summary of theoretical underpinnings, followed by the presentation of two conceptual models of the study which are both comparative and supplementary to each other, and Chapter 3 finishes with the statement of the hypotheses. The significance of the study, research design and measures of the research are explained in Chapter 4. In Chapter 5, the results of the data analyses and

hypotheses tests are presented. Finally, in Chapter 6, the findings of the research and their relevance for theoretical and practical implications are discussed, along with the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the literature review of the study is presented in four main sections. In the first section, the literature on leader-member exchange theory is reviewed with a focus on LMX differentiation within work groups. Within the literature review on leader-member exchange, the recent attempts for expanding the taxonomy of LMX construct are briefly explained. Next, the link between social exchange and affect within justice context is presented by references from theoretical and empirical studies in literature. The next section follows with the review of affect, specifically discrete emotions within workplace. In the last section of the literature review, the thorough explanation of relative deprivation theory as well as the effects and the possible moderators of relative deprivation feeling on employee outcomes are given.

Leader-Member Exchange

Leadership is mainly influencing and moving people to a particular target (Bass, 1990, Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992), and it happens only together with followers. By being two sides of a coin, leaders and followers are inseparable and each side sets the success for the other one. In detail, organizational leadership refers to:

The ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 15).

Leader- member exchange (LMX) theory is one of the leadership theories that examines how leaders influence member behaviors through social exchanges. Within organizational life, due to limited resources as well as time pressures, leaders are obliged to selectively distribute tangible and intangible resources. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory simply argues that leaders develop differentiated relationships with each of their subordinates through a series of work-related exchanges which can vary in quality, ranging from high to low (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The foundation of LMX research depends on Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) model which began as an alternative to Average Leadership Style (ALS) (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). The research on VDL showed that contrary to the prevailing approach to leadership which assumed that leaders displayed consistent behavior toward all subordinates in their work units (Average Leadership Style, ALS), supervisors develop differentiated relationships with their direct reports. The findings of VDL research indicated that the behaviors of a supervisor can be described very differently by each of his/her followers depending on these vertical dyad relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 226). The research on LMX concept has further expanded from the VDL approach by moving beyond a mere description of the differentiated relationships in a work unit to an explanation of how these relationships develop and what the consequences of these relationships are for organizations (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 229).

According to LMX theory, when leaders form high-quality social exchanges with some of the organizational members referred as in-group (originally named as “trusted assistants”, Dansereau et. al, 1975), they based these relationship on trust, respect, liking

and reciprocal influence, whereas with out-group members (originally named as “hired hands”, Dansereau et. al, 1975) they form lower-quality, mostly economic exchanges that do not extend beyond the employment contract (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997, Liden & Maslyn, 1998). LMX quality is simply the quality of the dyadic relationship between an organizational member and his/her supervisor with respect to the interrelated dimensions of respect, trust, and mutual obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Employing social exchange theory (Blau,1964; Homans, 1958) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) in its conceptualization, LMX theory claims that each party of this relationship should offer something valuable to the other party so that each party would see the exchange as reasonably equitable or fair (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Then, the norm of reciprocity within this social exchange relationship acts in a way that when a leader or employee provides benefits or opportunities to the other party that are beyond the written job requirements, then reciprocity would be the expected norm for the other party (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). In this respect, in high quality LMX relationships, when leader supplies higher resource and reward allocation to in-group members, these employees would feel obliged to make contributions that go beyond the scope of their formal job requirements, so they engage in greater in-role and extra-role involvements that would benefit their leaders (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Drawing from the social exchange perspective, the measurement of LMX has evolved from one-dimensional measure to multi-dimensional measures (Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Dienesch and Liden (1986) were the first to propose that LMX was a multidimensional construct which can be operationalized through three dimensions: contribution, loyalty and affect. Subsequently,

Liden and Maslyn (1998) argued that a fourth dimension (professional respect) was required in order to fully capture LMX relationships, and they developed a four-dimensional LMX model by adding professional respect to the previous three dimensions. Dienesch and Liden (1986) originally defined first three dimensions of LMX relationships as follows; *Contribution* is the perception of the amount and quality of work related efforts each member invests in the mutual goals of the LMX dyad. *Loyalty* refers to the expression of public support for the goals and the personal character of the other member of the dyad. *Affect* refers to the mutual affection that members have for each other which is primarily based on interpersonal liking rather than work values. As the following dimension *professional respect* was defined by Liden and Maslyn (1998) as the perception of the degree to which each member of the dyad has built a reputation of excelling at their line of work. While in some studies LMX is conceptualized as a multi-dimensional construct, in some studies it is still being conceptualized as unidimensional (Gerstner & Day, 1997). For instance; Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) claimed that although LMX comprises several dimensions, they can all be measured with LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984), which is a unidimensional measure of LMX designed to measure subordinate LMX perceptions.

Effects of LMX Quality on Major Employee Outcomes

Several studies in literature report that LMX quality has been shown to predict employee attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Rosse & Kraut, 1983; Seers, 1989), satisfaction with the leader (Dansereau et al., 1975), organizational commitment (Basu & Green, 1997; Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986;

Gerstner, & Day, 1997; Lee, 2005; Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992), employee performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden & Graen, 1980; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), organizational citizenship behaviors (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne & Green, 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997), turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984) and actual turnover (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982). Research has shown that LMX quality between the employee and his/her leader may develop early in the dyad's working tenure (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993), consequently LMX become effective in shaping employee in-role and extra-role behaviors (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007).

LMX Differentiation

LMX theory proposes that due to limited resources and time pressures, leaders are obliged to selectively distribute tangible and intangible resources to their subordinates. Accordingly, leaders develop differentiated relationships with each of their subordinates through a series of work-related exchanges which can vary in quality, ranging from high to low (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Such differentiation is proposed to have utility both for organizations and leaders, and makes differentiation as an acceptable leadership practice (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975).

Although the concept of LMX differentiation has been part of the LMX theory since its early versions, the influence of this differentiation on individuals' work attitudes and behaviors have recently started to attract the attention of researchers (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008; Liden et. al, 2006; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997, 2005; Vidyanthi et. al, 2010).

Group-Level Variability in LMX Quality

The main idea of LMX theory is that leaders develop differential relationships among their subordinates who report directly to them within a work unit. Accordingly, “*LMX differentiation*” or “*Group-level variability in LMX quality*” or “*LMX distribution within a group*” (e.g., Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008; Liden et al., 1997; Liden, Erdogan, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2006; Henderson, Liden, Glibkowski, & Chaudhry; 2009) becomes the basis for the social comparison among employees. LMX differentiation is operationalized by taking within-group variance in individual-level LMX scores for a group (Liden et al., 2006).

While high LMX differentiation points that within a work unit there is a broad range of LMX qualities changing from high- to low levels, low differentiation refers that within a work unit LMX qualities are much more similar to each other, and the range among employees’ LMX qualities is narrow. Research has shown that LMX differentiation can influence individuals’ work attitudes and behaviors depending on employees’ perceptions about the fairness of these LMX differentiations (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Liden et. al, 2006).

LMX and Social Comparison

The findings of research on LMX have shown that effective leadership processes occur when leaders and followers develop and maintain high-quality social exchange relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 229). Within high-quality LMX relationships

in addition to tangible resources, intangible resources are also shared and exchanged frequently through supervisor-subordinate relationships, including respect, trust, affect, loyalty, information and support (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, Liden & Maslyn, 1998, Dansereau et al., 1975). By being offered more work-related resources, employees who have high-quality LMX with their leaders gain advantages over employees having low-quality LMX within organizational life. Accordingly, the differentiation of work groups into in-groups and out-groups has implications for the emergence of organizational justice considerations among employees (Scandura, 1999).

Within organizational life, individuals may observe, learn, and compare their own LMX relationships with their teammates' LMX relationships through a series of daily interactions as well as informal conversations (Hu & Liden, 2013). They may perceive LMX distribution of their work group and their relative position within it through conscious and unconscious observations; such that they may make inferences even from nonverbal behaviors between the leader and other members of their work group and build their perceptions about these images according to their own interpretations. Previous research on this topic demonstrated that employees actively observe coworkers' communications and interactions with the leader, and use these information to make their own assessments about who has high- and who has low- LMX relationships within their work unit, and how their standing with the leader compared with that of others is, and accordingly form their perceptions of fairness judgments (Sias 1996; Sias & Jablin, 1995).

Since high-quality LMX is such a valuable resource, individuals often pay attention to who have high and low LMX relationships, and this differentiation of LMX qualities inevitably triggers social comparison processes among individuals. Social

comparison processes mainly serve as a source of information for individuals who want to know their relative standing in relation to other people, mostly to their work groups (Festinger, 1954; Wood, 1996). In this respect, social comparison acts as a kind of evaluation system for employees regarding their work environments, and their relative standing within it (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). Embedded in different aspects of social interactions, social comparisons lead to important cognitive, affective and behavioral outcomes within organizational life (Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007; Wood, 1989). Vidyarthi and colleagues (2010) point to LMX based social comparisons and their possible effects on organizational outcomes as follows;

When leaders develop differentiated exchanges with their followers, the magnitude of the difference between one's own LMX and others' LMXs likely drives one's evaluation of the relationship with the leader as well as subsequent attitudinal and behavioral responses (p. 849).

Relative Leader-Member Exchange (RLMX)

It has been argued by some researchers that within work groups, high- and low-quality LMX relationships exist only in relative terms; more explicitly, there is no absolute reference point in LMX relationships for determining what a high- or low-quality relationship without referring to a differentiated group context (Henderson et al., 2008). In this respect, employees' evaluations would be driven mainly by social comparisons that would give an idea about their relative treatment and standing in their work groups. In line with this reasoning, Henderson and associates (2008) asserts that in order to investigate how LMX processes operate to influence subordinate attitudes and behaviors

individual-within-group context becomes more of an issue (Cogliser & Schriesheim, 2000; Schriesheim, Castro and Yammarino, 2000; Schriesheim, Neider and Scandura, 1998). Individual-within-group context, known also as the frog-pond approach (Firebaugh, 1980), asserts that individual attitudes and behaviors are influenced by comparisons made between the individual and his/her reference group (Kelley, 1968); in other words, by the relative standing of individual within the social context (Firebaugh, 1980; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994).

The concept of relative leader-member exchange (RLMX) was originally developed by Graen, Liden, and Hoel (1982), and has been defined by researchers as, the “*actual*” or “*objective*” relative situation that reflects the difference between one’s own LMX quality level and the average LMX quality level of the team (Henderson et al., 2008). RLMX is operationalized by the method of Kozlowski and Klein (2000) for each individual team member by subtracting the mean individual-level LMX score from each individual team member’s LMX scores (Graen, et al., 1982; Henderson et al., 2008). When an individual has a high RLMX standing, then this shows that he/she possesses a better-than-average quality of LMX relationship with the leader within his/her team; on the other hand, when an individual has a low RLMX standing, then it means that this person has a lower-than-average quality of LMX relationship with the leader in his/her team. The relative standing of an employee’s LMX quality within the work group can influence employee’s success by affecting the amount and extent of relative advantages afforded by the leader. In line with this reasoning, Hu and Liden (2013) claim that RLMX is referred by employees usually for accessing their skills and capabilities compared to others, as well as judging their possibility of performing tasks well by getting more resources from their leaders contingent on their RLMX levels, and

for evaluating their social acceptance situation by their team which is expected to be under the influence of the leader's trust on them that becomes apparent by their RLMX levels (p. 131).

Although empirical studies investigating the outcomes of “*relative LMX*” (i.e., RLMX) are not as many as those investigating the outcomes of “*absolute LMX*” (i.e., LMX), there are some important findings reported by studies dealing with RLMX construct within literature. For instance; in their empirical study, Graen, Liden and Hoel (1982) found that individual-within-group LMX quality, which was calculated by deviation scores (i.e., a member's LMX quality minus the group average LMX quality, indicating the RLMX) was effective in employee turnover. Similarly; Schriesheim, Neider, and Scandura (1998) found that the relationships between LMX quality, supervisor evaluated LMX quality (SLMX) and subordinate's job satisfaction operated at the individual-within-group level, and that finding also highlighted the importance of RLMX. Likewise, Henderson and associates (2008) found that individual-within-group scores of LMX quality (RLMX) was positively related to subordinate reports of psychological contract fulfillment, even when controlling for individual-level LMX quality. Henderson and associates (2008) also found that RLMX is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior while controlling for the effects of individual LMX quality, indicating that individuals who have higher LMX ratings than their group members show more extra-role behavior than their peers having lower LMX qualities regardless of their absolute individual LMX levels.

Role of Perceptions in LMX Differentiation

Individuals can base their social comparison processes on information gathered both by their personal experiences as well as gathered through socially mediated ones (Bandura, 1986). Within organizational life, through a series of daily interactions employees have many opportunities to personally observe the relationships of their peers with the leader; for example, by observing them on meetings, during chit-chats in the company corridors as well as company social events, and throughout daily work flow. In addition to these personal observations, employees can also make inferences about the relationships between their peers and the leader through socially mediated experiences including informal conversations and through the grapevine within the company (Hu & Liden, 2013, p. 133). However, whatever the source of the information is, all available information would be subject to a perceptual evaluation by the individual depending on his/her own inferences about these relationships and his/her relative standing within this perceived environment. *Perception*, which is defined as “*a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment*”, is the determinant in individual’s attitudes and behaviors since what a person perceives can be substantially different from objective reality and his/her behavior is based on his/her own perception of what reality is, not on reality itself (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 173).

However, RLMX is an “objective” social comparison information, and it is computed by getting the difference between actual data for one’s LMX quality and the average LMX quality of his/her work group. Openly, RLMX is an individual-within-group construct that incorporates data collected both from individual him/herself and

from each member of the work group. Therefore, RLMX reflects the actual standing of those individuals in the LMX distribution by incorporating both the individual's own perceptions about his/her LMX quality, and the perceptions of all group members about their own individual LMX qualities. In other words, the established formulation and the common operationalization of RLMX quality does not actually capture individual's own perceptual evaluation about his/her perceived standing in the LMX distribution within a work group, but it reflects the incorporated perceptions of all people within the work group (Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh., 2010, p. 850). This is an important point that may have implications on taken for granted effects of RLMX on organizational outcomes, which were obtained by the empirical studies using the above mentioned common operationalization of RLMX.

The famous expression originated from Plato's quote; "*Beauty is in the eye of the beholder*", highlights that perception of beauty, and so 'perception' itself, is a subjective and a complex cognitive process differs from one person to another. The importance of perception both for the individuals and the companies comes from the fact that what drives one's own convictions are what his/her eyes and minds see and interpret. In this respect, organizations need to understand and manage employee perceptions if they want to influence employees' attitudes and behaviors. Current research has reported the effects of perceptions on some work related constructs. For instance, justice judgments are especially contingent upon individual perceptions. Beugre (1998) states that in justice related studies what matters most is not the reality itself but the subjective reality driven by the subject's perception of reality, which has been shown to be effective on organizational outcomes mostly through its effect on employee engagement (Saks, 2006). Similarly, leadership can also be defined as a perceptual process within

subordinates (Lord & Maher, 1991); such that, depending on individual perceptions leader actions may have different influence over subordinates (Lord, Brown & Freiberg, 1999). Moreover, appraisal theorists also support the importance of perceptions, such as they argue that personal evaluations and interpretations of events have a determinant effect on emotions;

Evaluations and interpretations of events, rather than events per se, determine an emotion will be felt and which emotion it will be. (Roseman, Spindel, & Jose, 1990, p. 899; Overwalle, Heylighen, Casaer, & Daniels, 1992, p. 313).

For this reason, in terms of LMX relationships, rather than “objective” reality, the “subjective” reality, which is based on the perception of an employee, becomes an important determinant of individual attitudes and behaviors both for “absolute” (i.e., LMX) and “relative” (i.e., RLMX) terms of his/her individual treatment by the supervisor (e.g. Hu & Liden, 2013, Vidyarathi et al., 2010).

In line with the above reasoning, in this thesis from this point on, while explaining and categorizing constructs derived from and/or related to LMX, I am going to use the term “*objectively based construct*” to imply constructs that are developed from data which integrates perceptions of all the related parties so that its value would stay same regardless of the focal individual. On the other hand, I am going to use “*subjectively based constructs*” to specify those which are gathered from data based on focal individual’s perceptual evaluations about him/herself and his/her environment, so that its value may change by every person. On the other hand, “*absolute*” would be used for the constructs to refer to an unconditional value regarding *a possession* of an individual, whereas, “*relative*” would mean a comparative value that reflects *a status* showing where an individual stands in his/her group. Therefore, when the work group is taken as the related context, relative value may need to be taken into consideration,

however when the focus is only on individual's him/herself, then absolute value may become more of an issue. Accordingly, by combining these two separate categorizations, which I would prefer to name one category by '*subject of perceptions*' (objective vs. subjective); and other category by '*positioning of the interest*' (absolute vs. relative), it is possible to have different sub-categorizations. Among them, "*objective relative*" and "*subjective relative*" would be the ones that I would be mainly using to compare the recently developed constructs in the literature for LMX taxonomy, as well as to highlight some of the contributions of this thesis.

Subjective LMX Differentiation

In the extant literature, originally LMX differentiation (also called *group-level variability in LMX quality*) is operationalized by calculating the variance in the individual-level LMX scores for each work group (Henderson et al., 2008; Liden et al., 1997; Liden et al., 2006; Henderson et al., 2009). Based on this common operationalization, LMX differentiation is an "*objectively based construct*" that reflects the integrated perceptions of all group members.

However, referring to the importance of individual perceptions, in the extant literature, there has been some alternative operationalizations of LMX differentiation construct that have used only the focal individual's perceptions for assessing leaders' differential treatment of group members. For instance, Van Breukelen, Konst, and Van der Vlist (2006) developed a 5-point Likert scale composed of four items that explicitly measures perceived LMX differentiation. The four items of Van Breukelen and colleagues' scale mainly aim to capture the focal individual's perceptions about to what

extent his/her supervisor differentiates among the group members in terms of friendliness and feedback, which are as follows:

- 1) Does your supervisor treat some of your colleagues more leniently than others?
- 2) Does your supervisor prefer some people in your work unit to others?
- 3) Is your supervisor more likely to point out the mistakes of certain of your colleagues than those of others?
- 4) To what extent is your supervisor more likely to express appreciation to some colleagues than others?

Van Breukelen and colleagues' study (2006) revealed that in lower levels of perceived LMX differentiation, individual's LMX quality more positively affects individual's work unit commitment.

Similarly, Hooper and Martin (2008) developed another LMX differentiation scale based on focal individual's subjective perceptions. In order to calculate perceived LMX variability, they have developed an instrument called "*LMX Distribution Measure*" by which they asked focal individuals to categorize each member of his/her group, as well as themselves, among 5 categories of relationship levels (*1: very poor, 2: poor, 3: satisfactory, 4: good, 5: very good*) according to their relationships with the immediate supervisor. In other words, by filling out this instrument, respondents would exhibit the mental schema in their minds about the dispersion of LMX variability within their teams based on their own perceptions of these relationships as well as their own standing within them. Respectively, perceived LMX variability is operationalized by calculating the coefficient of variation, which is computed by dividing the standard deviation of LMX relationships within the team by the team mean LMX, all of which are reported personally by the participant by filling out the LMX Distribution Measure. In this respect, according to Hooper and Martin's operationalization, the resultant LMX distribution is clearly a "*subjective construct*" since it reflects only the focal individual's perceptions, thus it may change and be any other number according to the assessment of

each participant. The LMX Distribution Measure is statistically validated by Hooper and Martin (2008) in their empirical study, and the results of their research showed that perceived LMX variability was negatively related to individual's reports of job satisfaction and wellbeing, and positively related to relational team conflict.

LMX Social Comparison (LMXSC)

Ever since researches have started to focus more on the implications of individual-within-group level social comparison processes, rather than merely on the implications of dyadic social exchange processes in LMX relationships, there have been attempts to expand the taxonomy of LMX research in line with this perspective. Following the increased usage of LMX distribution construct in empirical studies, RLMX (e.g., Henderson et al., 2008) comes out as a comparatively recent construct that has been used to investigate the importance of social comparison processes in LMX research. Correspondingly, there have been consecutive efforts by researchers to further expand the taxonomy of LMX research. For instance; Vidyarthi and colleagues (2010) introduced a new construct called "LMX Social Comparison (LMXSC)" based on social comparison theory. LMXSC is meant to measure "*individual perceptions*" about one's own LMX compared to that of coworkers', and it is expected to be different from already established constructs of LMX and RLMX. Accordingly, Vidyarthi and colleagues (2010) states that;

LMXSC is based on within-group social comparison with work group members as the reference point, whereas LMX involves no comparative judgment or reference point (p. 850).

LMXSC represents employees' subjective assessment and is obtained directly from focal employee, and RLMX represents the actual degree to which the focal individual's LMX differs from the average leader-subordinate LMX in the work group (p. 850).

The scale of LMXSC developed by Vidyanthi and colleagues (2010) is composed of six directional questions that guide individuals to compare their relationships with the leader to that of other team member's relationships with the leader within six specific circumstances. The items of LMXSC scale which were shown to be statistically discriminant from the items of LMX and leader fairness (interactional justice) constructs (Vidyanthi et al., 2010, p. 853) are as follows:

- 1) I have a better relationship with my manager than most others in my work group.
- 2) When my manager cannot make it to an important meeting, it is likely that s/he will ask me to fill in.
- 3) Relative to the others in my work group, I receive more support from my manager.
- 4) The working relationship I have with my manager is more effective than the relationships most members of my group have with my manager.
- 5) My manager is more loyal to me compared to my coworkers.
- 6) My manager enjoys my company more than s/he enjoys the company of other group members (Vidyanthi et al., 2010, p. 853).

By their empirical study, Vidyanthi and colleagues (2010) demonstrated that employee's perception of LMXSC is positively related to job performance and OCB beyond the effects of LMX and RLMX. Moreover, they claimed that LMXSC has a mediation effect on the relationship between RLMX and job performance and OCB. In reference to other LMX taxonomy which has been discussed, LMXSC can be grouped as a "*subjective relative*" LMX construct, since it measures *individual perceptions* regarding one's own relationships with the leader compared to that of other group members' relationships with the leader in terms of six different aspects.

LMX Relational Separation (LMXRS)

Another attempt for expanding the taxonomy of LMX construct came very recently from Harris and colleagues (2014) by their new construct called “LMX Relational Separation (LMXRS)”, which extends the LMX differentiation concept to reflect the uniqueness (in terms of similarity/dissimilarity) of one’s LMX quality compared to that of other work group members’ (p. 315). Referring to group engagement theory (Tyler & Bladder, 2000, 2003), Harris and colleagues (2014) claim that it is important to demonstrate whether an employee is similar (low LMXRS) or dissimilar (high LMXRS) with his/her peers in terms of LMX quality, in addition to the main effect of absolute LMX quality. Accordingly, their empirical study showed that collective interaction of LMXRS and LMX differentiation with individual LMX quality affects employee turnover intentions and OCB behavior (Harris et al, 2014). According to Harris and colleagues’ arguments, LMX differentiation and LMXRS constructs differ from each other, in that the former is a group level construct, and the later an individual-within-group level construct. Besides, they also argue that LMXRS differentiates both from RLMX (Henderson et. al, 2008) and LMXSC (Vidyarthi et al., 2010) constructs, such that, in contrast to these constructs LMXRS captures the “*absolute separation*” between an individual and his/her group members in terms of perceived LMX quality, and so it does not include directional (better than/ worse than) information but only an indication of one’s overall similarity or dissimilarity in a group, which may also suggest an insider or outsider position (p. 315, p. 323) According to Harris and colleagues (2014), LMXRS is calculated by using a formula developed originally by Tsui and colleagues (1992) in which the square root of the summed squared differences between an individual’s LMX and the value on LMX

for every other individual in the group is divided by the total number of respondents in the group (pp. 319- 320). Accordingly, higher value of LMXRS indicate larger difference indicating that an individual with a higher score differs more from the other group members in terms of his/her LMX relationship with the leader. As an individual-within-group construct that integrates data collected both from the focal individual and from each member of the work group, LMXRS reflects the incorporated perceptions of all people within the work group. In this respect, LMXRS does not express individual's own perceptual evaluation about his/her similarity / dissimilarity to its work group, but it reflects the integrated perceptions of all members of the work group. Therefore, in line with the proposed classification of LMX taxonomy in this thesis, LMXRS can be classified as an "*objective relative*" LMX construct.

Subjective Relative LMX

As explained in the above sections in detail, at the earlier times of LMX concept, most of the empirical research has been conducted mostly at individual-level since they focus on examining the relationship between individual-level perceptions of LMX quality and how it effects individual-level outcomes (for reference., Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & Yammarino, 2001). Later on, some researchers have criticized that leaders' differential treatment of multiple subordinates in a work group inevitably would influence activity within these groups, and in turn group level outcomes (Dansereau, et al., 1975).

Therefore, these criticisms trigger the current interest on the effects of LMX differentiation from an individual-within-group perspective (i.e., relative LMX) in addition to the individual to leader dyad (i.e., absolute LMX) perspective. Recently,

more empirical research has been conducted to examine LMX differentiation processes both at the group level (e.g., Boies, & Howell, 2006; Henderson et al., 2008; Liden et al.; 2006), and at the individual-within-group level (e.g., Henderson et al., 2008; Schriesheim, et al., 1998). As explained in the above sections, these movements in the research interest have also affected the type of contributions being made to LMX taxonomy by researchers, such as, newly developed constructs of LMXSC (Vidyarathi et al., 2010) and LMXRS (Harris et al., 2014) that focus on investigating the effects of individual-within-group level effects of LMX relationships.

Indeed, as evident in the empirical research of Henderson et al. (2008; 2009), LMX processes may simultaneously operate at three different levels: 1) *individual-level* that results from social exchange motives tied to individual-level perceptions of LMX quality; 2) *individual-within-group level* resulting from comparison processes among group members as to the nature and quality of their LMX relationships; and 3) *group-level* as variability in LMX quality within a group creates a group-level context that is meaningful to the experience of both managers and subordinates (p. 1208; p. 519).

In addition to the categorization of LMX studies based on the *level of analysis*, the role of *individual perceptions* may also be an important aspect to be considered in research design. For instance, RLMX is a construct that is used to indicate the degree of difference between one's own LMX and the LMXs of coworkers'; and operationalized as individual LMX minus the mean of work group LMX (Henderson et al., 2008). According to its original conceptualization and common usage within empirical studies, the data for the calculation of RLMX is gathered both from the focal individual him/herself as well as from each member of the group. In this respect, RLMX is an "*objective relative*" construct which is based on perceptions of all group members rather

than the subjective evaluation of the focal individual about his/her relative standing in the LMX distribution within his/her work group. However, it is also possible to conceptualize RLMX merely from the perceptual evaluations of the focal individual, leading to end up with a “*subjective relative*” construct. In fact, perceptions of the environment, in other words subjective evaluations, are naturally more influential than reality on attitudes and behaviors (e.g. Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Therefore, when the concern is individual’s affective outcomes, then the focus may need to be on individual perceptions rather than combined perceptions of all team members. The concern for individual perceptions is also presented by Vidyanthi and colleagues (2010) as a rationale for the need for their newly developed construct LMXSC in LMX research. Vidyanthi and colleagues (2010) argue that employees can easily form their own assessments of whether they are or their coworkers are closer to or more distant from the leader, and this perceptual rating may reasonably differ from reality (p. 850).

LMXSC scale is based on six questions that inquire into one’s perceptions about the relative situation of his/her own relationship with the leader in comparison with that of other group members’ relationships in terms of six distinct and specified conditions (pls. refer to above sections for the related questions). Harris and colleagues (2014) claim that an interesting opportunity for future research is to investigate the individual level perceptions regarding one’s relative LMX situation within his/her work group through a measure which would aim to depict individual level perceptions like Vidyanthi and colleagues’ (2010) LMXSC measure, but with a difference of not asking directional questions that would set the specific conditions for this evaluation, but just questioning one’s own perceptions regarding his/her relative standing within the work group in terms of his/her general relationship quality with the leader (p.325). Although prior research

has confirmed that follower perceptions of LMX differentiation are significantly related to actual differentiation calculated from individual reports, it has been shown that individual level perception driven differences are in fact a more proximal indicator of individual level outcomes compared to actual differences (e.g., Harris et al., 2014; Vidyarthi et al., 2010). In this respect, further research on individual level perceptions of LMX differentiation seems to be fertile for exploring critical individual level outcomes.

In line with further need for research evident from the above discussions, in this thesis Hooper and Martin's (2008) LMX Distribution Measure is used for collecting subjective LMX differentiation data from each focal individual for his/her perceptual evaluation about the LMX variability in his/her team including his/her own LMX quality. Based on this perceptual data, subjective RLMX construct is operationalized with the method of Kozlowski and Klein (2000) by getting the difference between focal individual's own LMX quality and mean group LMX quality. This subjective RLMX construct is named as "*Perceived Relative LMX (PerRLMX)*" throughout this thesis, which is in fact operationalized by the same method of objective RLMX (Graen, et al., 1982; Henderson et al., 2008, p. 1212), but by using focal individual's own perceptions about each team member's LMX quality in his/her team rather than getting team members' own evaluations regarding their LMX quality. It is important to note that even though both LMX and PerRLMX are driven from individual level perceptions, LMX reflects an absolute measure, whereas PerRLMX reflects a relative standing, more clearly a "status" position, where an individual stands within his/her work group.

Furthermore, integrating one's perceptual evaluation is also critical for understanding his/her affective reactions, which is evident from the facts about the effect of individual perception on individual's cognition and emotion. The effect of perception

on discrete emotions is thoroughly explained in the “Affect in Workplace” section of the literature review. In line with the causal relationship between perception and affect, the occurrence of relative deprivation feeling is also contingent on individual perceptions particularly regarding one’s evaluations of his/her own position in comparison to referent others. Crosby (1976) claimed that the proportion of others who possess a desired outcome most likely affect feelings of relative deprivation. In other words, feeling of relative deprivation is likely to grow as the number of people who have that outcome within a group increases. When we interpret this within the context of PerRLMX, then it can be expected that when an employee feels that most of the employees have relatively low-quality exchange relationships with their supervisors as he/she also does, then his/her feelings of relative deprivation is most likely minimized. On the other hand, when an employee feels that a high proportion of employees have high-quality exchanges and only few employees including him/herself has low-quality exchanges, then this individual with a relatively low-quality exchange relationship is likely to feel severely deprived. In this respect, while investigating one’s LMX based relative deprivation feeling, integrating his/her perceived LMX variability evaluations regarding his/her reference group would definitely provide more solid ground for understanding the possible outcomes of relative deprivation feeling.

Before providing a comprehensive review of relative deprivation theory, in the next section of the thesis, the integration of social exchange and affect concepts within literature is summarized by examining the association between LMX and negative emotions, and also by reviewing the current developments in justice research that incorporates social exchange and affect perspectives. The next section follows with an overall summary of role of affect within organizational life. Afterwards, the literature

review on relative deprivation is given within following topics; theoretical developments, effects on major employee outcomes, cognitive and affective components, differences from other discrete negative emotions, incorporation of justice evaluations and social comparisons within the conceptualization of relative deprivation feeling, and lastly the role of moderator variables on the relationship between relative deprivation feeling and employee attitudes and behaviors.

Integration of Social Exchange and Affect

LMX and Negative Emotions

Until recently, studies on LMX relationships mostly highlighted the positive aspects related with LMX, i.e. ‘bright side of LMX’, indicating that higher quality LMX is associated with better employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Gerstener and Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). However, on the other side of the coin, there are employees who may perceive that they are exposed to lower quality LMX relationship, and this perception may inevitably be reflected in their attitudes and behaviors as a result of social comparison processes. Although being very few in number within extant literature, there are studies that focus on this dark side of LMX relationships, and the results of these studies commonly display that within organizational life comparatively lower level LMX relationships have some dysfunctional outcomes, such as reduced citizenship behavior and higher turnover intentions (e.g., Kacmar, Zivnuska, & White, 2007; Kim, O’Neill, & Cho, 2010; Mayfield & Mayfield, 1998). Based on these research

results, it is clear that the dark side of LMX concept needs to be further investigated by researchers given that it may be fertile to unrecognized destructive effects on organizational outcomes by sweeping away the positive outcomes gained through high quality LMX relationships so that leading to huge costs for organizations.

While investigating the negative side of LMX relationships, discrete employee emotions may need to be further investigated as an accompanying topic. Lazarus (2000) claims that emotions usually stem from social interactions, therefore, leadership and LMX relationships are expected to trigger emotional outcomes by being intense social interaction processes within organizational life. Although there is not much established research that investigates the effects of LMX quality on discrete employee emotions in the extant literature to our knowledge, there have been some important findings regarding some kinds of association between LMX and emotions, which can be used as a cue for further research. For instance, it has been claimed that affect is one of the indicators of the quality of LMX relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), which suggests a close association between LMX and emotions. On the other hand, moods and emotions are found to be effective on the perception of the quality of exchange relationships (e.g., Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010) indicating the association between affect and LMX. Based on these findings about the association of LMX and emotions, logically, we may also expect LMX quality to be affective on subsequent moods and emotions of followers that would further influence their attitudes and behaviors.

In fact, a solid explanation for the possible effects of LMX relationships on employees' discrete emotions can be derived from social comparison theory. Embedded in different aspects of social interactions within organizational life, social comparisons have shown to lead to important cognitive, affective and behavioral outcomes within

organizational life (Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007; Wood, 1989).

Emotions and moods are closely related to social comparison processes, in such a way that, social comparisons mostly trigger affective outcomes through justice considerations (Greenberg, et al., 2007). Within a work group, it is usual to have frequent social comparisons among coworkers about what they receive and what others receive.

Depending on the personal evaluation of their comparative situations in terms of LMX relationships with their leaders, employees may develop negative feelings triggered mostly by the perception of injustice or unfairness within social exchange relationships (Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007). These negative feelings in turn may result in harmful organizational outcomes. Parallel to these assertions, Hu and Liden (2013) also point that emotions are closely related to the social comparison processes, and there is a need for further research that investigates their interactive effects.

Although there have been some propositions about the relationship between LMX and negative emotions, as well as very few empirical studies investigating their relationship within the extant literature (e.g. Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007; Kim, Neill, & Cho, 2010), the need for exploring emotions within LMX context is still a fertile area for future research (Hu & Liden, 2013). As explained in previous sections, LMX relationships and especially RLMX considerations naturally trigger social comparisons; and these social comparison processes inherit justice evaluations which are effective on individual attitudes and behaviors. Based on this line of reasoning, research that would investigate the effect of LMX relationships on discrete employee emotions is promising for new discoveries regarding the effects of LMX concept within work life.

In line with this need for further research, in this thesis, LMX based relative deprivation feeling is investigated as an underlying process for the effects of LMX

relationships on employee outcomes. Relative deprivation is often experienced by comparing the treatments, opportunities or outcomes that an individual receives to those received by others in his/her reference group (Crosby, 1976). In this respect, social comparison processes and ensuing perceived relative positions and justice considerations comprise an integral aspect of feeling of relative deprivation for an individual. This is why in this thesis relative deprivation feeling is examined within LMX context as a possible negative outcome of LMX relationships within organizational life, which in turn is expected to be effective on employee attitudes and behaviors.

Integration of Social Exchange and Affect Perspectives within Justice Evaluations

In the current justice literature, two perspectives has been used prominently as lenses for examining reactions to justice; namely social exchange theory and affect (Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon & Wesson, 2013). Although social exchange based justice arguments are quite common, affect side of justice considerations has not been started to be deeply investigated until recently. Although, it has been mostly agreed by organizational justice scholars that injustice is an emotionally loaded experience, its role has been under-researched within organizational behavior literature (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). In their meta-analytic review Colquitt and his colleagues (2013) points that after decades of figuring individuals as rational beings who only base their justice judgments on rational dynamics, justice scholars have just begun to acknowledge the fact that individuals as emotional beings may also “feel justice” (Cropanzano, Stein & Nadisic, 2011; De Cremer, 2007). In support of this assertion, research has shown that individuals define injustice experience by a sense of “hot and burning”, which indicates

mirroring of different emotions like anger, hostility, shame and guilt (Bies & Tripp, 2002; Harlos & Pinder, 2000).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) describes primarily how multiple kinds of resources can be exchanged through certain rules, and how such exchanges can bring about high-quality relationships. Social exchange relationships are different than mere economic exchanges since they require unspecified contributions from contributing parties (Blau, 1964). Within justice literature, contemporary version of social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Byrne, 2000; Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, & Schminke, 2001) has been utilized for depicting the reciprocative actions on the part of employees in exchange for interpersonal relationships. According to Colquitt and his colleagues (2013), justice studies that utilize the contemporary version of social exchange theory generally operationalize social exchange quality by using one of the following four constructs; namely, “*trust*”, “*organizational commitment*”, “*POS*” and “*LMX*” (pg. 202). The result of Colquitt and his colleagues’ (2013) research reinforces the previously proved correlations among justice dimensions and the above mentioned four indicators of social exchange quality.

While contemporary social exchange theory helps to bring cognitive based explanations for the effects of justice evaluations in terms of social exchange quality, unfortunately it is still inadequate in reflecting the affective considerations of justice evaluations within work relationships. Although, there has been a shift in the focus by the recent considerations of affect within justice research, the progress is relatively less than expected. Indeed, Cropanzano and colleagues (2011) pointed to this slow progress of the integration of justice and affect literatures by stating;

Given the natural affinity between (injustice) and affect, integrating the two literatures has been slower than one might expect (p.3).

As possible affective consequences of unfair treatments within organizational life, research has investigated mostly attitudinal (e.g., job satisfaction) and behavioral (e.g., OCBs) outcomes, and overlooked discrete emotions. By their experimental study, Weiss, Suckow and Cropanzano (1999) tried to fill this gap in the justice literature by taking justice as an affective event, in line with the earlier assertions of Weiss and Cropanzano (1996). In their original assertions, Weiss and Cropanzo (1996) had claimed that such omission in the investigation of the role of discrete emotions in justice literature may miss out the discovery and measure of potentially pivotal mediating variables. Although there are researchers who pointed to the link between injustice and aggressive responses (e.g., Cropanzano & Baron, 1991; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Zohar, 1995), they made their point mostly without measuring discrete emotional states, but only assuming them to be between injustice considerations and relevant outcome variables. Recently, within organizational behavior area there are some empirical studies that have either incorporated or evaluated discrete emotions separately as mediating variables within injustice cognitions and related organizational outcomes (e.g., Barclay et al., 2005; Goldman, 2003; Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000; Rupp & Spencer, 2006; Tai, Narayanan, & Mcallister, 2012). The review article by Cohen-Charash and Byrne (2008) give a detailed summary of the extant literature on the studies integrating affect and justice, by examining the relationship among affect and justice within five main categories: i) Affect being an antecedent/predictor of justice judgments, ii) Justice as a predictor of moods and emotions, iii) Emotions as mediators of reactions to (in)justice, iv) Justice as mediating the relationship between emotions and outcomes, and v) Interactive effect between affect and justice (pp. 361-382). Moreover, Cohen-Charash

and Byrne (2008) stated that, “it appears that the relationship between affect and justice is complex and that moderating and mediating variables are of paramount importance in understanding this relationship” (p. 382).

A more recent meta-analytic review by Colquitt and colleagues (2013) also reveal important results about the association between affect and justice, for instance, they point that state affect acts as a mediator between several justice and behavior relationships (p.216). Likewise, Lawler & Thye (1999) highlight that the process of engaging in exchange transactions can trigger a number of emotions, ranging from pride and gratitude to anger and shame.

Above arguments of researchers primarily point to the need for further research that would integrate social exchange and affect considerations for the organizational processes that have potentials for triggering justice considerations. In line with this need of research, the conceptual models of this thesis incorporates LMX, which is one of the main constructs that operationalize social exchange quality, and relative deprivation feeling, which is conceptualized as one of the actual emotions of individuals resulted from cognitive appraisals of justice considerations derived by social comparisons with referent others. In this respect, while this thesis integrates and extends the theories of social comparison, social exchange, and emotions within the context of LMX relationships and relative deprivation feeling, it also provides one possible answer to the above mentioned need of further research that integrates social exchange and affect within justice related organizational topics.

