

2017-01-01

An Organizational Attachment Model: Lmx-Social Comparison, Job Embeddedness And Psychological Ownership

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AN ORGANIZATIONAL ATTACHMENT MODEL: LMX-SOCIAL COMPARISON, JOB
EMBEDDEDNESS AND PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP

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By

SAUL R. VALDIVIEZO

2017

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my family. I am so thankful to my father and mother whose sacrifice and efforts started me on this road. They taught me the value of hard work. I am also grateful to my god parents, Rene and Socorro, who always showed me so much love. I also want to dedicate this dissertation to my wife; her patience, love, courage, and resilience throughout this process has been my source of motivation. I am also thankful to rest of my family who helped me immensely through various stages of my life, my tio's, tia's, and my cousins (especially Ernie and Raul).

Special appreciation to my mother-in-law, J.M. Valdez. She gave me encouragement and love which has influenced my success. I am also thankful to my siblings: Pepe, Raul, Chava, Alex and Sandra, and nephews and nieces, I love you all, especially Angel. To Enrique, I hope to be your inspiration, love you kiddo.

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OWNERSHIP

by

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DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at El Paso

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Marketing and Management

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT EL PASO

August 2017

Acknowledgements

I want to express my appreciation to my dissertation committee members, Dr. Santiago Ibarreche, Dr. Richard Posthuma, and Dr. Leo Gemoets for their support and advice. I also want to display my gratitude to the faculty of the Marketing and Management Department at the University of Texas at El Paso, in particular, Dr. Laura Guerrero, Dr. Fernanda Wagstaff, Dr. Miguel Ramos, Dr. Prajya Vidyarthi, and Dr. Edward Ramirez, who instructed me, assisted me, and guided me over my academic career. I also appreciate my great friends and colleagues Gerardo “Tito” Moreira, Gaby Flores and Sayan Sarkar, who helped and motivated me through this process.

Abstract

This study investigates the relationship between employees' comparisons of relationship quality with their leader (LMXSC) and attitudinal workplace outcomes. Building on the theoretical principle of LMXSC, I postulate that job embeddedness mediates the relationship between perceived relationship quality and psychological ownership. Additionally, I examine the effects of overall organizational justice to understand how environmental variables impact our attachment model. Our results indicate that LMXSC is an important determinant of psychological ownership and job satisfaction and that job embeddedness mediates these relationships. I examine the proposed model with 471 employees from 37 organizations. The results show partial support for the proposed theoretical model. Theoretical contributions, implication for practitioners and future directions are offered.

Keywords:

LMXSC, psychological ownership, job embeddedness

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Chapter 1: Introduction

One of the most prolific streams in the leadership literature has focused on leader-member exchange (see Ilies et al. (2007) for a review). Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory describes how managers form special relationships with a small number of subordinates (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). The importance of this concept is how it describes and explains the employee-manager relationship with simplicity and elegance. This theory explains how the relationship that employees establish with their managers is often the most important link with the organization; therefore, it has a direct impact on how employees feel about the organization (Manzoni & Barsoux, 2002). The byproducts of high-quality relationships are positive outcomes for employees and managers (e.g., increased trust and satisfaction) (Liden et al., 1997; Erdogan & Enders, 2007).

Within this thesis, I explore leader-member exchange social comparison (LMXSC). This construct represents the comparison that employees make when they evaluate their current standing with their supervisor in relation to the standing other group members have with the same supervisor (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). The theoretical foundation of LMXSC is based on LMX and social comparison theory, which states that individuals exist within a social structure and thus evaluate their current social standing within a group to help define themselves as well as others (Festinger, 1954; Wood, 1996). Within a work context, social comparison theory suggests that employees evaluate the work environment to decipher where they stand within the organization (Greenberg, Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2007). Social comparisons change how individuals view the world, thus influencing their behaviors, motivation, and attitudes (Wood,

1989). For this reason, when employees compare their current standing with a supervisor against that of other group members, it may lead to different attitudinal and behavioral responses.

Attachment theory may provide a useful framework to examine the quality of the relationship between subordinates and supervisors, as a higher-quality relationship may establish some of the foundation for attachment. This theory is based on the notion that humans have an innate need to feel comfort and security (Bowlby, 1973). Therefore, I theorize that within an organizational context, employees who perceive having a better-quality relationship with their supervisor (compared to others) will also believe they receive more attention and support from their supervisor (Wayne et al., 1997), which in turn could lead to positive feelings towards the organization. Positive perceptions of the leader and environment could help employees stay within the company. The concept of job embeddedness (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001) was created to expand on why employees decide to stay within their organizations. This construct gauges the extent to which employees create stronger ties within and outside an organization, thus making it more difficult for them to leave (Lee et al., 2004).

By developing strong ties with the organization, employees can then develop organizational psychological ownership. Psychological ownership (PSO) is described as a state of mind through which individuals feel or perceive ownership over tangible or intangible objects, even without any legal recourse (Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2001). Employees' felt psychological ownership can be considered a psychological resource for organizations because of the positive feelings associated with the construct such as sense of belonging and self-efficacy (see Fredrickson, 2001; Avey et al., 2009a). Similar to other organizational resources, psychological ownership can be assessed, developed, and even exploited to achieve greater performance. Most of the research associated with PSO has focused on the outcomes associated

with feelings of owning the organization, such as performance, organizational citizenship behaviors (Park et al., 2013), and organizationally-based self-esteem (Pan et al., 2014). Despite this, a great deal of research is necessary to understand the underlying factors that promote the development of PSO.

1.1 Purpose of Study

It is intuitive to think that when employees perceive being treated unfairly by leader or organization there will be negative outcomes that are associated with these feelings, for instance, lower levels of trust in leaders' decision making abilities, greater levels of stress, and increased turnover will occur. For managers to implement practical changes, it is important to comprehend how and to what extent justice influences attitudes and behaviors.

Employees' perceptions of justice or fairness play a major role in determining whether they build a relationship with an organization (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Although most of the attention has been on the individual dimensions (e.g. distributive, procedural) of such perceptions, recent efforts have focused on a more holistic approach referred to as overall organizational justice (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Greenberg, 2001). Colquitt and Shaw (2005) advised that a global view of perceived justice should be utilized when the goal is to find evidence for its impact on global attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, such as PSO (as in this study). Employees' perceptions of fairness are important because they are conducive to stronger bond development with their leader(s) and promote subsequent feelings of attachment towards the organization. Leaders often take the role of mentors, guides, and representatives of the organization; therefore, employees' perceptions of organizational fairness are essential for their long-term well-being (e.g., career development and expectations; Scandura, 1997).

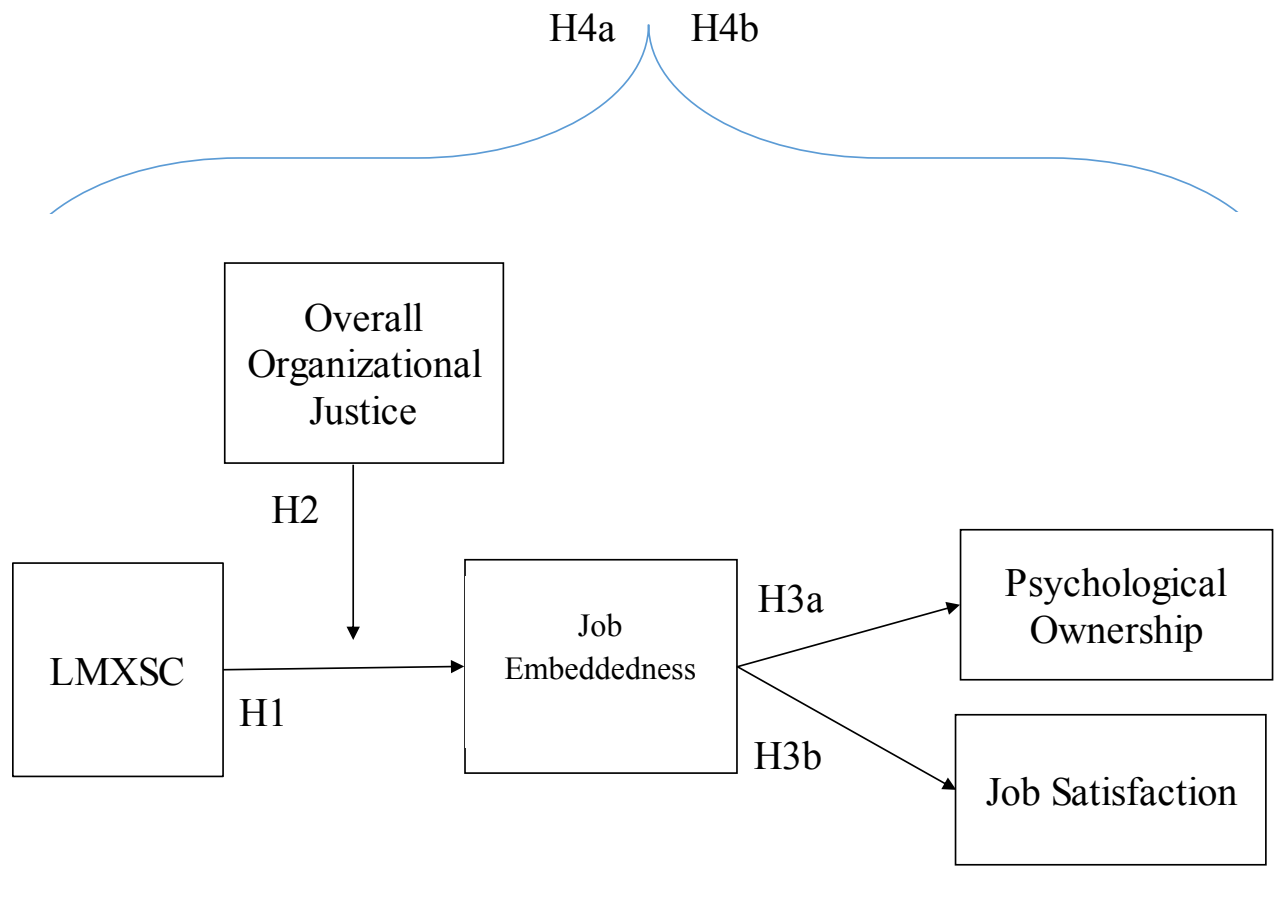


FIGURE 1.1: Hypothesized Model.

As shown in our model (see Figure 1.1), I predict that the comparison of one's own to others' perceived relationship quality with managers (LMXSC) leads to higher job embeddedness, which in turn acts as a mediator between LMXSC and the outcomes of psychological ownership and job satisfaction. I integrate the theories of attachment and social comparison to explain how higher levels of LMXSC will have a positive impact on the aforementioned outcomes when employees feel higher levels of embeddedness. That is, the positive affect (e.g., feelings of trust) an employee feels toward their leader (due to a better-quality relationship) will result in greater job embeddedness, which in turn will allow individuals to feel greater PSO and job satisfaction. In contrast, more negative perceived affect due to lower-quality relationships will not allow individuals to generate feelings of embeddedness. Thus,

having lower embeddedness will ultimately lead to lower satisfaction and sense of ownership. I also expect that overall organizational justice will moderate the relationship between LMXSC and embeddedness.