Affect in Workplace

“Why does affect matter in organizations?” is the title of a famous article by Barsade and Gibson (2007), and in fact, as a question this specific inquiry explains more than it asks for. In the extant literature, it has been shown that affect usually manifested as emotion, mood or feeling trait within organizational life, is effective in employees’ work motivation (Erez & Isen, 2002), job performance (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004), creativity (George & Zhou, 2002), and job attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Moreover, empirical studies also revealed emotions’ mediating role between organizational conditions and job attitudes within organizational life (e.g. Ashkanasy, Zerbe, & Hiirtel, 2002; Brief & Weiss, 2002). It is evident that affect matters within organizational life; simply because organizations are formed by people whose behavior and productivity are directly affected by their emotional states (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Barsade and Gibson (2007) argues that people are not isolated “emotional islands”, instead they are emotion conductors that bring their traits, moods, emotions and affective experiences to work, which in turn drive performance, behavior or any other feeling within organizations (pg. 54). Emotions are an important part of organizational life, not only because of their influence on organizational outcomes but also their role in characterizing and shaping organizational processes by acting as a communication system in social relations (Morris & Keltner, 2000). That is why understanding primary dynamics of affective experiences within organizational life would definitely be helpful in discovering how to improve organizational outcomes.

Since research has investigated different aspects of affect within organizational life, it is important to clarify the definitions of these different phenomena which have

come together under the umbrella of “affect”. *Affect* refers to a broad range of feelings that can be both positive and negative, and incorporates both short-term affective experiences of *feeling states* as well as *feeling traits* of more stable tendencies to feel and act in certain ways (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Watson & Clark, 1984). Emotions and moods are two categories of feeling states and are distinguished from each other by the length of their duration, and by whether or not they have a specific target of cause. *Emotions* are caused by a particular target (event, person, entity etc.) and are relatively intense and short-lived (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). In the extant literature, emotions are considered as *discrete emotions* (e.g. anger, fear, happiness etc.) due to the fact that each emotion has some specific target or cause as well as each emotion can be linked to specific tendency of acting in a certain way (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Frijda, 1986). In contrast, *moods* are not necessarily tied to a particular cause, so they are much more diffused, and have longer duration than emotions (Fisher, 2000; Frijda, 1986). Emotions, having accompanied by psychological and physiological reactions and experiences, are more likely than moods to change beliefs and behavior (Frijda, 1986; Kelly & Barsade, 2001; Lazarus, 1991; Schwarz, Bless, Bohner, Harlacher, & Kellerbenz, 1991). On the other hand, unlike emotions, moods and their effect on behaviors may not be realized by the individual him/herself (Forgas, 1992). As the only category of feeling trait, *dispositional affect* defines a person’s overall approach to life, which indicates a stable underlying tendency to experience positive and negative moods and discrete emotions (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Watson & Clark, 1984).

According to Affective Events Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), affective events lead to discrete emotional responses that influence attitudes and perceptions, as well as affect and judgment driven behaviors. The importance of AET

depends on the assertion that emotional states lie at the core of attitude formation and employee behavior in organizations. According to AET, both organizational characteristics and individuals' dispositional attributes can influence employee attitudes. Ashkanasy & Daus (2002) point that accumulation of positive or negative events determines how individuals' feel, with that leading to the way employees think and feel at work in line with AET. While individuals are generally more capable of dealing with infrequent occurrences of negative events, insistent hassles have more potential to lead to negative emotional responses. That's why it is important for organizations, particularly for supervisors, to recognize, beware, and manage employee emotions.

Positive emotions, such as joy or pride, are associated with events that facilitate the fulfillment of an individual's objectives; whereas negative emotions, such as guilt or anger, are associated with events that impede the fulfillment of those (Lazarus, 1991). Ortony, Clore and Collins (1988) claim that level of emotional arousal is dependent on subjective importance of the situation assessed by the individual. In this respect, if an event triggers positive or negative emotion, then this event is important and relevant for that person's life and identity, provided that its significance is recognized by the individual (e.g. Kiefer, 2002).

Basch and Fisher (2000) showed that the main causes of negative emotions at organizational life include acts of management, acts of colleagues, and company policy. Specifically acts of management, as opposed to any other source, are usually the cause of employee anger, which is one of the most significant and frequent negative workplace emotion (Basch & Fisher, 2000). In the classic study of Herzberg (1959) with his colleagues Mausner and Snyderman similar results were presented about the causes of negative emotions in the workplace, such that, when employees were asked to report

episodes of feeling exceptionally bad about their jobs, their answers included issues related with supervision, working conditions, coworkers; as well as organizational policies and practices.

Leadership and Emotion

Leaders are recognized as having to move people to a particular target by influencing their behavior through social interaction processes (Bass, 1990; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Recent conceptions of leadership have started to emphasize the importance of emotions as a basis for this influence much more than rational reasoning (Yukl, 2002). This new viewpoint points that emotional dynamics are one of the most powerful means for leadership. Empirical research has showed that considerable part of employee emotions within organizational life are contingent upon leadership (e.g. Bass, 1985; Bono et al., 2007; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Studies investigating leadership influences by using AET as the framework draw a common conclusion that leadership affects follower and workgroup outcomes by its effect on follower affective reactions (e.g. Dasborough, 2006). In other words, according to AET emotions are the mediating mechanism by which leader actions influence employee job attitudes and behaviors.

Leaders can affect employee mood and emotions by their leadership styles, by their own affective states via emotional contagion, as well as by the nature of leader-follower interactions (e.g. Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007). Specific leadership styles are more effective in shaping employees' emotional experiences. For instance, transformational and charismatic leadership theories (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger &

Kanungo, 1998) have revealed positive emotional links between leaders and followers. Through charismatic leadership style, leaders can inspire positive emotions in followers by bringing up a common vision usually through inspirational communication (e.g. Friedman, Riggio & Casella, 1988; Shamir, Arthur, & House, 1994). Similarly, transformational leaders are skilled in energizing followers to emotionally engage and contribute to high-quality LMX relationships (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000). In addition to direct leader behaviors, leaders' own positive emotions may also affect employees' emotional outcomes through the process of emotional contagion (e.g. Bono & Illies, 2006; Sy, Co'te & Saavedra, 2005). Lazarus (2000) claims that emotions stem from social interactions and these social interactions are central part of leadership process. Therefore, affect and emotions are an important part of leader–member interactions, as well as consequential follower outcomes (Gooty et al., 2010).

While favorable leader behaviors play a role in evoking positive follower affect and related organizational outcomes, unfavorable leader behaviors may negatively impact follower affect and outcomes. Some of unfavorable leader behaviors that have negative impact on followers include abusive supervision, injustice in leadership and lower quality exchange relationships (Gooty et al., 2010). Empirical research showed that undesirable leader behaviors have direct influence on negative employee emotions. For instance; Fitness (2000) found that unfair treatment by supervisors was a key source of employee anger. Likewise, abusive supervisors are expected to elicit frustration, anxiety, and anger (Tepper, 2000). Glaso and Einarsen (2006) found that out of four experienced affect related factor within supervisor–subordinate relationship, three of them were negative (i.e., frustration, violation, and uncertainty). Research by Miner, Glomb & Hulin (2005) also showed that while employees rated 80% of their

interactions with their supervisors as positive, they rated 20% of their interactions as negative, but with a 5 times stronger effect on employee mood than positive ones. The result of their study clearly shows that effect of negative interactions with supervisors is much more influential than positive ones on employee mood. Similarly, Dasborough (2006) exhibited that subordinates recall negative affective events involving their leaders more than positive ones, as well as more negative emotions compared to positive ones, which confirms the existence of affective asymmetry in employee reactions to leadership behaviors.

Cognition and Emotion

Kanfer and Klimoski (2002) claim that affect pervades organizational life by being a key psychological driver of our cognitions (i.e. thoughts), motivation and behavior.

According to the literature, one of the potential mechanisms for the differential influences of discrete emotions depends on underlying cognitive appraisal dynamics (Frijda, 1993; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1991; Siemer, Mauss & Gross, 2007). In order to understand the process underlying discrete emotions; such as, anger, jealousy, envy and others within organizational life, it is important to recognize the role of cognitions since there are almost constant interactions between cognition and emotion in everyday life.

In fact, there are two different perspectives in the psychology literature about the relationship between emotion and cognition. In one perspective, cognition or appraisal occurs before the emotion (Lazarus, 1982), while in the other view emotion occurs without conscious thought (Izard, 1993; Zajonc, 1980). While in specific situations, such

as those involving attack or threat to one's personal survival, emotions can occur instantly, without conscious thought or awareness (Plotnik & Kouyoumdjian, 2011, p. 361). For instance; when a person is suddenly attacked by a mugger at a dark street, the feeling of fear will be instant, without conscious thought or appraisal. On the other hand, in situations that involve personal relationships such as problems at work, family memories or terrible tragedies, thoughts precede and result in emotional feelings (Plotnik & Kouyoumdjian, 2011, p. 361). Accordingly, cognitive appraisals function as interpretations of affective events which in turn trigger the emotional experience, so they become fundamentally important in determining emotional incident. Since organizational life is one of the main environments for frequent interpersonal relationships, cognitive appraisals are expected to lead emotional experiences.

The Cognitive Appraisal Theory, which was originally introduced by Lazarus (1982, 1991) and developed further by many other appraisal theorists (e.g. Smith and Kirby, 2001; Smith and Lazarus, 1993), asserts that emotions are based on how an individual perceives a particular situation. In other words, emotions are associated with distinct appraisal patterns. If an individual responds to the same incident with a different emotion than another person, then he/she must have appraised the situation in a different way than the other person. Siemer and colleagues (2007) empirically proved this assertion by showing that different individual emotional response profiles require distinct appraisal patterns, and they also confirmed that similar emotional response profiles are associated with similar appraisal profiles among individuals.

Although there are different explanations for the process of appraisals, theorists of the area agree on two distinct appraisal stages, which are primary and secondary appraisals (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Primary appraisal involves assessment of an incident as being harmful or beneficial to one's well-being, goals and/or values, with that process leading to the consideration of a state affect as pleasant or unpleasant. Subsequently, secondary appraisal includes examination of the context and assigning meaning to the incident, as well as consideration for options and prospects for coping, all collectively leading to specific discrete emotions (Lazarus, 1991). Through these appraisal processes, involuntary and unconscious emotional reactions become sentient to individuals. Being aware of emotional responses, individuals develop *feelings* (e.g. worry, boredom) that further mark their emotional experience. In other words, *feelings are positive or negative evaluations of the attitude object or one's current condition* (McShane & Steen, 2009, p.101, p. 120; Russell, 2003, p. 148).

According to Lazarus (1991) negative emotions occur when individuals experience an event that has an outcome of a disruption or breach to their expectations, which serves as the primary appraisal. Then, by building on this initial appraisal they judge the event for assigning an affective meaning to it, which is considered as the secondary appraisal. Therefore, outcome favorability or unfavorability is the main driving force behind the initiation of appraisal processes (Lazarus, 1991). According to Folger and Cropanzano (2001) all of the three justice considerations, namely, distributive justice (outcome considerations), procedural justice (procedure considerations) and interactional justice (mainly supervisor treatment considerations), can result from physical or psychological outcome expectations of individuals so that the violation of either of the justice considerations would initiate the primary appraisal stage. According to Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001), distributive justice is only effective in the initial stage of appraisals due to its emphasis merely on outcomes, while

procedural justice and interactional justice can be considered both in the primary or secondary appraisals since they act both as outcomes by their own right and as evaluation criteria and a source of information in assessing the affective meaning of outcomes (Barclay et al., 2005, p. 631).

In this thesis, relative deprivation feeling will be examined as one of a possible cognitive and affective process through which employees perceive and appraise their absolute and/or relative LMX relationships within their work groups; as well as assess and realize the affecting meaning of these relationships for themselves through the inherent justice considerations within these evaluations.

Relative Deprivation Feeling

The concept of relative deprivation is used to describe the feelings of resentment stemming from the belief that one is deprived of a deserved outcome relative to some referent level (Crosby, 1976). Although the relative deprivation term has not been explicitly referred in social psychology up until 19th century, the concept of relative deprivation has been known since 18th century from the assertions of macro level economical theories by Adam Smith (1776) exhibited in his book “Wealth of Nations”, and by Karl Marx (1847) explained in his book” Wage, Labor and Capital”. The importance of the concept of being relatively deprived has been explicitly mentioned by Marx (1847) by his following famous quotation:

A house may be large or small; as long as the surrounding houses are equally small it satisfies all social demands for a dwelling. But, let a palace arise beside the little house, and it shrinks from a little house to a hut. The little house now

makes it clear that its inmate has no social position at all to maintain (excerpted in Freedman, 1968, p.163-164).

The idea that people compare themselves with their peers and neighbors rather than with the whole society was examined by economical theories in macro level terms since 1800s. On the other hand, starting with World War II, in micro level relative deprivation was theorized in social psychology. The research group composed of Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star and Williams (1949) introduced the term “relative deprivation” for the first time in their famous study on American soldiers. The result of their study showed that in some situations soldiers’ *objective* better-off situations were actually seen as *subjectively* worse-off situations due to comparisons with referent groups.

Indeed, previous literature had shown that people have a tendency to spontaneously compare themselves with other people (Hyman, 1942; Morse and Gergen, 1970) and mostly with the ones in their immediate environment or primary groups (Festinger, 1954). Stouffer and colleagues (1949) enlarged the scope of this assertion by showing that feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one’s outcomes depend more on subjective standards, such as the level of outcomes obtained by main comparison persons, than on physical reality (Olson and Hazlewood, 1986). As one of the main contributors of the relative deprivation theory, Crosby (1976) explained the importance of the notion of the relativity by referring to the following phrase; “The richer one becomes, the poorer one feels” (p. 86).

Moreover, Crosby (1976) pointed out that deprivation is experienced in relative terms with her following quote:

Deprivation is relative, not absolute. People feel unjustly treated or inadequately compensated when they compare themselves to some standard of reference. Because deprivation is relative, it is often true that those who are the most deprived in an objective sense are not the ones most likely to experience deprivation (p. 85).

As a follow up to Stouffer and colleagues' study, Merton and Rossi (1957) developed a more formal model of reference group. These studies became the base for subsequent and comprehensive theoretical developments of relative deprivation. All the contributors to the development of formal theoretical frameworks of relative deprivation commonly agree that relative deprivation involves a perceived negative discrepancy between one's own position and some referent others' position, as well as a feeling of discontent; together which assumed to motivate attitudes and behaviors of individuals (Olson & Hafer, 1996). In this respect, relative deprivation is referred to have two components, which are a "cold" (cognitive) component standing for the perception of deprivation, and a "hot" (affective and motivational) component showing the emotion of discontent (Olson & Hafer, 1996). However, consecutive contributions from the theorists differ in their emphasis on these cognitive versus affective components in defining and operationalizing relative deprivation.

Building on the findings of Stouffer and colleagues (1949), the first formal theory of relative deprivation was developed by Davis (1959). His theory was built on the rationale that a person who lacks a desired good or opportunity (X) experiences *a sense of injustice* whenever this person perceives that similar others possess X. In this respect, according to Davis (1959) there are three determinants that are necessary for a person lacking X to feel deprivation, which are: 1) perceive that similar other has X; 2) want X; and 3) feel entitled to X.

Following Davis, Runciman (1966) introduced his version of relative deprivation theory. In Runciman's theory, in addition to Davis's three determinants, the perception about the feasibility of obtaining X was added as a fourth element. According to Runciman (1966) the degree of felt deprivation is not the same thing as the perceived

size of discrepancy between what an individual thinks he ought to have and what he does have. In other words, an individual can perceive a large discrepancy between ought and is and yet not feel much resentment about it. Another important contribution of Runciman (1966) to the theorization of relative deprivation was his differentiation among relative deprivation stemming from individual comparisons of outcomes, and relative deprivation stemming from group-level social comparisons of outcomes. He introduced three relative deprivation concepts: egoistical (personal) relative deprivation, fraternal (group) relative deprivation, and double deprivation (both personal and group). While egoistical deprivation occurs when an individual compares himself to others in their comparison group, fraternal deprivation occurs when an individual compares his/her own reference group to other groups.

The following theory on relative deprivation came from Gurr (1970) who claimed that relative deprivation exists when perceived feasibility of obtaining X is low. Moreover, Gurr (1970) introduced three patterns of deprivation - aspirational deprivation, decremental deprivation, and progressive deprivation; depending on the distinctive movements of value expectations and value capabilities.

Most influential contribution to the relative deprivation theory came from Crosby (1976) who introduced her version of relative deprivation model named "Egoistical Relative Deprivation". According to this theory, an individual will experience deprivation when there is lack of personal responsibility in addition to the four conditions that was specified by Runciman. Crosby (1976, 1979) clearly defined the concept of relative deprivation as an emotion not simply as a perception; and used felt deprivation to mean one type of anger which is synonymous with a feeling of resentment

or sense of grievance. Crosby's (1976) definition of relevant emotional experience about relative deprivation is as follows:

The emotion of relative deprivation is one type of anger, defined by Webster's dictionary as "a strong feeling of displeasure and usually of antagonism." The emotion of relative deprivation can be called "a sense of grievance" or of resentment, the latter of which Webster identifies as "a feeling of indignant displeasure at something regarded as a wrong, insult, or injury (p.88).

Crosby's (1976) "Egoistical Relative Deprivation" model, which focus on *personal relative deprivation*, is comprised of four different segments including determinants, preconditions, mediating variables and resultant behaviors composed around emotion of felt deprivation. While determinants and preconditions precede felt deprivation, mediating variables and resultant behaviors follow the emotion of deprivation.

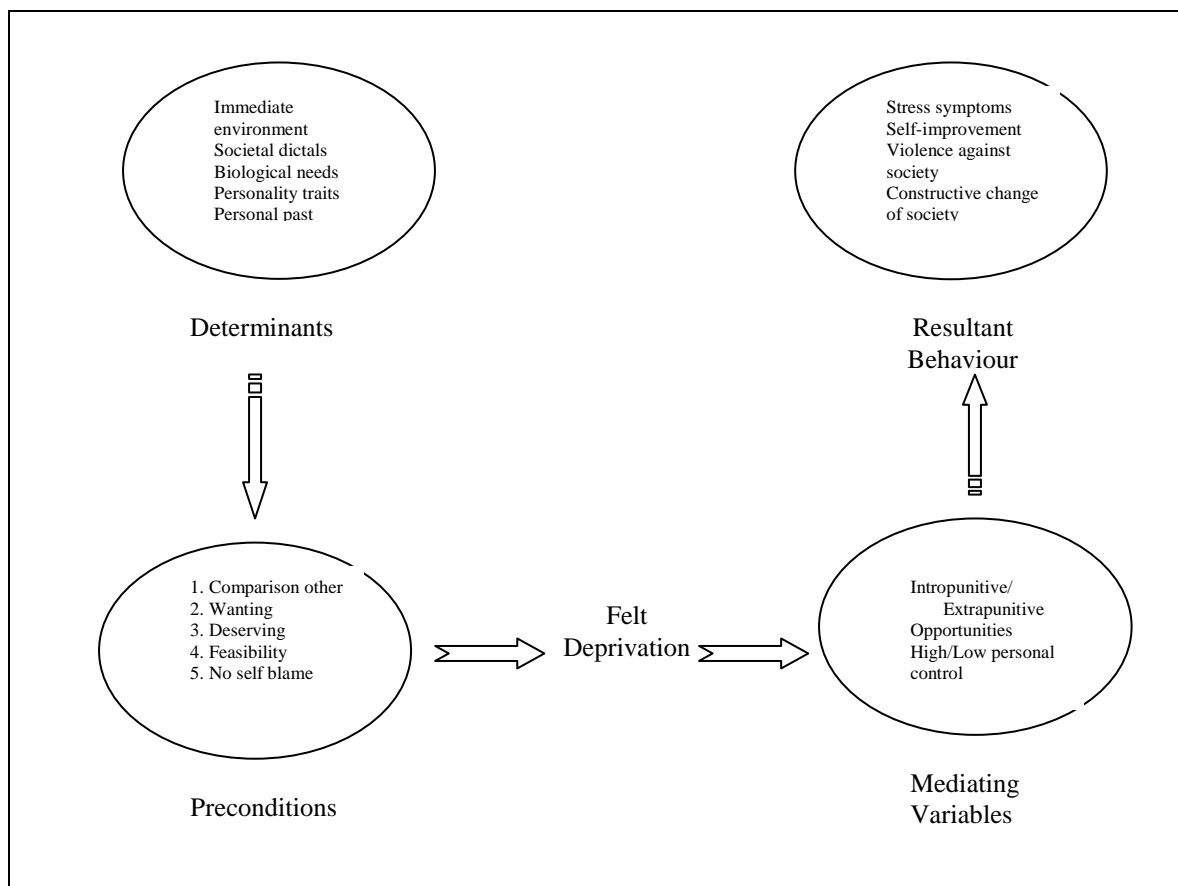


Figure 1. Crosby's Egoistical Relative Deprivation Model- adapted from Crosby (1976)

Figure 1 shows the items of each four segments, as well as the relationship between these segments of the model. As can be seen from Figure 1, Crosby`s (1976) model of egoistical relative deprivation demonstrates felt deprivation as part of a chain of variables including 1) environmental antecedents, 2) preconditions, 3) felt deprivation, 4) mediating variables and 5) resultant behaviors. Crosby (1979) claimed that the relationship between preconditions of deprivation and felt deprivation are at the core of the model (p. 73). According to this model, while all of the determinants except society`s preconditions are thought to influence various preconditions of relative deprivation; the role of mediating variables is to specify the contingencies by which felt deprivation is translated into various resultant behaviors. Similar to Runciman (1966), Crosby`s relative deprivation theory includes future expectations as well as present conditions as possible contingencies (Crosby, 1979, p.108).

According to Crosby (1976), preconditions are the essential elements of relative deprivation (p. 90). In her model, she specified five preconditions, taken together represent the sufficient and the necessary preconditions of feelings of deprivation. More specifically, her model asserted that a person who lack some object or opportunity (X) must: 1) perceive that someone possesses X; 2) want X; 3) feel entitled to X; 4) think it is feasible to attain X; and 5) refuse personal responsibility for current failure to possess X in order to feel relative deprivation.

However, in subsequent refinements to the theory, Crosby (1982) proposed a simplification in her model of deprivation. From a complex model with many hypothesized preconditions, she moved to a model (1982) which takes 1) wanting X and 2) deserving X as the essential parts of the model. Crosby (1984) claimed that experimental studies and survey results showed that comparisons and expectations can

increase or decrease feelings of resentment once these feelings exist, but the essential parts of the model are *wanting* and *deserving*, through which deprivation varies as a function (p. 67). In this simplified version, self-blame is excluded from the model altogether. The two-factor model of Crosby's (1984) relative deprivation model conditions that preconditions of wanting X and deserving X designate whether the relative deprivation is felt or not, since without these preconditions although an individual can perceive a large discrepancy between ought and is, he/she yet not feel much resentment about it.

Researchers of the area, in their subsequent studies, in general agree that relative deprivation occurs when individuals lack an outcome/opportunity, want it, feel entitled to it and perceive that referent others receive it (Feldman and Turnley, 2004; Folger and Martin, 1986).

A following contribution to the relative deprivation framework of Crosby (1976, 1982) came from Folger (1986) by his "Referent Cognitions Theory". Folger (1986, 1987) suggested that individuals become aware of alternatives to their current state of affairs by mental simulations (i.e. "referent cognitions"). By his theory, Folger introduced three cognitive preconditions triggering emotional outcome of resentment when there is an unfavorable discrepancy among actual state and referent outcome. According to Folger (1986, 1987), resentment depends on whether one is able to imagine better outcomes, whether there is low likelihood of enhancement for these better outcomes, and whether more fair procedures might have led to these better outcomes. Folger (1986) stated that he is specifically interested in the sense of injustice rather than mere discontent (p. 35) in his theory; and that is why in his framework he has used

“resentment” as a convenient shorthand expression parallel to Crosby’s lead using this term (p. 34).

It is important to notice that there are some similarities and intersection points between relative deprivation theory and some other theories. For instance, both relative deprivation and social comparison concepts refer to the use of other people for the assessment of oneself, which results in having some emotional implications rather than providing simple objective information (Olson and Hazlewood, 1986). As proposed by Festinger (1954) in social comparisons, whenever possible, perceivers use `physical reality` to evaluate opinions and abilities; but in the absence of objective physical standards they are motivated to evaluate themselves against similar others. In relative deprivation, rather than physical reality, social comparisons of outcomes always become the focal point (Olson and Hazlewood, 1986, p. 11). Olson and Hazlewood (1986) commented on the relationship between these two concepts and stated that:

Relative deprivation refers to one consequence of social comparison processes – resentment- that results from unfavorable comparisons of one’s own outcomes with the outcomes of referent others (p.10).

Social comparisons of outcomes may often be a secondary response to one’s failure to physically obtain a desired object.....do other individuals who are similar to myself possess the object? (p. 11).

Another similarity exists between relative deprivation theory and organizational justice theories, specifically with Adams’s (1965) Equity theory. Organizational justice studies mainly focus on employees' perceptions of whether they are being treated fairly or unfairly within their organizations (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001); and in particular equity theory examines employee perceptions of fairness through the comparison of outcome-to-input ratios for

oneself versus one's coworkers (Adams, 1965; Carrell & Dittrich, 1978). In a similar manner, relative deprivation occurs when individuals compare the outcomes or opportunities received by referent others to what they want and feel entitled to (Crosby, 1976). Thus, both equity theory and relative deprivation theory use social comparison as the theoretical mechanism in their conceptualizations. The difference in perspectives of those two theories are explained by Colquitt (2004) by pointing that; while relative deprivation theory (Crosby, 1984) suggests that individuals react to subjective realities based on their perceptions rather than objective realities in basing their injustice considerations through social comparisons; equity theory (Adams, 1965) on the other hand, asserts that individuals do not react just to their own ratios of outcomes to contributions but also compare their ratios of outcome to contributions to others (p.634). As explained by Martin (1981), in relative deprivation both similar and upward dissimilar comparisons are effective in revealing injustice considerations, whereas equity researchers detect feelings of inequity with comparisons mostly to similar referents since comparisons with upward, dissimilar referents do not cause feelings of inequity due to possible justifications; for example, assuming that the upward referents' higher earnings (output) are due to their higher education (input). A more incorporative view about the relationship between relative deprivation and justice theories came from Crosby (1976) who claimed that; "...by definition, the sense of injustice is a part of relative deprivation" (p. 91). In support of this assertion, Crosby and Gonzales-Intal (1984) further explained their view about the relationship between relative deprivation and equity theories by their following quotes:

Our own position is that relative deprivation is a state experienced by the victim of inequity (p. 142).

There are some commonalities between equity theory and relative deprivation theory in their approaches to felt injustice; however, differences in their hypothesized preconditions as well as being developed in different disciplines lead to a lack of interactions among these theories. Crosby and Gonzales-Intal (1984) point to the difference in the origins of these two theories;

Equity theory has grown primarily in the social psychological literature from the work of Homans (1961) and Adams (1965) and has been largely investigated in the context of behavior involving monetary exchanges. Relative deprivation theory, in contrast, evolved in the sociological and political science literature from the work of Davis (1959), Runciman (1966), and Gurr (1970) and has been applied to group- and societal-level phenomena such as worker (dis)satisfaction (p. 142).

In addition to the above mentioned differences between equity theory and relative deprivation, Martin (1981) points to the fact that these two theoretical perspectives differ primarily in their emphasis on the type of motivations for behavior. He claims that while relative deprivation has more influence on outcome based behavioral reconstruction, equity theory has more emphasis on input related behavioral changes. Martin (1981) explains this situation as follows:

If a comparison causes discontent, relative deprivation emphasizes changes in outcomes which reduce or exacerbate the discontent. . . ., equity emphasizes changes in inputs which could justify the inequality in outcomes (p. 97).

Effects of Relative Deprivation on Major Employee Outcomes

Research show that relative deprivation is associated usually with negative attitudes and behaviors at micro, meso and macro levels (Crosby, 1976, 1984; Lee and Martin, 1991; Martin, 1981; Feldman and Turnley, 2004; Buunk and Janssen, 1992; Feldman, Leana and Bolino, 2002; Mark and Folger, 1984). Research has shown that within

organizational life employees' relative deprivation feeling affect their job satisfaction (e.g. Lee & Martin, 1991), dissatisfaction with pay and career prospects (e.g. Buunk & Jansen, 1992), in-role performance (e.g. Williams & Anderson, 1991), organizational citizenship behavior (Feldman & Turnley, 2004), and withdrawal and counterproductive work behaviors (Toh & Denisi, 2003). In a special reference to LMX relationship, Bolino and Turnley (2009) proposed that employees usually respond negatively to feelings of relative deprivation which are most likely to occur when an employee perceives to be in a low quality LMX relationship.

As one of an example for empirical studies investigating organizational level outcomes of relative deprivation, research of Feldman and colleagues showed that relative deprivation was associated with lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment among adjunct faculty (Feldman and Turnley, 2004), and re-employed executives (Feldman, Leana and Bolino, 2002). These researchers proved that within their sample even after controlling for the level of objective job rewards (e.g., salary) and objective working conditions (e.g., working hours), every time relative deprivation was negatively related to career attitudes and job behaviors.

While studies show that relative deprivation is mostly associated with negative outcomes, there are some few studies which reveal that depending on circumstances employees may also respond constructively rather than negatively to such feelings (Martin, 1981; Crosby, 1976; Crosby, 1984; Mark and Folger, 1984; Martin, 1981; Bolino and Turnley, 2009). Even though happens occasionally, those positive reactions towards relative deprivation feeling mostly depends on the optimistic belief of employees that their situation can change, and so they pursue self-improvement or constructive change to improve their current situations (Bolino and Turnley, 2009).

Cognitive and Affective Components of Relative Deprivation

According to the Appraisal Theory (e.g. Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1982; Ortony et al., 1988; Roseman, 1991), emotions are brought out through cognitive appraisals of events and situations. By their multi-componential formation, emotions are conceptualized as complex syndromes integrating cognitions, physiological reactions, expressions, subjective feelings, and behavioral tendencies (Russell, 2003). In the context of ongoing activity, appraisals and emotions also interact with each other (Frijda & Zeelenberg, 2001).

At the personal level, relative deprivation refers to the recognition and the associated feeling that accompany the perception that one is deprived with respect to some comparison dimension. Although there are different conceptualizations of relative deprivation through different theoretical frameworks (e.g. Crosby, 1976; Davies, 1962; Gurr, 1970; Runciman, 1966), according to all of them, on the condition of being felt, relative deprivation reflects an emotion as well as a cognition. Crosby (1976) explicitly defines the concept of relative deprivation as an emotion, not simply as a perception (p. 88). Similarly, Runciman (1966) describes relative deprivation as a feeling of envy and a perception of injustice (p. 10). Likewise, Smith and Ortiz (2002) conceptualize affect as an integral part of relative deprivation and define relative deprivation as “*the belief that you are worse off compared to another person coupled with feelings of anger and resentment*” (p. 94). Reinforcing this view, Pettigrew (2002) asserts that affect is a core ingredient of relative deprivation, and it is not simply a mediator of the effects of cognition of relative deprivation (p. 356).

Cognitive component of relative deprivation refers to the recognition of deprivation, while affective component refers to the feelings associated with this recognition; usually described as frustration, dissatisfaction, disappointment, and anger. Crosby (1976) claims that sense of injustice is part of relative deprivation (p.91). While the cognitive component reflects sense of injustice through social comparisons, the affective component indicates the feelings of resentment after social comparisons (Tougas, Lagace, Sablonniere and Kocum, 2004).

Some of the theorists, for example Runciman (1966), have explicitly acknowledge the distinction of cognitive relative deprivation and affective relative deprivation; while some others prefer to highlight on one or the other component of relative deprivation, but still investigate the nested functioning and effects of these two components in their research. For example, Crosby (1976) focuses more on the affective component, and integrates the cognitive component within her 'preconditions' of relative deprivation conceptualization. According to Crosby (1976, 1979) relative deprivation is an emotion with a sense of grievance and of resentment; and that it can only be felt if there is recognition of being deprived of something that one wants and deserves and that leads injustice considerations through the process of social comparisons. *Felt emotions* are explained in the literature as individuals' actual emotions (Robbins & Judge, p. 295). In this respect, we can infer that the concept of felt deprivation in Crosby's model refers to the actual emotion of the individual recognized through an appraisal process.

Runciman (1966) stated that the degree of felt deprivation is not the same thing as the perceived size of discrepancy between what an individual thinks he ought to have and what he does have. In other words, an individual can perceive a large discrepancy

between ought and is and yet not feel much resentment about it (Crosby, 1976, p.90). It is obvious that even if cognition of deprivation is a prerequisite, it is not sufficient for a feeling of deprivation (Greenberg, 1984). The research shows that both cognition of injustice and feeling of relative deprivation together may more directly initiate behavioral outcomes (Mark & Folger, 1984; Deutsch & Steil, 1988). As a reference in support of this finding, some fraternal deprivation studies reveal that felt deprivation is more important for groups to engage in protest actions compared to mere cognitions (Guimond & Dube-Simard, 1983; De la Rey & Raju, 1996; Wright & Tropp, 2002).

Although the magnitude of the perceived discrepancy (i.e. cognition of relative deprivation) would have an effect on the intensity of the associated feeling (i.e. felt deprivation), intensity of the emotional component would not only be contingent on the magnitudes of cognitions, but also on possible mediating or moderating factors that may include individual differences (Mikula, 1984; Mikula, Scherer, & Athenstaedt, 1998). Effects of possible moderators on relative deprivation feeling and their associated effects on employee attitudes and behaviors are going to be examined in this thesis as a part of the conceptual model.

In line with different conceptualizations of relative deprivation in literature (e.g. Crosby, 1976; Davies, 1962; Gurr, 1970; Runciman, 1966), there are diverse empirical studies which have used either cognitive measures of relative deprivation, affective measures, or a measure that incorporates both affective and cognitive components of relative deprivation (please refer to Olson & Hafer (1996) for detailed explanations). In this study, relative deprivation refers to both cognition and emotion, which results from a cognitive evaluation process as well as a feeling that is an emotional human response,

rather than just an explanatory construct, which may also used to refer relative deprivation in some of the studies in extant literature.

In this thesis, conceptualization of personal relative deprivation is taken as actual emotions of individuals resulting from cognitive appraisals of justice considerations through comparisons with referent others. Accordingly, in this study, relative deprivation is measured by the scale developed by Tougas and colleagues (2004) which is an adaptation of personal relative deprivation scales previously used by Tougas, Beaton and Veilleux, (1991). In this 8-item scale, four items separately measure cognitive component of relative deprivation and the other four items measure affective component. Then, each cognitive and affective item is combined as a one average item yielding a total of four variables to determine relative deprivation.

Relative Deprivation and Discrete Emotions

Within emotion literature, relative deprivation is considered as one of a group of related emotions (e.g. envy, shame, jealousy, relative deprivation and indignation) which are all characterized by negative affective reactions to the superior fortunes of others (e.g. Heider, 1958; Ortony et al., 1988, Smith & Kim, 2007, p. 47). However, relative deprivation differs from the above mentioned emotions by its amalgamation of justice evaluations explicitly in its conceptualization. In contrast to relative deprivation, existence of negative emotions including envy, shame, jealousy, and indignation do not necessarily depend on the perception of injustice as an essential precondition (e.g. Kim et al., 2010). For instance, research on envy reveal that depending on the person and context, even without any social support for the perceived unfairness, people still could

feel envy based just on discontent of not having the possession that others have (Bedeian, 1995; Cohen et al., 2007). In this respect, research investigating those other negative emotions (e.g. envy etc.) other than relative deprivation may need to depict cognitive appraisals of injustice separately from the measurement of the emotion itself in case there is a specific interest in justice evaluations.

On the other hand, depending on the circumstances, there may be a consecutive relationship between relative deprivation and those other negative emotions. For instance, the initial and rather disperse feeling of relative deprivation may further trigger some specific emotional expressions (e.g., anger, fear etc.) that may reinforce and/or distillate the effects of relative deprivation feeling by shaping how individuals respond (e.g., Mikula, 1986; Osborne, Smith, & Huo, 2012). In their empirical study, Osborne and colleagues (2012) showed that relative deprivation feeling based on involuntary based pay reductions (i.e., furlough) among some university faculty triggered four discrete emotions of either fear, anger, sadness or gratefulness, which then result in four distinct behavioral responses; namely, exit, voice, neglect and loyalty.

Social Comparison in Relative Deprivation

Social comparison theory claims that since people are motivated to determine the correctness of their opinions and to achieve accurate appraisals of their abilities, they usually make comparisons; however, in the absence of objective physical standards for these comparisons, they are motivated to evaluate themselves against similar others (Festinger, 1954). It is observable that social comparisons are embedded deeply within different aspects of social interactions in organizational life, and so they have cognitive,

affective and behavioral outcomes relevant both for individuals and organizations (Greenberg et al., 2007).

Social comparison is the key theoretical mechanism in the recognition and development of relative deprivation feeling (e.g. Martin, 1981; Pettigrew, 2002). Within relative deprivation conceptualizations in literature, justice appraisals are taken inherently as a part of relative deprivation feeling (e.g., Crosby, 1976). Indeed integration of the conceptualizations of justice and relative deprivation theories is rooted in their common usage of social comparisons as their main theoretical mechanism. For instance; when people judge how fairly they are treated, they usually compare their position to that of others concerning either for perceived fairness of the distribution of outcomes (distributive justice), or perceived fairness of the procedures used to determine those outcomes (procedural justice), or perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment used to explain procedures and outcomes (interactional justice) (e.g. Colquitt et al., 2005). Similarly, relative deprivation is often experienced by comparing the treatments, opportunities or outcomes that an individual receives to those received by others in his/her reference group (Crosby, 1976). In that sense, both theories point to the existence of possible comparative standards contingent to different fairness considerations. Existence of justice considerations within relative deprivation feeling has been validated by the theorists who have fundamental contributions to the relative deprivation theory. For instance; Crosby (1976) claims that the sense of injustice by definition is a part of relative deprivation (p. 91). The two-factor model of Crosby's (1976, 1984) relative deprivation model conditions that both of the two preconditions, namely wanting X and deserving X, need to be validated for relative deprivation to be felt. While the precondition of wanting is motivational in nature, the other precondition of entitlement

is cognitive in nature (Olson & Hafer, 1996). When one perceives that he/she deserves something because of the perception that he/she has validated the necessary conditions for entitlement, this perception may confirm possible justice considerations upon social comparisons. Based on this view, we may conclude that when relative deprivation is felt, the perception of injustice becomes part of it. Similar to Crosby's point of view, some other theorists also make parallel assertions. Runchiman (1966) describes relative deprivation both as a perception of injustice and a feeling of envy (p. 10). Martin (1981) argues that operationalization of relative deprivation incorporates dissatisfaction and the perception of injustice. Tougas and colleagues (2004) inform that justice considerations are reflected by cognitive component of relative deprivation through appraisals of social comparisons. Based on these assertions we may infer that justice evaluations inherently incorporated to the measures of relative deprivation within its cognitive component.

The role of perceived injustice in relative deprivation is explicitly stated firstly by Folger (1986) by his Referent Cognitions Theory (Leach, 2008). He suggests that an unfavorable discrepancy among an actual state and referent outcomes, which is obtained through comparing an actual outcome with cognitively simulated possible alternatives, would only produce resentment if an individual can visualize that better outcomes are possible, but the likelihood of achieving those better outcomes for the individual are low; and in fact, he/she would not have lacked of them if there had been more procedural justice. Therefore, Folger (1986) explicitly expressed fairness considerations as precondition for feeling resentment within relative deprivation.

From the justice perspective, relative deprivation may also be defined as a cognitive and affective response of an individual revealed by an evaluation process, and felt only when one believes his/her actual reward does not match to what he/she

perceives as the “*just reward*”. The perception of a just reward, conditional to “feeling entitled” (Crosby, 1976), is derived from comparisons with a variety of referents (e.g. Martin, 1981). Based on different fairness considerations, there can be different perceptions of just rewards derived from different comparative standards. Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) assert that, in general, while procedural fairness is inferred relative to a theoretical standard, distributive justice is inferred to a referent standard (p. 136). Moreover, within different distributive justice rules, there may be different conceptualizations of just reward. For instance, in “*equity*” based justice considerations, there is an investment-related perception of just reward (Adams, 1965; Homans, 1961; Morisson, 1973). However, in “*equality*” conception of justice, people may feel entitled to an equal share of social rewards as everyone else, such that anything less may be seen as unfair (Rawls, 1971; Sampson, 1975). On the other hand, in the “*need based*” justice considerations perceptions of just reward is dependent solely on what the individual needs (Mark & Cook, 1979, Schwarz, 1975; Schwinger, 1986).