The study I conducted to assess the validity of these expectations fulfills three main goals. First, I extend leadership literature, specifically advancing LMXSC by examining leader-member relationship comparisons as an antecedent to embeddedness and perceptions of ownership. Second, I adopt a novel approach by drawing on attachment and social comparison theories to explain how relationship quality comparison can lead to greater ownership perceptions. Lastly, I introduce overall organizational justice as a multi-level contextual factor.

1.2 Questions

- (1) How do perceptions of quality relationship with leader impact employees' perceptions of job embeddedness?
- (2) How do perceptions of quality relationship with leader impact employees' psychological ownership and satisfaction?
- (3) Does job embeddedness mediate the relationship among employees' comparisons of leader quality relationship and ownership?
- (4) Does job embeddedness mediate the relationship among employees' comparisons of leader quality relationship and satisfaction?
- (5) What is the overall impact of justice on the mediated model, between LMXSC and ownership and satisfaction?

1.3 Organization of the Study

In the first chapter, the introduction, main objectives of this thesis are introduced. The introduction is then followed by five chapters which include literature review, methods, references and appendices.

Chapter 2 develops a comprehensive literature review for LMX theory, Attachment theory, and Social Comparison theory.

Chapter 3 introduces the hypotheses built on the idea of attachment as a mechanism for developing a deeper relationship with the organization.

Chapter 4, details the parameters for this study; the characteristics of the sample, the design of the study, and the measures used for data collection. This further produces a statistical analysis for the study.

Chapter 5 analyzes and examines the results for the statistical analysis and discusses the theoretical and practical implications in this study. This chapter further delineates future research and limitations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Leader-Member Exchange Social Comparison

This chapter presents a general review of the theory and past research for creating the underlying foundation for the theoretical model. I first explore leader-member exchange literature and leader-member exchange social comparison research. Second, I further explore the intricacies of attachment theory. Third, I explain why member's rating of LMX relationship should be considered within a group context. Third, I review LMX literature with an emphasis on affect.

Overview of LMX theory

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory states that due to limitations in resources and time, leaders develop special, dyadic relationships with a small group of subordinates (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). LMX is derived from Dansereau's model of vertical dyadic linkage (VDL), which explains the differentiated relations between a leader and his or her different subordinates (Dansereau et al., 1975). LMX denotes the type of quality relationship a manager has with a subordinate as being high or low quality. The current research on LMX is based on the premise that for higher quality relationships to develop, equitable exchanges must take place--for instance, employees who work hard expect certain benefits (e.g., increased compensation and promotions) and leaders who provide additional resources also expect augmented effort from employees (e.g., increased effort and citizenship behaviors). This theory stipulates that in high quality relationships leaders and followers have exchanges that exceeds those of contractual expectations, including material and non-material resources (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). Employees with better-quality relationships (in-group) receive more

attention (Graen et al., 1982), support (Tangirala, Green, & Ramanujam, 2007), and feel more motivated (Lagace, Castleberry, & Ridnour, 1993). In contrast, in lower quality relationships, the exchanges do not exceed the contractual expectations. These relationships have a lower levels of trust, loyalty, respect, support openness, and honesty (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Overall, negative outcomes are associated with lower quality relationship between managers and subordinates.

The outcomes associated with the high quality LMX relationships are based on the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). These theoretical concept explains that when leaders provide certain subordinates a larger share of resources (e.g. support, attention, trust), and in turn, the subordinates may reciprocate in kind with greater performance (e.g., Dunegan, Uhl-Bien, & Ducho, 2002), exhibiting helping behaviors (Hackett & LaPierre, 2004), or showing greater satisfaction (Liden et al., 1997). Past meta-analytic research has shown also significant and positive results for how high quality relationship lead to better outcomes (see Gerstner & Day, 1997; Hackett & Lapierre, 2004; Illies et al., 2007; Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012).

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) informed their discussion of the evolution of LMX theory through four states: VDL, LMX, leadership making, and team-making competence network. The first stage VDL, research focused on the question “effective supervision” was a concept that could be applied to all subordinates. The initial wave of LMX research disputed established management assumptions and showed that leaders had a tendency to develop different quality relationship with subordinates (Dansereau et al., 1973; Graen & Cashman, 1975). This early empirical research suggested that because subordinates had differentiated quality relationships with their leader, then these relationships were dyadic in nature (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Researchers proposed that differentiation occurred because of constrained resources and time (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Supervisors are responsible for distributing these limited resources to their subordinates, but as part of human nature, the distribution of limited resources can be biased.

The second stage consisted of the development of the nomological network associated with LMX. For this reason, the research began trying to understand the reasons why LMX developed most dyadic relationships and the outcomes associated with having better quality relationships. Researcher capitalized on different theories to explain aspects of the phenomenon. Role theory (Graen & Scandura, 1987) was introduced to partly explain how LMX relationships are developed. The essential components for this theory were complementary to LMX. In general, leaders assign roles to subordinates and tests their skills. Leaders can also create roles. For instance, a leader can assign a new task to a subordinate that they need to complete. The subordinate can accept or decline the this task, over time better quality relationship can be built in this way (Liden et al., 1997). With assignment and completion of said task or roles. Additionally, both leaders and subordinates have expectations of each other's roles, with increased collaboration generating higher levels of LMX. The initial evidence showed that increased capabilities and performance are indicators of increased LMX (e.g., Docker & Steiner, 1990; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993).

Additionally, Dienesch and Liden (1986) used a number of theories to create a unified model that explores how a leader's characteristics and subordinates' characteristics lead to increased levels of LMX. Within this framework, the authors argued that the attributions leaders and subordinates make about each other's behaviors create a better outcome for both of the

parties. Specifically, upward influence tactics, mutual affect and subordinate performance have been shown to have a large impact the development of LMX (e.g., Dockery & Steiner, 1990).

The research on the outcomes associated with LMX has been centered on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). These social theories have been used to explain why there is a direct link between high LMX quality and positive outcomes. When leaders treat their subordinates favorably, these individuals reciprocate in kind with increased effort (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). Support for this notion is widely accepted in the research community, with studies showing the link between higher quality relationships and a number of positive outcomes such as in-role performance, decreased intention to quit, affective commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, lower levels of deviant behaviors and positive attitudes. In summary, within the second stage of LMX research there was an expansion of the nomological network that greatly expanded out knowledge in this area.

The third stage consists of challenges to the common assumptions for how high quality relationships develop. Researchers posited that in longitudinal contexts leaders can develop a high quality relationship with all subordinates (Graen, et al, 1982; Graen et al., 1986). When leaders are trained to make an effort to have a high quality relationship with all subordinates, overall performances of individuals and groups increase (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). One of the main contributors for development of LMX is the interactions between leader and subordinate (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) argue that with more time, relationships gradually evolve from economic based exchanges to more social exchanges. Other research has also shown positive outcomes when more high quality exist within a group (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

In the last research stage, the studies are centered on the notion that the dyadic relationship between a leader and a subordinate do not exist in a vacuum, but are part of a larger social system such as a department or an organization as whole. The main consideration of this stream of research is inter-dependence that is associated with being part of a department and an organization (Graen & Scadura, 1987). In this stage, researchers asked how the dyadic relationship of a leader and subordinate affects the group's processes and performance (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). A number of streams in the leadership literature examine the variations within the LMX paradigm, but within a group context there are three main streams: LMX differentiation (e.g., Henderson, Liden, Glibkowski, & Chaudhry, 2009), Relative-LMX (RLMX) (e.g., Hu & Liden, 2011) and LMX-Social Comparison (e.g., Vidyarthi et al., 2010).

LMX differentiation refers to variation of quality relationship that a leader develops within one group (Henderson et al., 2009). The influence of LMX-differentiation is based social comparisons made by subordinates. When leaders differentiate their treatment of their subordinates, some followers will have a higher quality relationship than others. This condition is conducive for comparisons to be made between a focal employee's quality relationship and the rest of the work group. Since LMX differentiation is part of being in a group that has limited access to resources (Dansereau et al., 1975), it is very likely that social comparisons are a prevalent part of workplace life. Within this stream, subordinates assess their level resources and how they are treated.

Another notion developed from the notion of LMX differentiation is relative-LMX (RLMX). RLMX refers to a quantitative measure for the variation of quality relationship between coworkers and leader (Hu & Liden, 2009). It is calculated by subtracting the group's average LMX from a focal subordinates' LMX rating. Within this notion, LMX quality is not an

“absolute term” (Hogg, Martin, Epitropaki, Mankad, Svensson, & Weeden, 2005), instead it is adjusted depending how a focal employee compares to the rest of the group. For instance, a subordinate with medium levels of LMX may collect a larger share of resources or rewards when the rest of the team has lower levels of LMX (i.e., Hu & Liden, 2011). Hence, RLMX is key for interpreting the influence of LMX within a group setting.

Lastly, LMXSC refers to comparisons that an employee make of quality relationship that a focal employee has and the rest of the team (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). Within this new form of LMX, is a subjective comparison that was not included within the other forms of LMX differentiation. Within this study, I focus on LMXSC. Even though researchers have provided theoretical background and some early indications of the impact that LMXSC has on employee performance, there is still a lot to explore within this area of leadership. Avolio, Walumbwa, and Webber (2009) posited that:

LMX research has also been criticized for failing to conceptualize the social context in which leaders and followers are embedded. With a few exceptions, “the majority of research is, quite explicitly, located at the dyadic level, with very little theorizing or empirical work examining LMX work at the group level” (Hogg, Martin, & Weeden, 2004, p. 22) (p. 434).

With the need to explore LMX in a social context, future research linking a group variables to LMX. In this study, I argue that LMXSC is an area that shows promise and should be examined more to strengthen the debate of social contexts. Additionally, an examination of LMXSC can show how individuals member’s attachment by comparing evaluating their standing within a social group. I introduce a group level variable of overall organizational justice to provide a better understanding of how context can influence this important construct. I want to add to our current understanding of the LMX theory and LMXSC. Past research has

demonstrated strong indications that LMX has strong relationship with justice both as an antecedent (e.g., Pillai, Scandura & Williams, 1999), an outcome (e.g., Lee, 2001), a mediator (Roch & Shanock, 2006), or a moderator (e.g., Erdogan, Liden & Kraimer, 2006).

In summary, research and development of LMX over the past 40 years has led to strong research stream. Early theoretical contributions uncovered a strong foundational concept that could had the potential to explain the differences in quality of leader-subordinate relationships.

2.2 Social Comparison Theory

Within a social context, group members make social comparison for a different reasons. Often, these comparison are described as “spontaneous, effortless and unintentional” (Bandura & Jourdan, 1991). Social comparisons are derived from the need to set a precedence and standards, individuals determine where they stand within a social group by making comparisons (Festinger, 1954). This process helps individuals generate a self-concept because they scan the environment and situations that maintain or adjust their self-concept (Hyman, 1942). Radloff (1966) argued that by individuals who compare skill level are able to reduce uncertainty. Comparisons also provide an opportunity for individuals to gauge the certainty of their opinions (Gordon, 1966).

Within a work context, employees make comparison that influence work attitudes and behaviors. Researchers have identified two types of comparison made at work: upward and downward comparisons. Upward comparisons are made when an individual compares himself/herself to other he/she perceives as better. Affiliation is one of main motivators for upward comparisons (Buunk, 1995). Another motivator is the desire for self-improvement (Smith & Sachs, 1997). Overall, upward comparisons have a positive impact on performance (e.g., Nosachuck & Erickson, 1985). Conversely, downward comparisons are made to confirm

favorable knowledge and increase self-esteem. These comparison are made against others who are considered as inferior, in order to maintain their status within the social order (Goethals, Messick, & Allison 1991).

Social comparisons are considered subjective in nature; therefore, having the possibility to cause erroneous decisions based on perceived level of skills (Goethals et al., 1991; Larrick, Burson, & Soll, 2007). In many instances, employees use downward comparisons as a way to heighten self-worth. A study showed that employees who believe they were star performers also believed they should receive greater share of the rewards (Leventhal, 1976). When they did not receive those rewards, these employees were more likely to engage in negative behaviors. In a different study, the authors showed that an incorrect skill self-assessment created through inaccurate comparisons led to negative outcomes (Larrick, Burson & Soll, 2007). Social comparison within a work context has increasingly become an important area of study. Specially, given that social comparisons are more important in competitive contexts (Rible & Frey, 1991), we can assume that they play a role in employees' daily work life. Employees will make daily evaluations of their standing in comparison to the rest of the coworkers and form a standing within the work group.

Leader-Member Exchange Social Comparison

Differing from the original view of LMX, Dansereau et al. (1984) first proposed incorporating social comparison between team members. In a work context, it is natural for comparisons to occur for two reasons: employees are often part of a social work group and supervisors must distribute a limited number of resources (e.g., attention, time, assets, and benefits) to the employees. For this reason, employees compete to gain a greater share of those resources. Individuals make comparisons consciously and subconsciously, and these

comparisons are part of their daily social experience (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Gilbert, Giesler & Morris, 1995; Wheeler & Miyake, 1992).

At work, given that there is natural hierarchy formed between leaders and subordinates, then social comparisons become more important for becoming closer with the supervisor and the development of the self-concept (Messe & Watts, 1983). In this case, subordinates comparisons are directed towards their supervisors and not their coworkers. Social comparison theory helps us understand the interpersonal interactions that take place between leaders and subordinates. This is the main reason why social comparisons incorporate well with LMX theory. Employees make evaluations on a daily basis that leads to the formulation of a social standing within a social group.

Given that LMX is based on differentiated relationships between subordinates, this has strong implications for how each of the subordinates views their relationship with the manager. Subordinates place a greater importance on the quality of their relationship with their manager because it is directly tied to their performance and allows them to further evaluate how they are being treated compared to their coworkers (e.g., Liao, Liu, Loi, 2010). On the one hand, subordinates with higher quality relationships are treated better (e.g., more resources and power) and believe the manager is fair. On the other hand, subordinates with lower quality relationships will experience worse treatments (e.g., lower attention and status) and perceive that their contribution is not as important (Hooper & Martin, 2008).

Employees make comparisons of the quality of the relationship that each of them has with their supervisor (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). An individual may assess their standing with a leader by indirectly comparing specific aspects of their relationship with the leader against those of others—for example, they observe the level of resources or attention they receive compared to

others. From this information, employees decide where they stand with their leader when compared to others in the group. Vidayarthi et al. (2010) showed that LMXSC explained unique variance in performance outcomes beyond LMX and RLMX. Additionally, LMXSC was shown to mediate the influence that RLMX has on in-role performance and extra-role performance (Vidayarthi et al., 2010; Vidayarthi et al., 2016). In total, at an individual level research has shown that RLMX and LMXSC have an important influence on performance, OCB, and other variables related to work effectiveness. These results have important implications for how LMXSC is used in research and in practice. We discuss later in the discussion section of this study.

2.3 Attachment Theory

Attachment theory states that individuals have an innate need to develop close relationships with others (Bowlby, 1973, 1980, 1969/1982, 1988). I start by introducing some of the basic concept in this theory and the underlying mechanism which help form this cognitive system. Bowlby (1982) described attachment as a behavioral system. A behavioral system refer to a “species-universal program” that guides group members’ behaviors in a coherent way – i.e., in a manner that increases the chances of survival of the group. This system of behaviors is ingrained within an individuals’ cognitive functions in such a manner that it is passed down from generation to generation via natural selection. The system dictates how behaviors are activated and performed in such a way that it produces a predictable and functional change with the relationship between an individual and his/her surroundings. Bowlby argues that each behavioral system (e.g., attachment, social affiliation) encompasses a set of sequential behaviors that follow a predictable pattern of “activation and termination”. This systems are followed by most members of the social group and most of the patterns are not affected by the individual member learning patterns.

A behavioral system is composed of six components: it is based on a biological system that helps individuals survive; it can be activated by environmental factors; it contains a set of interchangeable behaviors that are the primary way that individuals capture their goals; the changes in the person-environment relationship result in the activation of the system; the behavioral system is operated through cognitive processes; a person's neural network activates the processing of information. Within a work context, individuals seek proximity to those that offer protection. Within this view, those who stay close to those figures are more likely to continue within the system (Bowlby, 1973). Even though Bowlby (1969) initially theorized that the attachment system is utilized as a survival mechanism for children, it still applies to adults (Bowlby, 1988). Attachment mechanism is active throughout an individual's lifetime. Bowlby assumed the system can be manifested towards those individuals that offer help and coping mechanisms for stress and trauma.

In childhood, parents are the central attachment figures, while during adulthood, a number of individuals can fulfill these needs for individuals; for instance, romantic partners, parents, siblings, friends, and supervisors. In addition, social groups and institutions can also serve as impactful attachment figures such as, churches and not-for profits. Context also impacts on the type of relationships that individuals develop, for instance teachers in an academic context and supervisors in a work context. Support is especially important for individuals within a more formal context because they form hierarchical networks. An important aspect of attachment is that primary attachment figures capture a greater level of attachment and affect. This then affects how individuals distribute the rest of their affect.

In the original text, Bowlby (1969) argued that the attachment is activated when an individual senses environmental threats. These threats activate the attachment system in order

to protect the individuals. This initial inception theorized that when no threat was present there was no need seek a closeness with others for protection. In later iterations of the theory triggered though both a search for affiliation with others, but also in preparation for strengthening your position within a social group (Bowlby, 1989).

Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1982) stipulates that seeking closeness with others is natural and when seeking support and protection. When adopting this strategy individuals adopt a number of behaviors and emotional cues to signal the interest of having a close relationship. These responses are part of a repertoire that as a group humans have for trying to acquire some level of protection and they can be deployed either consciously or subconsciously.

As an adult, attachment strategies do not necessarily lead to these overt behaviors. Instead, mental representations of the partner can be triggered. These mental representations create for a sense of care and security in the person, which allow individuals to cope with stress. In other words, the schemas become unspoken representation or symbolic representations of the protection and care that an attachment figure provides, which can be activated through a process called “symbolic proximity to supportive others”. Individuals rely on these schemas when enduring difficult situations

Bowlby (1969) delineated a set of provisions for the attainment of attachment: responsiveness, security, and safe places. Attachment figures must be responsive to the needs of individuals seeking support. They must also provide a safe space, free of harm. This safe zone allows for the relief and become a source of support and comfort. Lastly, the safe space should allow individuals to grow and develop their self-esteem. In a work context, leaders can become the attachment figures that can provide protection and care to subordinates. Research in organizational behavior has shown that attachment plays a significant role in emotional and

behavioral employee outcomes (e.g., Hardy & Barkham, 1994). Since supervisors are essentially representatives of organizations (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014), a close, positive relationship with a supervisor often translates into a positive view of the organization (Epitropaki, & Martin, 2005). Subordinates rely on the leader to provide support, resources and attention (Liden et al., 1997). Effective leaders must be responsive to the needs of subordinates (Riggio & Reichard, 2008). These leaders must also provide safe environments for better performance (Shalley & Gilson, 2004) and increased intra-departmental help (Choi, 2007).

In conclusion, provides the underlying mechanism for developing a stronger and long lasting relationship with others. This theory is especially important for the development of long term connections. Within a LMX context, individuals might develop a connection through social exchanges, but these exchange might end, but the previous connection might still remain. For this reason I argue that attachment goes deeper than a simple social exchange.

Chapter 3: Theory Development and Hypotheses

Overview of the Research Model

My dissertation explores how subordinates' comparisons of quality LMX other coworkers' LMX standing impacts embeddedness and psychological ownership. Based on Bowlby's (1969) theory of attachment and Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory, I argue that the relationship between LMXSC and subordinate's attitudinal outcomes are mediated by overall job embeddedness.

Employees with higher levels of LMX social comparison would signal having a better relationship with supervisor. These would improve links with the organization and a greater share of resources, information and other benefits. Then, higher levels LMXSC and embeddedness would lead to higher levels of psychological ownership and satisfaction. Subordinates with lower perceptions of LMXSC will capture less of the resources, attention and information from supervisor. In this sense, these individuals will feel less embedded within the organization and will ultimately like they own less of the organization and feel less satisfied.

Additionally, I explore how overall organizational justice moderates the effects of LMXSC on job embeddedness. I argue that the influence that LMXSC has on embeddedness is strengthened when overall fairness perceptions are higher. These effects will lead to a variation on the attitudinal outcome I am also exploring.

3.1 Effects of LMXSC on Job Embeddedness

LMX theory is derived from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and LMXSC's underpinning are rooted in social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954). Social exchange theory is based on the premise that leaders and subordinates conduct exchanges during their daily

interactions, once the participants receive a benefit from the exchange, there is perceived obligation to reciprocate in kind. Social exchanges are also a basis of developing a better relationships (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). LMX-SC is based on social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954). This theory expands on the notion of finding their place with a social structure. Within a LMX context, individuals are compare their own quality relationship versus that of others within the team.

In general, in better quality relationships there is better interpersonal relations (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Within an LMX perspective, there is a “mutual and equivalent” effects of the relationship built between a leader and subordinate (e.g., Sin, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2009). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) emphasized that higher quality relationships involve socio-emotional exchanges characterized by trust, respect and reciprocation. As the relationship between leader and subordinate grows and develops, it becomes a partnership (Huston & Burgess, 1979). By integrating social comparison into the LMX framework, Vidyarthi et al., (2010) added to our knowledge for how relationships are evaluated.