Providing support from literature, Dar and Resh (2001) claim that in most cases perceptions of just reward draw from a repertoire of justice principles from which one selects a weighted combination in accordance with the specific reward and situation of allocation (p. 64). On the other hand, it is evident by research in extant literature that individuals can choose different comparative referents for the evaluation of their relative standings for outcomes or categories of their concern (Martin, 1981). While equity, equality, and need-based justice considerations may be applicable in different situations, in the case of relative deprivation, it is the individual him/herself who would decide on his/her own comparison rule. Within the occurrence of relative deprivation feeling, there can be different comparative referents to which one would compare him/herself with, so

that he/she would specify his/her perceived just reward. Consequently, relative deprivation is experienced when there is a perception of unjust discrepancy between the individual's "*perceived reward*" and the individual's "*supposed just reward*" (e.g. Davis, 1959; Runciman, 1966; Gurr, 1970; Crosby, 1976; Martin, 1981).

Comparative Referents in Relative Deprivation

There are some theoretical thinking and research that has attempted to define comparative referents and the processes underlying their selection and use within relative deprivation framework (e.g. Martin, 1981). In general, studies in social comparison have demonstrated conclusively that people prefer to make similar rather than dissimilar comparisons; however, when the outcomes being compared are valued, then people mostly prefer to make upward rather than downward comparisons (Festinger, 1954; Suls & Miller, 1977). This preference for upward comparison is significant to relative deprivation theory, since relative deprivation focuses mainly on valued outcomes for individuals, such that lack of having these outcomes compared to referent others leads to the feeling of resentment. In the extant literature, the most frequently reported comparative referents for egoistical (personal) relative deprivation include "*ideal standards*" and "*upward similar*" comparisons especially for assessing the fairness issues within job situations (e.g. Feldman & Turnley, 2004). Moreover, for the selection of comparative referents from, coworkers are identified as more than a convenient population, since they are fruitful sources of social information for individuals within organizational life (Kulik & Ambrose, 1992).

According to Martin (1981) in order to understand the reasons for a feeling of deprivation one must understand “*what comparison is being made*” (p. 61). Actually, different comparative referents may both lead to relative deprivation feeling; for example, both comparisons to a similar referent or to an upward dissimilar referent can cause feeling of relative deprivation. However, the choice of similar, or dissimilar, or both similar and dissimilar ones as comparative referents would reflect a difference in the concerns of the comparer. Indeed, different comparisons to different reference categories can be made at the same time and deprivations arising from these comparisons are not mutually exclusive (Form & Geschwender, 1962; Martin, 1981). Due to the dynamic structure of social comparison processes, people may quickly shift from one comparison referent to another, sometimes even being unconscious about these shifts. In this respect, it is somehow impossible to define relative deprivation in terms of every possible comparison referent. For that reason, during the measurement of relative deprivation, if possible allowing respondents to specify their own comparison referents which they think most relevant on the specified comparison dimension of interest might be much more efficient than letting researchers to specify and dictate specific comparison referents for respondents.

Depending on the above assertions from literature, we infer can that in the existence of relative deprivation feeling there may be some alternative comparative referents that can be selected by individual depending on his/her own concern. Accordingly, it is possible for an individual to compare him/herself to an ideal standard, or to a similar or upward dissimilar person or some bunch of people, moreover, it is also possible that an individual may prefer to compare his/her status within the referent group by evaluating where he/she stands relative to the whole group. When an employee gives

special importance to the answer of the following question; “Where do I stand relative to my colleagues in my team in terms of X?, this individual’s associated assessment of his/her “*relative standing*”/”*relative ranking*” within the whole group of his/her interest may possibly invoke relative deprivation feeling.

In addition to the above arguments, Smith, Spears and Oyen (1994) assert that an individual’s specific point of view about him/herself may also have an effect on his/her choices of comparison referents. For instance, while there is a tendency among individualistic people to compare themselves to other people, on the contrary, people who feel strong sense of in-group identity, i.e. collectivist people, prefer to make group level comparisons by comparing their group to other groups rather than comparing themselves to some other people within that group. Moreover, Brickman and Bulman (1977) claim that a person may also choose not to engage in any social comparison at all, especially when he/she anticipates that social comparisons would have unfavorable outcomes for that person in terms of the undesirable information he/she would be exposed to after making such a comparison (p. 159).

Role of Perceptions in Relative Deprivation Feeling

Relative deprivation conceives a subjective state that shapes emotions, cognitions, and behavior (Smith, Pettigrew, Pippin, Bialosiewicz, 2012, p. 203). This subjective state is derived from individuals’ social comparisons based on their perceptions rather than physical realities. In the literature, Runchiman (1966) made an important assessment regarding the complicated structure of comparison processes within relative deprivation feeling, and highlighted the role of “*perceptions*” in its occurrence. According to

Runchiman (1966), the absence of accurate comparison information does not prevent social comparisons or development of relative deprivation feeling since individuals can also make perception based inferences. In other words, people do not necessarily know the objective reality of a particular referent, but may use their own perception of the referent's status for comparison purposes. Runchiman (1966) stated that:

Relative deprivation means that the sense of deprivation is such as to involve a comparison with the imagined situation of some other person or group (p. 11).

Indeed, some researchers even claim that comparisons to the perceived status of others could lead to stronger feelings of relative deprivation, compared to the situation in which objective information is actually known (e.g. Lawler, 1981; Runchiman, 1966; Mahoney & Weitzel, 1978). Therefore, individual's own perception of the situation, which may or may not reflect the actual state, is more important than anything else in individual's relative deprivation feeling. When it is about one's own emotions, it is all about his/her own perceptions that matters most. In fact, it is individual's own perceptions of his/her situation and that of comparative referent's situation which are compared, and eventually, the result of this perception based evaluation is what leads to individual's relative deprivation feeling. Therefore, in this thesis while investigating the possible effects of absolute and relative LMX considerations on individual's relative deprivation feeling and consequent work outcomes, "*individual perceptions*" are taken as the related measure for individual LMX quality, as well as for individual's relative standing within his/her work-unit in terms of his/her LMX quality. In other words, in this thesis both absolute and relative LMX evaluations depend on "*individual perceptions*", for that reason, subjective RLMX rather than objective RLMX is used for measuring

individual's perceived relative standing in LMX distribution within his/her work group. Accordingly, in this thesis the level of analysis would be individual level.

According to the preceding discussion, in social comparison processes it is people's perceptions of their own situations and of the comparison referents' situations which they actually compare and form their attitudes and behaviors responsively. In this respect, individual perceptions are what actually define the outcomes of comparison processes, which is also evident by a famous saying; "*The world as it is perceived, is the world that is behaviorally important*" (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p.173).

Moreover, individuals may look at the same thing yet perceive differently since there are factors that operate to shape perceptions, which can be categorized as; factors related with the *perceiver* him/herself, factors related with the *target* being perceived, and factors related with the context of the *situation* in which the perception is made (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p.173). According to the focus of this thesis, investigating the perceiver related factors is especially important. The perceiver relevant factors influencing individual perceptions may include people's attitudes, motivations, interests, and self definitions that affect their sense of attachment to in-groups, as well as personal experiences and expectations; all of which may influence perspectives of an individual that shape his/her perceptions (e.g., Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 174).

According to this line of reasoning, in the following section about possible moderator variables of relative deprivation, "*self construal*", which is defined as a self belief about the degree to which one sees him/herself as separate from others (i.e., *independent-self*) or connected with others (i.e., *interdependent-self*), is explained as a personal level variable effective on values, motivations and perceptions of individuals,

thus expected to moderate the relationship between perceptions of employee's absolute and/or relative LMX and ensuing relative deprivation feeling.

Moderators of Relative Deprivation Feeling

In her egoistical (personal) relative deprivation model, Crosby (1976) mentioned about some variables that have the potential to regulate the effect of relative deprivation feeling on individuals' course of actions as well as some variables that may affect the occurrence and strength of relative deprivation feeling on the first stage. These variables described in the original model of Crosby (1976) either as determinant or mediating variables. Accordingly, the variables expected to be effective on the process of one's relative deprivation include personality factors (e.g., personality traits, or intra- or extra-punitiveness), personal control (i.e., self efficacy), and availability/lack of opportunities (i.e., future expectations). According to Crosby, the role of the mediating variables is to specify the contingencies by which felt deprivation are translated into various resultant behaviors. While these variables are named as mediators by Crosby (1976), in fact, according to Baron and Kenny's (1986) terminology on mediator and moderator variables, these variables are also likely to function as moderators. That is because, the causal relationship between determinant factors and felt deprivation, and felt deprivation and possible resultant behaviors can change as a function of these variables which are all possibly be partitioned into dichotomous levels or subgroups reflecting the general conceptualization of moderator variables.

In accordance with the theoretical propositions of relative deprivation theory (Crosby, 1976), in this thesis, future job expectations, self-construal, and organizational

support (i.e., POS and peer support) are investigated as possible moderators within the relationships between LMX and relative deprivation feeling, and relative deprivation feeling and employee attitudes and behaviors.

Future Expectations

Future expectations, implying future optimism, refers to an individual's estimate of the likelihood that his/her deprivation will be relieved in the future (Mark & Cook, 1979). Future expectations are indeed current expectations of an individual about his/her situation in the future. Among possible moderator variables of relative deprivation feeling, future expectations are possibly the most effective ones within organizational context, since the availability of opportunities can be also under the discretion and display of organizational agents rather than being just an individual disposition, which gives them more influence area as a moderator variable. Research has pointed that employees show positive reactions towards relative deprivation feeling when they have an optimistic belief that their situation can change, accordingly they are motivated to pursue self-improvement or constructive change in order to improve their current situation (Bolino and Turnley, 2009).

Although an employee's LMX quality would be contingent upon the relationship with the present leader, his/her future expectations from his/her current job would not be limited by this LMX relationship, but also likely to be affected from how he/she is visualizing his/her future position regarding all aspects of his/her job in the company. To put it more clearly, although employees feel relative deprivation due to their current relationships with the leader who is in charge at the moment, by having a more temporal

focus towards their jobs, they may not show negative reactions that are likely to harm their future success in the current company. Especially when they have a future optimism about the conditions to be offered by their job, in other words, when they have an estimate of the likelihood that they will have improved benefits in their company in future; then they may likely to regulate their negative attitudes and behavioral motivations towards a constructive change and self-improvement so that they would not to harm their probability of having these future benefits.

In line with the above literature, in the conceptual models of this thesis positive future expectations of employees regarding the conditions of their current job is integrated as a moderator variable within the relationship between relative deprivation feeling and employee outcomes.

Self-construal

According to relative deprivation theory, occurrence of relative deprivation feeling has both a cognitive component which reflects the sense of injustice through social comparisons, and an affective component which indicates the feelings of resentment based on this social comparison (Crosby, 1976; Tougas, Lagace, Sablonniere, & Kocum, 2004). Although the magnitude of the perceived discrepancy (i.e. cognition of relative deprivation) affects the intensity of the associated feeling (i.e. felt deprivation), the intensity of the emotional component is not only contingent on the magnitude of this cognition, but also on possible mediating or moderating factors that may include individual differences (Mikula, 1984; Mikula, Scherer, Athenstaedt, 1998). In her egoistical relative deprivation model, Crosby (1976) mentioned about personality traits,

personal past, biological needs, societal dictates and immediate environment as possible contingency variables that may be effective on the occurrence and intensity of relative deprivation feeling (p.89). In fact, this specific assertion of Crosby (1976) is in line with the arguments of cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1982, 1991; Smith and Kirby, 2001; Smith and Lazarus, 1993) which asserts that emotions are brought out through personal cognitive appraisals of events and situations that are mostly contingent on personal values and characteristics. Supporting this point of view, social psychology research displays that social perception does not only depend on sensory input but it is also subject to various processes that result in appraisals of the perception of objects to be modified by perceiver's values, expectations, emotional needs and some other perceiver contingent factors (e.g. Bodenhausen & Hugenberg, 2009). Based on above arguments, there is no doubt that, identification of "self", regarding personality traits, personal past, biological needs, or values can affect both the cognition and affective appraisal processes within the experience of relative deprivation feeling.

The "*self*" is a person's mental representation of his/her own personality, social identity, and social roles (Kihlstrom & Cantor, 1984). Therefore, the perception of self is fundamental to human behavior. In social psychology, Erez and Earley (1993) claim that the role of self is seen as a link between the macro level of culture, and the micro level of individual behavior. Accordingly, it has been shown that there is congruence between cultural characteristic and structure of self (Erez & Earley, 1993; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989). Similarly, Triandis (1989) claims that people living in the same cultural environment share similar values and cognitive schemata, and they use similar criteria for the sense of self-worth. Within macro level, individualism and collectivism are the main cultural definitions that are in polar opposite meaning to each other (e.g.,

Hofstede 1980), and in line with the assertions of Triandis (1989) these societal cultural characteristics determine the individuals' common values living within this cultural environment. As a result, in individualistic cultures, values such as independence and self-sufficiency are the outstanding values, so the self identity is defined mostly through personal objectives and attributions. On the contrary, in collectivistic cultures group orientation, harmony, and cooperation are the common accepted values, so the self is defined by relationships or social roles. Triandis and colleagues (1985) differentiate between macro level individualism and collectivism terms and their micro level corresponding definitions by using the terms *idiocentrism* and *allocentrism* for the parallel personality attributes. While idiocentrism emphasize self-reliance, competition, uniqueness, hedonism, and emotional distance from in-groups; allocentrism emphasize interdependence, sociability, and family integrity, take into account the needs and wishes of in-group members, feel close in their relationships to their in-group, and appear to others as responsive to their needs and concerns (Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000). Triandis and colleagues (2001) claim that in all cultures, in different proportions, there are both idiocentrism and allocentrism.

In a parallel attempt to define cultural orientation in individual level, Markus and Kitayama (1991) introduced self-construal with two separate dimensions; namely, independent and interdependent selves, which are specifically used to refer one's self identification in terms of connectedness or separation from others with a special emphasis on the "role of others" in the self identification of an individual. According to Markus and Kitayama (1991), the roots of the individualism-collectivism cultural cleavage can be found in different perceptions of self. They distinguish between the independent and the interdependent self, where the former is associated to individualism

and the latter to collectivism. Markus and Kitayama (1991) defined 'self-construal' as an *"individuals' belief about the degree to which he/she sees him/herself as separate from others or connected with others"* (p.226). Afterwards, Singelis (1994) conceptualized self construal as *"constellation of thoughts, feelings, and actions concerning one's relationship to others, and the self as distinct from others"* (p.581). Based on these definitions of self-construal, it can be inferred that self construal mainly reflects a part of an individual's value system by displaying an individual level cultural orientation in terms of connectedness to others. Therefore, it is expected to be effective on the individual's motivations and perceptions. Openly, individual values are conceptual representations of individual needs, and they operate on the cognitive level as well as a part of volitional system (Erez and Early, 1993, p. 100), so they have an effect on personal rewards and satisfaction (Erez and Early, 1993; Meglino and Ravlin, 1998). People are simply motivated to satisfy their needs, thus, this would affect their perceptions and associated attitudes and behaviors.

Markus and Kitayama (1991) proposed and defined two dimensions of self-construal: *"independent-self"* and *"interdependent-self"* indicating two different images of self which influence an individual's cognition, emotion and motivation differently. While independent self-construal reflects individual level images of self as unique and distinct from others, interdependent self-construal shows one's close connectedness with others (Singelis, 1994). In this respect; independent self-construal is characterized by *"bounded, unitary, and stable self that is separate from social context"* (Singelis, 1994, p.581), whereas, interdependent self-construal is described as *"flexible and variable self that is connected with others"* (Singelis, 1994, p.581). Markus and Kitayama (1991)

explain why these different self identifications are significantly effective on individuals' cognitions, emotions and motivations, as follows:

One general consequence of this divergence in self-construal is that when psychological processes (e.g., cognition, emotion, and motivation) explicitly, or even quite implicitly, implicate the self as a target or as a referent, the nature of these processes will vary according to the exact form or organization of self inherent in a given construal. With respect to cognition, for example, for those with interdependent selves, in contrast to those with independent selves, some aspects of knowledge representation and some of the processes involved in social and nonsocial thinking alike are influenced by a pervasive attentiveness to the relevant others in the social context. Thus, one's actions are more likely to be seen as situationally bound, an characterization of the individual will include this context. Furthermore, for those with interdependent construals of the self, both the expression and the experience of emotions and motives may be significantly shaped and governed by a consideration of the reactions of others. Specifically, for example, some emotions, like anger, that derive from and promote an independent view of the self may be less prevalent among those with interdependent selves, and self-serving motives may be replaced by what appear as other-serving motives (p. 225).

Unlike individualism and collectivism cultural dimensions which are used for societal level cultural identifications, independent-self and interdependent-self reflects individual level images of self for the level of one's connectedness with others (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Gudykunst, Matsumoto, Ting-Toomey, Nishida, Kim and Heyman, 1996; Singelis, 1994; Levine, et al., 2003). In this respect, self construal concept also described by some researchers as; “... *thought of an individual-level cultural orientation, theorized to mediate and explain the effects of culture on a variety of social behaviors*” (Levine, Bresnahan, Park, Lapinski, Wittenbaum, Shearman, Lee, Chung and Ohashi, 2003, p.211). Apparently, Western cultures' appreciation of individualism by their emphasis on the values of independence and uniqueness encourages the formation of independent-self construal within these cultural contexts, while the Non-Western cultures' association with cooperation, collectivism and harmony fosters the formation of interdependent-self construal in these cultures. However, Markus and

Kitayama (1991) indicated that they do not assume that all individuals in a given cultural group to be alike, and they explicitly stated that;

Within a given culture, however, individuals will vary in the extent to which they are good cultural representatives and construe the self in the mandated way (p. 226).

Therefore, people in countries culturally typified as collectivistic or individualistic do not need to identify themselves as interdependent or independent-self respectively.

Brockner and colleagues (2005) point that interdependent (independent) self construal is merely one dimension residing within the broader family of collectivism (individualism) related beliefs, thus they only refer to how much an individual define and evaluate him/herself based on his/her relationship with significant others (p. 157). Moreover, even though both independent-self and interdependent-self construal are present within each person and may be influenced by the norms of the society, they may also be differentially activated (i.e., priming) as a function of the context (e.g., Gardner, Gabriel, & Lee, 1999; Stapel & Koomen, 2001; Van Baaren, Maddux, Chartrand, de Bouter, & van Knippenberg, 2003).

According to Markus and Kitayama (1991), a person who is characterized as independent would pursue his/her own goals by following his/her internal feelings and thoughts, so that he/she would be separate from social context (Singelis, 1994). The specific characteristics of independent self-construal are explained by Markus and Kitayama (1991) as follows:

The essential aspect of this view -independent-self- involves a conception of the self as an autonomous, independent person; we thus refer to it as the independent construal of the self. Other similar labels include individualist, egocentric, separate, autonomous, idiocentric, and self-contain (p. 226).

Moreover, Markus and Kitayama (1991) claimed that for the individuals who are characterized by independent self-construal, the role of others is just for self-evaluation. Markus and Kitayama (1991) explicitly stated that for individuals who are characterized by independent self-construal, the role of other people within the social context functions as follows; "...for independent-self people 'others' are important for social comparisons...." (p. 230).

On the other hand, interdependent people are defined by their reference groups as they see themselves intertwined with others, and thus they put forward goals and thoughts of others, which make them to be sensitive to situations and contexts (Kanagawa, Cross & Markus, 2001; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The specific characteristics of interdependent self-construal are explained by Markus and Kitayama (1991) as follows;

Sociocentric, holistic, collective, allocentric, ensembled, constitutive, contextualist, connected and relational.....in an interdependent formulation of the self, these others become an integral part of the setting, situation, or context to which the self is connected, fitted, and assimilated (p. 227).

Accordingly, Markus and Kitayama (1991) claimed that for the individuals who are characterized by interdependent self-construal, others are no more for social comparisons, but they become part of the self definition. Stated explicitly as; "...Others thus participate actively and continuously in the definition of the interdependent self" (p. 227).

The conceptual representations of the self according to independent and interdependent self-construal are given below in Figure 2.

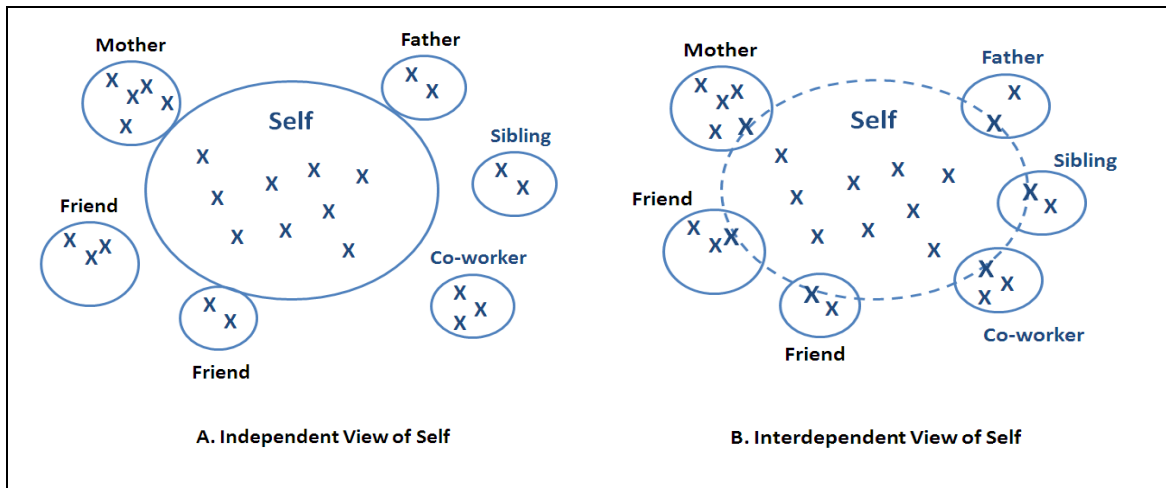


Figure 2. Conceptual representations of two dimensions of self-construal. (A: Independent self-construal, B: Interdependent self-construal). Re-drawn according to the original figure of Markus and Kitayama (1991, p.226).

In varying degrees, these two contrasting views of self, independent and interdependent self-construal may coexist within individuals (Cross & Markus, 1991; Gudykunst et al., 1996; Levinson, Langer, & Rodebaugh, 2011; Singelis, 1994). As claimed by researchers and gained acceptance within extant literature, although every person has both independent and interdependent self-construal elements, it has been expected that either of them to come out as a dominating self conceptualization for each individual (e.g., Erez and Somech; 1996, p. 1518).

Self-construal construct has been used in research for predicting and explaining individual-level cultural differences in cognition, emotion, motivation and communication (Levine et al. 2003). Gardner and colleagues (1999) showed that self-construal significantly influences people’s values, perception and evaluation of events. Research has demonstrated the implications of the two dimensions of self-construal (i.e., independent-self and interdependent-self) in a variety of domains, including effects on judgments and values (Gardner et al., 1999), information processing (Hannover & Kuhnen, 2004), mimicry (van Baaren et al., 2003), and social comparison processes

(Cheng & Lam, 2007; Stapel & Koomen, 2001). For instance, in their experimental study Cheng and Lam (2007) claimed that within a social comparison process by an individual for his/her self-evaluation, the contrast effect of having higher self evaluations in downward comparisons, while having lower self evaluation in upward comparison would depend on one's salient self construal. The result of their study showed that the contrast effect exist only for people with independent self-construal while people with interdependent self-construal reported high self-evaluation in both upward and downward comparisons. In addition to the above mentioned research domains, there are also studies adopting self-construal construct for investigating its effect within organizational context. For instance, Hackman, Ellis, Johnson and Staley (1999) employed a study to test the relationship of self-construal construct and leadership communication; while Brockner, Chen, Mannix, Leung and Skarlicki (2000) used self-construal for predicting perceptions of fairness.

Both research and related arguments about self construal indicate mainly that while the "role of others" for the individuals who are characterized by independent self-construal is for "*social comparisons*"; the "others" become the "*part of the self definition*" for the individuals characterized by interdependent self construal (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). In this respect, we may expect that the ones who are characterized by higher levels of independent self-construal would see themselves separate from others in their work group so they would pay more attention to their relative treatment by their supervisor as compared with the treatment of others in the work unit. On the other hand, in line with the above arguments, we may expect that the ones who are characterized more by interdependent self-construal would see themselves as part of

others; respectively, they would show more tolerance to discrepancies in LMX qualities of themselves relative to that of others within their social context.

Research has shown that emotional responses of individuals differ also in line with differences in the self conceptualizations (Kitayama, Markus, & Kurokawa, 2000; Suh, Diener, Oishi, & Triandis, 1998). While individuals with dominant interdependent self-construal have more concern for interpersonal harmony, the ones with dominant independent self-construal care more about how events affect themselves. For example, research regarding the relationship between cultural formation of individuals and their tendencies for mentioning about positive feelings revealed that while Japanese people report more positive feelings associated to interpersonally-engaged emotions (e.g., respect), Americans report more positive feelings associated to interpersonally disengaged emotions (e.g., pride) (Kitayama et al., 2000).

In line with the above arguments, in the conceptual models of this thesis employee's self-construal (i.e., independent or interdependent) is integrated as a moderator within two separate relationships, first one while investigating the effect of employee's perceptions regarding his/her absolute LMX quality on his/her relative deprivation feeling, and the second one while investigating the effect of employee's perceptions regarding his/her relative LMX evaluations on his/her relative deprivation feeling.

Organizational Support

In an organizational setting, there may be factors that can substitute for some of leader's functions which in turn reduce leaders' both positive and negative influence over

employee attitudes and behaviors. In the literature, the theory that explores the effects of these non-leader factors within organizations replacing leadership functions is called “Substitutes for leadership theory” (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). According to this theory, the situational or contextual variables that can substitute for, neutralize, or enhance the effects of a leader’s behavior can be related to subordinates, tasks or organizational structures (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 378). In case leader’s behaviors trigger negative reactions in employees, organizational level structures that have potential to moderate the effects of leader’s influence over employees’ attitudes and behaviors can be specifically important to be utilized for mitigating these negative effects. For instance, employees who think that they have low LMX relationships with their leaders and hence cannot access extra resources offered by the leader may show negative attitudes or behaviors. Organizational level support systems provided either by the organization itself, or by its members, may compensate for leader’s extra offerings which are normally contingent on having high quality LMX relationship with leader. For instance; employees who are well- connected with influential others in a company other than their own immediate supervisors, such as having connections with other organizational leaders either by organizational mentoring programs or by personal friendship relationships, may get career development supports from these influential people other than their own immediate supervisors in the company. Therefore, if getting support from other sources, these employees may not be so willing as to have high-quality exchange relationships with their own immediate supervisors for career support (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Sparrowe & Liden, 2005; Bolino & Turnley, 2009). Likewise, employees who have close and good relationships with their peers would get social support from them, and this may reduce the need of employees to be more willing

to have a high-quality relationship with their supervisors for social support (Bolino and Turnley, 2009).

In literature, perceived organizational support (POS) is defined as “*employees’ beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being*” (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986, p. 501). Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) claimed that employees make personification of the organization assigning humanlike characteristics to it, and this personification lead employees to consider any treatment taken by the organizational agents as a representation of organization’s intent rather than the agents’ personal motives (Levinson, 1965). It has been proved by previous research that POS has important effects on organizational outcomes. For instance, Riggle, Edmondson and Hansen (2009) proved that perceived organizational support is strongly related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Besides, POS was found to be related to employees’ intentions to quit and their real withdrawal behavior (e.g. Witt, 1991, Wayne et al., 1997). Aside from these, POS was also stated to influence employees’ propensity to engage in extra role behaviors and elevate their performance (e.g. Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne et al., 1997). Perceived organizational support is mostly become visible through the policies and practices by human resources (HR) departments within companies. Offered as general HR practices and be applicable to all employees in a company, physical or psychological arrangements by HR departments may compensate for the privileges offered only to employees having high-quality LMX relationships with the leader, but not to other employees. For instance, if an organization provides incentives, promotions or education programs as an organizational level policy to every employee on equal terms through

standard rules, then employees of this organization would benefit from these benefits directly as long as they comply with the terms, then in return of this equal opportunity for privileges, employees would depend less on having high quality LMX relationships with their leaders to be able to obtain such opportunities. Similarly, the more resources offered as human resource practices by HR departments to address employees' needs as comforting facilities, such as, arrangements for working from home, daycare services, mentoring programs etc., the less that remains at the discretion of leaders to provide to their subordinates through high quality LMX relationships (Henderson et al. 2009).

Likewise, peer support, which is defined as the degree of consideration expressed among employees with similar positions in the organization (Currivan, 1999), has been shown to be effective on employee attitudes and behaviors. Research has shown that peer support has positive effects on employee outcomes, such as, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g. Currivan, 1999). Moreover, as proved by Sias and Jablin (1995) peer support would also be effective in helping employees to express their feelings which otherwise may lead to negative outcomes such as emotional burnout and dissatisfaction when held inside of employee (p.32). Besides, research shows that getting support from friends, family and colleagues are helpful to deal with the negative events that an individual encounter within workplace (e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). In this respect, for those employees who feel relative deprivation due to their LMX relationships, peer support may become especially important by providing the social support that they are lacking. Therefore, peer support may alleviate the negative effect of LMX based relative deprivation feeling on employee outcomes.

In summary, we can infer that support coming from organization and peers may be effective in compensating the need for getting more attention from the leader,

especially for the subordinates who are unhappy about their LMX relationships.

Therefore, in this thesis, it is proposed that POS and peer support would moderate the relationship between LMX based relative deprivation and employee outcomes.

Explicitly, it is expected that when an employee perceives that he/she has peer and/or organizational support, which would physically and psychologically help to compensate some of the unachieved privileges contingent solely on high-quality LMX relationships with the supervisor, then this organizational support may mitigate the negative effects of LMX based relative deprivation feeling on employee outcomes.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH MODELS AND HYPOTHESES

Summary of Theoretical Underpinning

In line with the literature reviewed in the previous section, it is clear that leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships have important implications within organizational life by having effects on employees' work attitudes and behaviors (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

LMX theory, by employing social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) in its conceptualization, mainly claims that leaders develop and maintain differentiated interpersonal exchange relationships with their subordinates (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975), and within this exchange relationship each party should offer something valuable to the other party in return so that each one would see the exchange as reasonably equitable or fair (Graen & Scandura, 1987). By being offered more work-related tangible and intangible resources, employees who have high-quality LMX relationships with their leaders gain work related advantages over employees having low-quality LMX within organizational life. Accordingly, the differentiation of work groups into in-groups and out-groups has implications for the emergence of organizational justice considerations among employees which becomes salient by the ongoing social comparison processes fed by work related social interactions (Scandura, 1999; Sias 1996; Sias and Jablin, 1995). Social comparison

processes mainly serve as a source of information for individuals who want to know their relative standing in relation to other people, mostly to their work groups, in order to make an assessment of their own value (Festinger, 1954; Wood, 1996). In this respect, social comparison is mainly used by employees as a kind of evaluation system regarding their work environments, as well as for their relative standing within it (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). By being embedded in miscellaneous parts of social interactions within organizational life, social comparisons are shown to be effective in cognitive, affective and behavioral responses of employees (Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007; Wood, 1989).

Derived through social comparison processes, an employee's *relative standing* within his/her work group in terms of LMX relationship with the leader (i.e., Relative LMX, RLMX) may also influence his/her work attitudes and behaviors beyond his/her absolute LMX relationship quality. Although the concept of LMX differentiation has been integrated within LMX conceptualization from the beginning of the LMX theory, the operationalization of LMX differentiation (i.e., within-group variance in individual-level LMX scores for a group; Liden et al., 2006), and the influence LMX differentiation on individuals' work attitudes and behaviors depending on employees' perceptions about the fairness of these LMX differentiations (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Liden et al., 2006) have not long started to attract the attention of researchers (e.g., Henderson et al., 2008; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997, 2005; Vidyarthi, et al., 2010). Recently, more empirical research has been conducted to examine LMX differentiation processes both at the group level (e.g., Boies, & Howell, 2006; Henderson et al., 2008; Liden et al., 2006), and at the individual-within-group level (e.g., Henderson et al., 2008; Schriesheim, et al., 1998). In line with the increased emphasis on the effects of LMX differentiation

among work groups, relative leader-member exchange (RLMX), which is defined as the “*actual*” or “*objective*” relative situation that reflects the difference between one’s own LMX quality level and the average LMX quality level of the team (Graen, et al., 1982; Henderson et al., 2008; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000), has also started to be more thoroughly investigated by researchers. RLMX is measured by gathering data both from the focal individual him/herself as well as from each member of the group. Thus, it is an “objectively relative” construct derived from perceptions of all group members, rather than subjective evaluation of the focal individual’s own perception about his/her relative standing within the LMX distribution of the work group.

On the other hand, evident from a famous saying “*The world as it is perceived, is the world that is behaviorally important*” (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p.173), as well as supported by the findings of empirical research (e.g. Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005), an individual’s own perceptions of his/her environment, in other words his/her own subjective evaluation, is more influential on the individual’s attitudes and behaviors than the reality. *Perception*, which is defined as “*a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment*”, is the main determinant in individual’s attitudes and behaviors because what a person perceives can be substantially different from the objective reality, and his/her behavior is based on his/her own perception of what reality is, not on the reality itself (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 173). Therefore, individual perceptions are what actually define the outcomes of comparison processes for individuals. Based on these arguments, we may expect that the conceptualization of RLMX construct merely from the perceptual evaluations of the focal individual, that is “subjective relative” construct, would have more explanation power over the individual’s attitudes and

behaviors regarding LMX based social comparisons. This concern for the importance of individual perceptions within LMX based social comparisons were also presented by Vidyarthi and colleagues (2010) as an underlying reasoning for their newly developed construct *LMX Social Comparison (LMXSC)*. Vidyarthi and colleagues (2010) developed a scale for LMXSC construct utilizing ‘directional’ questions (i.e., imposing the specific comparison points) by which an individual is asked to compare his/her relative standing among his/her coworkers regarding his/her relationship with the team leader within six specific conditions, which are; i) the quality of his/her relationship with the manager, ii) filling in important meetings on behalf of the managers, iii) receiving support from the manager, iv) having effective working relationship with the manager, v) manager’s loyalty to him/herself, and vi) his/her own opinion about the joy that the manager feels from his/her company. Vidyarthi and colleagues (2010) argue that employees can easily form their assessments of whether they or their coworkers are closer to or more distant from the leader, and remarkably this perceptual rating may reasonably differ from the reality (p. 850). Following the arguments of Vidyarthi and colleagues (2010), Harris and colleagues (2014) also pointed to the need for future research in order to investigate the perceptions of dissimilarity in LMX relationships; however, they claimed that in contrast to LMXSC scale, further research should try to depict this perception without any directional components. In line with this line of reasoning, in this thesis Hooper and Martin’s (2008) LMX Distribution Measure is used to collect perceptual data from focal individuals about their perceptions for each team member’s relationship quality with the leader, as well as their own relationships with the leader. Based on this perceptual data, the operationalization of perception based LMX differentiation, and subjectively driven RLMX, referred in this thesis by “*Perceived*

Relative LMX (PerRLMX)”, are completed. It is important to note that even though both LMX and PerRLMX are driven from individual level perceptions, LMX construct reflects an absolute measure, while PerRLMX reflects a relative standing, more clearly a “status” position, indicating where an individual stands within his/her work group.

In the extant literature, studies on LMX relationships mostly highlighted the positive aspects related with LMX, i.e. ‘bright side of LMX’, by pointing that higher quality LMX is associated with better employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Gerstener & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). However, on the other side of the coin, there are employees who may perceive that they are exposed to lower quality LMX relationships, and this perception may inevitably be reflected in their attitudes and behaviors as a result of social comparison processes. Although very few in number, the studies that focus on the dark side of LMX relationships, or the findings that are achieved as a by-product of studies investigating the effects of higher quality LMX relationships, commonly point that lower quality LMX relationships have dysfunctional outcomes in organizational life; for instance, reduced citizenship behavior and higher turnover intentions (e.g., Kacmar, Zivnuska, & White, 2007; Kim, O’Neill, & Cho, 2010; Mayfield & Mayfield, 1998).

On the other hand, emotions and moods are closely related to social comparison processes, in such a way that social comparisons mostly triggers affective outcomes through justice considerations (Greenberg, et al., 2007). Within a work group, it is common to make frequent social comparisons among coworkers about what they receive and what others receive. By being intense social interaction processes, leadership and especially LMX relationships are expected to trigger emotional outcomes mostly derived from social comparison processes that give rise to injustice perceptions (Cohen-Charash

& Muller, 2007; Gooty, et al., 2010; Lazarus, 2000). Depending on the personal evaluation of their comparative situations in terms of LMX relationships with their leaders, employees may develop negative feelings triggered mostly by the perception of injustice or unfairness within social exchange relationships (Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007). In general, by being aware of their conscious or unconscious emotional responses, individuals develop *feelings* that further mark their emotional experience. Openly, feelings of individuals are developed when they experience an event that has an outcome of a disruption or breach to their expectations, and through appraisal processes when they assign *positive or negative affective meaning* to the associated attitude object or one's current condition (Lazarus, 1991; McShane & Steen, 2009, p.101, p. 120; Russell, 2003, p. 148). The negative feelings resulted from injustice perceptions in turn may result in harmful organizational outcomes. Therefore, while investigating the negative aspects of LMX relationships, as an accompanying topic discrete negative employee emotions may need to be further examined. Although there are some propositions about the relationship between LMX and negative emotions, as well as very few empirical studies investigating their relationship (e.g. Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007; Kim, Neill, & Cho, 2010), the need for exploring affective reactions within LMX context stands still as a fertile research area (Gooty, et. al, 2010; Hu & Liden, 2013).

As evident in extant literature, LMX relationships and especially RLMX considerations essentially trigger social comparisons, and these social comparison processes inherit justice evaluations which lead to affective reactions of employees that inevitably shape their attitudes and behaviors. In line with this further need of research, in this thesis, LMX based relative deprivation feeling would be investigated as an underlying process for the effects of LMX relationships on employee outcomes through

social comparisons. Relative deprivation is often experienced by comparing the treatments, opportunities or outcomes that an individual receives to those received by others in his/her reference group (Crosby, 1976). In this respect, social comparison processes and resulting perceived relative positions and justice evaluations comprise an integral aspect of the feeling of relative deprivation for an individual. In line with different conceptualizations of relative deprivation in literature (e.g. Crosby, 1976; Davies, 1962; Gurr, 1970; Runchiman, 1966), there are varied empirical studies which have used either cognitive measures, affective measures, or a measure that incorporates both affective and cognitive components of relative deprivation (for details please refer Olson & Hafer, 1996). In this thesis, conceptualization of personal relative deprivation is taken as an actual emotion of individuals resulted from affective and cognitive evaluations that inherit justice considerations through comparisons with referent others.