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) first utilized “comparison” to explain individual’s cognitive processes of evaluating their current experiences compared to past experiences. According to Kirpatrick and Davis (1994) there are two types of social comparisons: comparison level and comparison level of alternatives. Within a relationship context, comparisons are directly tied to relationship satisfaction, stability, and attachment (e.g., Cuber & Harroff, 1965; Johnson, 1989). In a study of marital relationship, they show that stability did not guaranteed relationship happiness. Attachment is important for the development of strong relationships between social partners (Johnson, 1989), this is especially important in adulthood with those individuals that are not blood related. Since relationship satisfaction and attachment directly influence behaviors and

attitudes of dyadic relationships, examining subordinates LMX-SC processes within the scope of attachment and satisfaction is important for understanding workplace outcomes.

Within LMX, comparison level is defined as the standard that subordinates use to appraise the balance between rewards and costs received from developing a relationship and comparing it to the relationship that other have with the same manager. For instance, if a subordinate feels high levels of LMXSC, this signals that he/she has a better quality relationship which provides more of the following: support, resources, and social-emotional help, which in turn leads to better organizational outcomes. Ultimately, employees make these comparisons, it validates how they feel about their own relationship and where they stand within their social group.

Job embeddedness contributes to individuals' decision to stay with a particular organization. Mitchell et al. (2001) describe embeddedness as a "web" that entangles employees from within and outside the organization and is contains three sub-dimensions create these webs: links, fit, and sacrifice. This definition encapsulates on and off the job embeddedness because both have a significant weight on employee decision to stay within a job. Links describe the social ties (e.g., social, psychological, monetary) individuals develop with peers, friends, managers, and others within the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). When employees accumulate ties, it strengthens their decision to stay within their organizations. Fit refers to the level of "compatibility" an employee has with an organization's environment and broader society. This sub-dimension considers how congruent the employees' goals and values are with the organizational culture. Lastly, sacrifice refers to the opportunity cost associated with leaving the organization. Leaving the organization equates to leaving behind supervisors, friends, colleagues, benefits, projects, and potential experience.

Job embeddedness is derived from the McClelland's "Theory of Needs" (1986). These theory includes three basic needs that all individuals strive to fulfill: need for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power. The need for affiliation is the backdrop for embeddedness because individuals have a need for personal care and the need to develop close relationships with others. Royle (2013) shows that affiliation is a strong predictor for embeddedness. Supervisors interested in decreasing their employee turnover should focus on employees with lower levels of embeddedness and equality as dissatisfied (Murphy et al., 2009).

Even though the theory stipulates that embeddedness is a bi-dimensional construct, research has focused on a global measure. Researchers encountered methodological problems using the bi-dimensional scale. Mitchell et al. (2001) developed the measure as a "causal indicator model", meaning that it is harder to apply many of the traditional psychometric tools and standards (Let, Burch & Mitchell, 2014). Standard tools for measuring internal consistency and confirmatory factor analysis would be difficult to apply using this construct. A global measure of embeddedness can be used to determine the level of embeddedness, but this measure does not take into consideration person reasons (Crossley et al., 2007). This measure allowed researchers to use those tools and analytics that have previously been unused.

The global measure of embeddedness has been shown to have a correlation with organizational commitment, satisfaction and other work outcomes (Crossley et al., 2007). These results were distinct from other studies, because these show a strong influence on intention to leave the organization (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2003; Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom, & Harman, 2007). Employees with higher embeddedness scores are more eager for opportunities, but they have stronger links to the community (Mitchell, 2001). In this sense, job search alternative are facilitated with greater links to the community which can lead to greater turnover

intentions. Top performers are less inclined to feel embedded within an organization and search the environment for opportunities (Crossley et al., 2007). This is in line with career management literature, which argues that individuals' objectives drive their intentions to quit and actual turnover (Seiber et al., 2013).

Most of the studies on embeddedness focused on the impact it has on turnover (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2003; Felps et al., 2009), but increasingly there is a greater focus on other outcomes such OCB (e.g., Lee et al., 2004). Lee et al., (2004) examined the effects of embeddedness on in-role performance and extra-role performance. In this study, they found that on-the-job embeddedness had significant influence on both types of performance, while off-the-job embeddedness was not significant. Mitchell and Lee (2001) did not strongly argue on the link between embeddedness and performance. Subsequent studies have further explored this notion, but with better theoretical foundation (e.g., Sun et al., 2012). In a large study of Chinese hospital Sun et al., (2012) found that the job embeddedness was directly related to how employees rated their own performance ratings. The authors used two mediators, psychological capital and performance ratings, to examine the embeddedness-performance relationship. With greater capital employees are able to develop closer links with co-workers and manager which then lead to better performance.

In a different study, Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) examined the influence that embeddedness and engagement had on performance after controlling for gender, age, satisfaction and commitment. The study showed a difference in the impact that embeddedness and engagement had on performance. Halbesleben and Wheeler argued that greater embeddedness results in greater access to resources (e.g., better mentoring, more support from coworkers and better understand of company) and as a consequence it will increase performance.

Mitchell et al. (2014) argue that embeddedness is necessarily tied with performance, but influences it indirectly. For instance, Sekiguchi, Burton, and Sablinski (2008) sought to establish an indirect effect that embeddedness has performance by moderating the LMX-performance relationship. When employees have high quality relationships with supervisor (high LMX) it signals that these individuals garner a greater share of the resources, information, and thus better link and fit within the organization than those employees with lower quality relationships. Higher levels of embeddedness was conducive to higher organizational based self-esteem and citizenship behaviors than for employee with lower levels of embeddedness.

Similarly, Karatepe (2012) demonstrated that effects that job embeddedness had on the perceived support, performance and turnover intentions. In this study, produced support for the moderating effects of embeddedness on support-turnover intentions relationship. This study demonstrated that even in foreign cultural (Cameroon) setting the moderating effects of embeddedness on performance were significant. In a study on middle and high school teachers from Israel showed that employees' embeddedness mediated relationship between conscientiousness and performance. Even further, the results demonstrated embeddedness fully mediated this relationship (Lev & Koslowsky, 2012).

There is plenty of evidence in the literature on the effects that embeddedness has on in-role and extra-role performance. Research has expanded its scope and has started examining the intermediate role that embeddedness can play on the relationships of other organizational outcomes. Specifically, the research has begun exploring the mediating and moderating impact that embeddedness has on other organizational outcomes. The main emphasis on embeddedness-performance relationship is motivation. For instance, a study by Wheeler et al. (2012) reasoned that embeddedness drives employees' sustained work ethic through energized and directed

motivation. Mitchell and Lee (2014) argue that there is still a need to explore unmeasured variables that might be affecting performance. Within this thesis, I try to devise a persuasive and succinct model that explain some of the links between embeddedness and organizational outcomes. I want to expand the theoretical knowledge on embeddedness and catch up with empirical knowledge on the association between embeddedness and organizational outcomes.

The leadership literature indicates that LMXSC could be related to job embeddedness. When employees perceived better-quality relationships with their leaders, this was associated with positive organizational outcomes, such as organizational trust (Li, 2008; Aryee et al., 2015), affective commitment (Vandenberghe et al., 2004), overall commitment (Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002), organizational citizenship behaviors (Truckenbrodt, 2000; Hui et al., 1999), and organizational identification (Walumba et al., 2011). In addition, higher-quality relationships with a leader translate into greater levels of trust (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), autonomy (Graen & Cashman, 1975), loyalty, and respect (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Therefore, having better relationships with managers translates into employees having stronger connections with them and the organization, compared to others with lower-quality relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). For this reason, employees who perceive higher-quality relationships with their leaders will also believe that they have a stronger connection with their organization (Vidyarthi et al., 2010).

3.2 Hypothesis Development

Managers often set the tone for the environment within the organization (Herman, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2012). When employees believe they have better-quality relationships with their manager compared to other employees, it is likely they will also believe that they have a greater fit within the department and organization than others. This extends from

employees' belief that the manager is working with them to achieve shared goals, values, and future plans (Graen et al., 1982). With respect to sacrifice, employees who think that they have a better relationship with their manager than others in their group will likely have greater difficulty leaving behind the security and support (e.g., emotional and resources) that their leaders provide (Liden et al., 1997). I hypothesize that individuals with higher levels of LMXSC will believe that they receive a greater share of the affection, security, and comfort from the manager than others in their group. In other words, they believe they are more trusted, liked, and respected than others in the group, thus leading them to the conclusion that they are more connected to the organization. Consequently, the organization becomes a safe space for these employees. Based on these arguments, I can hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1. LMXSC is positively related to organizational job embeddedness.

3.2.1 Moderating Role of Overall Organizational Justice

Perceptions of justice is a well-established area of study in organizational behavior (Colquitt et al., 2001). The focus of this body of work has been on the dimensions associated with justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, interactional, and information; Leventhal, 1976; Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Bies & Moag, 1986)). A shift in the justice paradigm occurred when researchers constructed a more holistic view of justice in developing the overall organizational justice measure (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005). This construct is based on the idea that employees appraise social entities as a whole (Degoey, 2000) from existing and prominent environmental information (Greenberg, 2001). Lind (2001) posits that individuals create a global view of the direction and management received from their organization.

Overall fairness in an organization is important for fulfilling employees' different psychological needs. These perceptions create a lens through which organizational actions and policies are evaluated. Organizations that act fairly signal higher levels of care and commitment toward employees (Greenberg, 2001). Fairness also signals that an organization's employees have equal voices, that they are valued, and that their rights are respected (Erdogan & Bauer, 2006). When the justice climate is perceived as fair, individuals feel that the organization is benevolent (Lin & Leung, 2014) and responsible (Rupp, 2011). In terms of leadership, employees with higher perceptions of organizational fairness feel that their leader acts and makes decisions consistently, accurately, and without bias (Leventhal, 1980). When this situation occurs, it validates the employees' perceptions that their relationship with their leader is unbiased. Those who perceive a higher-quality relationship may then believe that they have earned their place in the organization.

A number of studies show the close link between LMX and organization justice (e.g., Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Walumba et al., 2009). Researcher suggests that quality of relationship with leader heightens or diminishes how they view their workplace (Rosen, Harris & Kacmar, 2011). LMX quality impacts performance appraisals processes because leader serve as authority figures with the ability to control the destiny of employees. Ma and Qu (2010) showed that have better quality relationship with manager was more important than actual performance for getting better performance appraisals.

We argue that justice perceptions strengthen the connections felt towards the manager and organization and the employees' fit within their department, and ultimately increase the opportunity costs of leaving. Even if employees do not perceive a high-quality relationship with their manager (which inherently translates to an unequal distribution of emotional support and

attention), employees that perceive a fair organizational environment will feel that the benefits, such as support and attention, are distributed fairly. Conversely, when individuals feel that the organization's overall justice principles are doubtful, the comparisons made during LMXSC may decrease because the leader and organization do not seemingly treat all employees fairly. When individuals believe that they have a better relationship with their leader, but believe that the organization is not fair, this will likely erode some of the confidence that they have in how decisions are made within the organization. Therefore, this may diminish employees' links with the leader, fit with the department, and sacrifice needed if they leave. Individuals with lower-quality relationships and perceptions of an unfair organization will believe that their leader and organization are biased and only a select few receive the appropriate attention, trust, and care from the leader. Ultimately, these actions may decrease individuals' perceived embeddedness.

Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between LMXSC and job embeddedness is moderated by the group level organization's overall justice, such that the relationship is stronger in organizations with high overall justice compared to low overall justice.

3.2.2 Job Embeddedness as a Mediator between LMXSC and Attitudinal Outcomes

Psychological ownership (PSO) is a "state of mind" where individuals believe they own a tangible or intangible target even without any legal recourse (Pierce et al., 2001). However, feelings of ownership can arise concerning different aspect of an organization such as desks and teams. Our focus is on perceptions of ownership of the organization and will use PSO to refer to this sense of ownership. Pierce and colleagues (2001) denote this state of mind as having two dimensions: affective and cognitive. Individuals use declarations to designate ownership over a target, such as "this is mine," which contain both cognitive (evaluative) and affective (attachment) components (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004, P.442). Individuals give greater importance

to their attachment to the target rather than the evaluative aspect. For this reason, psychological ownership is not always about having legal recourse regarding a target, but merely a feeling of having ownership over the target (Pierce et al., 2001).

A number of studies demonstrate the impact that leadership has on PSO (e.g., Avey et al., 2009). Typically, research has focused on different leadership styles, such as transformational leadership and transactional leadership, and their effect on ownership. Transformational leadership has a positive influence on employee ownership (Avey et al., 2009), and ownership acts as a mediator between transformational leadership and positive organizational outcomes, such as satisfaction, affective commitment (Bernhard & O'Driscoll, 2011), organizational citizenship behaviors (Park et al., 2013), performance (Ghafoor et al., 2011), and negative-oriented outcomes such as turnover intentions (Bernhard & O'Driscoll, 2011). There are other leadership styles that illustrate the impact of style on ownership. In a study on ethical leadership, ownership mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction (Avey et al., 2012). Within a Chinese context, a study found that leaders' benevolence positively impacted ownership perception, which in turn impacted dedication and organizational enhancement. Conversely, Bernhard and O'Driscoll (2011) found that a passive leadership style negatively impacted psychological ownership.

Leader-employee relationship quality comparisons may foster embeddedness for the reasons stated earlier (i.e., a greater share of resources, attention, and motivation). Those employees who perceive a better-quality relationship compared to the rest of their group are more likely to feel a closer relationship with the manager. In feeling closer, the employee receives more attention, comfort, feedback, communication, and resources from their leader, which promotes embeddedness within the organization. When experiencing feelings of

embeddedness, employees expect to have greater links and fit with the organization, so it becomes harder to leave the organization. Individuals that experience such high feelings of embeddedness may feel that it has become an indispensable safe work space. Through this attachment, employees increase their sense of belonging, identity, accountability, and self-efficacy associated with PSO (Pierce et al., 2004). In this way, the effects of LMXSC flow through the embeddedness and then psychological ownership. The more embedded a person feels within an organization, the more likely they will feel they own part of the organization. Thus, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3a: Job embeddedness in the organization mediates the relationship between LMXSC and psychological ownership.

Even though much of the leadership literature shows a positive relationship between relationship quality level and job satisfaction, there are still inconsistencies regarding the causality of the relationship (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2011; Ozer, 2008; Volmer, Niessen, Spurk, Linz, & Abele, 2011). Satisfaction refers to an employee's attitudinal responses to the work environment (Locke; 1976; Fields, 2002). Several studies have shown the importance of the managers' role in influencing employees' satisfaction (e.g., Pillai, Scandura & Williams, 1999; see Irvine & Evans, 1995 for a review). Generally, an employee is more satisfied if they have a better-quality relationship with their leader (Belias & Koustelios, 2014). These employees obtain a larger share of the benefits and they enjoy having a closer relationship with their leader.

Harris et al. (2011) found that through embeddedness, LMX increases satisfaction while decreasing intention to quit. They reason that through the conservation of their resources, individuals were more apt to want to stay within an organization. Similarly, Collins, Burrus, and

Meyer (2014) tested how embeddedness mediated the relationship between LMX and satisfaction. The difference is that they tested LMX's sub-dimensions: contribution, respect, affect, and loyalty (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). With respect to LMXSC, the comparisons magnify and strengthen how employees feel about leaders. Employee who believe that they have a better-quality relationship with their leader than the rest of the team will also believe that they have a greater share of resources, attention, and support from the leader (Vydiarthi et al., 2010). In conjunction with the results above, I argue that LMXSC leads employees to become more embedded in their organizations, which in turn then become a driver for feelings of satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: Job embeddedness in the organization mediates the relationship between LMXSC and job satisfaction.

Chapter 4: Methods

4.1 Sample and Procedure

Participants were recruited from 65 different organizations located in a large metropolitan city in the Southwest region of the United States. A total of 51 organizations were represented with at least one respondent. To reduce random error, organizations with fewer than two respondents were removed (Van Bruggen et al., 2002). A snowball technique was used to recruit respondents. I was able to collect data from 37 organizations. Companies operated in different sectors, such as manufacturing, government, retail, banking, and food. Two separate instruments were utilized and given to different employees. One version of the survey contained organizational level questions, for instance, questions about overall organizational justice. Meanwhile, the other survey contained individual level questions, for instance, questions about psychological ownership. A common serial number was written to match surveys from the same organization.

Working employees were given a paper survey and asked to recruit other group members. Those members were also given a paper survey. In total, I distributed 850 surveys, and 546 were returned, yielding a response rate of 64%. Due to missing information, 43 cases were dropped. Additionally, I dropped 32 because they failed to answer attention check questions. At the individual level we were able to obtain 225; meanwhile at the group level we obtained 246. The recommended sample size for the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is 100, but for more reliable results the recommended size is over 200 (Boomsman, 1982; Kline, 1998). For this reason, the sample size of 225 seemed appropriate to run a CFA.

We also collected participant demographics. Overall, 47% of respondents were males, and 65% were 47 years of age or below. I measured tenure—on average, employees had worked

for the company 6.78 years and had been supervised by their current manager for 2.78 years. Additionally, the pool of respondents was 12% Caucasian, 50% Hispanic, 27% Mexican citizens, 1.5 % Black, .5% Native American, 1.5% Asian, and 6% other. In measuring education level, I found that 91% of the respondents had at least some college and 38% of respondents had at least a bachelor's degree.

4.2 Measures

Psychological Ownership. I used a modified seven-item scale ($\alpha = .849$) which ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree to assess psychological ownership (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Sample items from this scale include: "This is MY job," and "I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this job." I deleted two items because they failed to load above 0.60 in the CFA.

LMXSC. LMXSC was assessed using the six-item scale developed by Erdogan (2002), which I found to be highly reliable ($\alpha = .89$). Examples of items in this scales are the following: "Relative to the others in my work group, I receive more support from my manager" and "The working relationship I have with my manager is more effective than the relationships most members of my group have with my manager." The answers ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. I deleted one item because they failed to load above 0.60 in the CFA.

Overall Organizational Justice. I measured overall perceptions of justice by utilizing Ambrose and Schminke's (2009) modified scale. Sample item included, "Overall, I'm treated fairly by my organization." The answers ranged from 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

Job Embeddedness. I assessed job embeddedness using Crossley et al.'s (2007) scale, which had satisfactory reliability ($\alpha = .88$). Participants were asked about attitudes felt towards

their organizations on a seven-point scale. Examples of items in this scale include: “I feel attached to this organization” and “It would be easy for me to leave this organization.” The answers ranged from 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. I also removed items that failed to load above .6 in the CFA.

Job Satisfaction. I measured employees’ satisfaction by utilizing Hackman and Oldham’s (1980) scale, which had good reliability ($\alpha = .83$). A sample item is “Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job”. The answers ranged from 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. I also removed items that failed to load above .6 in the CFA.

Control Variables. I controlled for a number of personal characteristics, including: age, gender, tenure (organizational, position and supervisor), and education (e.g., Van Der Vegt, Van De Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003).

4.3 Results

Table 4.1 includes the descriptive statistics, correlations and internal consistency reliabilities of the measures used for this model. As is shown, PSO has a positive relationship with job embeddedness ($r(225) = .39, p < .01$), LMXSC ($r(162) = .21, p < .01$), satisfaction ($r(225) = .42, p < .01$). The results of correlation analysis show positive relationships between constructs, but none of the relationships are higher than $r = .60$. Additionally, construct reliabilities were included diagonally. Additionally, the Cronbach’s alphas were calculated for each of the variables. Each of the variables were above the .70 recommended threshold: psychological ownership ($\alpha = .84$), job embeddedness ($\alpha = .88$), LMXSC ($\alpha = .89$), and job satisfaction ($\alpha = .83$) (Kline, 1998; Nunnally, 1978)

TABLE 4.1
Scale Statistics

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Study Variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age of employees ^c	2.30	1.18	--									
2. Gender of employees ^b	1.67	0.47	.17**	--								
3. Organization Tenure ^d	81.39	93.49	.58**	.07	--							
4. Position Tenure ^d	56.22	78.08	.52**	.04	.72**	--						
5. Supervisor Tenure ^d	33.45	42.97	.37**	.01	.59**	.55**	--					
6. Education	5.57	1.83	.11	-.02	.02	-.06	-.10	--				
7. Psychological Ownership	4.13	1.37	.13	.00	.12	.10	.13	.19**	(0.84)			
8. Job Embeddedness	4.55	1.30	.16*	.05	.22**	.19**	.23**	.15*	.39**	(0.89)		
9. LMXSC	3.72	1.42	-.04	.01	.01	.09	.14*	-.03	.17**	.21**	(0.89)	
10. Satisfaction	5.47	1.18	.03	.01	.06	.08	.06	.00	.27**	.42**	.27**	(0.84)

a N = 225. Internal consistency reliabilities appears in parentheses along diagonal.

b Gender of employee was coded: Male = 1, Female = 2.

c Age of employees was coded: 1 = 18-28 yrs, 2 = 29-38 yrs, 3 = 39-48 yrs, 4 = 49-58 yrs, 5 = > 59 yrs.

d Organization, Positional and Supervisor Tenures = Length of time in months employees have worked in each respective category.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In order to offer additional confirmation for the discriminant validity of the latent variables in my model I used AMOS 22 to conduct several confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs). In Table 4.2, I provide chi-square values, the degrees of freedom (dfs), Comparative Fit Indices (CFIs), Normative Fit Indices (NFIs) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximations (RMSEAs) for all of the models. I had to remove some items from each of the variables; following the recommendation made by Byrne (1998); two from psychological ownership, one item from LMXSC, one item from job embeddedness and one item from job satisfaction. These items did not load higher than .40 in their respective measures. The modified CFA results had an overall better-fit: $\chi^2 (146) = 326$, RMSEA = .072, CFI=.92, TLI=.91. The rest of the indicators loaded significantly ($p < .001$) on their corresponding latent construct (ranging from .55 to .88).

To test the independence of the latent variables I created several CFAs. These CFAs included a 4-factor model and four other alternative models that combined variables with relatively high correlations. I utilized chi-squared difference test to analyze the differences between the main 4-factor model and the alternative models. The CFA results show that the 4-factor model produced the most significant fit statistics and through chi-square difference test confirmed that it had the best fit for the current data. My current CFA results along with previous research provides enough evidence that I can proceed with other analyses.