By integrating, social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954; Greenberg, et al., 2007), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958) and affective events theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) within the context of LMX relationships, this thesis focuses on exploring *how* and *when* perceptions of absolute LMX and/or relative LMX (PerRLMX) is more influential on employees' organizational attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, affective commitment and intentions to leave) and behaviors (i.e., in-role performance and OCB) through an underlying cognitive and affective process of relative deprivation feeling. Specifically, this research explains *how* LMX and RLMX impact employee attitudes and behaviors by considering relative deprivation feeling as a possible affect-based mediator. Moreover, this research also studies *when* perception of LMX relationship becomes more detrimental on employee outcomes, comparing the effects evaluated in absolute terms (LMX) versus in relative terms (RLMX). The main

focus of this research is *individual level perceptions* about one's own LMX quality and relative standing within his/her work group, and the comparative effects of these on individual level organizational outcomes, among which behavioral outcomes of employees (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior and in-role performance) were evaluated by the leaders of each employee. In this respect, in a search for individual perceptions and consequent personal feeling of relative deprivation, analyses of this thesis remains at the individual level of perception. By testing two separate mediation models (first one for investigating the effects of absolute LMX perceptions, and the second one for investigating the effects of relative LMX perceptions), this thesis investigates the effects of cognitive and affective process of relative deprivation feeling of employees derived from these LMX perceptions and expected to be affective on employee's job satisfaction, affective commitment, intentions to leave, in-role performance and OCBs. Correspondingly, it is theorized that relative deprivation feeling triggered by social comparison processes with justice considerations will mediate the relationships, in the first model between LMX and employee outcomes, and in the second model between PerRLMX and employee outcomes after controlling for perceptions of LMX. Moreover, as a further investigation, dominant self-construal of an individual, i.e., independent-self or interdependent-self, is investigated as a personal characteristic to be effective on the strength of the relationship between LMX and relative deprivation feeling (in the first model), and/or PerRLMX and relative deprivation feeling (in the second model); so that it would have implications regarding the effects of LMX perceptions on employee outcomes. Therefore, this thesis adopts a contingency approach for studying LMX theory. Moreover, the situational effects of POS, peer-support, and employees' future expectations as moderators in mitigating the

negative effects of relative deprivation on individual attitudes and behaviors will be separately investigated both in the first model of LMX based relative deprivation, and in the second model of PerRLMX based relative deprivation.

Figure 3 and Figure 4 depicts the two proposed models of the thesis, which are both comparative and supplementary to each other. As a possible outcome of dark side of LMX, this thesis investigates one form of negative affective reaction, i.e., relative deprivation feeling, within LMX framework and individual level organizational outcomes. Moreover, as a contingency perspective to LMX theory, two separate dimensions of individual self-construal; namely, independent-self and interdependent-self, are assessed for understanding whether they have an influence in shaping the perceptions of individuals while they place importance in either their absolute, or relative LMX positions, or both, in social comparison processes that would be impactful in their affective reactions. Therefore, as a perceiver relevant factor that influence individual self definitions by affecting their sense of attachment to in-groups, these two separate dimensions of self-construal are integrated into the models of the thesis as moderators by considering their effect in shaping individual perceptions. Through the examination of independent-self and interdependent-self as two type of individual level moderators related with identification of self in relation to others, this study tries to answer the question; *“for which individuals, regarding their dominant self construal, absolute or relative LMX perceptions are more effective in triggering and escalating LMX based relative deprivation feeling for them?”*. As variables originated from organizational level policies, POS and peer support are proposed as possible stabilizers for the dark side of LMX, by being moderators within the relationships of employee’s relative deprivation feeling and organizational outcomes. On the other hand, employee’s

future expectation from his/her current job is assessed as a contingency factor that may lead employee to respond constructively rather than negatively to his/her already felt relative deprivation. Such that, due to the optimistic belief originated from these positive future expectations, the employee may believe that it is possible his/her current situation can change more positively, and so, it is better for him/her to pursue self-improvement or constructive change to improve his/her current situation.

Conceptual Models and Hypotheses

There are two conceptual models of the study which are expected to be both comparative and supplementary to each other; since the combined evaluations of the path relationships of each model will be used to make a holistic assessment about how and when absolute LMX and/or relative LMX perceptions of an employee might have an impact on employee's attitudes and behaviors. For that reason, while the first model of the study exhibits LMX initiated path relationships, the second model of the study integrates PerRLMX, rather than LMX construct, as the independent variable that initiates relationships among the remaining constructs of the model that are identical with the first model. Conceptual model 1 and model 2 of the study are exhibited in the below Figure 3 and Figure 4 respectively.

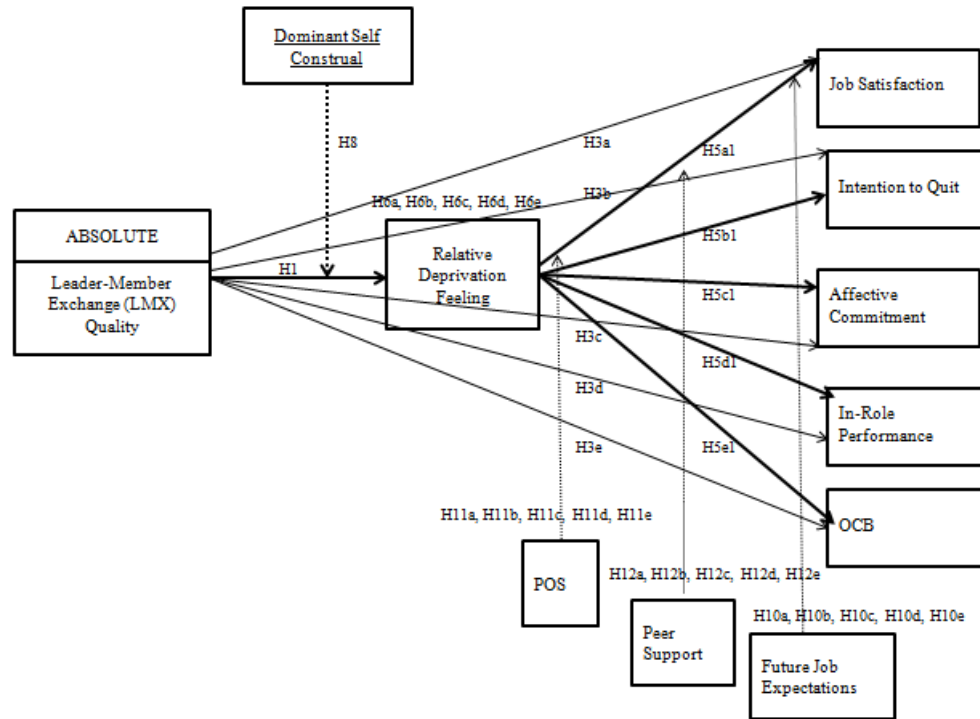


Figure 3. Conceptual model 1 of the study

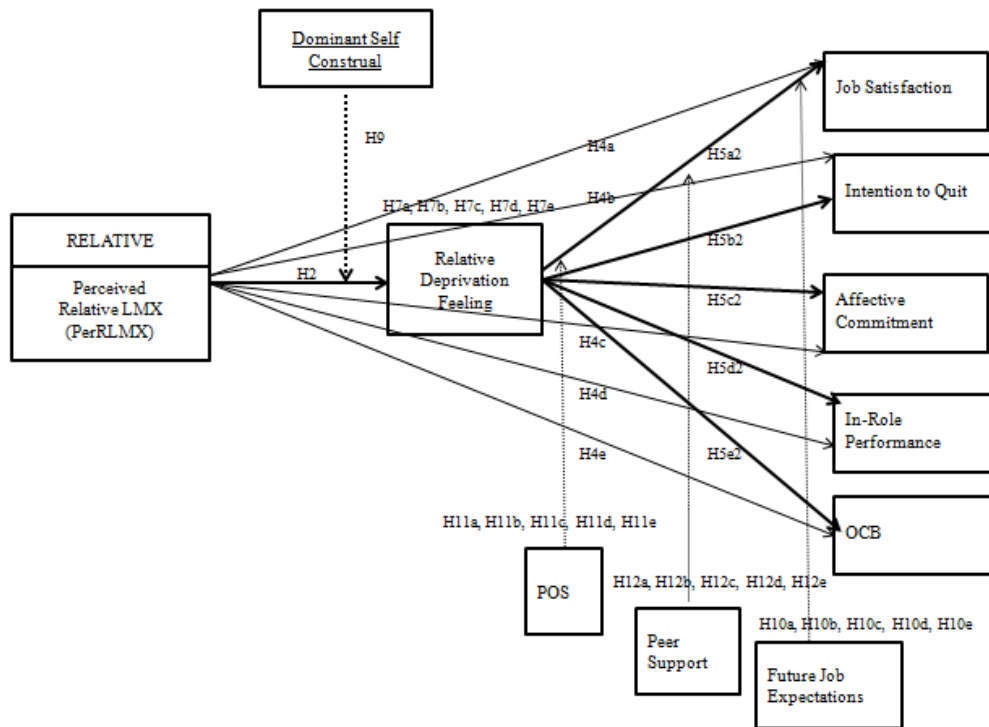


Figure 4. Conceptual model 2 of the study

Hypothesized Relationships

Effects of LMX and PerRLMX on Relative Deprivation Feeling

Festinger (1954) asserted that social comparison processes occur generally when individuals lack objective physical standards to evaluate themselves in a social context. Therefore, social comparison processes mainly serve as a source of information for individuals who want to know their relative standing in relation to other people, mostly to their work groups by whom they share the most common aspects within work life; such as same leader, similar experiences and comparable obligations (Festinger, 1954; Wood, 1996; Vidyarthi et al., 2010). Ongoing social interactions within organizational life make social comparison processes to be more frequent and common, thus, self evaluations derived from these frequent social comparisons inevitably activate cognitive, affective and motivational processes that can shape employees' attitudes and behaviors within organizational life (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007; Wood, 1989). In the context of employees' social exchange relationships with the leader, individuals may observe, learn, compare, and make assessments about their own LMX relationships with their teammates' LMX relationships through a series of daily interactions and informal conversations both consciously or unconsciously (Hu & Liden, 2013). By these perception-based evaluations about their LMX compared to their team members' LMX, employees form their fairness judgments in terms of LMX relationships (Sias 1996; Sias and Jablin, 1995). Accordingly, employees may develop negative feelings based on injustice or unfairness perceptions derived from these social exchange relationships (Cohen-Charash

& Muller, 2007). Relative deprivation is often experienced when individuals compare the treatments, opportunities, or outcomes received by referent others to what they want and feel entitled to (Crosby, 1976). Individual's perception of this entitlement inevitably activates possible justice considerations upon social comparisons. Therefore, as a result of social comparison processes that lead to injustice cognitions, employees experience feelings of relative deprivation.

In line with this reasoning, in this thesis, it is asserted that depending on individual differences, perceptions of either absolute, or relative, or both LMX conditions of individuals can trigger the underlying cognitive and affective evaluations for experiencing relative deprivation feeling. It is important to note that even though both LMX and PerRLMX are driven from individual level perceptions, while LMX construct reflects an absolute measure, PerRLMX reflects a relative standing, more clearly a "*status*" position indicating specifically "*where an individual stands within his/her work group*". Therefore, some people may be motivated just by what they get in absolute terms, even though they evaluate the value of this absolute gain through judging it against a standard value by means of social comparisons. In contrast, some people may consider their "*status*" within their work group regarding their gains, together with or beyond their absolute gains. Based on these discussions, the following relationships are hypothesized:

H1: Employee's LMX quality is negatively related to employee's relative deprivation feeling.

H2: Employee's PerRLMX is negatively related to employee's relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual LMX quality).

Effects of LMX Quality on Employee Outcomes

In extant literature, LMX quality has been shown to predict employee attitudes and behaviors, such as, job satisfaction (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Rosse & Kraut, 1983; Seers, 1989), organizational commitment (Basu & Green, 1997; Duchon, Green & Taber, 1986; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Lee, 2005; Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992), employee performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden & Graen, 1980; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), organizational citizenship behavior (Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996; Wayne & Green, 1993; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997), turnover intention (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984) and actual turnover (Graen, Liden & Hoel, 1982). In line with evidence from previous studies, following hypotheses are developed for the effects of LMX quality on major employee outcomes regarding the relationships in the conceptual model 1 of the study:

H3a: Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's job satisfaction.

H3b: Employee's LMX quality is negatively related to employee's intentions to quit.

H3c: Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's affective commitment to organization.

H3d: Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's in-role performance.

H3e: Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior.

Effects of Subjective Relative LMX (PerRLMX) on Employee Outcomes

There is hardly any empirical study that explicitly investigates the effects of *perceived* relative LMX situation on employee attitudes and behaviors within extant literature, in contrast to the well documented effects of the *actual* standing of individuals in the LMX distribution (RLMX) as well as perceived absolute LMX qualities of individuals on their work outcomes. However, as an exceptional empirical research, Vidyarthi and colleagues' (2010) recent study points to the importance of individual's own subjective perceptions about their relative standing in the LMX distribution, and shows that subjective ratings by individuals of their LMX compared to the LMXs of coworkers explain unique and meaningful variance in employee outcomes beyond absolute LMX and the actual standing of those individuals in the LMX distribution (RLMX). Based on this empirical evidence and support from literature for the underlying theoretical background, the following hypotheses are developed for investigating the effects of individual's perception about his/her LMX quality in comparison to the coworkers' LMXs within the work group, i.e., employee's subjective relative LMX evaluation (PerRLMX), on major organizational outcomes:

H4a: Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's job satisfaction.

H4b: Employee's PerRLMX is negatively related to employee's intentions to quit.

H4c: Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's affective commitment to organization.

H4d: Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's in-role performance.

H4e: Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior.

Effect of Relative Deprivation Feeling on Employee Outcomes

The findings of empirical studies reported in extant literature show that relative deprivation feeling is associated usually with negative attitudes and behaviors at micro, meso and macro level outcomes (Crosby, 1976, 1984; Lee & Martin, 1991; Martin, 1981; Feldman & Turnley, 2004; Buunk & Janssen, 1992; Feldman, et al., 2002; Mark & Folger, 1984). In terms of organizational level outcomes, relative deprivation feeling has shown to affect generally job satisfaction (e.g. Lee & Martin, 1991), in-role performance (e.g. Williams & Anderson, 1991), organizational citizenship behavior (Feldman & Turnley, 2004), and withdrawal and counterproductive work behaviors

(Toh & Denisi, 2003). Based on findings from empirical studies in literature, the following hypotheses are developed both for model 1 and model 2 of the study.

- H5a: Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's job satisfaction. (H5ai: model 1; H5aai: model 2)

- H5b: Employee's relative deprivation feeling is positively related to employee's intentions to quit. (H5bi: model 1; H5bii: model 2)

- H5c: Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's affective commitment to organization. (H5ci: model 1; H5cii: model 2)

- H5d: Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's in-role performance. (H5di: model 1; H5dii: model 2)

- H5e: Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior. (H5ei: model 1; H5eii: model 2)

Mediating Role of Relative Deprivation Feeling between LMX and Employee Outcomes

Affective Events Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) mainly states that within work environment employees experience daily work events that can be hassles, uplifting

events, or both, that trigger positive or negative emotional reactions on the part of employees influencing their attitudes and perceptions, which then influence affect and judgment driven behaviors. In line with AET, Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) point that accumulation of positive or negative events determines how individuals' feel, with that leading to the way employees think and feel at work. Therefore, the assertions of AET demonstrate the importance of understanding the events that trigger positive or negative emotions of employees, in order to understand and manage workplace behavior. However, the level of emotional arousal is dependent on subjective importance of the situation assessed by the individual (Ortony, et al., 1988). In this respect, if an event triggers positive or negative emotion or feeling, then this event is important and relevant for that person's life and identity, provided that its significance is recognized by the individual (e.g. Kiefer, 2002). In other words, cognitive appraisals which are the interpretations of affective events that trigger the emotional experience are fundamentally important in determining emotional incident.

Lazarus (2000) claims that emotions stem from social interactions and social interactions are central part of leadership process. Current research empirically proves that considerable parts of employee emotions within organizational life are contingent upon leadership (e.g. Bass, 1985; Bono et al., 2007; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Studies investigating leadership influences by using AET as the framework draw a common conclusion that leadership affects follower and workgroup outcomes by its effect on follower affective reactions (e.g. Dasborough, 2006). According to AET emotions are the mediating mechanism by which leader actions influence employee job attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, affect and emotions are an important part of interactions of employees with their leader, as well as their ensuing

attitudes and behaviors within workplace (Gooty et al., 2010). In the context of LMX relationship, in their conceptual study Bolino and Turnley (2009) proposed that when an employee perceives to be in a low quality LMX relationship, he/she responds negatively by possibly experiencing feelings of relative deprivation.

In this thesis, LMX based relative deprivation feeling is examined as an affective process as well as an emotional outcome derived from individual's cognitive and affective appraisals, through which employees perceive and evaluate their absolute and/or relative LMX relationships within their work groups, and assess the affecting meaning of these relationship states for themselves through their justice judgments.

Briefly, by adopting the view of AET, it is asserted by this research that individual's perceptions about his/her LMX relationship with the leader, in absolute, in relative, or in both terms, will affect the level of relative deprivation feeling that he/she experiences. Based on these arguments, the following relationships as well as the ones in the next section are hypothesized:

H6a: The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's job satisfaction is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.

H6b: The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's intentions to quit is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.

H6c: The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's affective commitment to organization is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.

H6d: The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's in-role performance is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.

H6e: The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.

Mediating Role of Relative Deprivation Feeling between Subjective Relative LMX (PerRLMX) and Employee Outcomes

In addition to the above arguments based on AET, in this thesis, it is argued that depending on individuals' value configurations, and so motivations, PerRLMX situations may also cause individuals to experience relative deprivation feeling beyond their LMX qualities. To put it clearly, both LMX and PerRLMX are driven from individual level perceptions, however LMX reflects an "*absolute*" value to refer "*an amount of a receiving*" that an individual gets within his/her relationship with the leader, whereas, PerRLMX reflects a "*relative*" value that points to a comparative "*status*" showing an individual's perception about *where he/she stands in his/her work group in terms of individual LMXs*.

According to extant literature, relative deprivation is felt through a cognitive and affective process that involves justice evaluations by means of comparisons with referent others. Individuals can choose different comparative referents for the evaluation of their relative standing for outcomes or categories of their concern (Martin, 1981). Therefore, within the occurrence of relative deprivation feeling, there can be different comparative referents to which one would compare him/herself with, so that he/she would specify

his/her perceived just reward accordingly. Based on individual's specification of this "*supposed just reward*", he/she may experience relative deprivation when there is a perception of unjust discrepancy between the individual's "*perceived reward*" and the individual's "*supposed just reward*" (e.g. Davis, 1959; Runciman, 1966; Gurr, 1970; Crosby, 1976; Martin, 1981). Indeed, individuals generally draw perceptions of just reward from a repertoire of relevant justice categories from which one selects a weighted combination in accordance with the specific reward and situation of allocation (Dar & Resh, 2001, p. 64). In reference to the definitions of three justice categories (Colquitt et al., 2001, 2005), LMX can be evaluated both from interactional, procedural as well as distributive justice considerations since it refers both an outcome by its own right, and an evaluation criteria and a source of information in assessing the affective meaning of the relationship quality with the leader by means of interpersonal treatment and exchange procedures. As a common tendency drawn from literature, during specification of the standards for justice evaluations, procedural justice is inferred relative to a *theoretical standard*, whereas distributive justice is inferred to a *referent standard* (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001, p. 136). In this respect, regarding LMX relationships, while for some people obtaining a theoretically standard value, or a value that would be accepted as a just value through comparing with that of comparative referents may be sufficient; in contrast, for some people depending probably on their value configurations in addition to getting this just value, an evaluation of *where they stand in the rank of order* within their work groups in terms of their LMX quality may also be a significant consideration. For a theoretical support for the above assertion, we can also refer to Crosby's (1976) statement that "*feelings of relative deprivation are likely to grow as the number of people who has that outcome within a group increases*", which points to

possible considerations of individuals about their ranking within their groups derived from their comparative receiving, beyond their absolute receiving.

To sum up, from the justice lenses relative deprivation can be defined as a cognitive and affective response of an individual occurring through an evaluation process, and felt only when one believes his/her received reward does not match to what he/she perceives as the “*just reward*”. It is the individual him/herself who would decide on his/her own comparison rule and comparison referents, and so, on his/her perceived just reward, which in return would be decisive in the experience of relative deprivation feeling. In this respect, “*what motivates individuals ‘absolute’ or ‘relative’ LMX?*” is a relevant question within LMX based relative deprivation context, and this question is one of the research inquiries that this thesis is trying to find an answer for. Therefore, in addition to the hypotheses in the previous part, the following relationships are hypothesized:

H7a: The relationship between employee’s PerRLMX and employee’s job satisfaction is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual perceptions of LMX).

H7b: The relationship between employee’s PerRLMX and employee’s intentions to quit is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual perceptions of LMX).

H7c: The relationship between employee’s PerRLMX and employee’s affective commitment to organization is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual perceptions of LMX).

H7d: The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's in-role performance is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual perceptions of LMX).

H7e: The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual perceptions of LMX).

Moderating Role of Dominant Self-construal

The Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Lazarus, 1982, 1991; Smith & Kirby, 2001; Smith & Lazarus, 1993) asserts that emotions are based on how an individual perceives a particular situation; that is, emotions are brought out through personal cognitive appraisals of events and situations. While emotions are associated with distinct individual appraisal patterns, similar emotional response profiles are associated with similar appraisal profiles among individuals (Siemer et al., 2007). Therefore, when an individual responds to the same incident with different emotions than another person, then he/she must have appraised the situation in a different way.

At the personal level, relative deprivation refers to the recognition and the associated feeling that accompany the perception that one is deprived of something he/she wants and feels entitled to while some comparison referents have it. Although there are different conceptualizations of relative deprivation through different theoretical frameworks (e.g. Crosby, 1976; Davies, 1962; Gurr, 1970; Runchiman, 1966), all of them indicate that relative deprivation reflects an emotion as well as a cognition. Crosby

(1976) explicitly defines the concept of relative deprivation as an emotion, not simply as a perception (p. 88). Similarly, Runchiman (1966) describes relative deprivation as a feeling of envy and a perception of injustice (p. 10). Likewise, Smith and Ortiz (2002) conceptualize affect as an integral part of relative deprivation and define relative deprivation as *“the belief that you are worse off compared to another person coupled with feelings of anger and resentment”* (p. 94). Reinforcing this view, Pettigrew (2002) asserts that affect is a core ingredient of relative deprivation, and it is not simply a mediator of the effects of cognition of relative deprivation (p. 356). Based on the consensus in the assertions of the above mentioned literature, cognitive component of relative deprivation refers to the recognition of deprivation, while affective component refers to the feelings associated with this recognition; usually described as frustration, dissatisfaction, disappointment, and anger. Moreover, according to these researchers the sense of injustice is part of relative deprivation (e.g., Crosby, 1976, p.91). While the cognitive component reflects sense of injustice through social comparison, the affective component indicates the feelings of resentment based on this social comparison (Tougas, et al., 2004). There is no doubt that the magnitude of the perceived discrepancy (i.e. cognition of relative deprivation) would have an effect on the intensity of the associated feeling (i.e. felt deprivation), however, the intensity of the emotional component would not only contingent on the magnitude of this cognition, but also on possible mediating or moderating factors that may include individual differences (Mikula, 1984; Mikula, et. al, 1998). As possible contingency factors in relative deprivation, Crosby (1976) mentioned about some variables which she called as ‘determinants’ that may be effective on the preconditions of relative deprivation; namely, personality traits, personal past, biological needs, societal dictates and immediate environment (p.89). Among these determinants,

personality traits and personal past are the ones with are directly related with individual characteristics. Supporting this point of view, established social psychology research evidently displays that, social perception does not only depend on sensory input but it is also subject to various processes that result in appraisals of the objects of perception to be modified by perceiver's values, expectations, emotional needs and some other perceiver contingent factors (e.g. Bodenhausen & Hugenberg, 2009).

On the other hand, as a theory which focuses mainly on explaining affect related employee outcomes, AET displays that both organizational characteristics and individuals' dispositional attributes can influence employees' attitudes through their influence on individual cognitions and perceptions. Therefore, based both on AET and on the theoretical assertions of relative deprivation feeling summarized above, it can be argued that the intensity of LMX based relative deprivation feeling is likely to be influenced by individual values, expectations, emotional needs, and some other individual level determinants.

Culture, in line with its common definition "*shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectivities*" (House et al., 2004, p.15), inevitably develops into a major source of individual values, expectations, and experiences. In this respect, cultural orientations become affective in the way individuals perceive their environments as well as how they interpret specific incidents. Accordingly, Erez and Earley (1993) argues that the role of self acts as a link between the macro level of culture and the micro level of individual behavior. Similarly, Triandis (1989) asserts that people living in the same cultural environment share similar values and cognitive schemata, and they use similar criteria for the sense of self-worth. However, as claimed

by Spencer-Oatey (2008), culture do not necessarily determine each member's behavior and his/her interpretations of the 'meaning' of other people's behavior in the same way, since members of a cultural collectivity are unlikely to share identical sets of attitudes, beliefs and that of other shared assumptions, but rather show simply 'family resemblances' (p. 3). Within a culture, individual differences can be observed among its members with regard to the degree to which each member adopts and reflects the attitudes, values, beliefs, and behaviors that are in line with the norms of the pervasive culture, and this is why culture becomes 'fuzzy' by its nature (Spencer-Oatey, 2008). While culture is a social norm, it also evolves as an individual construct through its differentiated penetration among each individual. In this respect, culture may also be utilized as a psychological construct due to its role in combining social norms with individual identifications; which jointly influence psychological processes underlying person's perception.

As an individual level cultural orientation, Markus and Kitayama (1991) proposed and defined two dimensions of self-construal: "*independent-self*" and "*interdependent-self*" which indicate two different images of self reflecting one's value system and self definition in terms of connectedness to others. Since self-construal is expected to influence an individual's cognition, emotion, motivation and perception as an individual level cultural orientation, the organization of self inherent in a given construal (i.e., either independent-self or interdependent-self) is expected to shape individual's psychological processes by determining his/her perception angle.

While independent self-construal reflects individual level images of self as unique and distinct from others, interdependent self-construal shows one's close connectedness with others (Singelis, 1994). In varying degrees, these two contrasting

views of self, independent and interdependent self-construal may coexist within individuals (Cross & Markus, 1991; Gudykunst et al., 1996; Levinson, Langer, & Rodebaugh, 2011; Singelis, 1994). As claimed by researchers and gained acceptance within extant literature, although every person has both independent and interdependent self-construal elements (Cross & Markus, 1991; Levinson, Langer, & Rodebaugh, 2011; Singelis, 1994), it has been expected that either of them to come out as a dominating self conceptualization for each individual (e.g., Erez and Somech; 1996, p. 1518).

Although there is a common opinion that while interdependent self-construal is more predominant in collectivistic than individualistic cultures, correspondingly, independent self-construal is more predominant in individualistic than collectivistic ones, recent research in this area has shown that significant variation in people's individualism or collectivism based beliefs and behavioral tendencies do exist even within the same cultural context (e.g., Chen, Brockner & Chen, 2002; Vandello & Cohen, 1999). Markus and Kitayama (1994) also pointed that all individuals in a given cultural group are not expected to be alike, but they are only likely to have exposed to and have operated within a given cultural frame than members of the contrasting group, which may be affective in having some similar behavioral tendency or pattern (p. 99). Moreover, independency and interdependency value configurations are only one out of several dimensions that defines the broader societal cultural orientation of individualism and collectivism. For instance, according to Oyserman, and colleagues (2002) there are at least eight different ways in which collectivistic culture can be conceptualized. Therefore, while culture is a broad and general concept that defines the norms of the general society, on the other hand, self-construal reflects an individual-level construct referring to how much people define and evaluate themselves based on their relationship

with significant others that is shaped not only by the environment in which the individual is brought up but also by the specific individual needs and expectations that is unique for each individual even within the same societal context.

On the other hand, in terms of LMX relationships within a work group, normally, most employees would prefer to have higher-quality rather than lower-quality exchange relationships with their supervisor (Vecchio, 1995). In this respect, being in a low-quality exchange relationship or relatively lower quality exchange relationship is expected to lead an employee to have negative attitudes and behaviors. However, being in a low-quality exchange relationship may not always lead to intense feelings of deprivation for every employee (Bolino and Turnley, 2009). In a similar argument, Runciman (1966) also points out that the degree of felt deprivation is not the same thing as the perceived amount of the divergence between what an individual thinks he/she should have and what he/she does have; in other words, it is not always the amount of divergence which directly determines the feeling of deprivation at the end. Individuals' different emotional reactions towards relative deprivation positions can simply be traced back to the differences in social perception, and specifically to the differences in individuals' way of identification of themselves within social comparisons.

Both theoretical assertions and related research on self construal show that while the "role of others" for the individuals who are characterized by independent self-construal is for "*social comparisons*" used for self evaluations; the "others" become the "*part of the self definition*" for the individuals characterized by interdependent self construal (Markus and Kitayama, 1991, p. 230). Moreover, ability to adjust, restrain oneself, and maintaining harmony with the social context becomes the prevailing value orientation for interdependent individuals, while validating one's internal attributes

reflects the basis for self satisfaction for independent individuals. In this respect, we may expect that the ones who are characterized by higher levels of independent self-construal would see themselves separate from others in their work groups so they would pay more attention to their relative treatment by their supervisor as compared with the treatment of others in the work unit. On the other hand, we may expect that the ones who are characterized more by interdependent self-construal would see themselves as part of others; accordingly, they would show more tolerance to the discrepancies between their LMX qualities compared to that of others in relative terms. This assertion can also be based on *multiple needs model of justice* (e.g., Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Holmvall & Bobocel, 2008; Holmvall & Bobocel, 2008), such that, depending on the needs of individuals contingent upon their dominating self-construal, either social acceptance/belongingness needs, or achievement needs, or for some people both needs, may influence individuals' reactions as well as cognitions to injustice considerations.

By integrating, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958), and social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954; Greenberg, et al., 2007), in this thesis individual's own perceptions about his/her LMX and/or relative LMX are expected to trigger relative deprivation feeling as an emotional outcome that would influence individual's work attitudes and behaviors. Moreover, as an application of contingency perspective to LMX theory, two separate dimensions of self-construal are investigated for their moderation effect to explore whether dominant self construal of an individual has an influence in shaping the cognitions of the individual regarding his/her emphasis on either absolute, or relative LMX within social comparison processes, in reference to the already validated fact that dominant self-construal of an individual reflects the leading value orientation of an

individual in terms of connectedness to group members, or separation from them in self identification.

To put it more clearly, as proposed by the previous hypotheses, it is expected that individual's perceptions about his/her LMX and PerRLMX would trigger relative deprivation feeling based on injustice considerations via social comparisons with referent others. Besides, it is expected that the level of this affective reaction would be contingent upon one's dominant self construal in terms of connectedness with others. While individuals with the conception of the self dominantly as independent see 'others' in their work groups as a means for making self evaluation and social comparison, in contrast, individuals with conception of the self dominantly as interdependent refer to 'others' in their work groups for self-definition, that is to say, they directly express their self identities through connectedness with their social context. In this respect, maintaining harmony with the social context becomes the prevailing value orientation for these interdependent self individuals (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p. 230). Therefore, it is expected that individuals with predominant interdependent self-construal would try to fit-in and be face savers in order not to conflict with the members of their group, so that they could preserve group harmony. Consequently, for interdependent-self individuals questioning their relative status within the group by evaluating where they stand in LMX distribution would be risky if they are not sure about what the answer for this evaluation would be, especially considering the possibility that they may not be happy about the outcome of this evaluation.

Based on above discussions, in this thesis it is claimed that individuals who have dominantly independent self-construal would be motivated by being in a better relative standing (i.e., status) within the LMX distribution of their work group in addition to

getting what they think they deserve within their LMX relationships with their leaders. On the other hand, in this thesis it is asserted that individuals who have dominantly interdependent self-construal would be motivated by getting their perceived just-reward based on their own LMX relationships without showing any major consideration to their relative status within their work groups in terms of their LMX ranking. Respectively, in terms of possible affective reactions of these individuals as a result of social comparison processes, we may expect individuals having dominantly independent self-construal to feel relative deprivation based on their cognitions of injustice derived from social comparisons based on where they do stand in LMX distribution of the group (i.e., their ranking), in addition to the assessments of whether they get their perceived just-reward regarding their social exchange relationships with the leader. On the other hand, due to their sensitivity to maintaining group harmony, individuals with predominant interdependent self-construal would avoid confronting with other group members so that they would keep away from group-base comparisons. Therefore, we can claim that individuals with dominant interdependent self-construal would possibly feel relative deprivation feeling depending on injustice cognitions derived from social comparisons based solely on considering whether they get their perceived just-reward in terms of their relationships with the leader.

Evident by above theoretical underpinning, dominant self construal of an individual, i.e., interdependent-self or independent-self, would be decisive for the strength of the effect of LMX or PerRLMX evaluations of an individual on his/her ensuing relative deprivation feeling. In this respect, the following hypotheses are developed:

H8: Dominant self-construal moderates the strength of the relationship between LMX and relative deprivation, such that LMX has a stronger effect on relative deprivation feeling for employees who are higher on interdependent-self construal as compared to those who are higher on independent-self construal.

H9: Dominant self-construal moderates the strength of the relationship between PerRLMX and relative deprivation, such that PerRLMX has a stronger effect on relative deprivation feeling for employees who are higher on independent-self construal as compared to those who are higher on interdependent-self construal.

Moderating Effects of Future Job Expectations

In her egoistical (personal) relative deprivation model, Crosby (1976) stated that while the intensity of any end behavior would vary as a function of relative deprivation, the feeling of relative deprivation would not be the only factor that determines the strength of these behaviors (p. 101). Accordingly, Crosby pointed to some variables that have the potential to regulate the effect of relative deprivation feeling on individuals' course of actions. These variables are intra- or extra- punitiveness, personal control (i.e., self efficacy), and availability/lack of opportunities (i.e., future expectations). According to Crosby, the role of these variables is to specify the contingencies by which felt deprivation is translated into various resultant behaviors. While these variables are named as '*mediators*' by Crosby (1976), in fact, according to Baron and Kenny's (1986)

terminology on mediator and moderator variables, these variables are likely to function as *moderators*. That is because, the causal relationship between felt deprivation and possible resultant behaviors can change as a function of these variables which are all possibly be partitioned into dichotomous levels or subgroups reflecting the general conceptualization of moderator variables.

Among these regulative variables, *future expectations* are the ones which have the most relevance for organizational context since they can be steered or directed by organizational agents in line with organizational strategies, in contrast to other regulative variables, intra- or extra- punitiveness and self efficacy, which are under the full influence of individuals' personal dispositions. Future expectations incorporate current feasibility estimates of an individual regarding his/her chances of attaining or retaining the object or opportunity in future (Crosby & Gonzales-Intal, 1984). In other words, future expectations are in fact current expectations of an individual about his/her situation in the future. Future expectation mostly imply future optimism, thus, it refers to an individual's estimate of the likelihood that his/her deprivation will be relieved in the future (Mark & Cook, 1979). Research has pointed that employees show positive reactions towards relative deprivation feeling when they have an optimistic belief for future that their situation can change, thus, they are motivated to pursue self improvement or constructive change in order to improve their current situation (Bolino and Turnley, 2009).

The theoretical reasoning behind the role of future expectations on individual attitudes and behavior reside in the ability of individuals to have a future focus, which can be traced back to time perspectives in individual motivation and behavior. While random behaviors of individuals reflects the impulsive side of human behavior that is

reactive to spontaneous environmental stimuli, on the contrary, controlled behaviors are the ones that mainly represent the rational side of human beings, which incorporate cognitive evaluations before reactions. This differentiation of human behavior as random versus controlled can be interpreted also from the perspective of variations in the differentiation and structuration of future time perspective, the implications of which would also be affective in individual motivation (e.g., Bergius, 1957, p. 230). Individuals consciously have time perspective as an inherent ability incorporated into their rational thinking.

In extant literature, Lewin (1931, 1942, 1951), who is considered among the founders of modern social psychology, is one of the pioneering psychologist who pointed to the importance of time perspective in the study of human behavior. Lewin (1931) explained how the past and the future progressively integrated by the child to his/her '*life space*'. According to him, as children grow, they would progressively learn not to react in an impulsive way towards internal and external stimuli, but they would start showing more controlled behaviors by considering anticipated behavioral outcomes, which would help them to define the present situation (p. 173). Lewin (1942) described '*future time perspective*' (FTP) as a cognitive-dynamic orientation towards future goals, which basically reflects anticipation of them. In his '*life space model*,' Lewin (1951) explained the role of '*time perspective*' (TP) for an individual as; "the totality of the individual's views of his psychological future and psychological past existing at a given time" (p. 75).

According to Bergius (1957), FTP has both a motivational component, and a cognitive component that reflects the subjective expectation that the anticipated goals will be realized. In a subsequent study, Nuttin (1964, 1985) pointed that

Future and past events have an impact on present behavior to the extent that they are actually present on the cognitive level of behavioral functioning (1985, p. 54).

As a more contemporary work on social-cognitive thinking, Bandura (1997) introduced '*self-efficacy theory*', in which he evaluated the effects of time perspective on behavioral self regulation through the evaluations of efficacy beliefs within three different time zones: past, present and future. In a similar approach, Carstensen and colleagues (1999) proposed that the perception of time would definitely have important implications for an individual's emotion, cognition and motivation by its decisive functioning in the selection and pursuit of social goals. In this respect, individual's day-to-day behavior incorporates evaluations by future time perspective (Nuttin & Lens, 1985).

As discussed in the previous sections of the thesis, LMX based relative deprivation is likely to have an influence on some major employee outcomes. On the other hand, future time perspective and future optimism indicate that individuals incorporate a visionary perspective by tailoring their present feelings, attitudes and behaviors in accordance with their imagined future, as well as by their optimistic future beliefs that their actions can contribute to reach to the desired outcomes (Bandura, 2001). Therefore, in line with the role of future time perspective and future expectations on individual motivation and behavior, it is logical to claim that the optimism of an employee about his/her future position in the current company may moderate the effects of relative deprivation feeling on employee's attitudes and behaviors. In general terms, it

is likely that employees' optimistic future expectations about their job situations in their current company may affect their present work attitudes and behaviors.

Obviously, an employee's LMX quality would be contingent upon the relationship with the present leader, however, employee's future expectations from his/her current job would not be limited with this LMX relationship, but also likely to be affected from how he/she visualizes his/her future position within the current company, presumably considering all aspects of his/her job. To put it more clearly, although employees feel LMX based relative deprivation due to their current relationships with the leader who is in charge at the moment, by having a more temporal focus towards their jobs and anticipation of future goals, they may not show negative reactions that are likely to harm their overall future success within their present company. This may be the case especially when an employee has an optimistic future expectations by which he/she visualizes a future projection of him/herself as being offered much better conditions in his/her current job. In other words, when employees have an estimated likelihood that in future they will have more advanced offerings in their current jobs, then they may likely to regulate their negative attitudes and behavioral motivations derived from their present LMX based relative deprivation feeling towards self-improvement and constructive change, so that they would not harm their probability of having these projected future benefits in their current job. In line with above discussion, the following relationships are proposed:

H10a: Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative

deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.

H10b: Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when employee has worse expectations from future compared to better.

H10c: Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.

H10d: Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.

H10e: Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior; such that the relationship between employee's

feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.

Moderating Effects of Support: POS and Peer Support

Kerr and Jermier's (1978) "substitutes for leadership" theory mainly asserts that within an organizational environment there can be variables which can make some leadership behaviors less influential and crucial for employees by negating the hierarchical superior's ability to exert either positive or negative influence over subordinate attitudes and behaviors (p. 375). According to this approach, the key to improving leadership effectiveness is to identify these situational or contextual variables that can substitute for, neutralize, or enhance the effects of a leader's behavior, and accordingly adapt leaders' functions or behaviors. These variables can be related to subordinates, tasks or organizational structures (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 378). According to Kerr and Jermier (1978) among organizational based factors having potential to make leadership behaviors less influential and crucial for employees include the following organizational level arrangements;

Formalization (explicit plans, goals, and areas of responsibility); existence of organizational rewards outside the leader's control; organizational inflexibility in terms of having formal rules and procedures; presence of highly-specified and active staff support and advisory support; cohesive work groups; and having spatial distance between supervisors and subordinates (p. 378).