TABLE 4.2
Summary of CFA

Results of confirmatory factor analyses of the focal constructs.

Model	χ^2	<i>Df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	<i>NFI</i>	RMSEA
Hypothesized model (4 Factor)	326	146	-	-	.92	.87	.072
3-Factor Model (combining JS and JE)	602	149	276	3	.80	.75	.117
3- Factor Model (combining JE and PO)	609	149	283	3	.80	.75	.117
3-Factor Model (combining JS and PO)	675	149	349	3	.77	.72	.125
1-Factor model (combining all variables)	1431	152	1105	6	.43	.41	.194

Note: JS = job satisfaction, JE = organizational job embeddedness and
PO=Psychological Ownership

N=225.

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Fornell and Larker (1981) suggested using average variance extracted (AVE) values for assessing validity. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) argued that AVE values greater than .5 are acceptable for convergent validity. In addition, another important indicator for convergent validity are the factor loadings for each of the variables in the proposed model. Table 4.3 shows mean, standard deviation, AVE values, and parameter estimates. All of the AVES for the latent constructs exceed the minimum suggested level of .5. These results show a level of convergent and discriminant validity (Hulland, 1999)

TABLE 4.3
Summary Measurement Results

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Average Variances Extracted	Parameter Estimates
1. Psychological Ownership	4.13	1.37	58%	.55- .88
2. Job Embeddedness	4.55	1.30	56%	.62 - .85
3. LMXSC	3.72	1.42	62%	.71 - .85
4. Job Satisfaction	5.47	1.18	58%	.57 - .84

Notes: $n = 255$, $\chi^2 = 326$, 146 degrees of freedom; RMSEA = .072, CFI = .92, and TLI = .91.

In order to evaluate the appropriateness of aggregating individual responses to the group level, I used three statistical tools: r^{wg} , intra-class correlation (1) (ICC (1)) and intra-class correlation (2) (ICC (2)). For the variable overall organizational justice, the average r^{wg} was .63. This was close to the acceptable value levels of .70 (George, 1990). The ICC (1) levels were above the minimum level required of .12 (James, 1982). The ICC (1) was .17. Although, the ICC (2) values were slightly below conventional level of .70, this is often the result of smaller group size (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Bliese, 2000). By having a mid-level r^{wg} and a higher than prescribed between-group variance, my thesis had sufficient justification to group individual level data (Chen and Bliese, 2002).

The r^{wg} estimates the sample's within-group agreement when a scale of composed of multiple items. This estimate is generated by comparing the group variance to the specific distribution parameters of random variance (James, Demaree & Wolf, 1984). The second tool used is ICC (1), which evaluates the variance in in a scale that can attributed to "group

membership” (Bliese, 2000). The last of statistical tools used is ICC (2), which indicates the level inter-group agreement in variance of the measure.

Two points can be raised from a lower than desired r_{wg} to support aggregation. First, work by Cohen, Doveh and Eick (2001) and Dunlap, Burke and Smith-Crowe (2003) show that r_{wg} value are susceptible to influence by the number of items in a scale and by group size. In the case of my study, both were smaller and “statistically significant” r_{wg} value would need to be larger. Therefore, from a statistical perspective, even if the raters synchronized their answers it would be extremely difficult to achieve the higher levels of agreement in the ratings. Additionally, there no other alternative for measuring group members perceptions, other than squarely asking for their opinion. For instance, the best measures for the perceptions of organizational climates is by obtaining the data from a larger number of employees. In this moment, the expectations that all employees will have the same view of the organization; similarly, it is unreasonable to expect that employees within an organization to agree on how well they are being treated.

Within my study, a full multi-level model is justified with the current ICC values because they show a significant proportion of variance exists at the higher level. Previous multi-level research on leadership (e.g., Mayer et al., 2007; Walumbwa et al., 2010) indicates that acceptable ICC (1) values for evaluating group level effects range from .10 to .40.

To limit the effects of common method variance I

I tested a structural model based on my theoretical model generally supported the mediation model (See Table 4.4). The mediation model between LMXSC and its consequences provided a good fit: $\chi^2 (149) = 336.6$ ($p = .000$), RMSEA = .075, CFI = .92 and CMIN/DF = 2.25. The R^2 for each of constructs ranged from .20 to .53. The R^2 signifies the level of variance accounted for by the predictor variables.

TABLE 4.4
Structural Equation Model Results

Hypothesized Path	Completely Standardized Coefficients	R ²
LMXSC → Job Embeddedness	0.20*	0.145
Job Embeddedness → Psychological Ownership	0.53**	
Job Embeddedness → Job Satisfaction	0.39**	

*NOTE: Goodness-of-fit statistics: $\chi^2 (149) = 336$ ($p = .000$); comparative fit index = .92; incremental fit index = .92; RMSEA = .075. ** $p < .001$. * $p < .01$*

In table 4.5, there is a comparison between models. Kline (1998) argued that we need comparisons between completely mediated models and partially mediated models to examine the role of the mediators play. I utilized chi-square difference test to analyze each of the model shown below. The results from the partially mediated model were there following: $\chi^2 (148) = 362.35$ ($p < .01$), RMSEA = .081, CFI = .90. These results suggests that the full mediation model has the best fit for the current data: chi-square difference (1) = 25.74, $p < .05$.

TABLE 4.5
Structural Equations Model for Main and Alternate Models

Model	χ^2	Df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	PNFI	RMSEA
Main Model	336.61	149	-	-	0.92	0.75	0.075
Alternate Model1	362.35	148	25.74	1	0.90	0.73	0.081
Alternate Model2	372.64	149	36.03	0	0.90	0.73	0.082
Alternate Model3	385.37	148	48.76	1	0.88	0.70	0.089

I used both CFI and PNFI as evaluating criteria for comparing the models (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Increasingly, this method have become common practice among SEM researchers (Yen & Gwinner, 2003). In table 4.5, we can see that CFI is slightly different between the fully mediated model (.92) and partial mediated model (.90). In terms of the PNFI, the fully mediated model was again slightly higher (.75) that the PNFI of the partially mediated model (.73). The results show that the fully mediated model is more parsimonious and the strength of each of the relationship was stronger with a fully mediated model.

This model further provides further evidence for my hypotheses, Figure 3.1 shows how job embeddedness the relationships between the constructs in the mediation model. All the relationships within the model were significant and positive in the predicted direction. Table 4.4 shows the results for each of the path coefficients.

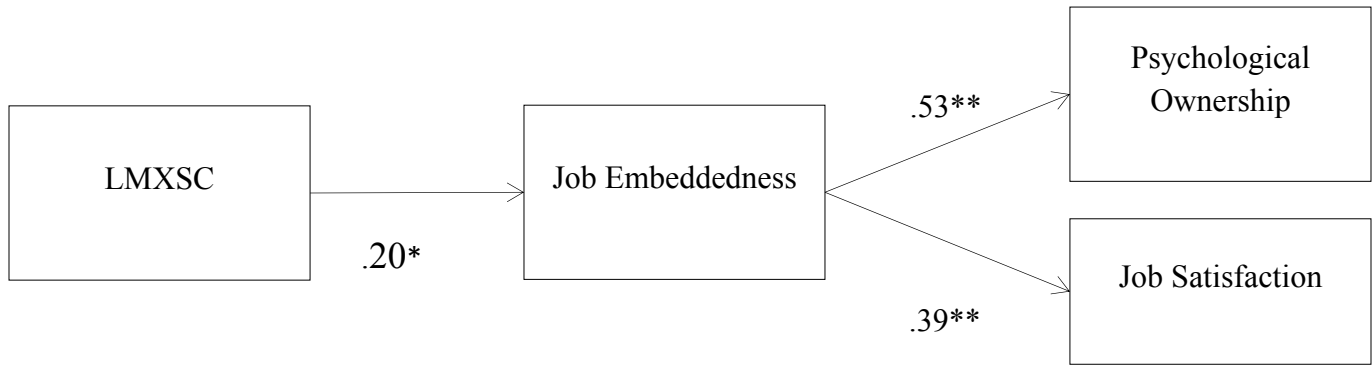


FIGURE 4.1: Structural Equation Modeling Results.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that relationship between LMXSC and job embeddedness. This relationship was statistically significant ($\beta=.20$, $P<.01$). In addition, the model also tested the relationships between job embeddedness and both outcomes. The positive relationship between job embeddedness and psychological ownership was strongly supported ($\beta=.53$, $P<.001$). Our model also showed that the positive relationship between job embeddedness and satisfaction was significant ($\beta=.39$, $P<.001$). With the overall model having a good fit, we were able to show support for hypotheses 3a and 3b. See Figure 3.1 for an overall view of the model.

4.3.1 Alternate models for HLM hypothesis testing: Main and Mediating effects

Table 4.6 presents the results of the main effects that overall organizational justice had on each of the variables, but also provide further evidence of the mediating effects that job embeddedness had between LMXSC and outcome variables. The results show that, overall organizational justice was positively related to the following variables LMXSC ($\gamma = .16$, $p<.05$, Model 1), and psychological ownership ($\gamma = .24$, $p<.01$, Model 2), but I did not find a

relationship between justice and job satisfaction ($\Upsilon = .02$, $p < .50$, Model 3). Table 4.6 also shows modest results for the relationship between overall organizational justice and job embeddedness ($\Upsilon = .16$, $p < .10$, Model 4).

TABLE 4.6: Results of HLM analyses: Main effect of LMXSC, and Job Embeddedness

Dependent Variables

Level and Variable	LMXSC	Psy.	Job	Job	Job	Psy.	Psy.	Job	Job
	Model 1	Ownership	Satisfaction	Embeddedness	Embeddedness	Ownership	Ownership	Satisfaction	Satisfaction
		Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9
<i>Level 1</i>									
Intercept	3.73**	4.02**	5.47**	3.62**	4.56**	3.91***	4.02**	5.44**	5.48**
Age	-.03	.08	-.03	-.02	.05	.05	.10	-.01	-.04
Gender	.02	.00	.01	.15	.12	-.14	-.13	.01	.00
Organizational Tenure	.00	.00	.00	.003*	.002*	.00	.00	.00	.00
Positional Tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Supervisor Tenure	.00	.02	.00	.02*	.001*	.00	.00	.00	.00
Education	.00	.13*	-.02	.08	.07	.16*	.11*	-.03	-.04
LMXSC					.20*	.16*	.10	.26**	.16**
Job Embeddedness							.28**		.36**
<i>Level 2</i>									
Organizational Justice	.16*	.24**	0.02	.16†	.11†	.23**	.18*	-0.03	-0.05
Model deviance	806.21	776.53	731	752.78	737.6	768.61	740.34	708.99	647.48

N= 225 individuals and 37 Groups. Values are HLM coefficients (estimations of fixed effects along with standard errors).

† p<.10

*p<.05

**p<.01

4.3.2 HLM Testing: Main effects and Mediation

To test our mediation model within a HLM analysis, I conducted Kenny et al.'s (1998) mediation procedure. In step 1, the relationship between LMXSC and job embeddedness is significant ($\gamma = .20, p < .05$, Model 5). Step 2 tests the relationships between the hypothesized mediator and outcomes. In the case of my study, the results show significant results for positive relationships between job embeddedness and psychological ownership ($\gamma = .16, p < .05$, Model 6) and job embeddedness and job satisfaction ($\gamma = .26, p < .01$, Model 8). In step 3, I analyze the full model, for partial mediation, the results should show a weakened relationship between LMXSC and job embeddedness, and for full mediation, this relationship must become insignificant. The results demonstrate two mediation models, when I introduced job embeddedness into the model along with LMXSC and psychological ownership, this positive relationship ($\gamma = .16, p < .05$, Model 6) became insignificant ($\gamma = .09, p > .05$, Model 7). The results also revealed that positive relationship between LMXSC and job satisfaction diminished in strength ($\gamma = .26, p > .01$, Model 8) by only a modest amount strength ($\gamma = .16, p > .01$, Model 9). This further supported hypotheses 3a and 3b. I further conducted a Sobel's test (1982) to examine the mediation effects. The results revealed that the mediation effect of job embeddedness had an indirect effect between LMXSC and psychological ownership ($Z = 2.47, p < .05$). The results also demonstrated that through the mediation of job embeddedness, LMXSC had an indirect effect on job satisfaction ($Z = 2.42, p < .05$).

4.3.3 Hypothesis Testing: Cross-Level Interaction Effects

In my moderation hypothesis, I argue that there is cross level interaction between LMXSC (individual level) and overall organizational justice (group level). See Table 4.7 for

results. After controlling the main effects of individual controls, the results show a non-significant interaction between LMXSC and overall organizational justice ($\gamma = .22, p < .05$, Model 10); therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

TABLE 4.7
Results of HLM analyses: Cross-Level Interactions

Level and variable	Dependent Variable Job Embeddedness Model 10
<i>Level 1</i>	
Intercept	2.56***
Age	0.05
Gender	0.02
Organizational Tenure	0.12
Positional Tenure	0.2
Supervisor Tenure	0.1
LMXSC	0.16*
<i>Level 2</i>	
Organizational Justice	.22*
Cross level interaction	
LMXSC X Overall Organizational justice	.05
Model Variance	825.32

$N = 225$ individuals and 37 Groups. Values are HLM coefficients (estimations of fixed effects along with standard errors).

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

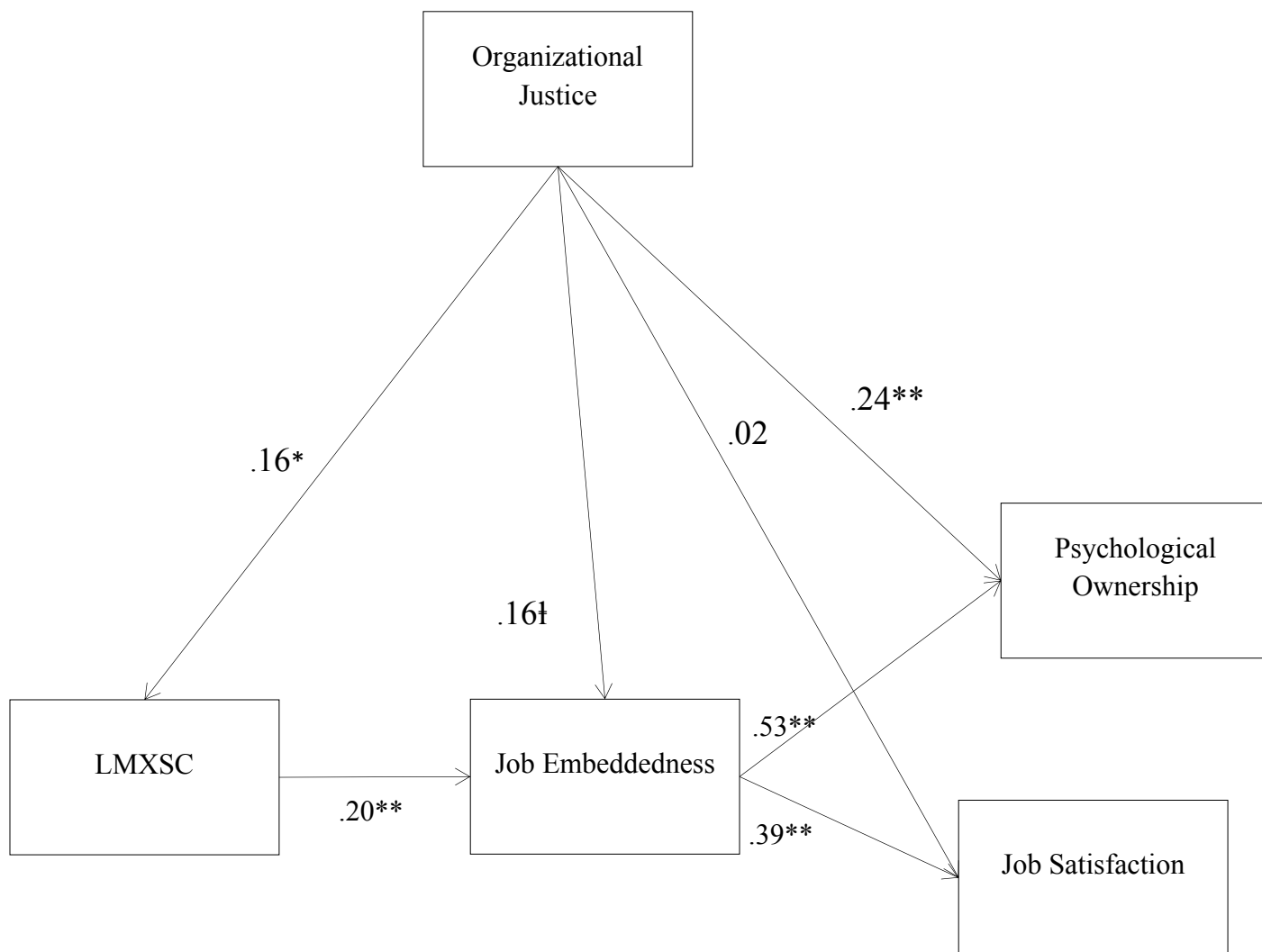


Figure 4.2: Alternate Model

Chapter 5: Discussion

The goal of this thesis was understand the process of LMXSC, a variation of LMX that allows followers differentiate their treatment based on how they perceive their environment. In an effort to answer ‘when’, ‘where’, ‘how’, ‘why’ and ‘which contexts’ are important for the embeddedness process. I integrated the current literature on LMXSC and job embeddedness and I argue that job embedded is an important mediator in the relationship between LMXSC and attitudinal organizational outcomes. I posited that LMXSC has strong links with fairness perceptions, such that LMXSC can be informed through fairness perceptions. The hypothesized process between LMXSC and attitudinal outcomes is conceptualized within social attachment theory, such that the influence of LMXSC on job embeddedness and the attitudinal outcomes were hypothesized to be stronger when perceived fairness was high as compared to when fairness perceptions were low.

The hypothesized direct impact of LMXSC and job embeddedness on the attitudinal outcomes, the theorized mediating role that job embeddedness has between LMXSC and outcomes, and the moderating role that overall justice had on the mediating model, were tested using structure equation modeling and multi-level analysis. By using this type of analysis, both individual and group level variables were analyzed. The group level effects of overall organizational justice were based on shared variance among individual group member’s perceptions (e.g., Preacher et al., 2007). This technique of inferring the group-level variable from individuals level variables account represents a more accurate and appropriate method than aggregating variables into one score because it accounts for more of the error involved in the cross-level inference. By using a multi-level approach, this thesis answers the calls for not only multi-level research (e.g., Avolio et al., 2013; Greenberg, 2011).

5.1 Summary of Findings

Figure 4.1 shows the findings of this study. A comparison between Figure 1.1 and Figure 3.1 demonstrates how original model changed based on the results, in other words, taking into consideration which hypotheses were supported and which hypotheses were not. Figure 4.2 shows a post-hoc model.

The results provide a better understanding of the process that takes place between LMXSC and job embeddedness within a justice context. Based on the finding of this thesis, LMXSC and job embeddedness positively influences psychological ownership and job satisfaction. At a group level, post-hoc analysis shows that justice perceptions also appeared to be a meaningful predictor of LMXSC and psychological ownership.

Several conclusions can be reached from these results. First, the results show that particular dependent variables are influenced more than others by the group level variable, overall organizational justice. Overall, psychological ownership had the strongest relationship with organizational justice. This means that individuals are influenced by not only by individuals' leadership and justice perceptions, but by the group's shared perceptions of overall justice are also impactful for how employees develop and maintain their perception of ownership over the organization. Job embeddedness and job satisfaction were directly related to overall justice perceptions. Based on these results, it can be concluded that an individual's satisfaction and embeddedness are influenced more by their own perceptions of justice than by the collective's perceptions.

There is limited research on the multi-level impact of overall organizational justice and leadership. Even further, the results of this study demonstrates the need for the understanding the

unique effects that each level has on individuals and the organization as a whole. There is some reason to believe that individuals process information similarly (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), therefore, outcome variables would be influenced very similarly by the individual and group level variables. Conversely, the results, demonstrate that we should not assume that individual perceptions and group level perception have the same effect on individuals outcomes. Additionally, the strength of predictor variable will vary depending on the depending variable.

This study also heightens the need to examine overall organizational justice. Most of the multi-level studies on organizational justice focus on distributive, procedural, or informational (e.g., Nauman & Bennett, 2002). There is limited information on the overall organizational justice perceptions. However, this study tries to bridge this gap in the literature. The results indicate that overall justice will can have direct influence on various outcome variables. Specifically, justice had a strong influence on psychological ownership and LMXSC. Additionally moderation effects were not significant, this was surprising, but it was not unexpected because justice is a complex variable and the direct relationship justice has with other variables is too strong to capture the variance. When both of the outcomes are included in the model job satisfaction becomes insignificant.

There are other interpretations for the non-significant moderation results. One possibility is that I did not capture Overall justice at higher levels; therefore, not capturing the true effect. Individuals perceived that the organization was fair and groups were also perceived fair treatment from the organization. In effect, there is a possibility that the effects for a moderation are only generated when the sample has both low levels and high levels of justice perception in the sample. Unfortunately, in this study this was not the case.

Another reason for the lack of statistical significance for justice is the effect that it has at every level of the organization (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2002). Justice has become an expected experience rather than an extraordinary norm (e.g., Cascio, 2003), that the propositions for justice may not hold completely true. I integrated both an attachment and social comparison theories and proposed that in unfair environments, employees and groups have greater sensitivity to the influence of leadership. Based on attachment theory, the assumption that close contact must be constant, but if employees are used to high levels of fairness individually and in their groups, the expectation may be hindered overall.