Indeed these non-leader organizational arrangements that have potential to negate leader's ability to exert either positive or negative influence over subordinates' attitudes and behaviors can be utilized to moderate specifically the negative influence of some

leader behaviors. To put it clearly, leaders have control over organizational resources, and they can distribute these resources to their subordinates according to their own preferences, and those employees to whom leaders provide extra resources become more advantageous over their peers within work environments. As a matter of fact, leader's own time, consideration and support to an employee in general become the most important resource within organizational life. However, these extra resources are provided by leaders mostly to the employees with whom they have high quality LMX relationships, rather than to all employees on equal terms. When there are alternative psychological and physical supports that would substitute for the offerings of leaders which would be established within the formal operating structures of organizations, then employees may depend less on LMX relationships for achieving those extra organizational resources provided only by the leader. For example; when employees are well-connected with influential others outside their formal chain of command who have power to support them for their career advancements, then these employees would likely rely less on their hierarchical superior for career opportunities. Through company initiated formal mentoring programs, employees connect with top level executives in the headquarters of their companies, then these employees may also use organizational power of those high-ranked mentors for getting career support within company, thus they may not be that much in need of having high-quality exchange relationships with their immediate supervisors for career supports (Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994; Sparrowe and Liden, 2005, Bolino and Turnley, 2009). Likewise, employees who have good and well-connected relationships with their peers would get social support from their coworkers, which in turn may lessen their sole dependence on LMX relationships for having social support within their work environment, thus, this may weaken their

motivation for having high-quality relationships with their supervisors (Bolino and Turnley, 2009). These alternative support systems would be beneficial especially when leader cannot afford equitable resources to all subordinates, although he/she wants to do so due to the scarcity of resources, which includes leader's time and consideration. Therefore, these alternative support systems can also be used to mitigate employees' negative affective reactions, i.e. relative deprivation feeling, which are triggered by injustice cognitions of employees by not having what they want and what they feel entitled to while some comparative others have it.

Perceived organizational support (POS), defined as "*employees' beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being*" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa, 1986, p. 501), may serve as an organizational factor that moderates the effects of leadership behaviors by negating the hierarchical superior's ability to exert either positive or negative influence over subordinate attitudes and behaviors. The applications of these organizational support systems are usually put into practice by human resources (HR) departments within organizations. Offered either as physical or psychological arrangements, these HR practices may also compensate for the privileges offered only through high-quality LMX relationships. For instance, if the organization provides incentives, promotions or education programs as an organizational policy through standard rules to every employee on equal terms, then employees would directly benefit from what the organization provides through standard rules, so that, they would depend less on having a high quality LMX relationship with their leaders in order to obtain these opportunities. Similarly, the more resources and comforting facilities offered as a common practice by HR departments to address employees' needs, such as,

arrangements for working from home, daycare services, mentoring programs etc., the less that remains at the discretion of leaders to provide to their subordinates through high quality LMX relationships (Henderson et al. 2009).

Likewise, peer support, which is the degree of consideration expressed among employees with similar positions in the organization (Currivan, 1999), has been shown to be helpful to deal with the negative events that an individual encounter within workplace (e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Moreover, research has shown that through peer support employees may more easily express their negative feelings which otherwise may lead to negative outcomes (Sias & Jablin, 1995, p.32). In this respect, we can infer that peer support may become especially important for those employees who feel relative deprivation in their LMX relationships by providing the social support which employees feel of lacking. Therefore, peer support may possibly alleviate the negative effect of LMX based relative deprivation feeling on employee outcomes.

In summary, from above discussions we can infer that support coming from organization and peers may compensate the need for getting more attention from the leader, especially for those who are not happy about their LMX relationships. Therefore, in this thesis it is proposed that POS and peer support would moderate the relationship between LMX based relative deprivation and employee outcomes. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are developed:

H11a: POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.

H11b: POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when POS is lower compared to higher.

H11c: POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.

H11d: POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.

H11e: POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.

H12a: Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship

between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.

H12b: Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when Peer support is lower compared to higher.

H12c: Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.

H12d: Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.

H12e: Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.

Table 1. Summary of the Hypotheses of the Study

No.	Hypotheses Type
PATH HYPOTHESES	
H1	Employee's LMX quality is negatively related to employee's relative deprivation feeling.
H2	Employee's PerRLMX is negatively related to employee's relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual LMX quality).
H3a	Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's job satisfaction.
H3b	Employee's LMX quality is negatively related to employee's intentions to quit.
H3c	Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's affective commitment to organization.
H3d	Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's in-role performance.
H3e	Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior.
H4a	Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's job satisfaction.
H4b	Employee's PerRLMX is negatively related to employee's intentions to quit.
H4c	Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's affective commitment to organization
H4d	Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's in-role performance.
H4e	Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior.
H5a 1. 2.	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's job satisfaction. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2
H5b 1. 2.	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is positively related to employee's intentions to quit. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2
H5c 1. 2.	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's affective commitment to organization. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2
H5d 1. 2.	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's in-role performance. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2
H5e 1. 2.	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2
MEDIATION HYPOTHESES	
H6a	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's job satisfaction is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.
H6b	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's intentions to quit is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.
H6c	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's affective commitment to organization is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.

H6d	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's in-role performance is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.
H6e	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's OCB is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.
H7a	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's job satisfaction is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual's perceptions of LMX).
H7b	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's intentions to quit is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individuals' perceptions of LMX).
H7c	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's affective commitment to organization is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individuals' perceptions of LMX).
H7d	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's in-role performance is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individuals' perceptions of LMX).
H7e	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's OCB is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individuals' perceptions of LMX).
MULTI GROUP MODERATION HYPOTHESES	
H8	Dominant self-construal moderates the strength of the relationship between LMX and relative deprivation, such that LMX has a stronger effect on relative deprivation feeling for employees who are higher on interdependent-self construal as compared to those who are higher on independent-self construal.
H9	Dominant self-construal moderates the strength of the relationship between PerRLMX and relative deprivation, such that PerRLMX has a stronger effect on relative deprivation feeling for employees who are higher on independent-self construal as compared to those who are higher on interdependent-self construal.
INTERACTION HYPOTHESES	
H10a	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.
H10b	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when employee has worse expectations from future compared to better.
H10c	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.
H10d	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.
H10e	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.

H11a	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.
H11b	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when POS is lower compared to higher.
H11c	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.
H11d	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.
H11e	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior is weaker when POS is higher.
H12a	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.
H12b	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when Peer support is lower compared to higher.
H12c	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.
H12d	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.
H12e	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and organizational citizenship behavior is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Although most of the research on LMX relationships focused on positive aspects of LMX, i.e. ‘bright side’, by arguing that higher quality LMX is associated with better employee attitudes and behaviors; on the other side of the coin there are also employees who perceive that they are exposed to lower quality LMX relationships and they possibly reflect these perceptions negatively in their work attitudes and behaviors. The studies that focus on the dark side of LMX relationships are very few in numbers, and they usually investigate the direct effect of low quality LMX relationships on employee outcomes. However, understanding the processes underlying these negative reactions of employees towards low quality LMX relationships are vital in order to understand and manage workplace behavior. Therefore, this study, in the most general sense, tries to investigate the “dark sides of LMX relationships”.

As LMX differentiation within work teams increase, employees are more likely to make social comparisons in order to make assessments of their comparative situations regarding LMX relationships with the leaders. In this regard, justice considerations through these social comparisons become inevitable, which in turn may trigger negative feelings. The negative emotions of employees resulted from injustice perceptions in turn may result in harmful organizational outcomes. Therefore, while investigating the negative aspects of LMX relationships, as an accompanying topic discrete negative employee emotions may need to be further examined. Although there are very few

attempts to investigate the relationship between LMX and negative emotions, the need for exploring affective reactions within LMX context still remains as a fertile research area. In line with this further need of research, in this thesis, LMX based relative deprivation feeling would be investigated as an underlying process for the effects of LMX relationships on employee outcomes through social comparisons.

Relative deprivation is often experienced by comparing the treatments, opportunities or outcomes that an individual receives to those received by others in his/her reference group (Crosby, 1976). In this respect, social comparison processes and resulting perceived relative positions and justice evaluations comprise an integral aspect of the feeling of relative deprivation for an individual. In this thesis, conceptualization of personal relative deprivation is taken as an actual emotion of individuals resulted from affective and cognitive evaluations that inherit justice considerations through comparisons with referent others. Therefore, this study basically meant to explore the dark side of LMX relationships particularly focusing on how social comparisons regarding LMX relationships trigger negative cognitions and emotions, specifically, relative deprivation feeling, which in turn influences employee outcomes.

Social comparison processes are made by individuals through evaluating what they have received in comparison to that of referent others'. However, comparison references may differ for each individual according to the individual's own considerations. In terms of LMX relationships, employees may consider what they receive in comparison to some referent others, mostly who are similar to them. In addition to this level of comparison, it is likely that employees may also evaluate where they stand in the ranking of their whole group in terms of their LMX qualities. Accordingly, employees may make social comparisons based both on their absolute

LMX and their relative LMX (i.e., ranking) situations. For that reason, this study investigates the differences regarding absolute LMX, and relative LMX considerations of employees triggering relative deprivation feeling, and in return how these have an influence on employee's attitudes and behaviors.

When individuals are exposed to the same situation, each one may react differently. Especially affective events that trigger emotional experiences are contingent upon one's own cognitions and perceptions. Evident by Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Lazarus, 1982, 1991), emotions are based on how an individual perceives a particular situation. The famous saying, "*The world as it is perceived is the world that is behaviorally important*" (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p.173) points to the fact that an individual's own subjective evaluation is more influential than the reality on his/her attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, individual perceptions are what actually define the outcomes of comparison processes for individuals. Based on these arguments, we may expect that perceptual evaluations of an individual would have more explanation power over the individual's attitudes and behaviors regarding LMX based social comparisons. Therefore, this study argues that perception based evaluations are important in explaining the underlying processes in individual's affective reactions, thus, while investigating these concepts, it is crucial to use perception based data. For that reason, relative LMX (RLMX) will be investigated by using the focal individual's own perceptions, that is, subjective RLMX (PerRLMX). It is important to note that even though both LMX and PerRLMX are driven from individual level perceptions, LMX construct reflects an absolute measure, while PerRLMX reflects a relative standing, more clearly a "status" position, indicating where an individual stands within his/her work group.

Furthermore, personal characteristics are important in the cognition and perceptions of individuals. As a contingency perspective to LMX theory, dominant self-construal of an individual (independent-self or interdependent-self) which reflects one's self definition, and so value system, in terms of connectedness to or separation from others, is assessed to understand whether the self-identification of individuals have an influence in shaping the perceptions of them while they place importance in either their absolute, or relative LMX positions, or both, in social comparison processes within organizational life. Therefore, by the examination of independent-self and interdependent-self as individual level moderators related with the identification of self in relation to others, this research also aims to answer the following question, "*for which type of individuals, regarding their dominant self construal, absolute or relative LMX perceptions are more effective in triggering and escalating LMX based relative deprivation feeling?*".

While investigation of negative affective reactions towards LMX differentiation is one of the main research topics of this thesis, it is also important to explore possible organizational level solutions for employees' negative emotional reactions towards LMX based evaluations. Therefore, POS and peer support are going to be examined as possible stabilizers for the dark side of LMX. On the other hand, employees' positive future expectations from their current jobs may also be a contingency factor that would lead to constructive reactions towards feelings of relative deprivation. Therefore, this study investigates the moderating roles of POS, peer support and future job expectations on the relationship between LMX based relative deprivation feeling and employee outcomes.

Significance of the Study

There are some significant contributions of the current study. Firstly, this study questions whether there is a dark side of LMX which would lead to negative emotions on the part of employees. Accordingly, this study examines the effects of absolute and relative LMX on major employee outcomes with a possible mediating role of relative deprivation feeling. Incorporating LMX not only in absolute terms, but also in relative terms would help to understand the role of negative emotions comprehensively as a dark side of LMX relationships.

Moreover, as a contribution to the current literature, this study utilizes subjective (perceived) relative LMX rather than objective (reel) relative LMX. While subjective evaluation of RLMX considers *individual perceptions* about one's own standing (i.e., rank) within work group in terms of LMX quality, objective RLMX reflects the *joint perceptions of all group members* regarding each individual's relative standing within the group in terms of LMX quality. On the other hand, considering individual's own perceptions is especially important when research aims to investigate individual's cognitions and emotions, since whatever the opinion of other people, at the end, which designates individual's feelings as well as attitudes and behaviors is individual's own perceptions and judgments.

Besides, in previous literature it has been criticized that LMX theory has not been utilized with a contingency perspective (Erdogan and Liden, 2002; Yukl, 2002). In this respect, examining the effects of subordinate self-construal (i.e. independent-self and interdependent-self) as moderators in LMX based relative deprivation feeling would

address this need of future research area. If employee outcomes resulting from LMX based relative deprivation feeling would vary by the effects of dominant self-construal, then it can be suggested that leaders may adopt a situational approach to LMX relationships since its occurrence is contingent upon certain situations/ employee characteristics.

As leaders have more constraints on their time and resources, they are more likely to differentiate among their subordinates in terms of LMX relationships. However, it is evident by previous research findings that when LMX differentiation increases within a work unit, more negative employee reactions are likely to occur (Hooper and Martin, 2008). The current research investigates possible moderating roles of POS, peer support and future job expectations for the effect of LMX based relative deprivation on employee outcomes. Therefore, this study not only investigates the negative emotional reactions of employees based on LMX perceptions, but also explores possible mitigating factors for the negative effect of LMX based relative deprivation on employee attitudes and behavior.

To sum up, the main significance of the current research depends on its examination of the effects of LMX construct on employee's negative cognitions and emotions, i.e., relative deprivation, by integrating affect perspective with LMX based social exchange perspective. Moreover, this study emphasizes the role of perceptions on individual emotions, by its utilization of employee perceptions both for the dyadic level (absolute LMX) and for individual-to-group level (LMX distribution and relative LMX) while investigating the effect of LMX based relative deprivation feeling on employee attitudes and behaviors.

Level of Analysis

Schriesheim and colleagues (2001) suggested that when studying LMX relationships, researchers should explicitly address level-of-analysis issues. LMX construct mainly depicts the dyadic relationship between an organizational member and his/her supervisor with respect to the interrelated dimensions of respect, trust, and mutual obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). While until recently empirical research on LMX has been conducted at individual-level with a focus on the dyadic relationship in isolation, the recent criticisms claiming that leaders' differential treatment of multiple subordinates in a work group would inevitably have an influence on group level outcomes have triggered an interest on the effects of LMX differentiation from an individual-within-group perspective (i.e., relative LMX) in addition to the individual to leader dyad perspective (i.e., absolute LMX).

Regarding the current study, the main inquiry in this research is about employee's affective reactions, i.e., relative deprivation, towards individual level perceptions of the dyadic relationship with the leader, both in isolation (absolute LMX) and in mutual interaction with other leader-member dyads within a work group (relative LMX), in addition to investigating the effect of those evaluations on employee attitudes and behaviors. LMX based relative deprivation feeling invokes individual level outcomes through a social comparison process with referent others, which can be either an ideal standard, upward similar referents, or the work group as a whole. Although the comparison of an individual level outcomes to group level outcomes may call for integrating individual level of analysis with group level analysis, this thesis aims to

explore the mediated effect of *individual's own perceptions* of his/her absolute or relative LMX on his/her individual level employee outcomes. Therefore, both measurement of the constructs and their conceptualized relationships depicted in the models of the study reside at the *individual-level of analysis*.

Sampling and Data Collection

Data for this study were obtained from 320 employees and their 80 immediate team leaders who are working in the service sector companies located in Istanbul, Turkey. All the employees are members of work teams of 3 to 8 people who work interdependently on tasks, have common team level goals to meet, and frequently interact with their coworkers in a common work environment, which qualify as “real” teams according to Hackman’s (2002) team criteria.

Moreover, participants are from “traditional” teams since the members of these teams work in the same physical environment and have frequent face-to-face interactions on a daily basis. Since traditional teams enable for more personal and frequent interactions among team members compared to virtual teams or short-term ad hoc teams (Goodman & Haisley, 2007), traditional teams provide more appropriate contexts for exploring employees’ evaluations regarding their relative LMX and following reactions.

In separate times, two different questionnaires which are both in Turkish were given separately to employees and their immediate team leaders, who are formally responsible for evaluating employees’ performance. As a common practice, before

conducting each questionnaire on the employees and the leaders, the interviewer firstly gave an oral explanation of the content of the questionnaire and assured the confidentiality of the responses. Each questionnaire was coded with an identification number to match each employee's response with his/her immediate team leader's evaluations.

In employee questionnaires, each employee is asked to evaluate his/her LMX quality with his/her immediate leader, as well as his/her perceptions regarding the LMX variability in his/her team by making categorization of the team members according to their relationship quality with the leader in a five level scale, and then stating the number of people in each level of relationship quality. Moreover, each employee, by being a member of a work group, was asked to assess his/her relative deprivation cognitions as well as affective evaluations regarding his/her own relationship with the leader in comparison to that of referent others. In addition to these, each employee answered questions regarding his/her job satisfaction, affective commitment to organization, and also his/her intentions to quit.

On the other hand, by the questionnaires given to the immediate team leaders, each team leader evaluated the organizational citizenship behavior and in-role performance of each employee who is under his/her supervision. Any pair of questionnaires which do not have matching identification numbers for the employee and the leader questionnaire is excluded from the sample. As a result, 71% of the leader-member dyads who were initially contacted formed the final data set. The employee sample was composed by 67% males, 33% females with an average age of 32 and average tenure of 5.9 years.

Measures

The scales that are used to measure the variables in the proposed models of the study are given below. Among them, in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior scale items are used only in the questionnaire conducted to the team leaders, who evaluated the in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior of each employee under their supervision. All the other scale items, except in-role performance and OCB, are put together to form the questionnaire conducted to the employees.

Items of the Scales in the Leader Questionnaire

Organization Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

OCB is measured by 13-item scale of Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie (1997). The scale items are presented in the below table:

Table 2. Items of OCB Scale

<i>Organization Citizenship Behavior (OCB)</i>
Helps others out if someone falls behind in his/her work.
Willingly share his/her expertise with other members of the crew.
Try to act like peacemaker when other crew members have disagreements.
Take steps to try to prevent problems with other crew members.
Willingly give of his/her time to help crew members who have work-related problems.
'Touch base' with other crew members before initiating actions that might affect them.
Encourage the crew member when he/she is down.
Provide constructive suggestions about how the crew can improve its effectiveness.
Are willing to risk disapproval to express his/her beliefs about what's best for the crew.
Attend and actively participate in team meetings.
Always focus on what is wrong with the situation, rather than the positive side. (R)
Consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. (R)
Always find fault with what other crew members are doing. (R)

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)
(R): item is reverse coded

In-Role Performance

In-Role Performance is measured by 7-item scale of Williams & Anderson (1991). The items of the scale are as follows:

Table 3. Items of In-Role Performance Scale

In-role performance

Adequately completes assigned duties.
Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.
Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.
Meets formal performance requirements of the job.
Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.
Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform. (R)
Fails to perform essential duties. (R)

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)
(R): item is reverse coded

Items of the Scales in the Employee Questionnaire

Intentions to Quit

Intentions to quit is measured using 5 items adapted by Wayne and associates (1997) in their research by using items of Landau and Hammer (1986), and Nadler, Jenkins, Cammann and Lawler (1975). The items are shown in below table.

Table 4. Items of Intentions to Quit Scale

Intentions to Quit

I am actively looking for a job outside my company
As soon as I can find a better job, I will leave my company.
I am seriously thinking about quitting my job
I often think about quitting my job at this company
I think I will be working at this company five years from now (R)

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)
(R): item is reverse coded

Leader-member exchange (LMX)

LMX construct is measured by 12-item LMX Multidimensional (LMXMDM) scale developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998). The items of the scale are as follows:

Table 5. Items of LMX Scale

Leader-member exchange (LMX)

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

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)

Affective Commitment to Organization

Affective organizational commitment is measured by 8-item scale of Allen & Meyer (1990). The scale items are displayed as follows:

Table 6. Items of Affective Commitment Scale

Affective Commitment

I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R).
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R)
I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)
(R): item is reverse coded

Interdependent Self-Construal

Interdependent self-construal is measured by using 12 items of Self-Construal Scale of Singelis (1994) that are specific to interdependent self-construal.

Table 7. Items of Interdependent Self-Construal Scale

Interdependent Self-Construal

I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.
My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.
I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor.
I respect people who are modest about themselves.
I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.
I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.
I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.
It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.
I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group.
If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.
Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument.

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)

Independent Self-Construal

Independent self-construal is measured by Singelis (1994) Self-Construal Scale.

Table 8. Items of Independent Self-Construal Scale

Independent Self-Construal

I'd rather say "No" directly, than risk being misunderstood.
Speaking up during a class (*or in public*) is not a problem for me.
Having a lively imagination is important to me.
I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.
I am the same person at home that I am at school(*job*).
Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.
I act the same way no matter who I am with.
I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am.
I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.
I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.
My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.
I value being in good health above everything.

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)

Perceived Organizational Support

POS is measured through the 8-item short version of Perceived Organizational Support survey by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch (1997), which was originally composed as 36 items by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa (1986). The short form of the scale comprises eight of the highest loading items in the original instrument that are exhibited in below table.

Table 9. Items of Perceived Organizational Support Scale

<i>Perceived Organizational Support</i>
My organization cares about my opinions.
My organization really cares about my well-being.
My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me. (R)
My organization shows very little concern for me. (R)
My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)
(R): item is reverse coded

Peer Support

Peer Support is measured by the scale developed by Currivan (1999). The items of the scale are as follows:

Table 10. Items of Peer Support Scale

<i>Peer Support</i>
My co-workers can be relied upon when things get tough.
My co-workers are willing to listen to my job-related problems.
My co-workers are helpful to me in getting my job done.

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)

Relative Deprivation

Relative deprivation feeling is measured by the scale developed by Tougas and colleagues (2004) which is an adaptation of previously developed personal relative deprivation scale of Tougas, Beaton and Veilleux, (1991). In this 8-item relative deprivation feeling scale, four items separately measure cognitive component of relative deprivation, while the remaining four items measure the affective component of relative deprivation. As suggested by the Tougas et al. (2004), by getting averages of one cognitive item and one affective item complementing each other, in total four composite item scores will be derived from four pairs of cognitive and affective relative deprivation items.

In fact, in extant literature, there are different scales developed for measuring relative deprivation feeling (e.g., Sablonniere, & Tougas, 2008; Tougas & Beaton, 1993, Tougas, Sablonniere, Lagace, & Kocum, 2003, Tougas et al., 2004). In almost all of them, cognitive component of relative deprivation and affective component of relative deprivation are measured separately; however some studies use the composite item scores derived from pairs of cognitive and affective relative deprivation items, while some of the studies prefer to obtain separate variable scores for cognitive component and affective component.

Tougas and colleagues' (2004) relative deprivation scale items adapted by leader subordinate social exchange perspective to be used in this study are as follows:

Table 11. Items of Relative Deprivation Feeling Scale

<i>Relative Deprivation</i>
(C) Do you feel that you are less appreciated than others by your immediate supervisor? *
(A) To what extent are you satisfied with this situation (R) **
(C) Do you have the impression that your work is evaluated less than that of others by your immediate supervisor? *
(A) To what extent are you satisfied with this situation (R) **
(C) Do you feel that you have offered fewer opportunities than others by your immediate supervisor? *
(A) To what extent are you satisfied with this situation (R) **
(C) Do you feel that other employees can deprive your position of you? *
(A) To what extent are you satisfied with this situation (R) **

*: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly agree, 5=strongly disagree)
 **: 5-point Likert scale (1=very dissatisfied, 5=very satisfied)
 (C): cognitive component, (A): affective component, (R): item is reverse coded

Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction is measured with a shorter version of by Brayfield & Rothe's (1951) job satisfaction scale, which was shortened to a five item scale by Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger (1998), who also defined the original scale as one of the most affective orientated job satisfaction measure. The items used in the study are as follows:

Table 12. Items of Job Satisfaction Scale

<i>Job Satisfaction</i>
I am fairly well satisfied with my job.
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
Each day of work seems like it will never end. (R)
I find real enjoyment in my work.
I consider my job rather unpleasant. (R)

Response scale: 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)
 (R): item is reverse coded

Future Job Expectations

Future expectations of an employee regarding his/her anticipation for the future conditions in his/her current job are measured by a five item scale adapted from Lee and Mowday's (1987) original '*met expectations*' scale. While in the original scale of Lee and Mowday (1987) individuals are asked about their comparative assessment for the state of their past expectations and the current situation of their job conditions, in this adapted version employees are asked to rate their current expectations about the anticipated "*future conditions of their jobs*" in comparison to the "*present situations*" of the conditions of their jobs within five specific aspects, which are; 1) relationship with immediate supervisor, 2) relationship with co-workers, 3) physical working conditions, 4) financial aspects of job (e.g., pay and benefits); and 5) opportunities/matters affecting career future.

The exact wordings of the items used for measuring future job expectations of individuals are given in the following table.

Table 13. Items of Future Job Expectations

<i>Future Expectations</i>
My relationship with my immediate supervisor in my current job will be...
My relationship with my co-workers in my current job will be...
The physical conditions in my current job will be...
The financial aspects (e.g., pay and benefits) of my current job will be...
Opportunities/matters in my current job affecting my future career will be...

Response scale: 5-point attitude scale (1= much worse than today, 5= much better than today)

Perceived Relative LMX (PerRLMX)

Given that this research is based on *individual level of perceptions*, the data is collected respectively. In order to measure individual level perceptions of relative LMX, first, individual's own perception about the LMX variability in his/her team, as well as, his/her standing within this perceived LMX distribution are measured. For this specific purpose, Hooper and Martin's (2008) "LMX Distribution Measure" is used in order to collect data from each individual for his/her perceptual evaluation about the quality of the relationship of each team member with the leader, including his/her own relationship with the leader. Hooper and Martin (2008) clearly point that the wording '*relationship quality*' which is used in their LMX distribution measure directly aligns with the theoretical definition of LMX, which is the quality of the exchange relationship between a leader and an employee (p.24). Moreover, in their empirical study by which they validated the measure, Hooper and Martin (2008) exhibited that LMX distribution measure had a good construct validity when benchmarked against scores on the LMX-7 (Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1995); such that, the correlation between the self LMX rating on the LMX distribution measure and the self LMX rating on the LMX-7 was 0.75, which indicates a high association among them. Moreover, Hooper and Martin (2008) showed that these two different LMX ratings both produced similar effect sizes when correlated with known LMX outcomes (pg. 24).

In line with the instructions given in LMX distribution measure, as a first step, a participant writes down the total number of employees in his/her team, including also him/herself to this total number. Then he/she is asked to distribute this total number into

five separate boxes of the LMX distribution measure, in which, each box represents a different levels of relationship quality with the leader; explicitly, 1= very poor, 2 = poor, 3 = satisfactory, 4 = good, or 5 = very good level of relationship. By distributing the total number of team members including him/herself into each box according to their relationship qualities with the leader, the participant, in fact, visually exhibits his/her own perception about the LMX distribution in his/her team (Hooper and Martin, 2008). In addition to these steps, by a following instruction in the LMX distribution measure, the participant is asked to explicitly rate his/her own relationship quality with the leader by the same 5 point Likert scale, specifically, 1= very poor, 2 = poor, 3 = satisfactory, 4 = good, or 5 = very good.

The original display of LMX distribution measure presented by Hooper and Martin (2008) in their study (p. 28) is exhibited by the below figure.

Instructions				
The boxes below represent different quality relationships that may exist between members of your work team and your immediate supervisor. Please indicate in each box the number of members in your work team whose working relationship with the supervisor falls within each category (<u>please include yourself in this count</u>). The boxes should add together to equal the number of people in your work team. If unsure, please make a reasonable estimate.				
Very Poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very Good
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
The quality of the working relationship between myself and my supervisor is... (please circle the appropriate response)				
Very Poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very Good

Figure 5. Display of LMX distribution measure (Hooper & Martin, 2008, p. 28)

Based on the individual perceptual data gathered by LMX distribution measure of Hooper and Martin (2008), in this study, perception based LMX differentiation, and subjective RLMX , i.e., perceived relative LMX (PerRLMX) constructs are calculated for each respondent in line with their answers to the LMX distribution measure.

As a validated and commonly used method in literature, in empirical studies relative LMX (RLMX) is usually calculated by the difference method of Kozlowski and Klein (2000), that is, by subtracting individual's LMX quality from group members' average LMX quality (e.g., Graen, et al., 1982; Henderson et al., 2008). By applying Kozlowski and Klein's (2000) difference method, in this study subjective RLMX (i.e., PerRLMX) is calculated by subtracting the relationship quality of focal individual with his/her leader from his/her team's mean relationship quality by using the perception based data obtained from LMX Distribution measure (Hooper & Martin, 2008).

As a result, PerRLMX becomes a variable which is obtained from the perceptions of the focal individual about his/her standing (i.e., ranking) within the team regarding his/her relationship with the leader. In this respect, the main difference among PerRLMX and RLMX depends on the data used in each one, while PerRLMX uses merely the focal individual's perceptions as the source of data, RLMX uses combined perceptions of both the focal individual and the each team member in his/her group.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSES AND HYPOTHESES TESTING

After the items of the questionnaire were determined, the English versions of the original scale items were translated into Turkish by two independent translators who have good command of both English and Turkish. Then, the two versions of the Turkish translations were discussed with an independent reviewer to decide on the exact translation of each item of the questionnaire. Then, Turkish versions of the items were back translated into English by another independent translator. Finally, the resulting English version was compared against the original items and final version of the questionnaire was prepared by the researcher.

Before the distribution of the questionnaire to the actual sample, a pilot study was conducted in order to assess whether all the questions and directions in the questionnaire are understood properly. The data for this pilot study were collected from 80 employees and their 20 immediate team leaders in different companies operating in the service sector. Based on the feedback received, ambiguous wordings were rephrased and the survey instrument was finalized. Next, the final version of the questionnaire was conducted to the main sample of the study.

Before performing multivariate analysis, the data screening was performed, including identification and handling of missing values, outliers, and normality assessments. Next, data analyses were started by performing exploratory factor analyses.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a statistical approach to determine the correlations among variables in a dataset so that by understanding the underlying structure (dimensionality/unidimensionality) among variables, the original data set of the study can be reduced into smaller set of composite dimensions or factors (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Together with reliability tests, EFA prepares the variables of the study to be used for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is the first step of structural equation modeling providing the validation of the factor structure of the variables. In contrast to CFA, EFA can be conducted without knowing how many factors really exist or which variables belong to which constructs (Hair et al., 2010). There are two factor extraction methods that can be selected to be used in EFA analysis, namely *common factor analyses* and *principal component analyses*. While common factor analysis is more appropriate for data summarization purposes, principal component analysis is more useful when the purpose is data reduction through summarizing most of the original information (variance) in a minimum number of factors for prediction purposes (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, for the interpretation of factor loadings, either *orthogonal* or *oblique* rotations can be selected as a rotation type in EFA.

In order to validate the appropriateness of data for EFA analysis, it is necessary to check *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy* (KMO) as well as the significance level of *Bartlett's Test of Sphericity*. While the specific purpose of Bartlett's test is for assessing the overall significance of the correlation matrix so that variables of the study are related to each other, on the other hand, KMO measure basically informs

about the patterns and intercorrelations between the variables of the study by indicating their factorability. As a general principal, a KMO above 0.50, as well as a significant Bartlett test together justify the use of EFA (Hair et al., 2010).

In order to use the results of the EFA in further analysis, researchers have options of either using one surrogate variable per factor, creating new composite variables for each variable, or reflecting the size of each variable's factor loading to factor scores. After the construction of the summated scales, the scales have to be evaluated for reliability and validity (Hair et al., 2010). Reliability is simply the extent to which scales give consistent results on repeated trials, so that replicability of research findings is ensured. The most commonly used reliability test is *Cronbach's alpha* measure which reflects level of internal consistency. Internal consistency requires that individual items or indicators of the scale should all be measuring the same construct and therefore need to be highly intercorrelated. Cronbach's alpha estimates internal consistency of factors by correlating each item in a scale with all the other items and with the summated scale scores; consequently, it reveals a reliability coefficient by using average correlations among items (Hair et al., 2010). For high internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha is expected to be 0.70, but it may decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research (Hair et al., 2010). On the other hand, validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest, which is mostly evaluated through the separate assessments of convergence validity, discriminant validity, face validity and nomological validity (Hair et al., 2010).

In line with above rules, by using SPSS 17.0 software firstly the appropriateness of the data was checked via KMO and Bartlett's test which is documented in Table 14. The result of KMO test gives a value of 0.899 that is above the required threshold of

0.50, and Bartlett's test shows a significant result, therefore, the data is shown to be appropriate for conducting EFA.

Table 14. KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.899
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	13428.932
	df	2346
	Sig.	.000

As a next step, EFA was conducted by using SPSS 17.0 software to understand the underlying dimensionality of the study variables. In the EFA analysis, with the purpose of data reduction principal component method was selected, and varimax rotation was applied since it is the most frequently used type of orthogonal rotation (Hair et al., 2010). For measure purification purposes, items that have low factor loadings (<0.5) and high cross-loadings are excluded from the item groups before calculating summated scales (Nunnally, 1978). The result of EFA is reported in Table 15. The resultant factors collectively account for 61 % of the total variance.

As a next step, summated scales were calculated by taking the average of the variables in the twelve factors. In order to assess their reliabilities, Cronbach's alpha scores for each factor were computed. Table 15 includes each factor's Cronbach's alpha scores, as well as factor loadings of each item in that factor. As can be seen from the table, Cronbach's alpha scores of all factors are above the threshold limit of 0.70, signifying high internal consistency for factors. Finally, concerning validity assessments, EFA result is examined for convergence validity, discriminant validity and face validity. Since, items of each factor are highly correlated with each other, convergent validity is

confirmed. Discriminant validity is also ensured because the items load significantly on one factor, thus no cross loadings exist, that is, items relate more strongly to their own factor than any other factor. As a final assessment, face validity is ensured by having conceptually consistent item contents for factors which are consistent with the established scales from literature.

Table 15. Factor Structure

Factor 1: LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX)	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.920
I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	0.753	
My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	0.742	
I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	0.735	
My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	0.732	
My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	0.706	
My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	0.701	
I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.	0.691	
My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	0.689	
I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's work goals.	0.687	
I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.	0.667	
I like my supervisor very much as a person.	0.634	
I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	0.554	
Factor 2: ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR (OCB)	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.898
Provide constructive suggestions about how the crew can improve its effectiveness.	0.727	
Encourage the crew member when he/she is down.	0.720	
Willingly share his/her expertise with other members of the crew.	0.720	
Take steps to try to prevent problems with other crew members.	0.701	
Helps others out if someone falls behind in his/her work.	0.700	
'Touch base' with other crew members before initiating actions that might	0.693	
Try to act like peacemaker when other crew members have disagreements.	0.686	
Willingly give of his/her time to help crew members who have work-related problems.	0.664	
Attend and actively participate in team meetings.	0.571	

Are willing to risk disapproval to express his/her beliefs about what's best for the crew.	0.535	
Factor 3: AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.874
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)	0.719	
I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	0.697	
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	0.694	
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.679	
I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)	0.667	
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R)	0.664	
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)	0.638	
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	0.636	
Factor 4: IN-ROLE PERFORMANCE	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.917
Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	0.813	
Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.	0.808	
Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	0.807	
Adequately completes assigned duties.	0.771	
Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	0.718	
Factor 5: INTENTIONS TO QUIT	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.931
I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.	-0.862	
I often think about quitting my job at this company.	-0.816	
I am actively looking for a job outside my company.	-0.814	
As soon as I can find a better job, I will leave my company.	-0.785	
Factor 6: INTERDEPENDENT SELF-CONSTRUAL	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.804
I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.	0.707	
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.	0.694	
It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.	0.663	
I respect people who are modest about themselves	0.636	
I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor	0.616	
I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in	0.615	
I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.	0.565	
I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.	0.537	
Factor 7: INDEPENDENT SELF-CONSTRUAL	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.790
I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.	0.718	
I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.	0.663	

Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.	0.639	
My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.	0.619	
Speaking up during a class (<i>or in public</i>) is not a problem for me.	0.608	
I act the same way no matter who I am with.	0.571	
I am the same person at home that I am at school (<i>job</i>).	0.553	
Factor 8: PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT (POS)	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.882
My organization really cares about my well-being.	0.766	
My organization strongly considers my goals and values.	0.728	
My organization cares about my opinions.	0.592	
Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.	0.565	
My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.	0.548	
Factor 9: PEER SUPPORT	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.888
My co-workers are willing to listen to my job-related problems.	0.795	
My co-workers are helpful to me in getting my job done.	0.794	
My co-workers can be relied upon when things get tough.	0.762	
Factor 10: RELATIVE DEPRIVATION FEELING	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.830
Feel that other employees can deprive your position of you (cognitive); and your dissatisfaction about it (affective).	-0.721	
Have the impression that your work is evaluated less than that of others by your immediate supervisor (cognitive); and your dissatisfaction about it (affective).	-0.625	
Feel that you are less appreciated than others by your immediate supervisor (cognitive); and your dissatisfaction about it (affective).	-0.569	
Feel that you have offered fewer opportunities than others by your immediate supervisor (cognitive); and your dissatisfaction about it (affective).	-0.525	
Factor 11: JOB SATISFACTION	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.773
Each day of work seems like it will never end. (R)	0.664	
I consider my job rather unpleasant. (R)	0.560	
I find real enjoyment in my work.	0.516	
Factor 12: FUTURE JOB EXPECTATIONS	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.849
The physical conditions in my current job will be...	0.836	
The financial aspects (e.g., pay and benefits) of my current job will be...	0.820	
Opportunities/matters in my current job affecting my future career will be...	0.808	
My relationship with my immediate supervisor in my current job will be...	0.805	
My relationship with my co-workers in my current job will be...	0.676	

In line with the well established theoretical background of LMX-12 construct (Liden and Maslyn, 1998), the LMX items in the study are entered into a separate factor analysis to assess whether their underlying dimensionality is in line with the Liden and Maslyn's (1998) four dimension conceptualization. When the solution was forced to extract four factors, the resulting factor outcomes as well as the results of KMO and Bartlett's test confirm the original four factor conceptualization, by having all items with factor loadings above the threshold value of 0.50 without any cross loadings. The factor structure of LMX construct is exhibited in Table 16.

Table 16. Dimensions of LMX Construct

Factor 1: LOYALTY	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.891
My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	0.842	
My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	0.805	
My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	0.784	
Factor 2: PROFESSIONAL RESPECT	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.829
I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.	0.775	
I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	0.746	
I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	0.709	
Factor 3: AFFECT	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.834
I like my supervisor very much as a person.	0.805	
My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	0.696	
My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	0.617	
Factor 4: CONTRIBUTION	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Items</i>		0.787
I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job	0.819	
I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's work goals.	0.749	
I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.	0.563	

Total Variance Explained = 78 %		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = .890		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000		

PerRLMX is not added to the EFA because it is a single-item construct that is derived by subtracting the focal individual's perceptions about his/her own relationship quality with the leader from that of team's mean relationship quality with the leader. The computation of PerRLMX is done by the difference method of Kozlowski and Klein (2000), which has been used for the computation of RLMX (Graen, et al., 1982; Henderson et al., 2008) in the extant structure. The only difference among the computation of RLMX and PerRLMX constructs are in the source of data used. While PerRLMX uses merely the focal individual's perceptions as the source of data, RLMX uses combined perceptions of both the focal individual and the each team member in his/her group. In their original study, Hooper and Martin (2008) stated that LMX Distribution Measure had a good construct validity when benchmarked against scores on the LMX-7 (Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1995); such that, the correlation between the self LMX rating on the LMX Distribution measure and the self LMX rating on the LMX-7 was high, which is validated in two different samples (Sample A, $r = .66$; Sample B, $r = .75$; $p < .01$), besides, these two different LMX ratings both produced similar effect sizes when correlated with known LMX outcomes (pg. 24). In this study, the correlation among LMX-12 (Liden and Maslyn, 1998) and the self LMX rating on the LMX Distribution measure is also high ($r = .66$, $p < .01$), confirming the construct validity of PerRLMX.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In the previous section of the study EFA analysis was conducted to depict the underlying dimensionality of the constructs. As a next step, in order to confirm the dimensionality of purified measures obtained by EFA, the CFA analysis is going to be conducted by AMOS 16.0 software, and the results of CFA are going to be presented in this section of the study.

While in EFA researcher does not need to have a priori conceptualization about the item and factor formations, however before conducting CFA researcher need to specify the number of the factors and their underlying item formations (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, CFA serves as the first step in a two-step structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis, such that, via CFA measurement model is developed and its validity is assessed. Only after validating the measurement model, researcher can move to the second step in which full structural model is developed and model's overall fit is evaluated.

Model fit mainly refers to how well the covariance matrix generated by the proposed model corresponds to the actual covariance matrix (Hair et al., 2010). In order to assess model fit, there are several goodness of fit (GOF) indices that can be employed, which are classified into *absolute fit indices* [e.g., chi-square statistics (χ^2), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), root mean square error approximation (RMSEA), root mean square residual (RMR)]; and *incremental fit indices* [e.g., comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)]; and *parsimony fit indices* [adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) and parsimony normed fit index (PNFI)] . In general good fit implies that there is not any significant discrepancy among proposed and observed correlations. As a

common practice, researchers only report three to four fit indices due to the redundancy of using all. However, as a rule-of-thumb in any case it is recommended to report χ^2 value with the associated degrees of freedom, CFI and RMSEA to provide sufficient fit information about the model (Hair et al, 2010).

CFA's main aim is to assess whether a given measurement model is valid or not. In case, CFA indicates a need for modification to improve the model's test of measurement theory, then the researcher can make the changes suggested by modification indices pointing to the discrepancies between the proposed and estimated model, and also check the standardized residual covariance values which are greater than absolute value of four since they suggest a potentially unacceptable degree of error (Hair et al., 2010). Besides, if there are items with relatively low factor loadings (<0.70), and cross correlations, the related items need to be eliminated before progressing for the structural model.

The number of constructs and the total items of the current study are fairly high in number regarding the sample size. In this respect, rather than performing a single CFA for all constructs, two separate CFAs are conducted; specifically, one for all independent and dependent variables of the proposed model, and the other CFA for the proposed moderators of the model. The final models after deletion of the specified items in line with the above mentioned rules of CFA analysis are presented in Figure 6, and Figure 7. In each of the measurement models, the items of all constructs are restricted to load on their priori extracted factors, and the constructs in each measurement model are allowed to correlate with each other. Accordingly, the items included in the final model of the study after deletion of the specified items are listed in Table 17.

Table 17. Items in the Structural Model after CFA

LMX
<p><i>Loyalty</i></p> <p>My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.</p> <p>My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.</p> <p>My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.</p>
<p><i>Professional Respect</i></p> <p>I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.</p> <p>I admire my supervisor's professional skills.</p> <p>I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.</p>
<p><i>Affect</i></p> <p>I like my supervisor very much as a person.</p> <p>My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.</p> <p>My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.</p>
<p><i>Contribution</i></p> <p>I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job.</p> <p>I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's work goals.</p> <p>I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.</p>
OCB
<p>Helps others out, if someone falls behind in his/her work.</p> <p>Willingly share his/her expertise with other members of the crew.</p> <p>Try to act like peacemaker when other crew members have disagreements.</p> <p>Take steps to try to prevent problems with other crew members.</p> <p>Willingly give of his/her time to help crew members who have work-related problems.</p> <p>'Touch base' with other crew members before initiating actions that might affect them.</p> <p>Encourage the crew member when he/she is down.</p> <p>Provide constructive suggestions about how the crew can improve its effectiveness.</p>
AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT
<p>I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.</p> <p>I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.</p> <p>I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.</p> <p>I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)</p> <p>This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</p> <p>I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)</p>
IN-ROLE PERFORMANCE
<p>Adequately completes assigned duties.</p> <p>Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.</p> <p>Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.</p> <p>Meets formal performance requirements of the job.</p> <p>Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.</p>
INTENTIONS TO QUIT
<p>I am actively looking for a job outside my company.</p> <p>As soon as I can find a better job, I will leave my company.</p>

I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.
I often think about quitting my job at this company.

INTERDEPENDENT SELF-CONSTRUAL

I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.
It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.
I respect people who are modest about themselves
I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor
I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in
I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.
I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.

INDEPENDENT SELF-CONSTRUAL

I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.
I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.
Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.
My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.
Speaking up during a class (or in public) is not a problem for me.
I act the same way no matter who I am with.
I am the same person at home that I am at school (job).

PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT (POS)

My organization really cares about my well-being.
My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
My organization cares about my opinions.
Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.

PEER SUPPORT

My co-workers are willing to listen to my job-related problems.
My co-workers are helpful to me in getting my job done.
My co-workers can be relied upon when things get tough.

RELATIVE DEPRIVATION FEELING

Feel that other employees can deprive your position of you (cognitive); and, your dissatisfaction about it (affective).
Have the impression that your work is evaluated less than that of others by your immediate supervisor (cognitive); and, your dissatisfaction about it (affective).
Feel that you are less appreciated than others by your immediate supervisor (cognitive); and, your dissatisfaction about it (affective).
Feel that you have offered fewer opportunities than others by your immediate supervisor (cognitive); and, your dissatisfaction about it (affective).

JOB SATISFACTION

Each day of work seems like it will never end. (R)
I consider my job rather unpleasant. (R)
I find real enjoyment in my work.

FUTURE EXPECTATIONS

The physical conditions in my current job will be...
 The financial aspects (e.g., pay and benefits) of my current job will be...
 Opportunities/matters in my current job affecting my future career will be...
 My relationship with my immediate supervisor in my current job will be...
 My relationship with my co-workers in my current job will be...

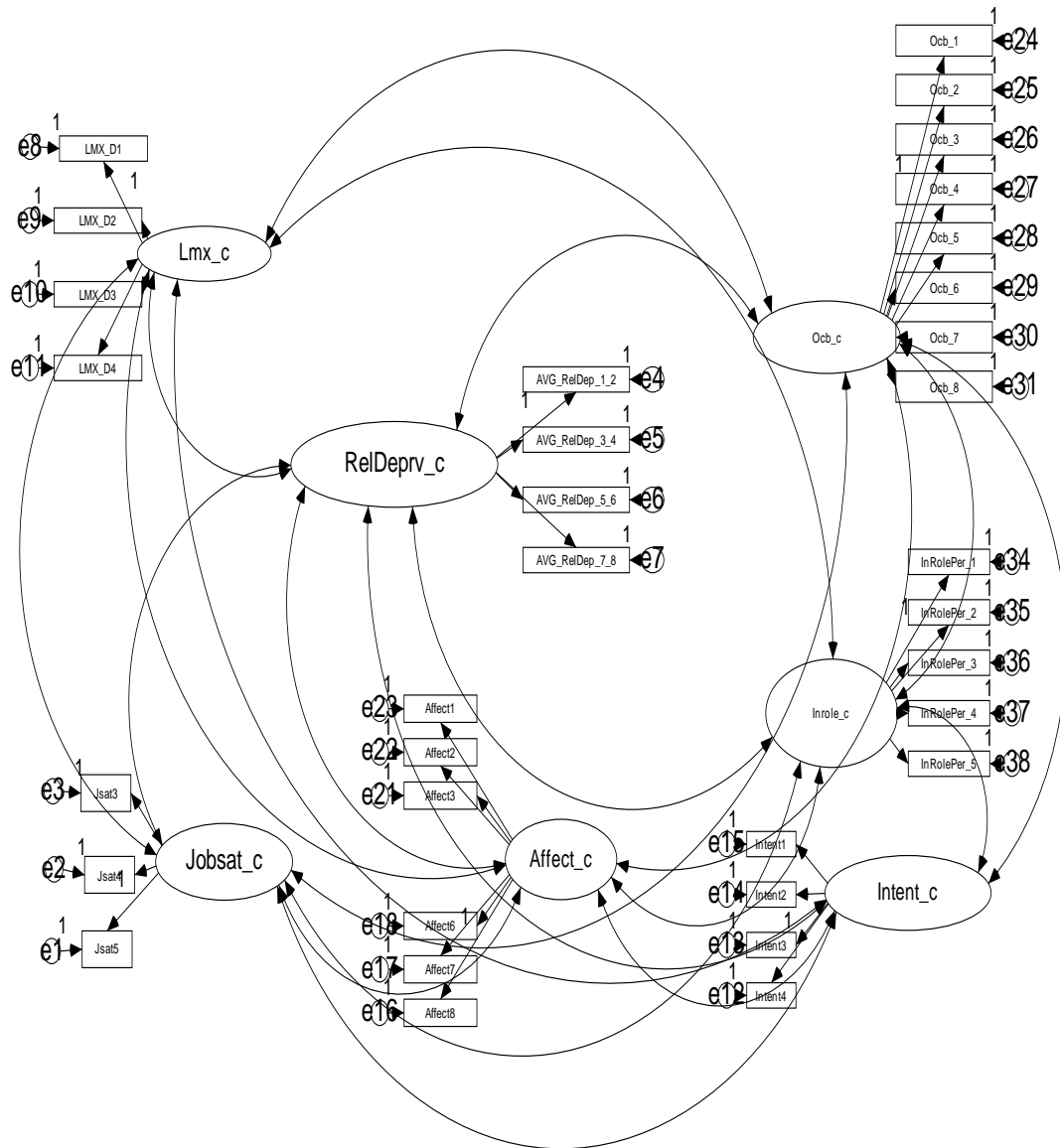


Figure 6. Confirmatory factor analysis for main constructs

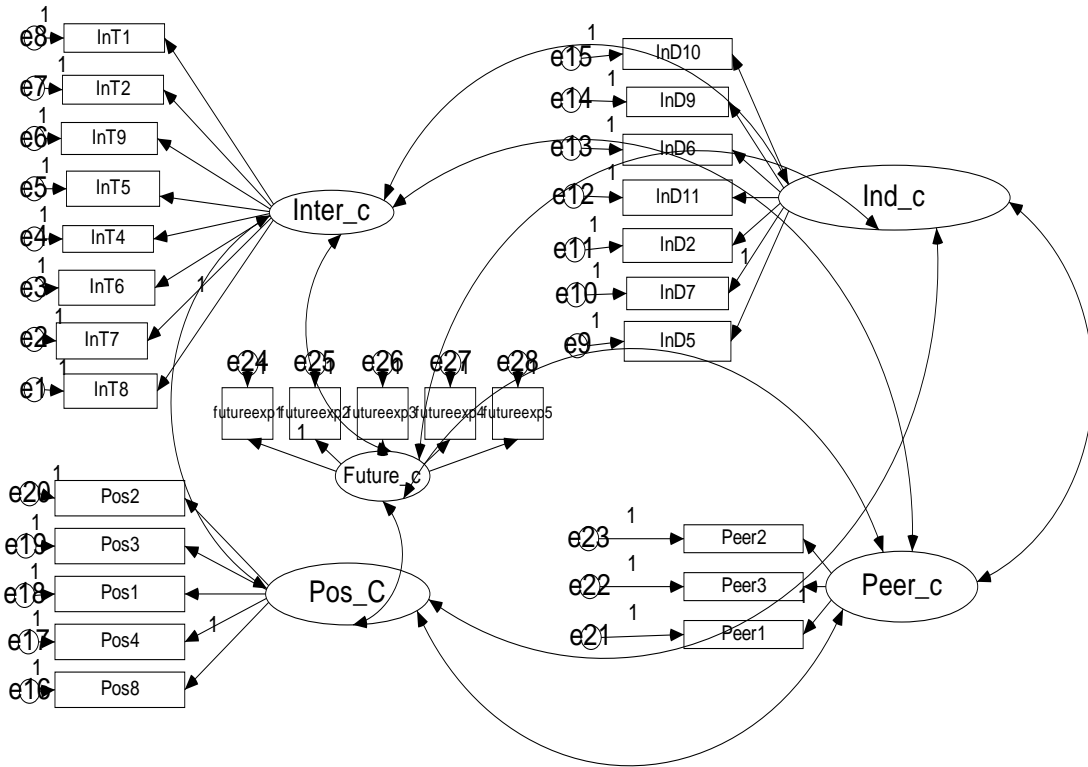


Figure 7. Confirmatory factor analysis for moderators

As explained in the above sections, in order to assess measurement model and structural model, there are several GOF indices that can be employed (Hair et al., 2010). As commonly used GOF indices, in this study chi-square statistic (χ^2), CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and SRMR are selected as the assessment indices. Hair and colleagues (2010) state CFI and TLI values above .90, and RMSEA and SRMR values below .08 indicate acceptable model fit.

As a desired outcome of the chi-square test, in order to accept the null hypothesis that observed and estimated covariance matrices are not different, a non-significant p-value is desired. However, as pointed by Hair and colleagues (2010), the chi-square test is sensitive to sample size and to the number of parameters in the model, thus, with the condition that the number of observations is greater than 250 and the model has more

than thirty observed variables, a significant chi-square statistic (χ^2) is expected (p. 672). Since the sample size and the total number of observations in the current study are above the threshold values, it is expected that chi-square statistics will be significant and its value will have no relevance in assessing the fit of the models.

The measurement model fit for the main constructs of the study and measurement model fit for the moderators of the proposed model obtained from CFA analyses are summarized in the Table 18 and Table 19 respectively. As can be seen from Table 18, chi-square (χ^2) value of the model for main constructs is 751.654 and degrees of freedom value is 506. Chi square value / degrees of freedom is 1.485 which is <2 , as it is required. Although p-value of the χ^2 is statistically significant ($p=0.000$), as explained in above section it does not indicate a misfit, since for sample sizes over 250 with more than thirty observed variables a significant p value can be observed (Hair et al., 2010). Both CFI (0.961) and TLI (0.957) values of the model for the main constructs also indicate a good fit since they are greater than the advised cut off value of 0.90. Similarly, RMSEA (0.039) value is smaller than the cutoff value as required, so that indicates an acceptable fit. Finally, SRMR value (0.042) which is below the threshold of 0.08 also confirms the fit of the measurement model for main constructs. Exhibited in Table 19, the measurement model for the moderators of the proposed model of the study has also indices that signify good model fit. Such that, chi-square (χ^2) value of the model for moderators is 639.424 and degrees of freedom value is 340, consequently, chi square value / degrees of freedom is 1.881 which is <2 , as it is required. Similarly the significant χ^2 does not indicate a misfit due to high sample size and observed variables. All the other GOF measure values; namely, CFI (0.918); TLI

(0.909), RMSEA (0.053) and SRMR (0.056) also confirm a good fit for the measurement model of moderators.

Table 18. Measurement Model fit for Main Constructs

Index	Value	Threshold
CMIN/df	1.485	<2
CFI	0.961	>0.90
TLI	0.957	>0.90
RMSEA	0.039	<0.08
SRMR	0.042	<0.08
Chi-square value	$(\chi^2) = 751.654$	df = 506

Table 19. Measurement Model fit for Moderators

Index	Value	Threshold
CMIN/df	1.881	<2
CFI	0.918	>0.90
TLI	0.909	>0.90
RMSEA	0.053	<0.08
SRMR	0.056	<0.08
Chi-square value	$(\chi^2) = 639.424$	df = 340

Construct Validity

After conducting CFA, the need to summate the scales is eliminated since SEM programs compute latent construct scores for each respondent so that relationship between constructs are automatically corrected for the amount of error variance existing in the construct measures (Hair et al., 2010, p. 708). The main aim of conducting CFA is to assess the validity of the measurement model, so that, the measurement model would reflect the extent to which observed variables accurately measure what they are supposed to measure. In brief, assurance of construct validity provides the confidence

that item measures taken from a sample characterize the actual true score that exists in the population (Hair et. al, 2010, p. 709).

In order to confirm construct validity, both convergent validity and discriminant validity of the measurements scales should be verified. While convergent validity examines the similarity between related constructs, discriminant validity looks for a divergence between conceptually different constructs. High convergent validity can be assured by having high loadings on a factor indicating that they converge on a common latent construct. As a rule of thumb, statistically significant standardized loading estimates should be 0.5 or higher, and ideally 0.7 or higher (Hair et al., 2010, p. 709). Hair and colleagues (2010) point that reliability of the construct is also an indicator of convergent validity; such that, high construct reliability means that the measures under the same factor all consistently represent the same latent construct. Besides, both for the assurance of construct reliability and validity, construct reliability value should be greater than 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). On the other hand, to ensure discriminant validity, a latent construct should explain more of the variance in its item measures that it shares with another construct. Therefore, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) score for any two constructs should be greater than the squared correlation estimate between these two constructs (Hair et al., 2010). In line with above summarized criteria, convergent and discriminant validities are confirmed both for CFA model of the main constructs, and CFA model of the moderators of the study. Table 20 and Table 21 exhibit construct reliability estimates, factor correlations, and descriptive statistics for the main constructs, and for the moderator variables of the study, respectively.

Table 20. Descriptives, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations for Main Constructs

Main Constructs	Mean (S.D.)	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 OCB	3.69 (.61)	0.514	0.894						
2 Job Satisfaction	3.73 (.81)	0.556	0.407**	0.773					
3 Relative Deprivation	2.33 (.69)	0.566	-0.511**	-0.414**	0.830				
4 LMX	4.09 (.65)	0.611	0.349**	0.365**	-0.418**	0.920			
5 Intentions to Quit	2.15 (1.00)	0.771	-0.398**	-0.514**	0.328**	-0.315**	0.931		
6 Affective Commitment	3.42 (.58)	0.521	0.457**	0.406**	-0.282**	0.316**	-0.406**	0.862	
7 In-Role Performance	3.74 (.76)	0.691	0.400**	0.412**	-0.493**	0.396**	-0.391**	0.362**	0.917

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Notes: S.D. = standard deviation; values on the diagonal are Cronbach's Alpha estimates.

Table 21. Descriptives, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations for Moderator Variables

Moderators	Mean (S.D.)	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
1 Peer Support	3.92 (.71)	0.732	0.888				
2 Interdependent self	3.69 (.67)	0.587	0.127*	0.804			
3 Independent self	3.81 (.65)	0.594	0.212**	-0.339**	0.790		
4 POS	3.71 (.73)	0.606	0.492**	0.140**	0.193**	0.882	
5 Future Expectations	3.77 (.62)	0.538	0.430**	0.002	0.233**	0.577**	0.849

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Notes: S.D. = standard deviation; values on the diagonal are Cronbach's Alpha estimates.

After verifying measurement models, relationships in the hypothesized models are tested using the structural equation modeling (SEM) by AMOS 16.0 software. Parallel to the sequence of the previously reported hypotheses, the analyses of the study are conducted respectively. First, the path relationships among the variables of the study are tested by two separate SEM models in line with the two conceptual models of the study. Indeed, these two conceptual models are expected to be both comparative and supplementary to each other; since the combined evaluations of the path relationships of each model would help the researcher to make an holistic assessment about how and when absolute LMX and/or relative LMX perceptions of an employee might have an impact on employee's attitudes and behaviors. For that reason, while the first model of the study exhibits LMX initiated path relationships, the second model of the study integrates subjective relative LMX (PerRLMX), rather than LMX construct, as an independent variable that initiates relationships among the remaining constructs of the model, all of which are identical with the first model. Via two separate SEM analyses, proposed relationships for the hypotheses H1 to H5 are tested by evaluating model fits and comparative effect sizes of significant path estimates of the two models. In the first time of conducting SEM analyses no control variables are integrated to the models with an only exception for controlling the individual LMX quality in model 2 to depict the mere effect of PerRLMX, Next, the same models are re-tested with the possible control variables, namely, LMX differentiation (i.e., the variance of focal individual's perceptions for individual LMX scores of all team members), sex, age, and tenure, with the purpose of identifying the ones that are significantly correlated with the variables of interest, so that they would be included in subsequent analyses (Becker, 2005).

As a next step, in order to test the hypothesized mediation effect of relative deprivation feeling both in model 1 and in model 2 of the study, two separate mediation analyses are conducted by bootstrapping in AMOS. In line with the conceptual models of the study, it is hypothesized in H6 that employee's LMX quality and employee outcomes are expected to be mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling, while in H7 it is hypothesized that employee's PerRLMX and employee outcomes are expected to be mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.

Afterwards, two separate multi-group moderation analysis are conducted to test hypothesis H8 and hypothesis H9 , in order to determine whether the dominant self construal of an individual (i.e., independent vs. interdependent) has an effect on the strength of the relationship between an individual's LMX quality and relative deprivation feeling; as well as, to determine whether it has an effect on the strength of the relationship between an individual's PerRLMX and relative deprivation feeling.

In the final step of analyses, future job expectations, POS and peer support are investigated for their moderation effects on the relationships between relative deprivation feeling and employee attitudes and behaviors. By considering employee's future expectations about their current jobs as a possible contingency factor that may lead constructive responses rather than destructive reactions towards their feeling of relative deprivation, an interaction analysis is conducted to test the interaction effect of future expectations that is suggested in hypotheses H10. Besides, by conducting two other interaction analyses, hypotheses H11 and H12 are tested for the interaction effects of POS and peer support as organizational level variables that may act as possible stabilizers for the dark side of LMX relationships.

Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

By using AMOS 16.0 software with maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method, the structural model 1 and the structural model 2 of the study have been tested through two separate SEM analyses. By these analyses, first the model fits are assessed and then the path relationships which have been proposed in hypotheses H1 to H5 are tested. The model fit indices displayed in Table 22 for model 1 show that the first model of the study provides a good fit ($\chi^2 = 894.259$, $df=516$, $CMIN/DF= 1.733$, $p=0.000$; $CFI = 0.940$; $TLI= 0.934$; $RMSEA = 0.048$; and $SRMR= 0.0775$). Similarly, exhibited in Table 23, the second model of the study also indicates a good fit ($\chi^2 = 956.961$, $df= 548$, $CMIN/DF= 1.746$, $p=0.000$; $CFI = 0.936$; $TLI= 0.930$; $RMSEA = 0.048$; and $SRMR= 0.072$). Although in both of the models the p-value of the χ^2 statistics are statistically significant ($p=0.000$), as explained in above sections this can be referred to the study's sample size being over 250 with more than thirty observed variables (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 22. SEM Model Fit for Model 1

Index	Value	Threshold value
CMIN/df	1.733	<2
CFI	0.940	>0.90
TLI	0.934	>0.90
RMSEA	0.048	<0.08
SRMR	0.0775	<0.09

Table 23. SEM Model Fit for Model 2

Index	Value	Threshold value
CMIN/df	1.746	<2
CFI	0.936	>0.90
TLI	0.930	>0.90
RMSEA	0.048	<0.08
SRMR	0.072	<0.09

Table 24. Parameter Estimates for Model 1 and Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Direct Effects without Mediation	Results of Hypotheses Testing	Direct Effects with Mediation (Path Estimates of Model 1)		t Value
				Non-standardized parameter	Standardized parameter estimate	
H1	LMX → Relative deprivation feeling	-0.47***	Supported	-0.564	-0.470	-7.082***
H3a	LMX → job satisfaction	0.55 ***	Supported	0.397	0.282	4.123***
H3b	LMX → intentions to quit	-0.48 ***	Supported	-0.426	-0.243	-3.676***
H3c	LMX → affective commitment	0.48 ***	Supported	0.234	0.280	3.913 ***
H3d	LMX → in-role performance	0.53 ***	Supported	0.275	0.237	3.789***
H3e	LMX → OCB	0.50 ***	Supported	0.156	0.157	2.491**
H5a1	Relative deprivation feeling → job satisfaction	-0.590***	Supported	-0.484	-0.412	-5.899***
H5b1	Relative deprivation feeling → intentions to quit	0.493***	Supported	0.486	0.333	4.982***
H5c1	Relative deprivation feeling → affective commitment	-0.458***	Supported	-0.196	-0.280	-3.936***
H5d1	Relative deprivation feeling → in-role performance	-0.621***	Supported	-0.464	-0.480	-7.133***
H5e1	Relative deprivation feeling → OCB	-0.663***	Supported	-0.464	-0.560	-7.533***

*** = $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

** = $p < .05$ (two-tailed)

Table 25. Parameter Estimates for Model 2 and Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Direct Effects without Mediation	Results of Hypotheses Testing	Direct Effects with Mediation (Path Estimates of Model 2)		t Value
				Non-standardized parameter	Standardized parameter estimate	
H2	PerRLMX → Relative deprivation feeling	-0.448***	Supported	-0.465	-0.448	-7.905***
H4a	PerRLMX → job satisfaction	0.311 ***	Supported	-0.106	-0.083	-1.188
H4b	PerRLMX → intentions to quit	-0.232 ***	Supported	0.194	0.122	1.814
H4c	PerRLMX → affective commitment	0.257 ***	Supported	-0.040	-0.053	-0.736
H4d	PerRLMX → in-role performance	0.401 ***	Supported	0.029	0.028	0.436
H4e	PerRLMX → OCB	0.359 ***	Supported	-0.062	-0.068	-1.066
H5a2	Relative deprivation feeling → job satisfaction	-0.590***	Supported	-0.826	-0.671	-8.129***
H5b2	Relative deprivation feeling → intentions to quit	0.493***	Supported	0.909	0.592	7.620***
H5c2	Relative deprivation feeling → affective commitment	-0.458***	Supported	-0.381	-0.520	-6.192***
H5d2	Relative deprivation feeling → in-role performance	-0.621***	Supported	-0.635	-0.626	-8.037***
H5e2	Relative deprivation feeling → OCB	-0.663***	Supported	-0.624	-0.717	-8.198***

*** = $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

The parameter estimates both for significant and non-significant paths in Model 1 and Model 2 of the study, as well as, summary of the results for the related hypotheses are demonstrated in Table 24 and Table 25 above. The significant path estimates for model 1 and model 2 are visually shown by Figure 8 and Figure 9 below.

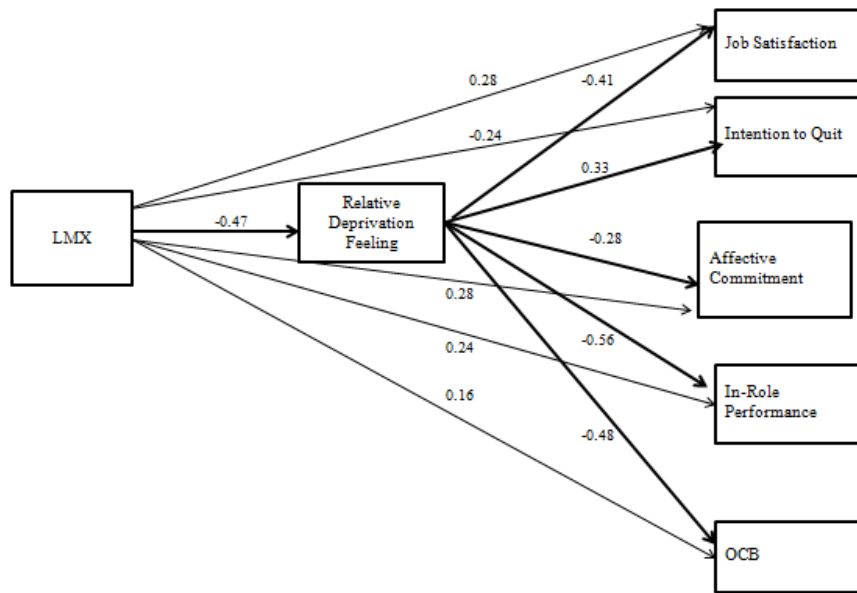


Figure 8. Significant path estimates for model 1 of the study

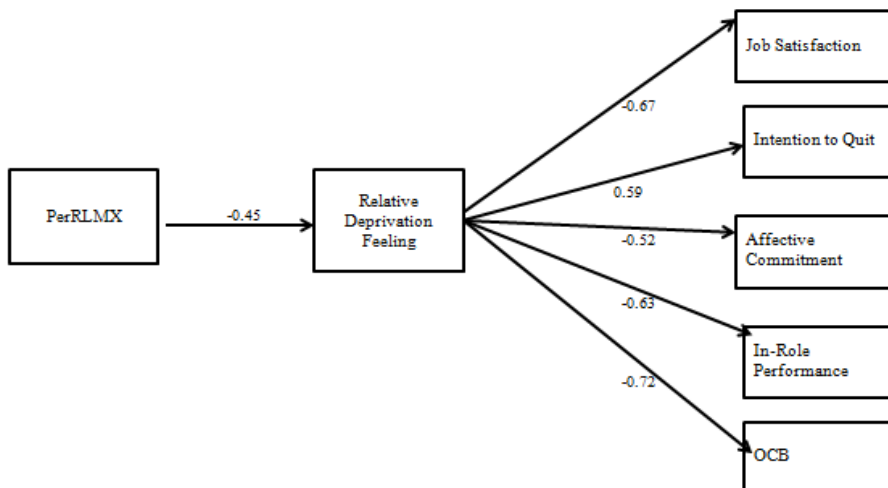


Figure 9. Significant path estimates for model 2 of the study

The results of the hypotheses testing regarding the path relationships in model 1 and model 1 of the study show that for model 1, hypotheses H1, H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d, H3e, H5a1, H5b1, H5c1, H5d1, and H5e1 are supported, while for model 2 hypotheses H2, H4a, H4b, H4c, H4d, H4e, H5a2, H5b2, H5c2, H5d2, and H5e2 are supported. Besides, the significant path estimates regarding model 1 and model 2 of the study indicate the following outcomes about relationships among constructs in each of the model.

Regarding model 1 of the study, it has been shown that relative deprivation feeling can be caused by individual's perceptions about his/her LMX quality, i.e., one's perceptions about what he/she gets in absolute terms regarding the exchange relationship with the leader; and this perception leads to LMX based relative deprivation feeling that negatively affects employee attitudes and outcomes. In model 1 of the study, in addition to the effect of LMX on employee attitudes and behaviors through the negative effect of relative deprivation feeling, perceptions about one's LMX also continues to have a direct positive effect on employee outcomes. On the other hand, for the conceptual model 2 of the study, in which PerRLMX is the independent variable, the results of significant path estimates show that relative deprivation feeling can be caused by one's own perceptions about his/her relative standing within the LMX distribution of the work group, i.e., perceptions about what he/she gets in relative terms regarding the exchange relationship of all group members with the leader, and this PerRLMX based relative deprivation feeling negatively affects employee attitudes and outcomes. In contrast to model 1, an important finding regarding model 2 of the study is that the perceptions of an employee about his/her PerRLMX does not have a direct positive effect on employee outcomes, but it only becomes functional through the inverse association with relative deprivation feeling once this feeling has experienced. That is why relative deprivation feeling caused

by PerRLMX may become more detrimental on employee attitudes and behaviors, since it only becomes negatively effective on employee outcomes through relative deprivation feeling once this feeling occurs, unlike LMX, which continues to have a direct positive effect on employee outcomes apart from the negatively mediated effect through relative deprivation feeling. In the following sections, while investigating the mediation types by testing H6 and H7, more insights can be gained about the mediated effects of LMX and PerRLMX on employee outcomes through relative deprivation feeling.

It is important to note that, while testing H1 to H5 and conducting SEM model testing for model 1 and model 2 with the aim of identifying the significant path estimates in each model, the main aim of the researcher is not directly comparing these two different models of the study with each other in terms of their goodness of fit. By testing hypotheses H1 to H5, the researcher has investigated the hypothesized individual path relationships in each model. Then by evaluating these relationships within the models of the study through SEM model testing, the researcher has investigated combination of these path relationships as two models of the study. While model testing, the researcher has also explored the effect sizes of significant path estimates in model 1 and model 2 of the study, consecutively. By combining the findings from these analyses, the researcher can make inferences about the divergent effects of independent variables of each model (i.e.; LMX in model 1; and PerRLMX in model 2), which are the only variables that are different in these two models.

In reality, it is not possible to make a standard model comparison between model 1 and model 2 of the study based on the goodness of fit of these two models because these are non-nested models. Although comparison of nested models, i.e., *‘where a model is nested within another model if it contains the same number of constructs and*

can be formed from the other model by altering the relationships, such as either adding or deleting paths' (Hair et al., 2010, p. 676), are made on a chi-square difference statistic ($\Delta\chi^2$), which is the statistical significance of the difference in overall model fit between two models based on the chi-square values of each model (Hair et al., 2010, p. 676); this statistic is not applicable for non-nested or non-hierarchical models because model fit by chi-square becomes partly a function of model complexity, with more complex models fitting better. Instead, for the comparison of non-nested or non-hierarchical models, a fit index which penalizes for complexity but rewards parsimony, such as, *Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)* can be used (Akaike, 1974). Since AIC is a goodness-of-fit measure which adjusts model chi-square to penalize for model complexity, researcher can use AIC statistics to compare models estimated with the same data and identify the one which is more parsimonious. While smaller values of AIC suggest a good fitting, the absolute value of AIC has no intuitive value, except by comparison with another AIC, since its values are not within a standard 0-1 scale and can even be smaller than zero (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). In order to have additional information for model 1 and model 2 of the study, but not necessarily for making model comparisons, the AIC statistics for the two separate models are reported in the below Table 26.

Table 26. AIC Values of Model 1 and Model 2

	AIC
Model 1	1052.26
Model 2	1120.96

Although model 2 has a higher AIC value than model 1, indicating a much simpler model, the absolute difference is very small to make a meaningful interpretation, which mainly results from both models having the same number of variables.

In addition to above summarized results of the hypotheses testing for hypotheses H1 to H5, the researcher has also evaluated the comparative effect sizes of significant path estimates in Model 1 and Model 2 in order to make inferences about the comparative effects of LMX versus PerRLMX constructs on employee outcomes. According to Bagozzi's (1980) using standardized parameter estimates to compare the relative contribution of a number of independent variables on the same dependent variable and for the same sample of observations can be appropriate. Based on this assertion, given that causal relationship estimates of both model 1 and model 2 are tested within the same sample with the same variables except for the independent variables, the standardized regression weights of the same path relationships in each model can be compared, so that the comparative effects of the independent variables of Model 1 (i.e., LMX) and Model 2 (i.e., PerRLMX) on the same dependent variables can be investigated. Accordingly, exhibited in Table 24 and Table 25, when the significant standardized estimates of model 1 and model 2 are compared for the common paths, that is, the paths from the relative deprivation feeling to dependent variables in both models, then it has been clearly seen that through the mediation effects of relative deprivation feeling employee's perceptions about his/her relative standing within the work group regarding LMX relationships with the leader (i.e., PerRLMX) is more detrimental on employee outcomes compared to that of absolute LMX. Therefore, evident from above comparative evaluations of SEM model testing results of the two models of the study, it can be asserted that relative deprivation feeling caused by individual's perceptions of his/her relative standing within LMX distribution of the work group (i.e., PerRLMX based relative deprivation) is more destructive to employee outcomes compared to LMX based relative deprivation.

Control Variables

As a next step in SEM model testing analyses, the path relationships in model 1 and model 2 of the study are re-tested with including the possible control variables, which are LMX differentiation (i.e., the variance of focal individual's perceptions for individual LMX scores of all team members), sex, age, and tenure to both models. The control variables which are significantly correlated with the variables of interest, and so would change the path relationships would be included in the subsequent analyses (Becker, 2005). The results of SEM model analysis for model 1 and model 2 with controls are displayed in Table 27 and Table 28. According to these results the first model provides a good fit ($\chi^2 = 1051.155$, $df = 624$, $CMIN/DF = 1.685$, $p = 0.000$; $CFI = 0.934$; $TLI = 0.925$; $RMSEA = 0.046$; and $SRMR = 0.0689$). Similarly, the second model of the study also indicates a good fit ($\chi^2 = 1106.592$, $df = 656$, $CMIN/DF = 1.687$, $p = 0.000$; $CFI = 0.932$; $TLI = 0.923$; $RMSEA = 0.046$; and $SRMR = 0.0640$).

Table 27. Model Fit for SEM Model 1 with Controls

Index	Value	Threshold value
CMIN/df	1.685	<2
CFI	0.934	>0.90
TLI	0.925	>0.90
RMSEA	0.046	<0.08
SRMR	0.0689	<0.09
AIC	1285.155	

Table 28. Model Fit for SEM Model 2 with Controls

Index	Value	Threshold value
CMIN/df	1.687	<2
CFI	0.932	>0.90
TLI	0.923	>0.90
RMSEA	0.046	<0.08
SRMR	0.0640	<0.09
AIC	1354.592	

Among LMX differentiation, sex, age, and tenure that are integrated to the models of the study testing for their possible effects as control variables, none of them have a significant path estimates with the variables of interest in both models, except for the tenure on relative deprivation feeling. As can be seen by the path estimates exhibited in Table 29 and Table 30, the integration of the control variables (LMX differentiation, sex, age, and tenure) to the two models of the study do not make any difference in the significance structure of the hypothesized paths as well as their comparative effects among two models.

Table 29. Model 1 Parameter Estimates with Control Variables

Model 1- Hypothesized Path	Non-standardized parameter	Standardized parameter estimate	t Value
LMX → Relative deprivation feeling	-0.564	-0.478	-6.786***
LMX → job satisfaction	0.399	0.286	3.884***
LMX → intentions to quit	-0.485	-0.279	-3.907***
LMX → affective commitment	0.228	0.274	3.645 ***
LMX → in-role performance	0.282	0.245	3.628***
LMX → OCB	0.151	0.153	2.263**
Relative deprivation feeling → job satisfaction	-0.507	-0.429	-5.931***
Relative deprivation feeling → intentions to quit	0.507	0.344	4.994***
Relative deprivation feeling → affective	-0.227	-0.322	-4.426***
Relative deprivation feeling → in-role performance	-0.489	-0.502	-7.200***
Relative deprivation feeling → OCB	-0.485	-0.580	-7.540***

*** = $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

** = $p < .05$ (two-tailed)

Table 30. Model 2 Parameter Estimates with Control Variables

Model 2- Hypothesized Path	Non-standardized parameter	Standardized parameter estimate	t Value
PerRLMX → Relative deprivation feeling	-0.458	-0.444	-7.515***
PerRLMX → job satisfaction	-0.080	-0.062	-0.865
PerRLMX → intentions to quit	0.221	0.139	1.974
PerRLMX → affective commitment	-0.027	-0.036	-0.498
PerRLMX → in-role performance	0.054	0.052	0.785
PerRLMX → OCB	-0.062	-0.069	-1.031
Relative deprivation feeling → job satisfaction	-0.835	-0.675	-7.766***
Relative deprivation feeling → intentions to quit	0.976	0.631	7.620***
Relative deprivation feeling → affective	-0.400	-0.542	-6.207***
Relative deprivation feeling → in-role performance	-0.644	-0.629	-7.714***
Relative deprivation feeling → OCB	-0.645	-0.734	-7.997***

*** = $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

Mediation Analysis

Mediation analysis is mainly used for understanding the mechanisms through which an independent variable (X) and a dependent variable (Y) are related, specifically by providing a more accurate explanation for the *chain of causation* via clarifying *how*, or *why*, an independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) (Hair et al., 2010).

According to Preacher and Hayes (2004), the utility of mediation analysis comes from its ability to exceed the merely descriptive to a more functional understanding of the relationships among variables (p. 717). In order to test the existence of a mediation, the traditional casual steps approach advocated by Baron and Kenny (1986) is commonly used in the extant literature. Besides this traditional approach, Sobel's test (1982) and

the bootstrapping method (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) have been used to test the existence of mediation through validating the statistical significance of indirect effects. Among these methods, bootstrapping has been commonly used by the researchers due to its strength in statistical validation as well as its ease by not forcing the assumption of normality of the sampling distribution (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

In order to determine the existence and nature of the mediation through bootstrapping method, the following rules apply. *Full mediation* exists if indirect effect is significant and direct effect with mediator is not significant, given the direct effects were significant prior to adding the mediator to the analysis. *Partial mediation* exists if indirect effect is significant and direct effect with mediator is also significant. There will be *no mediation* if indirect effect is not significant. Moreover, the insignificance of the direct effects either from independent variable to mediator, or from mediator to dependent variable also show that there is no mediation. In case, both direct effects are insignificant, but indirect effect is significant, then there is an *indirect effect*.

In both of the two conceptual models of the study, relative deprivation is hypothesized as a mediator, such that, in model 1, employee's LMX quality and employee outcomes, namely; job satisfaction, intentions to quit, affective commitment, OCB, and in-role performance, are expected to be mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (H6); and in model 2, employee's PerRLMX quality and employee outcomes, namely; job satisfaction, intentions to quit, affective commitment, OCB, and in-role performance are expected to be mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (H7). In order to test these hypothesized mediation effects of relative deprivation feeling in both model 1 and model 2 of the study, as well as figuring out the nature of the mediation (full mediation, partial mediation, no mediation, or indirect effect) in each

model, two separate mediation analyses are conducted by bootstrapping in AMOS. By understanding the mediation type in each model, comprehensive explanations can be made for the underlying processes by which LMX and PerRLMX affect employee attitudes and behaviors.