5.2 Implications for Theory and Practice

My study contributes to both theory and practice in various areas by integrating leadership, embeddedness and ownership (e.g., Van Knippenburg, & De Cremer, 2008). By examining a multi-level effect of overall justice within an attachment model. Within my model I tried to answer the how and why queries proposed by a variety of leadership researchers (e.g., Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Yukl, 2009), therefore, I contribute to the understanding of leadership. By examining LMXSC as an important antecedent to job embeddedness, job satisfaction, and psychological ownership. I further contribute to the leadership research, by exploring multi-level effects of justice that might inform LMX theory in terms of the complexity of the LMX-justice relationship and how it affects both individuals and groups.

As one of the first to examine the relationship between LMXSC and psychological ownership and the one for the first to consider the implication from job embeddedness. This study therefore contributes to the burgeoning research streams of job embeddedness and LMXSC. The literature has begun to expand the nomological network for LMXSC, embeddedness and ownership, but there is still a great deal left to explore. For instance, from an

ownership perspective, leadership has only focused on ethical (Avey et al., 2012) and transformational leadership (Ghafoor, Quereshi, Khan, & Hijazi, 2011). There is still other leadership processes that are unknown. The results of this thesis add to the understanding of extant literature on LMXSC, but also how it impacts attitudinal outcomes.

Within this thesis, I try to address calls for understanding leadership and justice models. Recent literature has shown that different leadership style are important antecedent from justice perceptions at the individual level (e.g., Cho & Danseareau, 2010) and at a group level (e.g., Ansari, Hung, & Aafaqi, 2007). Most of this research is limited to the direct influence that leadership has, but does not take into consideration the inverse relationship that justice perceptions might have on leadership. I hypothesized that LMXSC works as an antecedent for job embeddedness. For the most part my study support the premise. Taken as a whole, this thesis provides an understanding form the relationship of LMXSC and group level overall justice and begins to develop an overall attachment model.

The practical implications of this study are important for managers and employees alike. Managers should note that subordinates create comparative assessments of their relationship with the manager compared to others. Employees seek a closer relationship with their supervisor, and when the manager treats everyone the same, it can result in negative consequences (Sias, 1996). In sum, this implies that managers should understand how comparisons are being made and pay greater attention to the work environment. Managers can influence their employees' perception by directly informing them that they are trusted and special employees. This confirmation might allow these employees to be more motivated because of the perception of having a high-quality relationship with their manager.

5.3 Limitations and Strengths

With respect to most of organizational research, there are boundaries when interpreting the results. This study was conducted in a cross-sectional manner and with very limited controls, thus limiting causal inferences that can be made about the relationships in my model. The main goal for this study was to provide some understanding leadership on attitudinal dependent variables. Future research should take into consideration a longitudinal design to capture the effects of time. In addition, a better causal effect can be determined from the longitudinal design. The uncontrolled design could be considered as hindering factor, but it could be difficult to be reproduced within a lab. Although, the data collection could be considered a limitation, in the case of this study it could also be considered a strength because data was collected in a natural state.

Another possible limitation is the lack of control variables at the group level. I did not gather information such as organizational size, performance or culture. Klein and Kozlowski (2000) argue that through a systems approach individuals should be considered as nested within a group, which are nested within an organization and society as a whole. Within this study, the aim was to explore the impact that LMXSC and overall justice have on individuals and group levels. Similarly to Spell and Arnold (2007) which found that group level variable impacted individual perceptions. Another strength of this study is that I collected data from a wide variety of organizations, positions and types of industries. This sample increases the generalizability of outcomes. Future studies are necessary to parse outcome other organizational effects (such as organizational structure or climate proposed by Spell and Arnold (2007)). Future studies should test my model within one organization so that the effects of organizational variables are controlled, but the impact of different organizational variables can be individually assessed.

Another limitation of this thesis is that all variables (except for the group level overall organizational justice) were collected from a single source. It could be argued that common method variance could confound the studies model (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Another study by Johnson, Rosen, Djurdjevic (2010), using a Monte Carlo analysis, showed that even in a multi-level study common variance could exist. The SEM and multi-level analyses utilized in this are thought to alleviate some of the confounding effects of single source data. This analyses allow group level and within level variance are analyzed separately with each variable utilizing “latent variable decomposition approach” (Hoffman et al., 2011).

A strength of this study is separating the variance at each level of analysis and understanding the multi-level impact of overall organizational justice. Past research has shown that justice variables influence other variables at multiple levels (e.g., Avolio et al., 2003; Greenberg, 2011), even though there has been a growing number of studies that study the interaction between justice and leadership at multiple levels (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2011). The current study provides interesting results that provide evidence on the complexity of justice-leadership relationship.

5.4 Future Research Directions

On the one hand, the results provide given indications of the impact that group level justice has on individual level variables. While on the other hand, the results give rise to future avenues for research. The first avenue for further research involves examining the multi-level model for other leadership styles (e.g., servant leadership) and different justice dimensions (e.g., distributive justice). This thesis was created from previous research which demonstrates a direct

relationship between justice and different leadership styles such as LMX (e.g., Erdogan et al., 2006), ethical leadership (Brown et al., 2013), and authentic leadership (Kiersch, 2013).

Although justice has been implicated with different leadership styles, there is still a burgeoning stream of research that needs to be explored at multiple levels. Future research should include LMXSC along with other styles of leaderships such as authentic and servant styles of leadership which have shown significant influence on justice.

Another direction for future research involves including other moderating factors. The moderating effect of justice on the LMXSC-embeddedness relationship was not significant. As discussed above, the non-significant results might have been caused from a number of factors, for instance, limited variance range in the justice variable. For this reason, future research should include the different justice dimensions.

5.5 Conclusion

LMX is grounded on the idea that through reciprocity, individuals create relationships. Nonetheless, the current literature often neglects the innate feelings that employees develop through the development of relationships. I incorporate social comparisons and attachment theories to examine how employees become attached to the organization. Our goal was to test the basic premise of attachment theory by showing that employees' leader relationship quality comparisons (LMXSC) strengthen the link with both the manager and the organization. I recommend that future studies integrate a longitudinal design to examine more causal relationships associated with leadership/employee relations. The work related to this area has shown promise for future research.

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Appendix

Appendix A. Survey Environment

My name is Saul Valdiviezo and I am currently a Ph.D. student at the University of Texas at El Paso. I am currently in the process of completing my Ph.D. in Management and would like to ask you for your help. Provided in the next pages is a survey for my dissertation that deals with perceptions of employees of their manager and the organization. And how these perceptions affect different outcomes for employees. It is a 15-20 min survey with details attached within. This is a completely voluntary and confidential study and I ask for your help in filling it out.

If you have any questions please feel free to contact me via email (srvaldiviezo@miners.utep.edu) or by cell phone at 915-383-0017.

Thank you for your time.

Saul Valdiviezo

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Department of Management
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The following statements ask about the organization your work for. Please write your answer on the number on corresponding space, your response will range from Strongly Disagree to Strong Agree.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Moderately Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Moderately Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
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Overall, I'm treated fairly by my organization
In general, I can count on this organization to be fair
In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair
Usually, the way things work in this organization are not / fair.
For the most part, this organization treats its employees / fairly.
Most of the people who work here would say they are often treated / unfairly.

Appendix B. Individual Perceptions

My name is Saul Valdiviezo and I am currently a Ph.D. student at the University of Texas at El Paso. I am currently in the process of completing my Ph.D. in Management and would like to ask you for your help. Provided in the next pages is a survey for my dissertation that deals with perceptions of employees of their manager and the organization. And how these perceptions affect different outcomes for employees. It is a 15-20 min survey with details attached within. This is a completely voluntary and confidential study and I ask for your help in filling it out.

If you have any questions please feel free to contact me via email (srvaldiviezo@miners.utep.edu) or by cell phone at 915-383-0017.

Thank you for your time.

Saul Valdiviezo

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The following statements ask about your job. Please write your answer on the number on corresponding space, your response will range from Strongly Disagree to Strong Agree

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Moderately Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Moderately Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
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1		I am satisfied with the level of my pay.
2		I am satisfied with my level of job security.
3		I am satisfied with the social aspects of my job.
4		I am satisfied with the person who supervises my work.
5		I am satisfied with the amount I am learning from my work.

The following statements ask about the organization your work for. Please write your answer on the number on corresponding space, your response will range from Strongly Disagree to Strong Agree.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Moderately Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Moderately Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
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1		It is hard for me to think about this organization as MINE.
2		Most of the people that work for this organization feel as though / they own the company.
3		This is MY organization.
4		I sense that this organization is OUR company.
5		I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this / organization.
6		I sense that this is MY company.
7		This is OUR company.
8		I feel attached to this organization.
9		It would be difficult for me to leave this organization.
10		I'm too caught up in this organization to leave.
11		I feel tied to this organization.
12		I simply could not leave the organization that I work for.
13		It would be easy for me to leave this organization.
14		I am tightly connected to this organization.

The following states ask about your supervisor.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Moderately Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Moderately Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
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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 he/she enjoys the company of other group members.

The following statements ask about you. This section asks questions that will be used to describe the general characteristics of the survey participants.

What is your current age?

<input type="checkbox"/>	18-28
<input type="checkbox"/>	29-38
<input type="checkbox"/>	39-48
<input type="checkbox"/>	49-58
<input type="checkbox"/>	59 and above

Please select your ethnicity (you can select multiple).

<input type="checkbox"/>	White or Caucasian
<input type="checkbox"/>	Mexican
<input type="checkbox"/>	Mexican/American
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other Hispanic Group

<input type="checkbox"/>	African American
<input type="checkbox"/>	Native American
<input type="checkbox"/>	Asian
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other Group

What is your gender?

What is your employment status?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female
<input type="checkbox"/>	Full-Time	<input type="checkbox"/>	Part-Time

What is the name of organization where you work?

What is your current position?

How long have you worked for the organization?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Months
<input type="checkbox"/>	Years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Months
<input type="checkbox"/>	Years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Months

How long have you worked in your current position?

How long have you reported to your current supervisor?

What is your highest level of education?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Less Than High School
<input type="checkbox"/>	Some High School, no diploma
<input type="checkbox"/>	High Graduate or equivalent
<input type="checkbox"/>	Some College
<input type="checkbox"/>	Trade School, Technical or vocational Training
<input type="checkbox"/>	Associate's degree
<input type="checkbox"/>	Bachelor's degree
<input type="checkbox"/>	Master's degree
<input type="checkbox"/>	Doctorate degree

Thanks for the help! I really appreciate it.

Vita

Saul Valdiviezo is originally from Mexico. He earned his B.B.A. and M.Acc. in Accounting from the University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP). He went on to pursue his Ph. D. in Business Administration with a concentration in Management at UTEP. During his doctoral studies, Saul also worked as assistant instructor for marketing and management department. He has contributed to research through conferences and publishing journal articles. His research and teaching interest include organizational behavior, leadership, human resources, international management and managerial accounting. Saul will become part of the business faculty at Springfield College as an Assistant Professor of Management.

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This dissertation was typed by Saul Valdiviezo.