The results of the mediation analysis for model 1 and model 2 of the study are exhibited in Table 31 and Table 32 respectively. According to these results the mediation hypotheses for model 1 of the study, which are H6a, H6b, H6c, H6d, and H6e, are all supported. Similarly, the mediation hypotheses for model 2 of the study, H7a, H7b, H7c, H7d, and H7e, are also supported.

Regarding the mediation type of relative deprivation feeling among LMX quality and employee's job satisfaction, intentions quit, affective commitment, OCB, and in-role performance; the results indicate partial mediation for all mediation relationships in model 1. This means that, an employee may feel relative deprivation based on his/her absolute LMX quality, and employee's LMX based relative deprivation feeling can negatively affect his/her work attitudes and behaviors; however, this indirect effect of LMX based relative deprivation is not the only way that an employee is affected from his/her perception of individual LMX quality. Since relative deprivation feeling partially mediates the relationship between LMX and employee outcomes, in addition to this mediated effect, individual's absolute LMX quality continues to have a positive effect on employee attitudes and behaviors through its direct influence.

On the other hand, regarding the mediation type of relative deprivation feeling among PerRLMX and employee's job satisfaction, intentions quit, affective commitment, OCB, and in-role performance; the results indicate full mediation for all mediation relationships in model 2. These results about mediation types for model 2 of

the study indicate that the perceptions of an employee about his/her PerRLMX does not have a direct positive effect on employee outcomes, but it only becomes functional through the inverse association with relative deprivation feeling once the relative deprivation feeling is experienced. To put it more clearly, employees evaluate where they stand within the LMX distribution of the work group (i.e., status) just by an affective perspective, such that employees' perceptions about their relative LMX only becomes functional on their attitudes and behaviors through a cognitive and affective based evaluation process, which is embodied by feeling of relative deprivation.

Moreover, when the standardized path estimates, which indicate the effect sizes of significance of relationships, are compared for model 1 and model 2 of the study for the paths from relative deprivation feeling to employee outcomes in each mediated model, as exhibited in Table 25 and Table 26, relative deprivation feeling caused by PerRLMX has more detrimental influence on employee outcomes compared to that of LMX.

Table 31. Results of Mediation Analyses for Model 1

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Direct Effects without Mediation	Direct Effects with Mediation	Indirect Effects	Results of Hypothesis	Type of Mediation
H6a	LMX → Relative deprivation feeling → job satisfaction	0.55 ***	0.28 **	0.19 ***	Supported	Partial Mediation
H6b	LMX → Relative deprivation feeling → intentions to quit	-0.48 ***	-0.24 **	-0.16 ***	Supported	Partial Mediation
H6c	LMX → Relative deprivation feeling → affective commitment	0.48 ***	0.28 **	0.13 ***	Supported	Partial Mediation
H6d	LMX → Relative deprivation feeling → in-role performance	0.53 ***	0.24 ***	0.23 ***	Supported	Partial Mediation
H6e	LMX → Relative deprivation feeling → OCB	0.50 ***	0.16 *	0.26 ***	Supported	Partial Mediation

*** = $p < .01$, ** = $p < .05$, * = $p < .01$

Table 32. Results of Mediation Analyses for Model 2

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Direct Effects without Mediation	Direct Effects with Mediation	Indirect Effects	Results of Hypothesis	Type of Mediation
H7a	PerRLMX → Relative deprivation feeling→ job satisfaction	0.31 ***	-0.08 NS	0.30 ***	Supported	Full Mediation
H7b	PerRLMX → Relative deprivation feeling→ intentions to quit	-0.23 ***	0.12 NS	-0.27 ***	Supported	Full Mediation
H7c	PerRLMX → Relative deprivation feeling→ affective commitment	0.26 ***	-0.05 NS	0.23 ***	Supported	Full Mediation
H7d	PerRLMX → Relative deprivation feeling→ in-role performance	0.40 ***	0.03 NS	0.28 ***	Supported	Full Mediation
H7e	PerRLMX → Relative deprivation feeling→ OCB	0.36***	-0.07 NS	0.32 ***	Supported	Full Mediation

*** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .0.1, NS = not significant

Multigroup Moderation Analyses

A moderator variable is a third variable or construct that effects the strength of the relationship between two other constructs. Multigroup moderation is a special form of moderation, which is used to test moderating effects when the moderating variable is either nonmetric, or when a metric moderator has justifiably been transformed into a nonmetric variable (Hair et al., 2010). The multi-group moderation analysis in SEM is used to determine if the significant path estimates of relationships hypothesized in a model will differ by the dichotomous values of a moderator. As a general rule, it is necessary to validate the measurement model invariance among the dichotomous groups of the moderating variable before conducting multigroup moderation analysis in SEM.

One of the main concerns of this study is understanding whether individual's dominant self conceptualization is effective in his/her motivations for showing more attention as well as importance for what he/she receives in relative terms, in and above, what she/he gets in absolute terms regarding his/her exchange relationships with the leader. Rooted in *multiple needs model of justice* (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 2001; Holmvall & Bobocel, 2008), this study argues that depending on the needs of individuals which is expected to be contingent upon their dominating self-construal, either social acceptance as well as belongingness needs, or achievement needs may have more influence on individual's cognitions and affective reactions to injustice considerations regarding their exchange relationships with the leader. Therefore, it is expected that individuals who have predominantly independent self-construal due to their prevailing need for individual distinctiveness and achievement would be motivated by being in a better

relative standing (i.e., status) within the LMX distribution of their work group, in addition to getting what they think they deserve within their LMX relationships with their leaders. On the other hand, for those having predominant interdependent self-construal, group belongingness and acceptance becomes such an important need that they would try to fit-in and avoid making within group comparisons in order not to conflict with their group members, therefore they would probably focus solely on what they get in absolute terms as a just-reward regarding their own LMX relationships without showing any major concern for their relative status within their work groups in terms of their LMX ranking. Respectively, in hypotheses H8 and H9 of the study, it has been asserted that people who have dominantly independent-self construal rather than interdependent self-construal would be affected more from their PerRLMX evaluations, and so develop higher levels of relative deprivation feeling based on the perceptions of their relative standing within LMX distribution of the work group; whereas people who have dominantly interdependent-self construal rather than independent self-construal would be affected more from their absolute LMX and develop relative deprivation feeling respectively.

Although in every person there are elements of both independent and interdependent self-construal dispositions, it has been expected that either one of them to come out as a dominating self conceptualization for each individual (Erez and Somech; 1996, p. 1518). Respectively, the main inquiries of the hypotheses H8 and H9 of the current study are based on identification of one's dominant self-construal, which is relatively higher self construal orientation of an individual among interdependent versus independent identifications of self. Therefore, in order to test the hypothesized multigroup moderations, firstly each participant in the sample of the study is categorized

according to his/her relatively higher self-construal orientation (i.e., either independent or interdependent). Two participants who have equal independent and interdependent self construal scores are excluded from the sample because they cannot be categorized into either dominant independent or dominant interdependent self groups; therefore the resulting data from 318 employees and their immediate leaders are used in measurement invariance and multi group moderation analyses, among which 131 participants have dominantly interdependent self-construal, while 187 participants have dominantly independent self-construal.

Measurement Model Invariance

As a first step of multigroup moderation analysis, the measurement model invariance of the model variables need to be confirmed across two groups of the moderator variables. Otherwise, any judgment about group differences or similarities across individuals and groups cannot be directly attributed to the conceptual differences across groups (Hoe & Brekke, 2009). In order to validate whether the factor structure and loadings of the measurement models are sufficiently equal across groups, both configural and metric invariance should be verified so that structural equation modeling can be conducted for hypothesis testing. In other words, by the validation of measurement model invariance across groups of the moderator variable, it is assured that the composite variables are actually measuring the same underlying constructs for both groups; as such the findings from structural equation modeling can be clearly interpreted.

Consequently, multiple group CFA analysis is conducted, in order to test the measurement model invariance across individuals with dominant independent- versus

dominant interdependent self-construal. When both groups are tested together without any constraints, the factor structure exhibited by CFA achieves adequate fit, thus there is said to be configural invariance for the unconstrained model, shown in Table 33.

Table 33. Configural Invariance Test by Model Fit of Unconstrained Model

	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Unconstrained	0.951	0.946	0.031	0.0526
Fully constrained	0.950	0.946	0.030	0.0521

As a next step, metric invariance across two groups are tested by comparing the chi-square statistics obtained from unconstrained models where all factor loadings are estimated freely for each subsample with those obtained from models where factor loadings are constrained to be invariant across groups (Kline, 2005). Since the chi-square differences between these models are not significant, shown in Table 34, the metric measurement invariance between two groups is confirmed (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 34. Metric Invariance Test by Chi-square Differences between Groups

	Chi-square	df	p-value
Overall Model			
Unconstrained	1380.2	1066	
Fully constrained	1412.5	1093	
Number of groups		2	
Difference	32.3	27	0.220

Multigroup Moderation

After validating measurement model invariance across two groups, multigroup moderation analysis was conducted in AMOS by testing the moderating effect of dominant self-construal both in model 1 and in model 2 of the study for the paths between the independent variable (model 1: LMX ; and model 2: PerRLMX) and relative deprivation feeling in order to confirm hypothesis H8 and H9 respectively.

In order to confirm hypothesis H8, which is formed mainly for understanding whether the path relationship between LMX and relative deprivation feeling in model 1 of the study changes by individual's dominant self construal (i.e., independent vs. interdependent), the critical ratios pairwise comparison matrix produced by AMOS has been used. By referring to this matrix, researcher can see every possible parameter in the model 1 of the study compared against the two groups of the moderator, and identify whether the path/paths of interest significantly differs between these two groups. A significant difference is indicated by a critical ratio (z-score) that is greater than 1.65 for 90% confidence, 1.96 for 95% confidence; and 2.58 for 99% confidence (Bryne, 2010).

Likewise, multigroup moderation hypothesis H9 for the model 2 of the study is also confirmed by referring to the critical ratios pairwise comparison matrix in AMOS, to evaluate whether the path estimates between PerRLMX and relative deprivation feeling significantly changes with dominant self-construal of an individual.

Table 35 shows the z-score results for the comparison between dominant self construal of independent- self, and interdependent-self, for model 1 of the study regarding the path estimates between LMX and relative deprivation feeling, as well as,

for model 2 of the study regarding the path estimates between RLMX and relative deprivation feeling.

Table 35. Results of Multigroup Moderation Analysis

Relationship Path	INDEPENDENT			INTERDEPENDENT			
	Unstd. Estimate	Std. Estimate	P	Unstd. Estimate	Std. Estimate	P	z-score
LMX → relative deprivation	-0.393	-0.301	0.000	-0.745	-0.717	0.000	-2.288**
	INDEPENDENT			INTERDEPENDENT			
	Unstd. Estimate	Std. Estimate	P	Unstd. Estimate	Std. Estimate	P	z-score
PerRLMX → relative deprivation	-0.725	-0.673	0.000	-0.105	-0.103	NS	5.513***

*** p-value < 0.01; NS: not significant

The results regarding two separate multigroup analyses conducted for testing hypotheses H8 and H9 indicate that individuals with a dominant independent-self construal feel stronger relative deprivation feeling based on their relative status within their group LMX distribution when compared to the ones with dominant interdependent-self construal. Therefore, PerRLMX perceptions (i.e., relative status, or ranking) in addition to LMX evaluations (i.e., absolute receiving as just reward) are more important for employees characterized predominantly by independent self-construal compared to the ones with predominantly interdependent-self construal in triggering their relative deprivation feeling. On the other hand, multi group moderation analyses depict that individuals with dominant interdependent self-construal show less concern for their relative standing within the work group in terms of their relationships with the leader so that they do not feel relative deprivation regarding their PerRLMX in and above their LMX perceptions. Explicitly, for the individuals characterized predominantly by

interdependent self-construal, relative deprivation feeling does not function by PerRLMX evaluations. Therefore, hypotheses H8 and H9 are supported.

To sum up, while PerRLMX considerations lead to relative deprivation feeling among individuals with dominant independent self construal, considerations for their ranking (i.e., status) among their work groups in terms of individual LMX qualities do not create any emotional reaction (i.e., relative deprivation) among the ones with dominant interdependent-self construal. Therefore, by the results of the multi group moderation analyses exhibited in the above table, it has been made clear that the predominant self construal of an individual has an impact on shaping the cognitions and affective reactions of individuals regarding giving emphasis to either their absolute, or relative LMX, or both situations within social comparison processes.

Interaction Analyses

While mediator variables function like transporter of effect along the causal chain of relations, moderator variables act as relationship modifiers within the relationship. In this respect, a moderator variable is defined as the third variable or construct that effects the strength or form of the relationship between two other constructs. When the moderating variable is non-metric (categorical), or a metric but can be successfully transformed into a non-metric variable, then multigroup moderation analysis are applied. In contrast, for moderator variables that are continuous and cannot be successfully transformed into categorical variables, the moderation effects of these continuous variables are tested by *interaction analysis*. In factorial designs, interaction effects are

the joint effects of two predictor variables in addition to the individual main effects (Hair et al., 2010, p.441). Therefore, interaction serves as a type of moderation that indicates how the form of the relationship (i.e., strength and sign) changes between independent and dependent variable (i.e., the $X \rightarrow Y$ relationship) depending on the value of another explanatory variable (the moderator, M). Interaction analysis in SEM is used to obtain more precise explanation of causal effects by explaining how the significant main effect changes depending on changing values of moderating variable.

In order to test the hypotheses regarding the interaction effects of future expectations (H10), POS (H11) and peer support (H12) within the relationship of relative deprivation and employee outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, intentions to quit, affective commitment, in-role performance and OCB), interaction analyses are conducted in SEM by following the procedures described by Ping (1995, 1996). Firstly, in order to fix multicollinearity issues, the items that would be used in interaction analyses are standardized by replacing the variable values with their corresponding z-scores (mean=0, sd=1), by which the coefficients of path estimates do not change (Aiken & West, 1991). Then interaction variable for each analysis is created as a new variable that is the product of the variable being moderated (X) and the variable that is moderating (M). This interaction term (XM) is then entered into the SEM analyses together with the main path relationships among independent variable (X) and dependent variable (Y). If the effect of the interaction term (XM) is significant, then the effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) is said to be contingent upon the levels of the moderator variable (M). After a significant interaction term is confirmed, then by using the procedure of Aiken and West (1991) the predicted relationship between X and Y over a range of possible M values is plotted into a graph,

in order to interpret the interaction/moderation effects. The significant interaction terms and their visual displays are exhibited in Table 36, and Figures 10, 11, 12, and 13.

As a result, hypotheses H10a, H10b, H11d, and H12c are supported; whereas hypotheses H10c, H10d, H10e, H11a, H11b, H11c, H11e, H12a, H12b, H12d, and H12e are not supported. The results show that as employee's positive future job expectations increases, the negative effect of employee's relative deprivation feeling on employee job satisfaction gets weaker. Similarly, with higher levels of positive future job expectations, relative deprivation feeling becomes less effective on employee's intentions to quit. POS acts as an effective moderator among employee's relative deprivation feeling and his/her in-role performance, such that in higher levels of POS, relative deprivation becomes less detrimental on employee's in-role performance. Lastly, in higher levels of peer support, relative deprivation feeling becomes less detrimental on affective commitment.

Table 36. Parameter Estimates for Significant Interaction Terms

Path Relationship	Non standardized parameter estimate	Standardized parameter estimate	t Value
ZRelDep → ZIntenttoQuit	0.395	0.337	5.314***
ZFutureExp → ZIntenttoQuit	-0.209	-0.159	-2.493***
ZFutureExpandZRelDep → ZIntenttoQuit	-0.099	-0.137	-2.543***
ZRelDep → ZJobSatisfaction	-0.466	-0.423	-6.347***
ZFutureExp → ZJobSatisfaction	0.257	0.209	3.157***
ZFutureExpandZRelDep → ZJobSatisfaction	0.077	0.114	2.051**
ZRelDep → ZInrolePerf	-0.462	-0.456	-5.978***
ZPos → ZInrolePerf	0.163	0.140	1.871*
ZRelDepandZPos → ZInrolePerf	0.059	0.097	1.820**
ZRelDep → ZAffectComm	-0.208	-0.225	-3.139***
ZPeer → ZAffectComm	0.276	0.305	3.989***
ZPeerand ZRelDep → ZAffectComm	-0.086	-0.154	-2.487***

*** = $p < .01$ (two-tailed); ** = $p < .05$ (two-tailed); * = $p < .1$ (two-tailed)

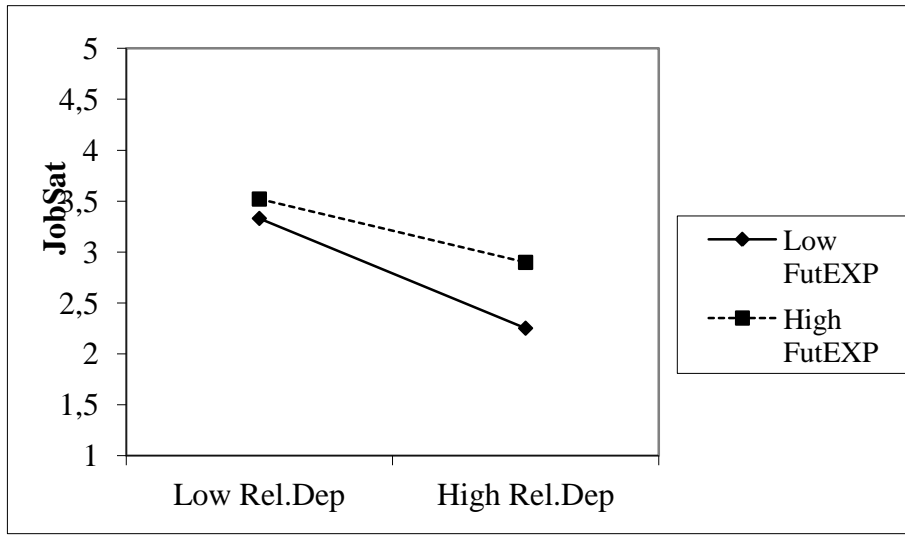


Figure 10. Interaction of future expectations between relative deprivation and job satisfaction

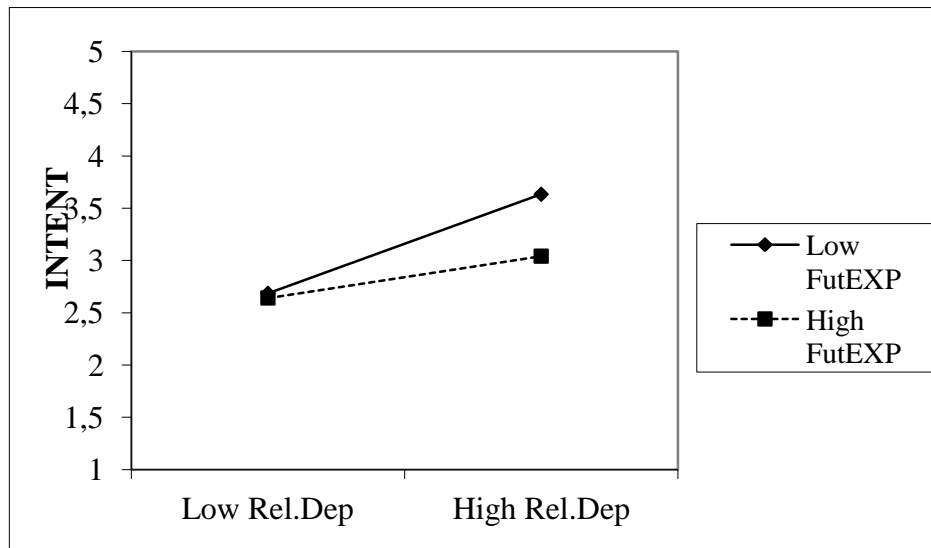


Figure 11. Interaction of future expectations between relative deprivation and intentions to quit

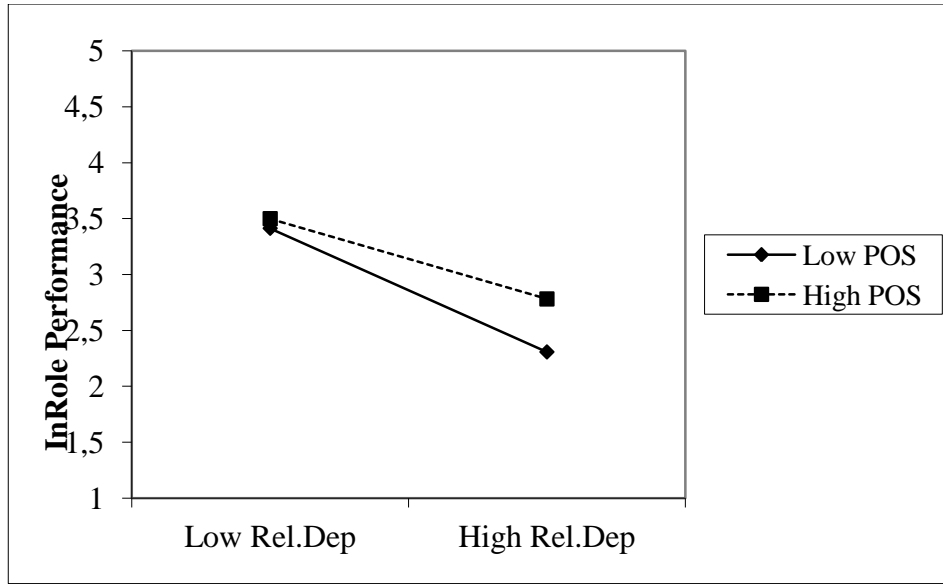


Figure 12. Interaction of POS between relative deprivation and in-role performance

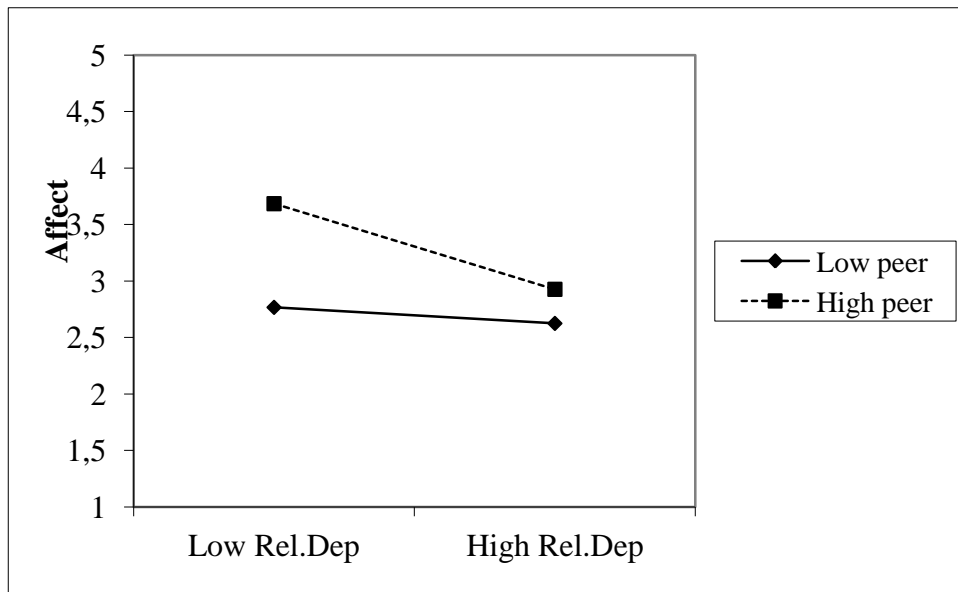


Figure 13. Interaction of peer support between relative deprivation and affective commitment

Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

Table 37. Summary of the Results of Hypotheses Testing

No.	Hypothesized Relationships	Results of Hypotheses Testing
PATH RELATIONSHIPS		
H1	Employee's LMX quality is negatively related to employee's relative deprivation feeling.	Supported
H2	Employee's PerRLMX is negatively related to employee's relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual LMX quality).	Supported
H3a	Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's job satisfaction.	Supported
H3b	Employee's LMX quality is negatively related to employee's intentions to quit.	Supported
H3c	Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's affective commitment to organization.	Supported
H3d	Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's in-role performance.	Supported
H3e	Employee's LMX quality is positively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior.	Supported
H4a	Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's job satisfaction.	Supported
H4b	Employee's PerRLMX is negatively related to employee's intentions to quit.	Supported
H4c	Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's affective commitment to organization	Supported
H4d	Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's in-role performance.	Supported
H4e	Employee's PerRLMX is positively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior.	Supported
H5a	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's job satisfaction. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2	Supported Supported
H5b	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is positively related to employee's intentions to quit. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2	Supported Supported
H5c	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's affective commitment to organization. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2	Supported Supported
H5d	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's in-role performance. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2	Supported Supported
H5e	Employee's relative deprivation feeling is negatively related to employee's organizational citizenship behavior. 1. in model 1 2. in model 2	Supported Supported

MEDIATION ANALYSES		
H6a	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's job satisfaction is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.	Supported
H6b	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's intentions to quit is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.	Supported
H6c	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's affective commitment to organization is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.	Supported
H6d	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's in-role performance is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.	Supported
H6e	The relationship between employee's LMX quality and employee's OCB is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling.	Supported
H7a	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's job satisfaction is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individual's perceptions of LMX).	Supported
H7b	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's intentions to quit is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individuals' perceptions of LMX).	Supported
H7c	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's affective commitment to organization is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individuals' perceptions of LMX).	Supported
H7d	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's in-role performance is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individuals' perceptions of LMX).	Supported
H7e	The relationship between employee's PerRLMX and employee's OCB is mediated by reports of relative deprivation feeling (after controlling for individuals' perceptions of LMX).	Supported
MULTI GROUP MODERATION ANALYSES		
H8	Dominant self-construal moderates the strength of the relationship between LMX and relative deprivation, such that LMX has a stronger effect on relative deprivation feeling for employees who are higher on interdependent-self construal as compared to those who are higher on independent-self construal.	Supported
H9	Dominant self-construal moderates the strength of the relationship between PerRLMX and relative deprivation, such that PerRLMX has a stronger effect on relative deprivation feeling for employees who are higher on independent-self construal as compared to those who are higher on interdependent-self construal.	Supported
INTERACTION ANALYSES		
H10a	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.	Supported
H10b	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when employee has worse expectations from future compared to better.	Supported

H10c	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.	Not Supported
H10d	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.	Not Supported
H10e	Future expectations about job offerings moderate the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and OCB; such that the relationship between feeling of relative deprivation and OCB is weaker when employee has better expectations from future compared to worse.	Not Supported
H11a	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.	Not Supported
H11b	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when POS is lower compared to higher.	Not Supported
H11c	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.	Not Supported
H11d	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower.	Supported
H11e	POS moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and OCB; such that the relationship between feeling of relative deprivation and OCB is weaker when POS is higher compared to lower	Not Supported
H12a	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and job satisfaction is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.	Not Supported
H12b	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and intentions to quit is weaker when Peer support is lower compared to higher.	Not Supported
H12c	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and affective commitment is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.	Supported
H12d	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and in-role performance is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.	Not Supported
H12e	Peer support moderates the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and OCB; such that the relationship between employee's feeling of relative deprivation and OC is weaker when Peer support is higher compared to lower.	Not Supported

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As one of the leading scholars of leadership studies, Yukl (2002) defines leadership as;

The process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (p. 7).

Therefore, leadership is mainly about influencing the behavior of individuals through social interaction process within group-based contexts in order to achieve specific goals that are crucial for the success and survival of organizations (Bass, 1990; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). By being a relational process, leadership focuses on motivating and influencing people through social interaction processes. While a leader's average leadership style (ALS, Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) reflects his/her common behavioral approach to all subordinates, apart from this general approach a leader may also have differentiated social exchange relationship with each of his/her subordinates, which is defined in literature as leader-member exchange (LMX). In this respect, leader-member exchange (LMX) theory and its implications within organizational life serves as a crucial framework in understanding and improving leadership influences since LMX mainly focuses on the quality of the relationship between a leader and a follower as a dyadic relationship.

Although leadership is about influencing people, up until recently only rational reasoning and cognitive processes have been emphasized as a basis for this influence. Obviously, minds are not the only compass by which individuals make sense of their environments, but hearts also influence how individuals interpret and react to their experiences. By the acknowledgement of the importance of emotional side of leadership influence, recent conceptualizations of leadership have started to highlight the emotional aspects much more than rational reasoning (e.g. Bass, 1985; Bono et al., 2007; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Yukl, 2002). In view of that, Affective Events Theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) posits that leadership affects follower and workgroup outcomes by its effect on follower affective reactions, that is to say, follower emotions becomes the mediating mechanism by which leader actions influence employee job attitudes and behaviors. Although the role of affective processes for leadership functions have started to gain recognition, the evolving theoretical and empirical advancements constituting the extant literature have still been under-developed. To date, the influences of affective processes have not been empirically investigated for all aspects of leadership processes yet. LMX framework is one of these under-investigated areas. Accordingly, one of the main motivations of this study is to address this lack of research regarding the causal relationship between LMX and employee's emotional reactions that influence employee work attitudes and behaviors.

In the extant literature, studies on LMX relationships mostly highlighted the positive aspects related with LMX, i.e. 'bright side of LMX', by pointing that higher quality LMX is associated with better employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Gerstener & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), but they did not specifically investigate the

occurrence and influence of negative aspects of LMX, i.e., “dark side of LMX” on employee outcomes. The basic premise of LMX theory is that due to limited resources and sometimes based on personal preferences, leaders form differentiated relationships with each of their subordinates that may range from high quality socio-emotional exchanges to low-quality transactional relationships (Dansereau et al., 1975). Therefore, LMX differentiation within a work group is not easily avoidable; in fact, such differentiation is proposed to have utility both for organizations and leaders making differentiation an acceptable leadership practice (Dansereau et al., 1975). However, the differentiation of work groups into in-groups and out-groups as well as each of the group members having differentiated relationships with leader have implications for the emergence of organizational justice considerations among employees which becomes salient by social comparison processes fed by ongoing work related social interactions (Scandura, 1999; Sias 1996; Sias and Jablin, 1995). These LMX based social comparisons within work groups usually urge employees to evaluate the degree of difference between their own LMX qualities and that of other coworkers, termed as relative LMX (RLMX, Henderson et al, 2008). Therefore, in a group context as a result of social comparison processes there can always be some employees who perceive that they are exposed to lower quality LMX relationships and this perception may be reflected in their attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, this study aims to find out the affective outcomes of social comparison processes based on employee’s LMX evaluations that influence work attitudes and behaviors.

While investigating the negative side of LMX relationships, discrete employee emotions are one of the most important areas that need further investigation since by being intense social interaction processes, LMX relationships are expected to trigger

emotional outcomes within organizational dynamics (Lazarus, 2000). By having interest in exploring the under-research areas of dark-side of LMX, as well as LMX and follower affective reactions, this study particularly focuses on destructive effects of employees' negative emotions based on LMX relationships. Accordingly, in this study relative deprivation feeling (Crosby, 1976) is investigated as a negative affective reaction that mediate the relationship between LMX evaluations of an employee and his/her work attitudes (job satisfaction, affective commitment, intentions to quit) and work behaviors (in-role performance and OCB).

In line with the above line of reasoning, by integrating social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954; Greenberg, et al., 2007), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958) and affective events theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) within the context of leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships, this thesis focuses on exploring *how* and *when* perceptions of '*absolute LMX*' versus '*relative LMX*' becomes more influential on an employee's work attitudes and behaviors through an underlying cognitive and affective process of relative deprivation feeling, which results from justice evaluations through social comparisons with comparative referents.

Within the scope of this research, absolute LMX mainly refers to perceptions of an employee regarding what he/she receives in psychological and physical terms in exchange of his/her relationship with the leader, whereas perceptions of relative LMX (i.e., PerRLMX) refers to an employee's personal evaluations regarding what he/she receives in exchange of his/her relationship with the leader in comparison to that of others' in his/her work group, so that it reflects the focal employee's perceptions about his/her LMX based "status / ranking" within the work group. LMX and PerRLMX are hypothesized as two separate independent variables in the two conceptual models of the

study. By joint evaluations of the results of these two conceptual models which are both comparative and supplementary to each other, this research explains *how* perceptions of LMX and relative LMX impact employee attitudes and behaviors by considering relative deprivation feeling as a possible affect-based mediator, as well as, *when* perception of LMX relationship become more detrimental on employee outcomes, regarding its evaluation to be made either in absolute (LMX) or in relative (PerRLMX) terms. Moreover, by integrating a contingency approach for studying LMX theory, this study aims to explore the role of individual's dominant self-construal (independent vs. interdependent) as an individual level boundary condition for the effects of LMX and PerRLMX on relative deprivation feeling. Furthermore, with an aim of offering solutions for mitigating the negative effects of LMX based relative deprivation feeling on employee outcomes, this study investigates the moderating effects of POS, peer-support, and employees' optimistic future job expectations.

The results of the analyses of the study showed that LMX relationships lead to emotional outcomes validating the main assertion of the study. Therefore, it has been confirmed that LMX perceptions do not only have effects on employee attitudes and behaviors, but they also trigger emotional reactions which then function as an underlying process for leader's influence on employee's work attitudes and behaviors. This finding confirms the assertions of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In addition, the antecedent effect of LMX evaluations on employee's relative deprivation feeling, and the negative effect of this ensuing feeling on employee attitudes and behaviors verify the study's assertion about the existence of dark side of LMX relationships. Therefore, LMX relationships may not always lead to positive outcomes; they may also have negative effects on organizational outcomes. Moreover, the findings have shown that

both absolute and relative LMX evaluations of an employee lead to relative deprivation feeling. That is in line with the arguments of the study, such that, when looked through justice lenses, relative deprivation feeling is experienced as both cognitive and affective responses of an individual occurred by an evaluation process when the individual thinks that the received reward does not match to what he/she perceives as the “*just reward*”. Therefore, within LMX context such a just reward specification can vary for each employee depending on one’s fairness considerations as well as comparative standards. Accordingly, the results of the current study confirm that in LMX evaluations just reward conceptualizations does not only consist what an employee receives in absolute terms in exchange for his/her efforts in the dyadic relationship with leader, but it also includes a relative assessment that focuses on where the focal employee stands within his/her work group in terms of his/her LMX quality in comparison to that of others. To put it simply, it is not enough to have a fair and good enough social exchange relationship with leader; in addition to that, an employee also wants to be in relatively better position within the work group compared to coworkers in terms of his/her LMX quality. Therefore, due to social comparisons made with other group members, getting a fair reciprocation from the leader may not prevent an employee from experiencing relative deprivation feeling. This result also in line with the assertions of Vidyardhi and colleagues (2010) who stated that employees are motivated by having a closer relationship with leader than that is experienced by coworkers.

However, the current study makes a contribution to the previous assertion in literature by making a comparative assessment between absolute versus relative LMX considerations of employees. This comparative evaluation could only be made by having absolute and relative LMX evaluations both being conceptualized through individual

level perceptions. The comparative evaluation of absolute and relative LMX perceptions on relative deprivation feeling points that regardless of the level of absolute LMX, an employee may still experience relative deprivation just because of his/her relative LMX perceptions, and the ensuing negative emotion can be as severe as the one triggered by absolute LMX evaluations. Therefore, for a leader it is not enough to reciprocate to the efforts of employees within dyadic relationships, but it is also important to manage group dynamics so that employees would not feel being dropped behind in their work groups due to their LMXs.

These findings confirm the important role of social comparison processes in LMX evaluations, such that, although LMX concept represents a dyadic relationship between a leader and an employee, its complete effect can only be identified within the broader context of work group where LMX relationships are embedded and they are mutually evaluated through social comparisons.

Likewise, the results of the mediation analyses of the study provide an insight for the need of a holistic perspective in LMX research, such that while investigating LMX effects researchers should not concentrate only on a single leader-member dyad, but also consider the mutual influence of embedded LMX dyads within group context. The results of the mediation analyses show that while relative deprivation feeling partially mediates the effects of absolute LMX evaluations on employee outcomes, this negative feeling becomes the full mediator for the effects of relative LMX evaluations on employee outcomes. In other words, once an individual experiences relative deprivation feeling due to his/her ranking in the group linked to his/her relative LMX, then relative LMX becomes only negatively influential on employee attitudes and behaviors through experienced relative deprivation feeling. In contrast, when an individual becomes

resentful due to not having a relationship reciprocation from the leader that is in line with his/her just-reward conceptualization in exchange for his/her efforts, affect, respect and contribution in this social exchange, then the negative effect of ensuing relative deprivation feeling becomes only partially influential on employee attitudes and behaviors. As a result, LMX relationship still continues to have a direct positive effect on employee's attitudes and behaviors in addition to its mediated negative emotional effect when assessed in absolute terms. These results exhibit that the mechanisms linking absolute versus relative LMX evaluations of employees to their work attitudes and behaviors may slightly differ. In addition, the results of the study also show that rather than absolute LMX, employee's evaluation of relative LMX becomes much more detrimental on employee outcomes through cognitive and affective process of relative deprivation feeling. An explanation for comparatively higher detrimental effect of relative LMX evaluations on employee outcomes through a full negative emotional reaction can be explained by the role of social comparison processes. As a matter of fact, social comparison processes are central in employee's evaluation of work environments (Greenberg et al., 2007) since by social comparisons they obtain information about their own standings in groups which helps them to designate their own values (Festinger, 1954). Therefore, the standards for these comparative assessments are set by the context by which employees are surrounded. Indeed, it has been argued by some researchers that within work groups, high- and low-quality LMX relationships exist only in relative terms; more explicitly, there is no absolute reference point in LMX relationships for determining what a high- or low-quality relationship without referring to a differentiated group context (Henderson et al., 2008). In this respect, employees' evaluations for their standing within their social environments, linked to their relationship quality with the

leader, would signal about their relative values. According to the results of this research, when an individual evaluates being in a lower position than his/her expectations based on group norms, then this negative evaluation is fully reflected as an emotional outburst and negatively affect his/her work attitudes and outcomes. Therefore, social comparison processes seem to be more influential on triggering affective reactions.

In this study, the behavioral outcomes of each employee are assessed by his/her own team leader, which has allowed eliminating the common method explanations for the results of the study. Therefore, the findings of the current research not only demonstrate that individuals pay attention to within-group social comparisons regarding how LMX is distributed in their work groups, but they also reveal that through social comparison processes employees may react emotionally to their relative LMX evaluations which then negatively influence their work attitudes and also their behaviors that are observed and validated by their own supervisors.

Furthermore, the results of multi-group moderation analyses of the study showed that dominant self-construal of an individual functions as a boundary condition by moderating the effects of absolute and/or relative LMX perceptions of an individual on relative deprivation feeling. Self-construal construct, referring one's self identification in terms of connectedness with others, has been used in research for predicting and explaining individual-level cultural differences in cognition, emotion, motivation and communication (Levine et al. 2003). Gardner and colleagues (1999) showed that self-construal significantly influences people's values, perception and evaluation of events. In parallel to these assertions in literature, the results of this study also confirm that dominant self construal of an individual influences his/her evaluation of events in line with his/her value orientation regarding the role of others in his/her self-identification.

Shortly, the results of the study show that while individuals having dominantly interdependent self-construal do not have a tendency for making social comparisons especially when there is a possibility that outcomes of the comparison process may result in having conflicts with other people in their groups, on the contrary, individuals with dominant independent self-construal have a significant tendency for making social comparisons with other people in their groups. The results of the study also point that LMX relationships evaluated through social comparison processes are fertile for emotional reactions, and the scope and strength of these reactions are directly shaped by employees' dominant self construal.

In order to propose possible solutions for mitigating the negative effect of LMX based relative deprivation on employee outcomes, this study investigated the interaction effects of POS, peer-support and future job expectations. The results show that as employee's positive future job expectations increases, the negative effect of employee's relative deprivation feeling on employee job satisfaction gets weaker. Similarly, with higher levels of positive future job expectations, relative deprivation feeling becomes less effective on employee's intentions to quit. POS acts as an effective moderator for the relationship between an employee's relative deprivation feeling and his/her in-role performance, such that in higher levels of POS, relative deprivation becomes less detrimental on employee's in-role performance. Lastly, in higher levels of peer support, relative deprivation feeling becomes less detrimental on employee's affective commitment to organization. According to these results, among the significant interaction effects that mitigate the negative effects of relative deprivation feeling on employee's work behaviors is the effect of POS on employee in-role performance. This can be linked to the wide range of organizational practices implemented by HR

departments by which they offer organizational level resources that may substitute for the privileges and extra resources that are only available by having high quality LMX relationship with leader. Openly, having organizational level support systems that would balance the injustice perception on the part of the employee who feels relatively deprived due to not having enough of leader's support seem to be the most effective solution for preventing the deterioration of employee's in-role job performance due to his/her LMX based relative deprivation feeling. On the other hand, the significant interaction effect of future job expectation both on employee's job satisfaction and intentions to quit can be explained by the effect of future time perspective in shifting one's concentration from the present happenings to his/her future targets. As validated by previous research (Bandura, 2001; Lewin (1942), this shift in time focus of an individual highlighting one's future goals seems to be influential on his/her cognition and attitudes. Lastly, having significant interaction effect of peer support on employee's affective commitment to organization can be explained by the role of peer support in contributing to the degree of individual consideration an employee gets within organizational life in addition to leader's individualized consideration. Such a personal intimacy shown by other members of the organization seems to be directly effective in creating an emotional binder between an employee and his/her organization. Accordingly, an employee getting higher levels of support from his/her peers is affected from his/her LMX based relative deprivation feeling less severely, so that he/she does not decrease his/her affective commitment to the organization as much as the case when he/she gets lower levels of peer support.

The findings in this research offer several theoretical contributions to the LMX, role of affect in workplace, and social comparison literatures as well as practical

implications which are important both for leaders and organizations. In this chapter, by making alignments with the arguments in the extant literature firstly the theoretical implications of the study are discussed, and then the chapter is followed by strengths and limitations of the current research as well as suggestions for future research. Finally, it is concluded by stating the practical implications of the study.

Theoretical Implications

The most noteworthy theoretical contribution of the current research is its attempt to investigate well established LMX framework from an affect based perspective, and so explore the underlying affective processes that negatively influence employee attitudes and outcomes, which also help to highlight the dark side of LMX relationships that have not been taken enough recognition within extant literature. In contrast to previous research, this study looks social comparison theory with a more complete look and does not assume that social comparison of one's LMX evaluations necessarily lead to positive outcomes. Although studies in literature mostly highlighted the positive aspects related with LMX, i.e. 'bright side of LMX', by demonstrating higher quality LMX is associated with better employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), not enough attention has been shown to the other side of the coin, that is to say, there are also employees considering their quality of LMX relationships to be not high enough, and their perceptions are inevitably reflected in their attitudes and behaviors. In organizational life, employees' practices of ongoing social comparisons with their coworkers may result in LMX relationships to become fertile to

some destructive effects on organizational outcomes, and this unrecognized destructive effects may sweep away the positive outcomes gained through individual level high quality LMX relationships. On these grounds, this study's investigation of the dark side of LMX concept definitely contributes to LMX theory by validating the need for having a holistic look while examining its effects on organizational outcomes.

Emotions and moods are closely related to social comparison processes, in such a way that social comparisons mostly triggers affective outcomes through justice considerations (Greenberg, et al., 2007). Within a work group, it is usual to make frequent social comparisons among coworkers about what they receive and what others receive. By being intense social interaction processes, leadership and especially LMX relationships are expected to trigger emotional outcomes mostly derived from social comparison processes that give rise to injustice perceptions (Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007; Gooty, et al., 2010; Lazarus, 2000). However, the investigation of affective outcomes of social comparison processes within organizational life is an under-research area to which some researchers have recently called attention by stating that emotions are closely related to the social comparison processes and there is a need for further research that investigates their interactive effects (Hu & Liden, 2013). Although there are some propositions about the relationship between LMX and negative emotions, as well as very few empirical studies investigating their relationship (e.g. Cohen-Charash et al.; 2007; Kim, Neill, & Cho, 2010), the need for exploring emotions within LMX context is still a fertile research area (Gooty et. al, 2010 ; Hu & Liden, 2013). LMX relationships and especially RLMX considerations inherently trigger social comparisons; and these social comparison processes incorporate justice evaluations which are influential on individual attitudes and behaviors (Vidyarathi et al, 2010). In line with this

reasoning that is mainly based on social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954, Greenberg et al., 2007), this thesis contributes to the need to investigate effects of LMX differentiation on discrete employee emotions. Therefore, this study contributes to the LMX theory by combining LMX theory with emotional outcomes, specifically by pointing to the importance of previously under-research effects of LMX in triggering negative employee emotions and their unrecognized negative influence on employee outcomes.

Employees may develop negative feelings triggered by the perception of injustice or unfairness within social exchange relationships depending on the personal evaluations of their comparative situations in terms of LMX relationships with their leaders (Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007). Therefore, as an attempt to investigate LMX relationships from affective perspective, in this research the mediator role of relative deprivation feeling is explored as an underlying process for the effects of LMX relationships on employee outcomes. Relative deprivation is often experienced by comparing the treatments, opportunities or outcomes that an individual receives to those received by others in his/her reference group (Crosby, 1976). In this respect, social comparison processes and resulting perceived relative positions, and associated justice evaluations comprise the underlying mechanism through which relative deprivation feeling is experienced by an individual. In this thesis, personal relative deprivation based on its theoretical conceptualization is taken as an actual emotion of individuals which derives from affective and cognitive evaluations that incorporate justice considerations through social comparisons with referent others (Crosby, 1976). Therefore, within conceptual models of the study, relative deprivation reflects not only a mere discrete emotion of an individual, but also a cognitive and affective process which results from justice

evaluations by social comparison processes. Moreover, in contrast to its common usage in macro level studies for investigating group level societal reactions, this study contributes to relative deprivation theory by using it in a research applied in organizations, as well as by the significant results of the study, relative deprivation theory comes out by promising future value for studies in organizational psychology and management.

By investigating relative deprivation feeling as an affect-based mediator between employee's LMX evaluations and employee outcomes, this research makes an important theoretical contribution also to the justice literature by approaching justice concept both from social exchange and affect perspectives. As one of the leading scholars in justice literature, Colquitt and colleagues (2013) have recently stated in their meta-analytic review study on justice literature that integrating both social exchange and affect lenses is a much better way for justice evaluations compared to the previous practices in justice studies which has sole social exchange perspective. Investigating individual's justice evaluation from both perspectives will help to understand and depict the full effects of injustice perceptions. Although it has been just recently started to be stated in literature, as emotional beings we all know that we do not only evaluate justice rationally by our minds, but also assess injustice through our hearts and show emotional reactions. Therefore, as stated by Colquitt and colleagues (2013), the research should pay attention and act in accordance to the fact that "feeling justice" is also possible for people, and so its resultant effects cannot be denied.

As another theoretical contribution, this study extends the emerging research on the effects of LMX differentiation in the team context by investigating it from "*individual level perceptions*", so that it enables to explore ensuing individual level

affective processes which shape employee's work attitudes and behaviors. For this reason, while collecting individual level data, Hooper and Martin's (2008) LMX distribution measure is used for getting subjective LMX differentiation data from each focal individual for his/her perceptual evaluation about the LMX variability in his/her team as well as perceptions regarding his/her own LMX quality within this team LMX distribution. Therefore, rather than studying LMX in isolation, this research examined LMX relationships surrounded within a larger team context in order to depict the effects of this embedded evaluation on employee attitudes and behaviors. However, as an important theoretical contribution to research, while investigating focal individual's emotional reactions to this embedded LMX relationships within a team context, rather than using combined perceptions of all team members which has been the common method employed by most of the past research, in this study individual's own perception regarding his/her relative standing within his/her team LMX distribution is utilized. This approach provides more confidence on the reliability of the results of the analyses regarding emotional reactions of individuals. For the reason that, validated also by previous research, individual's own perceptions are the main determinants of his/her *emotions, attitudes, and behaviors* rather than the reality (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Based on this fact, while investigating individual level affective reactions to LMX evaluations and their influence on employee attitudes and behavior, the current research looks particularly at focal individual's own perceptions for social comparison driven relative LMX assessments in addition to absolute LMX quality. Therefore, in comparison to the previous research, this study stands out by its distinct perspective of integrating individual level perceptions in exploring the effects of social comparison

based LMX evaluations on employee outcomes which is an important contribution for research.

Another theoretical contribution of the current research is such that the usage of individual level perceptions for relative LMX computations has allowed the researcher to compare and explore whether individual's absolute versus relative LMX evaluations become more destructive on his/her work attitudes and behaviors through the experience of relative deprivation feeling. Both being individual level perception driven assessments, LMX and PerRLMX evaluations and their mediated affects on employee outcomes through individual's experience of relative deprivation feeling can be evaluated in comparative terms. Therefore by demonstrating the comparative effects of absolute versus relative LMX evaluations on employee outcomes, this study contributes to the research by pointing to the importance of investigating LMX with a social comparison perspective by which the effects of mutual influence of embedded LMX relationships on employee outcomes can also be examined.

Furthermore, the significant results of the current study regarding the dominant self-construal of an individual as a boundary condition; such that, it moderates the effects of absolute and/or relative LMX perceptions of an individual on relative deprivation feeling clearly show that while LMX relationships through social comparison processes are fertile for emotional reactions, the scope and strength of these reactions are shaped by self-identification of employees in terms of connectedness to other people. In fact, this finding is consistent with recent research (Tse, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2012; Hochwarter & Byrne, 2005; Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007) which point that employees with different individual characteristics may respond differentially to perceptions of their LMX relationships in work groups. However, previous research

has not yet explored the role of individual's dominant self construal (i.e., independent vs. interdependent) within LMX research. Indeed, investigation of the moderating effect of individual's dominant self-construal in LMX research has a significant value since self-construal mainly defines *role of others* within one's self identification, which is expected to directly influence the value that an individual would attribute to the results of social comparison processes with others. Moreover, the results of the current study pointing to the differentiating effects of independent and interdependent self-construal within social comparison processes do not only contribute to the LMX research, but these results are also in a promising state in contributing to the theories related to group dynamics and formation of effective work groups.

Moreover, the results of the current study regarding significant interaction effects of POS, peer-support and future job expectations on mitigating the negative effects of relative deprivation on employee's in-role performance, affective commitment to organization, job satisfaction and intentions to quit, suggest that ignoring the possible situational factors that are shaped by organizational context may provide a narrow picture of the theoretical implications for negative emotional outcomes of LMX considerations.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research

Several methodological strengths of the study increase both the confidence in the results as well as comprehensiveness of the findings. Firstly, collecting data from two different sources (i.e., employees and their immediate team leaders) reduced the common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). While LMX

evaluations and related cognitive and affective processes depend on individual level data gathered from the focal individual him/herself, the behavioral outcomes (i.e., in-role performance and OCB) for each individual is gathered from his/her immediate leader. Therefore, using data obtained from different sources in the evaluation of causal relationships makes the outcomes of this research more reliable by avoiding common method variance. Additionally, the current study not only investigates both affective and behavioral reactions to LMX based relative deprivation but also investigates employees' actual behaviors rather than just behavioral intentions by getting individualized ratings provided by the immediate leader of each employee. In this respect, the results of the study have more implication power as an organizational outcome.

Furthermore, this study used structural equation modeling (SEM) for analyzing two separate mediation models which are both comparative and supplementary to each other. Investigating the relationships among variables of the study within a model, rather than evaluating coefficients separately, enabled for better understanding the overall mechanism of how and when LMX evaluations of employees influence their attitudes and behaviors through an affective and cognitive process.

Besides, by collecting data from employees within real team contexts (Hackman, 2002) as members of traditional teams characterized by working interdependently on tasks, having common team level goals to meet, and working in the same physical environment by having frequent face-to-face interactions on a daily basis (Goodman & Haisley, 2007) provide appropriate contexts for exploring employees' evaluations regarding their relative LMX considerations and following emotional reactions. Since, the sample specification for the current research was traditional teams within service sector having 3 to 8 members, the results of this study can only be applied to medium

size teams which have a certain amount of face-to-face interactions on a daily basis by having some level of task interdependence within their job definitions. In this respect, the generalizability of the findings of this research to other forms of teams may require reinvestigation of the proposed relationships also within these other team contexts. For instance, for very large teams having members more than 8 people, employees may not directly know and examine all the other team members, therefore while forming their relative LMX evaluations, they may not necessarily look at the average LMX quality of the whole team, but may only base their evaluations by assessing their relative positions in comparison to the employees having the highest level of LMX relationships. Depending on personality characteristics, it may also be possible to have some employees who may compare themselves with the ones having the lowest level of LMX quality. Therefore, investigation of individual preferences for different comparison referents for social comparison processes for one's own LMX evaluations is also an important direction for future research.

Another promising direction for further research is to explore other affect-based mediating mechanisms that link absolute and relative LMX perceptions to employee outcomes. For instance, investigating employees' common negative emotions within organizational life, such as envy, jealousy or anger, as possible affective reactions to LMX evaluations integrated with explicit assessments of justice perceptions may help to broaden the findings of the current study within affect literature.

Despite these strengths, the cross-sectional design can be evaluated as the main limitation of the study. Cross-sectional design does not allow observing the long-term interplay among variables that may evolve and change by time. For future research, applying longitudinal or experimental research designs may give more insights about

how the relationships of the study unfold over time. Moreover, the current study has been applied within Turkish business environment, therefore investigating the proposed relationships of the research in different cultural environments may also help to identify whether there are some culture specific effects on the results of the study. Besides, the usage of convenience sample within service sector may also limit the generalization of the results, thus applying same research within different sectors and samples may help to generalize and validate the results of the study.

Practical Implications

On a practical level, this study has shown that employees' emotional reactions in consequence of social comparison processes are also part of LMX relationships, and these affective reactions may have negative influences over employee attitudes and behaviors. In this respect, leaders need to have also emotional level awareness in their relations with employees in addition to rational awareness and so they should evaluate the reactions of their subordinates from both perspectives. In this respect, within social environments where social interactions are embedded and social comparisons are integrated within daily work processes, leaders who can recognize affective reactions of their subordinates and effectively handle these emotional burnouts may more effectively motivate and lead their employees.

On the other hand, although LMX differentiation is a common and necessary leadership practice due to limited resources and time considerations of leaders, the results of this research has shown that there can also be some negative outcomes "i.e.,

dark side” of these relationships on the part of the employees who perceive that they do not get what they want and what they feel entitled to regarding their relationship with the leader. Since it is not possible for leaders to treat every employee under their supervision in equal terms, therefore having some alternative mechanisms for mitigating the negative aspects of this differentiation within work groups becomes critical. Findings of this study provide suggestions for leaders and organizations for some possible balancing mechanisms. For instance, the results of the study show that supportive behaviors of teammates mitigate the negative effects of LMX based relative deprivation on employee’s affective commitment. In support of this mechanism, leaders can emphasize the common purpose within work groups, encourage team spirit by fostering effective cooperation and coordination, and so encourage a supportive team climate. In addition to peer support, POS is also found to be helpful in reducing the negative effect of LMX based relative deprivation on employee outcomes, specifically on employees’ in-role performance. Therefore, HR applications for effective POS applications would be one of the most important organizational level support system that would have a positive influence on employee performance by mitigating the negative effects of relative deprivation feeling derived from LMX evaluations. Moreover, employees’ positive future job expectations have shown to positively affect their attitudes by decreasing the negative effect of relative deprivation feeling on employees’ job satisfaction and intentions to quit. Therefore, both leaders, organizational agents such as HR managers as well as employees’ themselves need to consider the positive effect of setting vision for employees’ career progresses in their current jobs.

To sum up, LMX differentiation is a common leader practice which is not easily avoided due to limited resources and sometimes individual preferences of leaders,

therefore support systems that can mitigate the negative effects of this leadership practice need to be well established within organizations. For instance, HR departments can set standard rules for organizational incentives, promotions or education programs so that the privileges offered to some employees through their high quality LMX relationships with leader can be made accessible to all employees on equal terms as an organizational level policy. Therefore, employees would feel less need for having high quality LMX relationships with their leaders in order to obtain these opportunities, which may decrease their reactions to LMX differentiations in their work groups. Similarly, offering formal mentoring programs through standard HR practices may help employees to have other support systems for their career developments within their companies as distinct from their immediate leaders. Moreover, organizational level practices that would promote having an organizational culture that values support and cooperation among members can also be helpful for encouraging peer support, which has been found to be an important social support system for employees by the current study. Besides, evident by the results of the current study, helping employees to set vision regarding their career progress within their current concentrating on the possible future offerings of their job is shown to be important in positively influencing attitudes of employees. For that reason, leaders in their general leadership styles should pay extra attention for setting a vision for each of their subordinates which would motivate them to have a future time perspective and handle the current obstacles much more easily. Therefore, leaders in their interactions with their employees should highlight future targets and expectations not only for the success of their companies; but also for the future job conditions of each of their employees.

Concluding Remarks

Major aim of the current study is to explore leader's influence through social exchange relationships on employee's affective reactions that shape employee's work attitudes and behaviors. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory mainly argues that leaders form differentiated social exchange relationships with each of their employees. However, extant literature generally focus on the positive outcomes of this differentiation by investigating mostly the reactions of employees who have higher level LMX qualities, and mostly neglecting the ones who may feel relatively deprived due to not having what they want and what they feel entitled to have in terms of their relationship with the leader. This dissertation aspired to provide evidence on the existence of the dark side of LMX within group context via the investigation of employee's negative affective reactions to LMX relationships based on social comparison processes.

The significance of the current study mainly depends on its integration of social comparison, social exchange, and emotions literatures with an aim for understanding the comparative effects of absolute and relative LMX evaluations on employee's affective reactions that influence work attitudes and behaviors. By providing a broad picture of how and when absolute LMX, and/or perceived relative LMX is more influential on employee's job satisfaction, affective commitment and intentions to leave as well as employee's work behaviors including in-role performance and OCB through a cognitive and affective process that results in employee's experience of relative deprivation feeling, this study investigates LMX theory from a contingency approach.

The results of current research have demonstrated that in addition to their own LMXs, individuals also evaluate their relative standing in work groups by making

within-group social comparisons. Evident by the results, an employee's comparative evaluation of his/her LMX has more negative influence on his/her work outcomes compared to the assessments in absolute terms given that such LMX evaluations trigger negative cognition and emotion of the employee. Moreover, this research highlights the importance of individual's dominant self construal, interdependent-self vs. independent-self, in shaping his/her cognitions and emotions in LMX preferences and so ensuing reactions. With an aim of investigating possible solutions to dark side of LMX relationships, the findings of the current study reveals the crucial importance of having organizational support systems, i.e., POS and peer support; and also highlights the positive influence of motivating employees to have future job expectations that help them to focus on future targets rather than current resentments by having long-term perspectives in their jobs.

In conclusion, the current research exhibits significant results which are valid both for theory and practice; therefore it can make important contributions to practical implementations of leaders and organizations as well as prospective research studies. The two major contributions of this dissertation are as follows, firstly, it provides a comprehensive theoretical background as well as empirical evidence for the existence of dark side of LMX, a construct identified in the literature nearly 40 years ago and has been intensively used in leadership, social psychology and management research mostly by focusing on its positive aspects. Secondly, this dissertation reveals the significant role of LMX on triggering employee emotions, which is a barely investigated causal relation in literature; for that reason, the outcomes of this dissertation are likely to be inspirational for many other prospective studies that would investigate LMX and emotions.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Employee Questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is an important part of a research conducted at PhD level in Department of Management, Bogazici University.

Please be sure that confidentiality is ensured and information you provided will only be used for academic purposes. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Before starting to answer the questionnaire please write down your “group code” and “employee code” that is provided to you with this questionnaire form.

Group code: _____

Employee code: _____

Gaye Karaçay Aydın

Bogazici University
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Department of Management
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1. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements thinking about your immediate team leader.

		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	I like my supervisor very much as a person	1	2	3	4	5
2	My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in	1	2	3	4	5
5	My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others	1	2	3	4	5
6	My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description	1	2	3	4	5
8	I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's work goals.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Please first write down the total number of employee in your work team (please include yourself in this number).

The boxes below represent different quality relationships that may exist between members of your work team and your immediate supervisor (team leader). Please indicate in each box the number of members in your work team whose working relationship with the supervisor falls within each category (please include yourself in this count). The boxes should add together to equal the number of people in your work team written in the above box. If unsure, please make a reasonable estimate.

Very Poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very Good

Please explicitly state the quality of working relationship between yourself and your immediate supervisor by putting X to the appropriate box below.

Very Poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very Good

3. Please reply the following 8 questions, as pairs of 4 questions:

Answer Questions 1 and 2 together		Strongly agree	agree	Neither agree nor disagree	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Do you feel that you are less appreciated than others by your immediate supervisor?	1	2	3	4	5
		Very dissatisfied	dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	satisfied	Very satisfied
2	To what extent are you satisfied with this situation	1	2	3	4	5
Answer Questions 3 and 4 together		Strongly agree	agree	Neither agree nor disagree	disagree	Strongly disagree
3	Do you have the impression that your work is evaluated less than that of others by your immediate supervisor?	1	2	3	4	5
		Very dissatisfied	dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor	satisfied	Very satisfied
4	To what extent are you satisfied with this situation	1	2	3	4	5
Answer Questions 5 and 6 together		Strongly agree	agree	Neither agree nor disagree	disagree	Strongly disagree
5	Do you feel that you have offered fewer opportunities than others by your immediate supervisor?	1	2	3	4	5
		Very dissatisfied	dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	satisfied	Very satisfied
6	To what extent are you satisfied with this situation	1	2	3	4	5

Answer Questions 7 and 8 together		Strongly agree	agree	Neither agree nor disagree	disagree	Strongly disagree
7	Do you feel that other employees can deprive your position of you?	1	2	3	4	5
		Very dissatisfied	dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	satisfied	Very satisfied
8	To what extent are you satisfied with this situation	1	2	3	4	5

4. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by considering yourself in life in general terms.

		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I'd rather say "No" directly, than risk being misunderstood.	1	2	3	4	5
3	It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Speaking up during a class (<i>or in public</i>) is not a problem for me.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Having a lively imagination is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I respect people who are modest about themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I am the same person at home that I am at school(<i>job</i>).	1	2	3	4	5
11	I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I act the same way no matter who I am with.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am.	1	2	3	4	5
17	It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.	1	2	3	4	5

21	If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.	1	2	3	4	5
22	My personal identity independent of others is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I value being in good health above everything.	1	2	3	4	5

5. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	My organization cares about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My organization strongly considers my goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	1	2	3	4	5
6	If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My organization shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5
8	My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.	1	2	3	4	5

6. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	My co-workers can be relied upon when things get tough.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My co-workers are willing to listen to my job-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My co-workers are helpful to me in getting my job done.	1	2	3	4	5

7. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	I am fairly well satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Each day of work seems like it will never end.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I find real enjoyment in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I consider my job rather unpleasant.	1	2	3	4	5

8. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	I am actively looking for a job outside my company.	1	2	3	4	5
2	As soon as I can find a better job, I will leave my company.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I often think about quitting my job at this company.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I think I will be working at this company five years from now.	1	2	3	4	5

9. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
7	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5

10. Please select the answers that complete each of the following sentences most appropriately for you

		much worse than today	worse than today	neither better nor worse than today	better than today	much better than today
1	My relationship with my immediate supervisor in my current job will be...	1	2	3	4	5
2	My relationship with my co-workers in my current job will be...	1	2	3	4	5
3	The physical conditions in my current job will be...	1	2	3	4	5
4	The financial aspects (e.g., pay and benefits) of my current job will be...	1	2	3	4	5
5	Opportunities/matters in my current job affecting my future career will be...	1	2	3	4	5

Lastly, please answer the following 6 questions:

- 1) How long have you been working in business life? _____ years
- 2) How long have you been working in your current company? _____ years
- 3) Your gender: Female Male
- 4) Your age: _____
- 5) Your education: High school Graduate Programs University
- 6) The service sector of your company
 - Education
 - Food (restaurants, café etc.)
 - Retail
 - Customer services (hairdresser, beauty salons etc.)
 - Financial services (banking, insurance etc.)
 - Other.....

Thank you very much for your time and consideration!

Appendix B
Leader Questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is an important part of a research conducted at PhD level in Department of Management, Bogazici University.

Please be sure that confidentiality is ensured and information you provided will only be used for academic purposes. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Before starting to answer the questionnaire, please write down your “group code” and the “employee code” which belongs to the employee for whom you are going to make assessments in the present form. For each of the employee that you make evaluation by filling a questionnaire, separate codes are provided and given to you together with questionnaire forms.

Group code: _____

Employee code: _____

Gaye Karaçay Aydın

Bogazici University
Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences
Department of Management
e-mail: gaye.karacay@boun.edu.tr

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements thinking about the employee that you are answering the questionnaire for.

He/she.....		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	Adequately completes assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Fails to perform essential duties.	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements thinking about the employee that you are answering the questionnaire for.

He/she....		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
1	Helps others out if someone falls behind in his/her work.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Willingly share his/her expertise with other members of the crew.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Try to act like peacemaker when other crew members have disagreements.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Take steps to try to prevent problems with other crew members.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Willingly give of his/her time to help crew members who have work-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5
6	'Touch base' with other crew members before initiating actions that might affect them.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Encourage the crew member when he/she is down.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Provide constructive suggestions about how the crew can improve its effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Are willing to risk disapproval to express his/her beliefs about what's best for the crew.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Attend and actively participate in team meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Always focus on what is wrong with the situation, rather than the positive side.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Always find fault with what other crew members are doing.	1	2	3	4	5

As a last step, please answer the following 6 questions:

How long have you been working in business life? _____years

How long have you been working in your current company? _____years

Your gender: Female Male

Your age: _____

Your education: High school Programs University Graduate

The service sector of your company

- Education
- Food (restaurants, café etc.)
- Retail
- Customer services (hairdresser, beauty salons etc.)
- Financial services (banking, insurance etc.)
- Other.....

Thank you very much for your time and consideration!

Appendix C

Çalışan Anketi

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü doktora programı düzeyinde yürütülen bir araştırma projesinin önemli bir parçasıdır.

Bu çalışmada elde edilecek veriler sadece akademik amaçlı kullanılıp gizli tutulacaktır. Araştırmaya gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve ayırdığınız zamandan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Anketi cevaplamaya başlamadan önce lütfen aşağıdaki ilgili yerlere size bu anket formu ile birlikte verilmiş olan “grup kodunuzu” ve “çalışan kodunuzu” yazınız.

Grup kodu: _____

Çalışan kodu: _____

Gaye Karaçay Aydın

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi
İşletme Bölümü
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1-Lütfen birinci derecedeki birim amirinizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Yöneticimi insan olarak severim.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Yöneticim herkesin arkadaş olmak isteyeceği türden bir kişidir.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Yöneticim birlikte çalışılması çok keyifli bir insandır.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Yöneticim işle ilgili eylemlerimde o konu hakkında tam bilgisi olmasa dahi beni bir üst yöneticiye karşı savunur.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Şayet başkaları işle ilgili üstüme gelecek olsa, yöneticim beni savunur ve korur.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Şayet iyi niyetle istemeden bir hata yapmışsam, yöneticim şirketteki diğer kişilere karşı beni savunur.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Yöneticim için iş tanımımda yer alan görevlerin ötesine geçen işleri de yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Yöneticimin organizasyon içindeki hedeflerine ulaşması için, normalde gerekenden daha fazla çaba göstermeye gönüllü olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Yöneticim için elimden gelenin en fazlasını yapmaktan gocunmam.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Yöneticimin yaptığı işle ilgili bilgisi beni etkiler.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Yöneticimin işteki bilgi ve yeterliliğine saygı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Yöneticimin mesleki becerilerine hayranım.	1	2	3	4	5

2- Lütfen aynı amire raporladığınız çalışma grubunuzdaki çalışan sayısını aşağıdaki kutuya yazınız (bu sayıya lütfen kendinizi de dahil ediniz).

Aşağıdaki 5 kutucuk, birinci derecedeki birim amirinizin çalışma grubunuzdaki üyelerle kurmuş olabileceği iş ilişkisinin kalitesini 5 ayrı seviyede ifade etmektedir. Lütfen şimdi çalışma grubunuzdaki tüm çalışanları ve bunların birim amirinizle olan iş ilişkilerini tek tek göz önüne alarak yukarıda yazdığımız toplam çalışan sayısını amirinizle olan çalışma ilişki kalitelerine göre aşağıdaki kutucuklara dağıtınız (Lütfen kendinizi de toplam sayı içerisinde tutarak bu dağıtıma dahil ediniz). Sonuçta aşağıdaki kutucuklara yazılan sayıların toplamı sizin yukarıda belirttiğiniz çalışma grubunuzun sayısına eşitlenmeli. Emin olmadığınız bir durum olur ise lütfen mantıklı tahmin yürütün.

Çok kötü	Kötü	Orta seviyede	İyi	Çok iyi

Lütfen birinci derecedeki birim amiriniz ile sizin iş ilişkinizin kalitesini açıkça belirtmek için aşağıdaki kutucuklardan uygun olanına (X) ile işaret koyunuz.

Çok kötü	Kötü	Orta seviyede	İyi	Çok iyi

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3-Lütfen aşağıda yer alan 8 soruyu 4 adet çiftli soru şeklinde değerlendirerek cevaplayınız.

Soru 1 ve 2'yi birlikte cevaplayınız		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Birim amiriniz tarafından diğerlerine göre daha az takdir edildiğinizi hissediyor musunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
		Çok rahatsızım, hiç memnun değilim	Memnun değilim	Ne memnunum ne de memnun değilim	Memnunum	Çok mutluyum, oldukça memnunum
2	Bu durumdan ne derece memnunsunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
Soru 3 ve 4'ü birlikte cevaplayınız		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
3	Birim amiriniz tarafından yaptığınız işin diğerlerine göre daha az beğenildiği izlenimine sahip misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
		Çok rahatsızım, hiç memnun değilim	Memnun değilim	Ne memnunum ne de memnun değilim	Memnunum	Çok mutluyum, oldukça memnunum
4	Bu durumdan ne derece memnunsunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
Soru 5 ve 6'yı birlikte cevaplayınız		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
5	Birim amiriniz tarafından diğerlerine kıyasla size daha az imkan sunulduğunu hissediyor musunuz?	1	2	3	4	5

		Çok rahatsızım, hiç memnun	Memnun değilim	Ne memnunum ne de memnun değilim	Memnunum	Çok mutluym, oldukça memnunum
6	Bu durumdan ne derece memnunsunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
Soru 7 ve 8'i birlikte cevaplayınız		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
7	Diğer çalışanların sizin pozisyonunuzu sizin elinizden alabileceklerini hissediyor musunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
		Çok rahatsızım, hiç memnun	Memnun değilim	Ne memnunum ne de memnun değilim	Memnunum	Çok mutluym, oldukça memnunum
8	Bu durumdan ne derece memnunsunuz?	1	2	3	4	5

4-Lütfen kendinizi hayatın içerisinde genel anlamda düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Birlikte ilişki içerisinde olduğum otorite sahibi kişilere karşı saygım vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Yanlış anlaşılmaktansa direkt 'Hayır' demeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Grubum içerisinde ahengin temin edilmesi benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Topluluk önünde konuşmak benim için sorun olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Benim mutluluğum çevremdeki insanların mutluluğuna bağlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Canlı bir hayal gücüne sahip olmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Otobüste yerimi profesörümeye teklif ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Ceza veya ödül için gruptan ayrıştırılmaktan rahatsız olmam.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Kendileri hakkında mütevazı olan insanlara saygı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
10	İşte ve evde hep aynı insanım, iki ortamda da hiç farkım yok.	1	2	3	4	5
11	İçerisinde bulunduğum grup için kendi çıkarımı feda ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Kendi kendime bakabiliyor, yatabiliyor olmak benim için en önemli önceliktir.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Coğunlukla başkaları ile olan ilişkimin kendi başarılarımdan çok daha önemli olduğu hissine kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Kiminle birlikte olursam olayım hep aynı şekilde davranırım.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Kariyer planlarımda ailemin tavsiyelerini göz önüne almalıyım.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Benden çok büyük dahi olsalar, ilk karşılaştığım insanlara bir süre sonra ilk isimleri ile hitap etmekte rahat hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Grup tarafından alınmış kararlara saygı göstermek benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Yeni karşılaştığım insanlara direkt ve açıksözlü olmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Eğer grubun bana ihtiyacı varsa, o gruptan mutlu olmasam bile, yine de onlarla kalmaya devam ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Birçok açıdan başkalarından farklı ve özgün olmayı severim.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Eğer kardeşim başarısız olursa, sorumlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Kişisel benliğimin diğerlerinden bağımsız olması benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Grup üyeleri ile kesinlikle aynı fikirde olmasam bile yine de tartışmaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Sağlığımın iyi olmasını herşeyin üzerinde tutarım.	1	2	3	4	5

5-Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Çalıştığım kurum fikirlerimi önemser.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Çalıştığım kurum refahımla gerçekten ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Çalıştığım kurum gerçekten benim hedef ve değerlerimi dikkate alır.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Bir problemim olduğunda kurumumdan gerekli yardımı alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Eğer istemeden bir hata yaparsam kurumum bunu affeder.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Fırsat verilse, çalıştığım kurum beni sömürür.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Kurumum bana çok az ilgi gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Eğer özel bir iyiliğe, desteğe ihtiyacım olursa kurumum bana yardım etmekte gönüllüdür.	1	2	3	4	5

6-Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	İşler zora girdiğinde çalışma arkadaşlarıma güvenilebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Çalışma arkadaşlarım işle ilgili sorunlarımı dinlerler.	1	2	3	4	5
3	İşlerimi yapmamda çalışma arkadaşlarım bana yardımcı olurlar.	1	2	3	4	5

7-Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Mevcut işimden oldukça çok hoşnutum.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Çoğu zaman işimle ilgili heves doluyum.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Herbir iş günü asla bitmeyecek gibi geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5
4	İşimden gerçekten zevk alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5	İşimi biraz tatsız ve sıkıcı buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

8-Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Şirketim dışında başka bir iş için aktif arayış içerisindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Daha iyi bir iş bulur bulmaz, bu şirketten ayrılacağım.	1	2	3	4	5
3	İşimden ayrılmayı ciddi olarak düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Sıklıkla bu şirketteki bu işten ayrılmayı düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Bana kalırsa bu şirkette daha beş yıl daha çalışıyor olacağım.	1	2	3	4	5

9-Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılmıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Geri kalan kariyerimi bu şirkette geçirmekten çok mutlu olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
2	İş dışındaki insanlarla şirketimi konuşmaktan zevk alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Bu şirketin sorunlarını sanki kendi sorunlarıymış gibi hissediyorum	1	2	3	4	5
4	Bu şirkete bağlandığım gibi bir başka şirkete de kolaylıkla bağlanabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Bu şirket içinde kendimi ‘aileden biriymişim’ gibi <u>hissetmiyorum.</u>	1	2	3	4	5
6	Duygusal olarak bu şirkete bağlılık <u>hissetmiyorum.</u>	1	2	3	4	5
7	Kişisel anlamda bu şirketin benim için çok önemli bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Şirketime güçlü bir bağlılık hissi içerisinde <u>değilim.</u>	1	2	3	4	5

10-Lütfen aşağıdaki herbir durumla ilgili geleceğe dair beklentilerinizi düşününüz. Geleceğe dair beklentilerinize en uygun şekilde her cümleyi tamamlayan cevapları seçiniz.

		Çok daha kötü olacak	Daha kötü olacak	Değişmeyecek /Aynı kalacak	Daha iyi olacak	Çok daha iyi olacak
1	Şuanki işimdeki bir üst amirimle olan ilişkim gelecekte	1	2	3	4	5
2	Şuanki işimdeki çalışma arkadaşlarımla olan ilişkim gelecekte	1	2	3	4	5
3	Şuanki işimdeki işyerindeki fiziki şartlarım gelecekte	1	2	3	4	5
4	Şuanki işimdeki ücret ve yan ödeneklerim gelecekte	1	2	3	4	5
5	Şuanki işimdeki kariyer geleceğimi etkileyen fırsatlar gelecekte	1	2	3	4	5

Son olarak, lütfen aşağıdaki 6 soruyu cevaplayınız:

6) Ne kadar süredir iş hayatında çalışıyorsunuz? _____yıl

7) Ne kadar süredir şuanki şirketinizde çalışıyorsunuz? _____yıl

8) Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek

9) Yaşınız: _____

10) Eğitim durumunuz: Lise Üniversite Lisans
üstü

6) Şirketinizin hizmet alanı:

- Eğitim
- Gıda (restoran, kafe vs.)
- Perakende satış
- Müşteri hizmetleri (kuaför, güzellik hizmetleri vs.)
- Finansal hizmetler (bankacılık, sigortacılık vs.)
- Diğer.....

Gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve ayırdığınız zaman için teşekkür ederiz!

Appendix D

Yönetici Anketi

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü doktora programı düzeyinde yürütülen bir araştırma projesinin önemli bir parçasıdır.

Bu çalışmada elde edilecek veriler sadece akademik amaçlı kullanılıp gizli tutulacaktır. Araştırmaya gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve ayırdığınız zamandan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Anketi cevaplamaya başlamadan önce lütfen aşağıdaki ilgili yerlere size bu anket formu ile birlikte verilmiş olan “grup kodunuzu” ve değerlendirme yapacağınız her bir çalışmanız için ayrı olarak verilen çalışan kodlarından bu ankette değerlendirmesini yapacağınız çalışmanızın “çalışan kodunu” yazınız.

Grup kodu: _____

Çalışan kodu: _____

Gaye Karaçay Aydın

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi
İşletme Bölümü
e-mail: gaye.karacay@boun.edu.tr

Lütfen şuan bu anket formu için değerlendirme yaptığımız çalışanınız ile ilgili aşağıdaki her bir ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Verilen görevleri uygun şekilde tamamlar.	1	2	3	4	5
2	İş tanımında yer alan sorumluluklarını yerine getirir.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Kendisinden beklenen görevleri yerine getirir.	1	2	3	4	5
4	İşin resmi olarak tanımlanmış unsurlarını gerçekleştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Kendi performans değerlendirmesini doğrudan olumlu etkileyecek aktivitelerde bulunur.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İşinin yapmakla yükümlü olduğu bazı yönlerini ihmal eder.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Asıl görevlerini yerine getirmekte başarısızdır.	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen şuan bu anket formu için değerlendirme yaptığımız çalışmamız ile ilgili aşağıdaki her bir ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum ne de Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	İşinde geri kalmış olanlara yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Uzmanlığımı gönüllü olarak diğerleriyle paylaşır.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Diğer çalışanlar arasında anlaşmazlıklar olduğunda arabulucu gibi davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Başka çalışanlarla sorun yaşamamak için gerekli adımları atar.	1	2	3	4	5
5	İşte sorun yaşayan iş arkadaşlarına gönüllü olarak zaman ayırır.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Diğer çalışanları etkileyecek adımlar atmadan önce onlarla konuşur.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Bir iş arkadaşının morali bozursa moralini yükseltmek için onu yüreklendirir.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Birimim etkinliğinin artırılması için yapıcı önerilerde bulunur.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Kurumun veya başkalarının iyiliğine olacağına inandığı görüşleri için <u>onaylanmamayı</u> göze alır.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Takım toplantılarına aktif bir şekilde katılım sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Olayların olumlu yönlerinden çok olumsuz yönlerine bakar.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Ufak sorunlardan sürekli şikayet eder.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Diğer çalışanların yaptığı işlerde sürekli hata bulur.	1	2	3	4	5

Son olarak, lütfen aşağıdaki 6 soruyu cevaplayınız:

Ne kadar süredir iş hayatında çalışıyorsunuz? _____ yıl

Ne kadar süredir şuanki şirketinizde çalışıyorsunuz? _____ yıl

Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek

Yaşınız: _____

Eğitim durumunuz: Lise Üniversite Lisans
üstü

Şirketinizin hizmet alanı:

- Eğitim
- Gıda (restoran, kafe vs.)
- Perakende satış
- Müşteri hizmetleri (kuaför, güzellik hizmetleri vs.)
- Finansal hizmetler (bankacılık, sigortacılık vs.)
- Diğer.....

Gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve ayırdığınız zaman için teşekkür ederiz!

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